

## CHAPTER 3

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# Diagnostic Imaging Techniques in Lung Cancer

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### ABSTRACT

Bronchi carcinoma is a leading malignancy across the world which can even cause death. The assessment data of disease revealed that the percentage of carcinoma mortality in men (32%) and in females (25%) is evolving due to this kind of carcinoma. In the Western world, it leads to deaths that are higher when compared to other types of carcinomas such as cancer of the colon, prostate, pancreas, and chest. Keeping this in mind, the patient's management of lung cancer and initial stage detection relatively than at a symptomatic progressive stage is indispensable. Imperative measurements should be taken by radiologists and they need to know the ideologies of staging and review of this disease. Methods such as X-ray, computed tomography (CT), conventional chest radiography, positron emission tomography (PET), and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) are used nowadays for the recognition and characterization of this disease. Lung cancer staging can also be determined by this type of cancer. Amid this, the CT scan is found to be a boon as it can provide detailed information about cancer and the growth of the tumor. It also provides information on the presence of enlarged lymph nodes along with prevailing metastatic disease. Moreover, emerging molecular approaches like next-generation

sequencing and companion diagnosis, which facilitate the growth of innovative cancer medication, along with biopsy for novel therapeutic applications, can hasten the advancement of new lung carcinoma imaging techniques. This chapter will explore various diagnostic methods utilized for staging and diagnosing lung cancer.

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

Bronchus carcinoma is a ubiquitous disease with common occurrence and global mortality. The percentage of cancer deaths in males and females stand at 32% and 25%, respectively, due to this type of carcinoma compared to others such as colon, breast, and prostate [1–2]. Lung cancer can affect different parts of the bronchial tree and displays varied signs and indications dependent on its anatomic location. High-range patients with lung cancer were observed with advanced stage. Therefore, it is indispensable to identify the disease at an early stage for the management of patients rather than at a symptomatic stage, that is, stage III or IV (Figure 3.1) [3]. Different types of advanced diagnostic techniques are developed nowadays. These techniques play an imperative role in detecting the disease at a primary stage and in understanding the level of disease which can lead to initial and good treatment for the patient. It is necessary to recognize the principles of staging and review of this disease as the choice of treatment including surgery, radiotherapy, or chemotherapy will fully depend on the results obtained from the diagnostic techniques. Various techniques, including X-ray, computed tomography (CT), conventional chest radiography, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), and positron emission tomography (PET), are commonly used in cancer treatment. This chapter will outline the utilization of these diagnostic techniques for staging and analyzing lung cancer [4].

### **3.2 CLASSIFICATION OF BRONCHI CARCINOMA**

The classification of lung cancer based on anatomic site is mentioned in the following subsections.

#### **3.2.1 ADENOCARCINOMA**

Adenocarcinoma is a peripheral lung cancer that signifies 31% of all lung cancers. This type of carcinoma includes bronchoalveolar carcinoma

that arises from the submucosal gland. It is the prevailing carcinoma commonly found in young women and antismokers [5]. The description suggests a parenchymal nodule measuring 4 cm, resembling a mass with a diameter exceeding 3 cm. In CT studies, it reveals localized ground glass opacity which rises gradually and prevails metastasis to the liver, bone, and nervous system. Appearance of a solid mass can also be observed which grows more rapidly [6–8].

### **3.2.2 BRONCHOALVEOLAR CARCINOMA**

This type of carcinoma is categorized under adenocarcinoma and is found in 2–10% among all primary lung cancers. Both carcinomas can infiltrate the lymph node. The metastasis can be seen in the liver, bone, nervous system adrenal glands, and mostly parts of both lungs due to this carcinoma. Variable observations can be visualized out of which two presentations are mainly observed one is a focal solitary peripheral nodule. This observation can be mainly seen with non-mucinous tumors. The bubble-like zones of small surrounding mass are a typical finding on CT. Lung adenocarcinomas are also associated with sub-solid lesions.

The other types of carcinomas included in this class are:

1. adenocarcinoma *in situ* (AIS)
2. Minimally invasive carcinoma (MIA)
3. Epidemic predominant adenocarcinoma (LPA) [9, 10].

### **3.2.3 ADENOCARCINOMA AND SQUAMOUS CELL CARCINOMA (ADENOSQUAMOUS CARCINOMA)**

This type of carcinoma signifies 2% of the existing lung carcinomas. An unusual biphasic malignant tumor is discovered with adenocarcinoma and squamous cell carcinoma. This carcinoma is detected in less than 10% of patients identified with lung cancer. This can be identified by the presence of a solitary, peripheral nodule. Fifty percent can be observed by the presence of scars of parenchyma nearby to the tumor. This type of carcinoma is identified in less than 10% of lung cancer diagnoses. It may manifest as a solitary peripheral nodule, and in about 50% of cases, adjacent parenchymal scars can be observed near the tumor [11–13].

### **3.2.4 SQUAMOUS CELL CARCINOMA**

This type signifies 30% of lung carcinomas. This carcinoma grows from bronchial epithelium and is connected to cigarette smoking. These tumors can grow more than 4 cm in diameter and are located centrally within the lung, 82% cavitation can be seen. Their central placement and occurrence result in segmental or lobar lung collapse. Pancoast syndrome or superior sulcus syndrome is a common cause of adeno-squamous carcinoma [14, 15].

### **3.2.5 SMALL CELL LUNG CANCER (SCLC)**

SCLC signifies 18% among other carcinomas of the lungs. This carcinoma frequently existed with massive hilar and masses of mediastinal lymph nodes. Cavitation can be rarely seen. SCLC is the malignant end of a range of neuroendocrine carcinomas of the lung, with less aggressive carcinoids representing the more benign end of the spectrum. A hallmark sign of SCLC is the presence of a mass forming on the hilum, and the tumor may demonstrate invasion into the mediastinum [16, 17].

### **3.2.6 CARCINOID TUMOR**

A carcinoid tumor signifies 1% of the existing lung carcinomas. In the lungs, carcinoid tumors are classified into two main types: typical and atypical carcinoid tumors. Typical carcinoid tumors are usually smaller in size and have a good prognosis. Atypical carcinoid tumors, while still low-grade, tend to grow slightly faster and have a higher likelihood of metastasis compared to typical carcinoids. The diagnosis of carcinoma can be done by histological analysis. Early metastases can develop in the mediastinum and brain by this type of carcinoma [14, 18, 19].

### **3.2.7 LARGE CELL CARCINOMA**

It constitutes roughly 9% of lung carcinomas and is frequently linked to smoking. This form of non-SCLC is known by poor differentiation upon histological analysis, typically after ruling out adenocarcinoma or

squamous cell carcinoma. Contemporary to its potential for rapid growth, large cell carcinoma tends to metastasize early, with a preference for spreading to the mediastinum and brain. Early detection and intervention are essential in managing this aggressive form of lung cancer. There appears as a modification taking place in the existence of the designated histological subtypes. Large cell carcinoma can also cause large-volume hilar and mediastinal lymph node enlargement [20–21].

### 3.3 DIAGNOSTIC IMAGING TECHNIQUES IN LUNG CANCER

Normally used techniques for the finding of lung cancer can be sputum cytology and bronchoscopy. The imaging methods can be sometimes found to be inadequate in such cases, though imaging has an imperative role in knowing the staging of these lesions. Imaging contributes a vital part to the treatment along with the supervision of patients with carcinomas. Additionally, it helps in understanding the mechanism and staging of cancer. The variable imaging practices including radiography, conventional X-ray scanning, CT scanning, MRI, and FDG-PET have made an important contribution to it.

### 3.4 CHEST X-RAY (CXR) SCANNING

The main investigative method used in the workup of suspected lung cancer is the CXR. This procedure has been widely employed in the past because of its wide accessibility, technical feasibility, minimal danger, and budget friendly. If a worrisome lesion is found, further thorough morphological data is essential. Lung carcinoma can be present in central or peripheral masses or as areas of chronic airspace disease in the case of *in situ* adenocarcinomas. Rapid identification and intervention are crucial when dealing with large cell carcinoma categorized under NSCLC known for its aggressive nature and propensity to metastasize early to mediastinum and brain. Histological assessment plays a vital part in diagnosing this type of cancer, primarily by discerning its limited differentiation, usually following the exclusion of adenocarcinoma or squamous cell carcinoma. These signs along with findings may alert the radiologist to the utmost care and treatment of patients.

An expansion of the mediastinal profile on CXR indicates the presence of mediastinal involvement in central neoplasia. CXR is unable to evaluate additional aspects, such as superior vena cava or phrenic nerve intrusion. Most asymptomatic lung neoplasms manifest as solitary or peripheral nodules with edges that are either well-defined or speculated. Air curves and interior nodularity are also occasionally seen. When rib erosions are absent, CXR is unable to distinguish between benign and malignant tumors. Even if pleural effusions are detected, this does not provide information on whether the lesion is benign or malignant [23].

### **3.4.1 COMPUTED TOMOGRAPHY SCANNING**

Chest imaging with CT scanning is the second major modality. It makes use of X-ray equipment and computers to provide internal body images. This method, which rotates around the patient's whole body to capture many photographs of them, is an improvement over the traditional X-ray procedure. Previously, a CT scan of the chest was done using a traditional technique based on the stop-and-go approach, which involved taking several cross-sectional slices while the patient was not breathing. Following this, a more recent variant known as helical CT surfaced, which generates a single volumetric dataset in a single breath-hold. However, multidetector CT was developed recently. This method offers better multiplanar reconstruction (MPR) picture quality by enabling continuous assessment across narrow slices. Indeed, the probability of a nodule being cancerous increases significantly as its size grows. Forty percent of nodules whose size is 2 cm or less are malignant, whereas those that are higher than 2 cm are classified as malicious. Peripheral pulmonary cancers habitually present with speculated boundaries, ill-defined appearance, and significant indications of malignancy when thin sections are performed [24–26]. Even though tender nodules frequently have leveled edges and an unevenly spherical shape, up to 20% of these lesions may be cancerous; yet this look is not specific for identifying malignancy. Smooth margins are very common in metastatic carcinomas. Some nodules' internal features may be useful for analysis. Timely identification and intervention are crucial in addressing large cell carcinoma categorized under NSCLC pigeonholed by its aggressive nature besides its propensity for early metastasis to the mediastinum and brain. Histological evaluation plays a pivotal role in diagnosing this

form of cancer, often by recognizing its limited differentiation features after ruling out adenocarcinoma or squamous cell carcinoma. In addition, air bronchograms can be seen in lesions that are fibrotic, post-inflammatory, or actively inflammatory. Dilated bronchi are frequently linked to fibrotic lesions (i.e., traction bronchiectasis). Although benign lesions, especially those involving inflammation and infection, such as lung eruptions or active granulomatous contaminations, might cavitate, malignant nodules are often more likely to do so. The cavity wall's thickness might be useful in segregating between benign and malignant tumors. If the cavity wall is less than 1 mm, all of them are benign, and if the cavity wall is less than 5 mm, 95% of them are as well. Another crucial factor in malignancy is size. A lesion greater than 3 cm is quite expected to be cancerous. In addition to the previously mentioned methods, a more recent CT technique known as a low-dose CT scan has been developed and is utilized for detecting changes in lung nodules and screening for lung cancer. An important aspect of this technique is that the dose of radiation is five times lower as compared to regular CT scan [27, 28].

### **3.4.2 COMPUTED TOMOGRAPHY DENSITOMETRY (CTD)**

For single nodules or lesions, CTD is used to identify the presence and distribution of fat and calcification. When detecting calcification, CT is more sensitive than traditional examinations. On CT scanning, 22–38% of nodules that are uncalcified in typical investigations show up as calcified. It is frequently possible to visually verify the existence of calcification by closely examining the picture, or by dragging a cursor over the lesion to produce a pixel-gram. It is necessary to print out every CT scan number that appears in pixels of scans by the abrasions. The presence of calcification is marked by values that are larger, that is,  $> 200$ . A calcified nodule must be of the central, diffuse, laminar, or popcorn benign types to be diagnosed as benign. Ten percent or so of tumors have eccentric or stippled calcification. Even when calcium is present, specular nodules or bigger nodules that are 3 cm in width or greater are not advised to treat as benign because of the increased risk of malignancy. An anthropomorphic phantom was created in the middle of the 1980s to improve CT densitometry accuracy [29].

### **3.4.3 CONTRAST ENHANCEMENT**

Malignant lesions often enlarge with the introduction of contrast material. Hamartoma: a single nodule by low diminution core is shown in the right lung on a narrow CT scan (<1.5 mm). In the scanning images, a group of values equivalent to fat diminution may be seen individually in the pixel of the lesion. Lung nodule's sequential thin-section scans of a core are necessary for the contrast enhancement procedure, and they can be performed up to 4 min after the contrast injection. Thirty-one percent of the 163 participants in the original research showed maximal nodule enlargement at 3 or 4 min. The optimal configuration for helical CT scanning involves using a collimation of at least 3 mm and a pitch value of 1. This setup ensures sharper images with improved clarity and reduced scatter radiation. A pitch of 1 guarantees uniform coverage of the scanned area without any overlap between image slices, while maintaining efficient scan speed. Overall, this configuration provides high-resolution images suitable for accurate diagnosis across various medical applications. Hounsfield unit measurements are acquired via a solitary area of interest encompassing around 60% of the nodule's diameter. While most benign lesions tend to enhance more than carcinomas, some infectious lesions, active granulomas, and rarely certain benign tumor-like hamartomas can also enhance. An enhancement of 20 or more HU was employed in the pulmonary nodule investigation to extricate between malignant and benign tumors. Swenson et al. presented a multicenter prospective study involving 356 nodules to investigate contrast enhancement. The cancer diagnosis achieved a sensitivity of 98% and a specificity of 73%. These nodules, which did not contain calcification or fat, were uniformly round and solid, with diameters ranging from 5 to 40 mm. Prior to and after administering contrast material intravenously, all patients underwent CT scans with 3-mm collimation. Scans capturing the nodules were obtained at 1, 2, 3, and 4 min after the start of contrast injection. Time attenuation curves and peak net nodule enhancement were examined. Forty-eight percent of cases were malignant. The findings indicated that when utilizing a threshold of 15 Hounsfield units (HU) the study revealed that sensitivity stood at 98%, specificity at 58%, and accuracy at 78%. The researchers decided that a powerful predictor of benignity in CT scanning is the lack of notable lung nodule enhancement (15 HU). This approach yields a low false-negative rate, which may be useful in patient management. By using this method, malignant tumors are

not mistakenly identified as benign ones. Radiologic monitoring alone can be used to treat a non-enhancing lung nodule. Enhancing nodules that are linked to a higher risk of cancer can be removed surgically or treated with a biopsy. The specificity of this method is poor. To confirm malignancy in enhancing lesions, more diagnostic testing, a biopsy, or surgical excision may be necessary. The fact that nodules frequently develop unevenly is one of the method's challenges. Significant distinctions between the enhanced patterns of benign and malignant nodules were shown by Zhang and Kono. In their investigation, malignant tumors primarily displayed homogenous or heterogeneous postcontrast scans with thin collimation, whereas benign nodules usually exhibited no enhancement or merely peripheral enhancement. When the lesion is less than 2 cm, this approach is most beneficial. Areas of necrosis and related inhomogeneous enhancement are more common in larger lesions. To ensure proper monitoring of each of these tests, the approach also necessitates meticulous attention to detail and the availability of radiologists [30–32].

#### **3.4.4 MAGNETIC RESONANCE IMAGING (MRI)**

MRI is fetching attention widely and there is such a strong demand for MRI scanning times that it is often reserved for situations where administering contrast material is not advised. Because MRI may identify invasion of important mediastinal structures, such as T4 disease, it can distinguish between stage IIIa (resectable) and IIIb (usually unresectable) tumors more accurately than CT in some individuals [33]. The improved multiplanar imaging and soft tissue contrast capabilities of MRI make it preferable to CT for assessing anomalies and superior sulcus tumors. It is well established that tumor growth rates and aggressiveness are correlated with FDG uptake. FDG uptake can be evaluated semi-quantitatively using computed standardized uptake ratios or visually on PET images. PET scanning has a 96% sensitivity, 88% specificity, and 94% accuracy rate when it comes to identifying cancer in localized pulmonary opacities with lesions larger than 10 mm. Nevertheless, PET's lower spatial resolution as compared to CT makes it unsuitable for precise anatomical evaluation of the main tumor state. Positive fallacy histoplasmosis, rheumatic lung disease, and tuberculous infection can all show up as PET-positive lung conditions. Carcinoid tumors, bronchoalveolar cancer, and abrasions larger than 10

mm can all result in false negative results [36]. When it comes to detecting or ruling out mediastinal nodal metastases, PET is more precise than CT: has a sensitivity ranging from 65 to 100% and 50 to 65%, correspondingly, while its specificities are 81–100% and 59–94%. When CT staging was compared with PET, PET demonstrated enhanced or reduced nodal staging in 21% of presurgical patients. When PET and CT results were shared in a trial including 50 patients, the sensitivity increased to 93%, specificity to 97%, and accuracy to 96% in identifying mediastinal nodal illness. In patients chosen for curative resection, 11–14% had occult extrathoracic metastases detected by PET, which changed the course of treatment in up to 40% of instances. A recent study involving 100 patients found that full-body PET staging of bronchogenic carcinoma was superior to conservative imaging (including thoracic imaging, bone scintigraphy, brain CT, or magnetic resonance) in 83% of cases. PET correctly evaluates NSCLC in relation to the pathological stage. In traditional imaging, the percentage was 65%. Despite conventional imaging failing to detect metastases in 10% of patients, PET identified nine individuals whose metastases were missed. PET demonstrated superior sensitivity and specificity compared to bone scintigraphy in detecting bone metastases. Additionally, PET showed a positive 100% predictive value for adrenal deposits, whereas conventional imaging had a value of only 43%. The method's poor performance in identifying brain metastases (with a sensitivity of 60%) led the authors to suggest sticking with traditional imaging methods for regular brain staging. Patients whose mediastinal PET results are found to be negative can proceed to surgical removal of the causal lesion. This decision was based on the fact that PET has a negative predictive value of 96% for N3 disease, equivalent to mediastinoscopy. Other authors have recommended this strategy. However, to exclude false positives, positive PET results require a nodular tissue biopsy guided by areas of increased FDG uptake. Sarcoidosis, inflammation, infection, and hyperplasia are among the causes. The primary drawbacks of PET are its scarcity and the comparatively high expense of each test. With a pretest chance of 0.12–0.69 for a malignant nodule, decision analysis models suggest that the best practical and economical approach to managing patients with localized pulmonary lesions is to employ both CT and PET imaging in tandem. PET appears to be superior to traditional tests in identifying recurring lung cancer and in differentiating between fibrotic scars and persistent or recurrent tumors. Delaying the test until four or five weeks after radiation is advised because

false-positive studies might happen because of post-irradiation inflammatory changes. A recent study using Depreotide, a  $^{99m}\text{Tc}$ -labeled somatostatin analog, investigated the usage of single photon emission CT in 114 patients with single lung nodules measuring  $< 6$  cm diameter. This method demonstrated a sensitivity of 97% and a specificity of 73% helps to distinguish between benign and malignant nodules. These outcomes may be achieved with a typical gamma camera and are equivalent to FDG-PET imaging [37, 38].

### **3.4.5 MAGNETIC RESONANCE IMAGING CONTRAST**

Additionally, MRI enhancement might be useful in segregating benign and malignant peripheral lung nodules. Kono et al. showed that whereas granulomas only improve their signal intensity by 23%, lung malignancies enhanced with a normal rise in signal intensity in research including 18 peripheral nodules. However, it is significant to note that the patients analyzed with this dataset were restricted, and only well-formed granulomas among benign lesions were examined. Even with the use of contrast enhancement, the overlap in signal strength between malignant and benign solitary pulmonary nodules presents challenges to the effectiveness of MRI in evaluating these nodules [39].

### **3.4.6 POSITRON EMISSION TOMOGRAPHY**

To assess patients' ailing lung carcinomas, PET using FDG is a helpful imaging method. It is a glucose correspondent that comes under PET-18. Most malignant tumors have elevated glucose metabolism. Tumor cell uptake of FDG is greater than normal lung tissue due to its metabolic activity. FDG is, therefore, very sensitive in identifying cancerous tumors [40].

PET was formerly limited to facilities that have a cyclotron on site. Many third-party payors have authorized PET imaging for lung cancer payment, FDG is currently available for commercial distribution. A newer method for assessing isolated pulmonary nodules and other focused lung abnormalities is PET with fluorodeoxyglucose. Standard uptake values (SUVs) equal to or exceeding 2.53 reported lung cancer detection sensitivities have varied from 83 to 100%, with specificities ranging from 63 to 90% [42, 43]. However, false negative findings can arise in cases of

small nodules  $< 1$  cm in width, as well as cancers with slight metabolic activity such as carcinoid tumors and bronchioloalveolar carcinoma [44, 45]. Additionally, studies involving benign nodules or abrasions with higher metabolic rates, that is, those associated with active inflammation developments, may yield false-positive results [46]. Conditions like sarcoidosis, infectious granulomas, and various infections can contribute to false-positive findings. In clinical practice, the negative value of a PET study can be considered valuable. For patients with isolated lung lesions showing insignificant FDG uptake, a negative result strongly suggests a benign anomaly and may warrant follow-up [47, 48]. While positive projecting value is lesser and this type of lesion often needs biopsy, in patients whose age is more than 60. The interpretation of FDG-PET results can be considered the individual patient's clinical probability of having lung cancer, as well as other radiological features of the local lesions. These features include the growth rate, morphological characteristics, and whether contrast material was used during the scan [49].

### **3.5 STAGING OF LUNG CANCER**

An assessment of the ailment's severity is the first step in the staging of any tumor. The collection of patients who may get an advantage from clinical resection is the sole compelling argument for staging. Prediction of disease can also be confirmed by the staging of disease. International Staging System for Lung Cancer recently underwent revisions to the way the tumor, nodes, and metastases (TNM) subgroups are grouped for staging. The new classification will better identify people with comparable prognoses and treatment options. Patients in the III and IV stages cannot be benefited from surgical resection. These individuals exhibit large tumors locally (classified as T4), metastases to contralateral or supraclavicular lymph nodes (classified as N3), or distant metastases (classified as M1). T4 tumors embrace those linked with widespread pleural metastases or malignant pleural effusion, as well as those that infiltrate key mediastinal tissues such as the heart, aerodigestive tract, major arteries, and vertebrae. Technically respectable tumors are categorized as T3 and include local invasions of the parietal pleura and walls of the chest. MRI and CT scanning lung cancer have been staged using a variability of imaging methods [50, 51]. MRI and conventional radiography have been among these

modalities. In many instances, surgical staging is often necessary, but in some illustrations, precise staging and selection of suitable treatment for patients can be accomplished non-invasively using imaging approaches alone. Currently, CT scanning is the ideal way of imaging for assessing cancer. It might be used to determine best surgical staging techniques and aid as a guide for surgical care. FDG-PET is nowadays becoming essential in lung cancer staging. Numerous studies show its pre-eminence over CT scanning for staging mediastinal nodal involvement. In contrast, full-body PET imaging allows for comprehensive staging of both intrathoracic and extrathoracic disease with solitary examination.

When assessing the prime tumor (T-factor), T4 disease can be detected reliably on CT scanning if certain characteristics like incursion of the heart, encasement, deformation of mediastinal structures, or devastation of a vertebral body near the tumor are present. However, there are instances where CT scanning fails to differentiate between a tumor's proximity to the mediastinum and actual invasion of the walls of critical mediastinal structures.

Helical scanning in the region where the tumor and mediastinum meet is the best method for assessing mediastinal invasion. After contrast is administered, thin slices (around 3 mm collimation) may be acquired, and multiplanar reformatting facilitates a more thorough examination of tumor penetration into surrounding structures [52–56]. Thin sections may be produced from volumetric data using multidetector CT scans, eliminating the requirement for extra scanning of the region of interest. Like CT scanning, MRI has problems when it comes to differentiating between cancer contiguity and true invasion of mediastinal tissues. According to research conducted by the Radiologic Diagnostic Oncology Group, MR scanning was considered to be more precise than CT in identifying mediastinal invasion during the preoperative staging of lung cancer. However, the variance in accuracy was non-significant statistically.

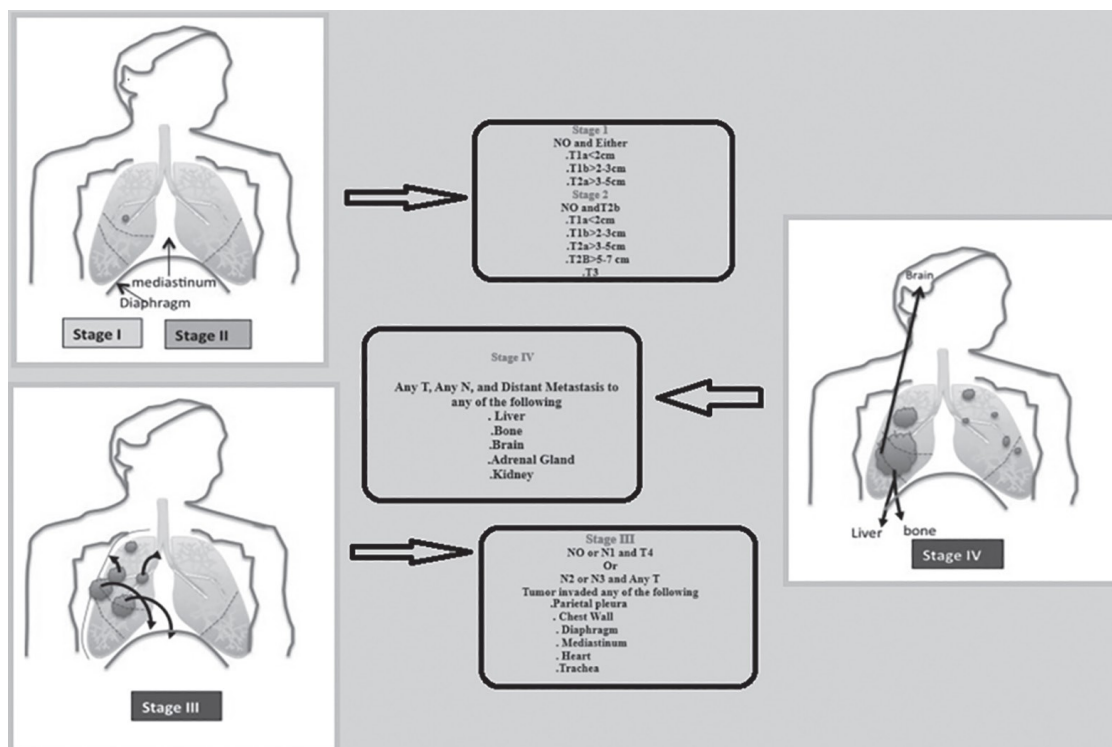
Determining if a cancer has spread via the pulmonary veins into the heart's left atrium or whether the myocardium has been invaded can be done with an MRI. However, helical scanning in CT scanning can yield similar information, especially when two- and three-dimensional reformatting and reconstruction are used. Any size tumor that directly extends into the diaphragm, mediastinal pleura, pericardium, or chest wall without affecting essential mediastinal tissues is classified as a T3 tumor. It may be possible to treat lesions that spread to the parietal pleura or wall of the

chest. However, surgical therapy entails full excision of the adjacent chest wall and the pulmonary malignancy and is linked to a somewhat higher rate of morbidity and death [57–60]. It could be helpful to ascertain whether chest wall invasion is present before surgery when choosing patients to operate on. When determining if there has been a chest wall invasion, CT scanning has minimal utility. The only findings from the CT scan that have a strong positive predictive value are the evident expansion of the mass into the wall of the chest past the ribs or the loss of bone next to the lung mass. Pleural thickening next to the tumor is an indeterminate sign that might result from the tumor invading the parietal pleura or from local fibrous adhesions. The evaluation of respiratory shift, which refers to the movement of the peripheral lung cancer in relation to the wall of the chest during respiration, has been conducted by analyzing expiratory and inspiratory CT scanning images. Such a shift is a good sign that there is no cancer in the lower chest causing parietal pleura invasion. When assessing chest wall invasion, MRI offers a small benefit over CT scanning. Direct tumor expansion may be seen in T1–T2 weighted sequences, and the yield is increased when gadolinium contrast is used. Lung tumors that develop in the very tip of the lung are known as sulcus tumors which are often considered treatable. In many cases, therapy of radiation alone or blended with chemotherapy is utilized for treatment. If no indication of mediastinal or distant metastases is detected, surgery involving excision of the wall of the chest may be performed as the next step. A crucial part of staging these lesions is accurately determining the local extent of the illness and if the brachial plexus and subclavian artery are involved [61–63]. To ascertain the presence, an MRI could be helpful. The CT image displays the mass's expansion into the chest wall's soft tissue as well as the destruction of the ribs. Furthermore, spinal canal invasion can occur due to anterior and pre-vascular adenopathy, which involves tumor extension via the neural foramen, including the epidural space. Regarding the assessment of N-factor in lung cancer, CT is the preferred technique for assessing mediastinal nodes. Precision of CT scanning in staging mediastinal nodal metastases has been extensively investigated. The most useful method for identifying nodal enlargement is CT. Currently, the threshold value of about 1 cm on the short axis is appropriate for a mediastinal node of typical size. Recent investigations have utilized the American Thoracic Society (ATS) lymph node categorization and total nodal sampling methods, which have revealed limited sensitivity for CT

scanning in identifying nodal metastases (41–67%) [64–67]. There is ongoing debate regarding the impact of CT scans in terms of both positive and negative aspects on patient care. According to perspective, individuals who have a CT scan normal may not require mediastinoscopy, as microscopic metastases would likely lead to a better prognosis and potential benefit from surgery. Others argue that the clear diagnostic shortcomings of CT scanning need mediastinoscopy. Mediastinoscopy might not be offered or might not be preferred at certain institutions. When a CT scan indicates that there is no adenopathy and a patient is chosen for thoracotomy right away without undergoing a mediastinoscopy first, cautious nodal sampling needs to be carried out during the procedure. Because enlarged, hyperplastic nodes are often present, especially in cases of central tumors accompanied by obstructive pneumonitis, CT is also related with little specificity (79–86%). The optimal method for biopsying enlarged nodes (such as mediastinoscopy, mediastinotomy, transbronchial needle biopsy, or CT scan-guided transthoracic needle biopsies) may be determined using CT scanning. Moreover, anterior mediastinal and aortopulmonary lymph nodes are inaccessible during mediastinoscopy and can be found using CT scanning. When it comes to identifying metastases from the mediastinal node, MRI is comparable to tomography scanning. In lung cancer, malignant and benign mediastinal nodes have been distinguished using magnetic resonance contrast agents [68, 69]. According to Laissy et al., the dynamic contrast gadolinium-enhanced spin echo images indicate a top augmentation 60–80 s after the original tumor and metastatic nodes. Benign nodes showed no peak or very little amplification. An intriguing experimental method makes use of magnetic resonance lymphography. Supra-paramagnetic iron oxide nanoparticles are introduced during this process. These particles penetrate the vascular endothelium, enter healthy lymph nodes, and are subsequently phagocytized by macrophages and other reticuloendothelial cells. Metastatic lymph nodes retain the same signal intensity after MR scans, whereas lymph nodes that are normal display reduced signals on T2-weighted imaging [70–72]. A clinical assessment is now being conducted for this treatment. Remote metastase imaging has a controlling part in the identification of extrathoracic metastases from lung cancer. Chemical shift imaging in MR images. The left adrenal gland has a sizable metastasis (arrow). The mass's signal strength does not vary in the in (A) or out (B) phase pictures. Due to their fat content, adrenal adenomas show a significant drop in signal strength

in the out-of-phase pictures versatile. Previous research indicates that in the absence of symptoms, positive physical findings, or abnormal chemical markers (such as abnormal liver function tests), imaging is not considered a cost-effective approach for detecting distant metastases. Given that the adrenal glands are the prevailing approach for extrathoracic metastases, upper abdominal imaging should be incorporated into chest CT scans used for lung cancer staging. It is noteworthy that adrenal metastases are detected in approximately 5–10% of cases at the time of initial presentation. However, among adrenal masses detected by scanning through CT in lung cancer patients, around two-thirds are non-cancerous. Adrenal adenomas are a common occurrence, characterized by computed tomographic features such as a diameter < 3 cm and reduction of < 10 HU due to fat content. MRI with chemical shift imaging can aid in distinctive adrenal metastases from adenomas. In specific instances, a biopsy of an enlarged adrenal mass may be required to rule out metastatic disease. With the introduction of helical CT scanning, the liver can be promptly visualized during a thoracic CT scan after the administration of contrast material. This technology offers a handy way to image the liver and chest without any additional cost or effort, albeit its effectiveness has not been shown. The usual test for staging lung cancer is a helical CT of the upper abdomen and chest. Certain situations (e.g., individuals unable to tolerate the contrast material needed for a sufficient CT scanning inspection, and the staging of superior sulcus carcinomas) may benefit from MRI [73, 74]. Recently, PET/CT has shown promise in the staging of lung cancer by enabling the identification of distant metastases and nodal disease. According to many studies, PET imaging has shown that up to 18% of patients who were thought to be treatable had more advanced illnesses. The stated ranges for PET's sensitivity and specificity concerning nodal staging are 76–100% and 82–100%, respectively. Numerous studies have shown that FDG-PET is a better diagnostic tool for nodal disease than CT scanning. In a meta-analysis, PET demonstrated nodal metastases from non-SCLC more accurately than CT scans did in a comparison of the values of 514 patients evaluated between 1994 and 1998 with CT investigations in 2226 patients studied during the same time. The average CT scanning sensitivity and specificity were 60 and 77%, whereas PET's values were 79 and 91%. Wahl et al. showed that PET staging the mediastinum had an 82% sensitivity and an 81% specificity, compared to a 64% sensitivity and a 44% specificity for CT

scanning. In general, PET had a 92% diagnosis accuracy rate, while CT had a 75% accuracy rate. One hundred and two individuals with non-SCLC were investigated by Pieterman et al. PET has a 91% sensitivity and an 86% specificity in identifying mediastinal nodal metastases. The resolution of PET makes it challenging to determine the size of the tumor and the involvement of specific lymph node groups, even if it is still superior to CT scanning for the examination of mediastinal adenopathy. Anatomic correlation still requires CT scanning, and it is clinically helpful to stage intrathoracic nodal metastases using both CT and PET scanning simultaneously. It appears that PET scans are a better non-invasive method of detecting extrathoracic illness. Whole-body PET offers higher overall accuracy than traditional imaging and may simultaneously stage intrathoracic and extrathoracic disease in a single examination. When CT scanning is unable to identify extrathoracic metastases, whole-body PET can identify them in up to 10% of patients and change treatment in up to 40% of instances. Adrenal masses can be assessed by PET, which has 100% reported sensitivities and 80–100% reported specificities. Another typical location for metastatic illness is the bones. Lesions that are missed by traditional research are discovered via PET. According to reports, PET has a sensitivity, specificity, and accuracy of more than 90% for bone metastases [79–81]. However, there are restrictions on how brain metastases may be evaluated with PET. Significant glucose absorption occurs in the normal brain, and metastases may be hard to spot on PET. Brain metastases are difficult to detect with PET (sensitivity of 68%), hence it is not a suitable substitute for CT or MRI. PET has limits when it comes to assessing non-SCLC. Patients with inflammation (such as those with post-obstructive pneumonia) had a decreased positive predictive value for PET. Compared to CT scanning or MRI, PET's poor anatomic resolution makes it less trustworthy for determining the size of the tumor. Additionally, preliminary research has shown that FDG-PET is useful for detecting recurring illnesses and for evaluating the response to radiation and chemo. It has been claimed that PET may detect recurring tumors with a sensitivity of 97–100% and a specificity of 62–100%. Six months to a year following the end of therapy is when scans are most trustworthy. Studies that are falsely positive before then may be caused by hypermetabolic inflammatory alterations [75–80].



**FIGURE 3.1** Diagrammatic representation of the variable stages of lung cancer.

### 3.6 SUMMARY

Carcinoma of the lung is found to be a prevalent condition with a dismal scenario among varied carcinomas. The stage and the survival rate are adversely correlated. The secret to obtaining a surgical cure is early discovery and earlier diagnosis. Currently, the primary radiological technique of assessment is cross-sectional imaging. While chest radiography remains valuable and often provides the initial diagnosis, its inattentiveness causes the evaluation of CT scanning in diagnostic studies today.

Nowadays, there is not much to distinguish between these two (CT and MRI) when it comes to disease staging, even if CT is more widely available and less exclusive. It also plays a vital part in helping patients decide whether to have a lung cancer surgical procedure and reduces the number of needless thoracotomies. On the other hand, although it is less common and less accurate, PET with FDG imaging lung malignancy gives a high understanding of both the analysis of original enmity and disease dissemination. With their increasing sophistication and adaptability, CT scanners are expected to continue being the primary imaging modality for this illness shortly. Thus, imaging modalities aid in the selection of suitable techniques for invasive and surgical operations.

**KEYWORDS**

- **bronchi carcinoma**
- **computed tomography**
- **diagnostic techniques**
- **lung carcinoma**
- **metastatic disease**
- **positron emission tomography**
- **tomography**

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