Policy Number	RAD601.014
Policy Effective Date	11/15/2024

Thermography

Table of Contents
<u>Coverage</u>
Policy Guidelines
<u>Description</u>
Rationale
Coding
References
Policy History

Related Policies (if applicable)
None

Disclaimer

Carefully check state regulations and/or the member contract.

Each benefit plan, summary plan description or contract defines which services are covered, which services are excluded, and which services are subject to dollar caps or other limitations, conditions or exclusions. Members and their providers have the responsibility for consulting the member's benefit plan, summary plan description or contract to determine if there are any exclusions or other benefit limitations applicable to this service or supply. If there is a discrepancy between a Medical Policy and a member's benefit plan, summary plan description or contract, the benefit plan, summary plan description or contract will govern.

Coverage

The use of all forms of thermography is considered experimental, investigational and/or unproven.

Policy Guidelines

None.

Description

Thermography is a noninvasive imaging technique that measures temperature distribution in organs and tissues. The visual display of this temperature information is known as a thermogram. Thermography has been proposed as a diagnostic tool for treatment planning, and for evaluation of treatment effects for a variety of conditions.

Background

Infrared radiation from the skin or organ tissue reveals temperature variations by producing brightly colored patterns on a liquid crystal display. Thermography involves the use of an infrared scanning device and can include various types of telethermographic infrared detector images and heat-sensitive cholesteric liquid crystal systems.

Interpretation of the color patterns is thought to assist in the diagnosis of many disorders such as complex regional pain syndrome (previously known as reflex sympathetic dystrophy), breast cancer, Raynaud phenomenon, digital artery vasospasm in hand-arm vibration syndrome, peripheral nerve damage following trauma, impaired spermatogenesis in infertile men, degree of burns, deep vein thrombosis, gastric cancer, tear-film layer stability in dry-eye syndrome, Frey syndrome, headaches, low back pain, and vertebral subluxation.

Thermography may also assist in treatment planning and procedure guidance by accomplishing the following tasks: identifying restricted areas of perfusion in coronary artery bypass grafting, identifying unstable atherosclerotic plaque, assessing response to methylprednisone in rheumatoid arthritis, and locating high undescended testicles.

Regulatory Status

A number of thermographic devices have been cleared for marketing by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) through the 510(k) process. FDA product codes: LHQ, FXN. Devices with product code LHQ may only be marketed for adjunct use. Devices with product code FXN do not provide a diagnosis or therapy. Examples of these devices are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Thermography Devices Cleared by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration

Device Name	Manufacturer	Clearance Date	510(K) No.
Infrared Sciences Breastscan IR	Infrared Sciences	Feb 2004	K032350
System			
Telethermographic Camera. Series A,	FLIR Systems	Mar 2004	K033967
E, S and P			
Notouch Breastscan	UE Lifesciences	Feb 2012	K113259
WoundVision Scout™	WoundVision	Dec 2013	K131596
AlfaSight 9000 Thermographic	Alfa	Apr 2015	K150457
System™	Thermodiagnostics		
FirstSense Breast Exam®	First Sense Medical	Jun 2016	K160573
Sentinel BreastScan II System	First Sense Medical	Jan 2017	K162767
InTouch Thermal Camera	InTouch	Feb 2019	K181716
	Technologies		
Smile-100 System	Niramai Health	Mar 2022	K212965
	Analytix Private		
	Limited		
ThermPix™ Thermovisual Camera	USA Therm	Apr 2022	K213650

Rationale

This policy has been updated regularly with searches of the PubMed database. The most recent literature review was conducted through July 11, 2023.

Medical policies assess whether a medical test is clinically useful. A useful test provides information to make a clinical management decision that improves the net health outcome. That is, the balance of benefits and harms is better when the test is used to manage the condition than when another test or no test is used to manage the condition.

The first step in assessing a medical test is to formulate the clinical context and purpose of the test. The test must be technically reliable, clinically valid, and clinically useful for that purpose. Medical policies assess the evidence on whether a test is clinically valid and clinically useful. Technical reliability is outside the scope of this policy, and credible information on technical reliability is available from other sources.

Breast Cancer Screening or Diagnosis

Clinical Context and Test Purpose

The purpose of using thermography in individuals undergoing breast cancer screening or diagnosis is to inform decisions on diagnosis and treatment.

The following PICO was used to select literature to inform this policy.

Populations

The relevant population of interest is asymptomatic individuals being screened for breast cancer or individuals undergoing testing to diagnose breast cancer.

Interventions

The intervention of interest is thermography.

Comparators

The following test is currently being used to make decisions about breast cancer diagnosis: mammography.

Outcomes

The outcome of interest for diagnostic accuracy is test validity (i.e., sensitivity, specificity). The primary outcomes of interest for clinical utility are overall survival and breast cancer-specific survival rates.

The potential beneficial outcomes of primary interest in the case of a true-negative would be the avoidance of unnecessary surgery and its associated consequences (e.g., morbidity, mortality, resource utilization, patient anxiety). The potential harms from a false-positive could be inappropriate assessment and improper management of patients with breast malignancies, which could result in the following: inappropriate surgical decisions, high frequency of unnecessary further testing and unnecessary patient anxiety. The potential harms from a false-

negative could be a determination that the patient does not have malignancy, which would lead to a delay in surgery and tumor diagnosis.

The timing for routine screening can be guided by national guidelines on breast cancer screening. The timing for diagnosis would be after an initial screening test or clinical examination.

Study Selection Criteria

For the evaluation of clinical validity of thermography for breast cancer, studies that meet the following eligibility criteria were considered:

- Reported on the accuracy of the marketed version of the technology (including any algorithms used to calculate scores);
- Included a suitable reference standard;
- Patient/sample clinical characteristics were described;
- Patient/sample selection criteria were described.

Clinically Valid

A test must detect the presence or absence of a condition, the risk of developing a condition in the future, or treatment response (beneficial or adverse).

Systematic Reviews

Several systematic reviews of the published literature on the diagnostic accuracy of thermography were identified. A systematic review by Vreugdenburg et al. (2013) identified 8 studies on thermography for diagnosis of breast cancer that included a valid reference standard (e.g., biopsy with histopathologic confirmation). (1) A previous systematic review by Fitzgerald and Berentson-Shaw (2012) identified 6 studies, 1 using thermography for breast cancer screening and the others using thermography to diagnose breast cancer among symptomatic women or those with a positive mammogram. (2) A summary of the characteristics of clinical validity for these systematic reviews is provided in Tables 2a and 2b. A summary of the clinical validity results is provided in Tables 3a and 3b. Study findings were not pooled due to heterogeneity in data reporting and assessment methodology utilized.

Table 2a. Systematic Reviews: Characteristics of Clinical Validity of Thermography in Breast Cancer Screening or Diagnosis

Study	Study Population	Design ^a	Reference Standard	Threshold for Positive Index Test
Vreugdenburg et al. (2013) (1)	For screening studies: • Asymptomatic women with unknown disease status	Diagnostic cross- sectional studies: • Retrospective case- control; sample selection consecutive	Biopsy with histopathologic confirmation	Various

	For diagnostic studies: • Women with suspicious symptoms, suspicious findings on clinical examination or women with an abnormal mammogram	 Prospective cohort; sample selection NR NR cohort; sample selection NR 		
Fitzgerald et al. (2012) (2)	For screening studies: • Asymptomatic women aged 40-65 For diagnostic studies: • Symptomatic women	Screening studies: • Prospective cohort; NR sample selection Diagnostic studies: • NR case control; sample selection NR • NR cohort; sample selection NR	Screening studies: • Mammography Diagnostic studies: • Biopsy with histopathologic confirmation	Various

NR: not reported.

Table 2b. Systematic Reviews: Characteristics of Clinical Validity of Thermography in Breast Cancer Screening or Diagnosis

Canter Screening or Diagnosis					
Study	Timing of Reference	Blinding of Assessors	Comment ^b		
	and Index Tests				
Vreugdenburg	Reference Test Prior	Studies blind	All 8 studies utilized		
et al. (2013)	to Index	to reference:	different measurement		
(1)	Test: 1/8	● Blind: 4/8	scales and cut-off		
		• Not blind: 2/8	scores. Poor reporting		
	Reference Test	• Unclear:2/8	of index and reference		
	During Course of		test timing.		
	Study: 7/8	Studies blind to			
		comparator:			
		• Blind: 2/8			
		• Not blind: 3/8			
		• Unclear:2/8			
		• N/A: 1/8			

^a Note 2 aspects of design: prospective, retrospective or nonconcurrent prospective; sample selection random or consecutive

Fitzgerald et al. (2012) (2)	In screening studies, only patients with positive index test received reference	In all studies, blinding was poorly reported.	Studies utilized various measurement scales and cut-off scores.
	In diagnostic studies, timing of index and reference tests		Thermograms were scored by software, manually, or through a combination of methods.
	poorly reported.		Screening study utilized more than one thermography device. Poor reporting of index and reference test timing.

N/A: not available.

Table 3a. Systematic Reviews: Clinical Validity of Thermography in Breast Cancer Screening or Diagnosis

Study; Subgroup	Initial N	Final N	Excluded	Prevalence
	(Range)	(Range)	N	of Condition
Vreugdenberg et al. (2013) (1)		1,709 (29-	565 (13-	
Diagnostic studies	NR	769)	524)*	NR
Fitzgerald et al. (2012) (2)				
Diagnostic studies	1,224 (63-769)	NR	NR	NR
Fitzgerald et al. (2012) (2)				
Screening studies, at initial				
screening	10,229 (NR)	NR	NR	NR
Fitzgerald et al. (2012) (2)				
Screening studies at 5-yr				
follow-up	10,229 (NR)	NR	NR	NR

N: number; NR: not reported; yr: year.

^b Note other characteristics that could bias or limit relevance such as use of historical data, evolution of technology, or practice setting.

^{*}Only 3/8 studies reported the number of exclude patients in indicated subgroup.

Table 3b. Systematic Reviews: Clinical Validity of Thermography in Breast Cancer Screening or Diagnosis

Study; Subgroup	Clinical Validity (95% Confidence Interval)			
	Sensitivity	Specificity	PPV	NPV
Vreugdenberg et al. (2013) (1)	25-97%	12-85%	24-81%	36-95%
Diagnostic studies				
Fitzgerald et al. (2012) (2)	25-97%	12-85%	24-83%	36-95%
Diagnostic studies				
Fitzgerald et al. (2012) (2)	61%	74%	0.01%	1.00%
Screening studies, at initial				
screening				
Fitzgerald et al. (2012) (2)	28%	74%	0.01%	0.99%
Screening studies at 5-yr				
follow-up				

NPV: negative predictive value; PPV: positive predictive value; yr: year.

Diagnostic Studies

Several studies have been published since the systematic reviews. Morales-Cervantes et al. (2018) compared the accuracy of automated or manual thermography screening in 206 women scheduled for mammography in Mexico. (3) A retrospective study conducted in the U.S. by Neal et al. (2018) assessed outcomes in 38 women referred for further breast imagining following abnormal thermography testing. (4) Omranipour et al. (2016) compared the accuracy of thermography and mammography in 132 patients in Iran who had breast lesions and were candidates for breast biopsy. (5) Rassiwala et al. (2014) in India reported on 1008 women being screened for breast cancer. (6) Summaries of characteristics and results of clinical validity for these diagnostic studies are provided in Tables 4a and 4b and 5a and 5b.

Table 4a. Diagnostic Study Characteristics of Clinical Validity of Thermography in Breast Cancer Screening or Diagnosis

Study	Study	Designa	Reference	Threshold for Positive
	Population		Standard	Index Text
Morales-	For screening	Prospective	Biopsy with	Automated
Cervantes	study: Women	cohort, NR	histopathologic	Thermography (Thermal
et al. (2018)	scheduled for	sample	confirmation	Score) ^c
(3)	consultation	allocation		• + (Thermal Score <u>></u> 2.5)
	with clinical			• - (Thermal Score <2.5)
	evidence or			
	tumor suspicious			Manual Thermography
	for breast cancer			• NR
	and breast			
	cancer risk			Mammography (BI-
	factors			RADS Rating):
				• NR

Neal et al. (2018) (4)	For diagnostic study: Women referred for conventional breast imaging (mammogram and/or ultrasound) for evaluation of abnormal thermography findings	Retrospective cohort, NR sample allocation	Biopsy with histopathologic confirmation or at least one year of clinical and/or imaging follow-up	Abnormal Thermography: • Any report of abnormal findings Mammography: (BI-RADS Rating): •+ (B4-5) •- (B1-3) Ultrasound (Mammography declined by Patient) of Mammography: • NR
Omranipour et al. (2016) (5)	For diagnostic study: Women with breast lesions based on clinical, mammographic, or ultrasonographic finding in need of breast biopsy	Prospective cohort, NR sample selection	Core needle or surgical biopsy with histopathologic confirmation	Mammography (BI-RADS Rating): •+(B4-5) •-(B1-3) Thermography (Rating): •+(TH3-5) •-(TH1-2)
Rassiwala et al. (2014) (6)	For screening study: Women aged 20-60 years without a prior diagnosis of breast cancer	Prospective cohort, NR sample allocation	For women with normal thermograms: clinical examination only. For women with ΔT ≥ 2.5: clinical, radiologic, and histopathologic examination.	 Positive (Potentially having breast cancer) (ΔT ≥ 3) Abnormal (ΔT > 2.5, <3) Normal (ΔT ≤2.5)

BI-RADS: breast imaging reporting and data system; NR: not reported; ΔT: temperature gradient.

^a Note 2 aspects of design: prospective, retrospective or nonconcurrent prospective; sample selection random or consecutive.

^c Thermal score is defined as the sum of the surface temperature difference at the site of the lesion compared to that of the contralateral breast and the vascularity score, based on the

following scale: 1) absence of vascular patterns; 2) symmetrical or moderate vascular patterns; 3) significant vascular asymmetry; 4) vascular asymmetry extended in at least one-third of breast area.

Table 4b. Diagnostic Study Characteristics of Clinical Validity of Thermography in Breast

Cancer Screening or Diagnosis

Study	Timing of	Blinding of Assessors	Comment ^b
	Reference		
	and Index Tests		
Morales-	Reference testing	Blinding of	Blinding and allocation
Cervantes et al.	performed	mammography	poorly described.
(2018) (3)	for women with	assessor with	
	mammography	respect to	No data reported for
	BI-RADS score	thermography	mammography
	indicating suspicion	not described.	despite inclusion as
	for cancer.		comparator.
		Double-blinding	December
	Mammography	indicated for manual	Reported
	performed after	assessment of	results may be biased
	thermography.	thermograms	and inaccurate due
		by oncologist.	to selective use of reference tests.
		Blinding of	reference tests.
		biopsy assessor not	
		described.	
Neal et al.	Thermography	Blinding of	Blinding and
(2018) (4)	testing performed	assessors not	allocation not
(====) (:)	prior to	described.	described.
	mammography		
	and/or ultrasound.		Limited data
	,		reporting.
	Reference testing		
	performed after		Reference testing not
	index tests.		uniform for all patients.
	Histopathological		Small study size with
	reference testing		retrospective design.
	offered for women		
	with BI-RADS score		Long-term health
	4-5.		outcomes not
	_		described.
Omranipour	Reference testing	Mammography	Blinding and allocation
et al. (2016) (5)	performed after		poorly described.
	imaging index		

	tests.	assessors blinded to thermography test results. Blinding of thermography and histopathology assessors not described.	Concordance of risk classification cannot be assessed due to limited data reporting.
Rassiwala et al. (2014) (6)	Reference test provided only to women with abnormal or elevated thermography index test results.	NR	Blinding and allocation not described. Reported results may be biased and inaccurate due to selective use of reference tests.

BI-RADS: breast imaging reporting and data system; NR: not reported.

Table 5a. Clinical Validity of Thermography in Breast Cancer Screening or Diagnosis

Study; Subgroup	Initial N	Final N	Excluded Samples	Prevalence of Condition
Morales-Cervante	s et al. (20	18) (3)	-	
Automated	NR	206	NR	
Thermography*				
Manual	NR	206	NR	198 benign; 8 malignant
Thermography*				
Mammography	NR	206	NR	
Neal et al. (2018)	(4)			
Abnormal	45	38	7	
Thermography				
Mammography	45	38	7	36 benign; 2 malignant
following				
Abnormal				
Thermography				
Omranipour et al.	(2016) (5)			
Thermography	NR	132	NR	45 benign; 87 malignant
Mammography	NR	132	NR	
Rassiwala et al. (2	2014) (6)			
Thermography**	NR	1,008	NR	41 malignant in 49 women
				with positive or abnormal
				thermos-grams

N: number(s); NR: not reported.

^b Note other characteristics that could bias or limit relevance such as use of historical data, evolution of technology, or practice setting.

- * Clinical validity results for this subgroup must be interpreted with caution as subjects with normal mammograms did not undergo histopathologic reference testing for diagnostic confirmation.
- ** Clinical validity results for this subgroup must be interpreted with caution as subjects with normal thermograms did not undergo radiologic and histopathologic reference testing for diagnostic confirmation, only clinical assessment

Table 5b. Clinical Validity of Thermography in Breast Cancer Screening or Diagnosis

Study; Subgroup	Clinical Validity (95% Confidence Interval)						
	Sensitivity	Specificity	PPV	NPV			
Morales-Cervantes et al. (2018) (3)							
Automated Thermography*	100% (NR)	68.68% (NR)	11.42% (NR)	100% (NR)			
Manual Thermography*	87.50% (NR)	56.06% (NR)	7.44%	99.10%			
Mammography	NR	NR	NR	NR			
Abnormal Thermography	NA	NA	NR (2/38)	NA			
Mammography following	NA	NA	33.3%	100%			
Abnormal Thermography							
Neal et al. (2018) (4)							
Abnormal Thermography	NA	NA	NR (2/38)	NA			
Mammography following	NR	NR	33.3%	100%			
Abnormal Thermography							
Omranipour et al. (2016) (5)							
Thermography	81.6%	57.8%	78.9%	61.9%			
Mammography	80.5%	73.3%	85.4%	66.0%			
Rassiwala et al. (2014) (6)							
Thermography**	97.6%	99.17%	83.67%	99.89%			

NA: not applicable; NPV: negative predictive value; NR: not reported; PPV: positive predictive value. * Clinical validity results for this subgroup must be interpreted with caution as subjects with normal mammograms did not undergo histopathologic reference testing for diagnostic confirmation.

The diagnostic accuracy of automated thermography in the study by Morales-Cervantes et al. (2018) was 69.9%. (3) The authors did not report on the diagnostic accuracy of manual thermography. While automated thermographic screening improved the sensitivity and specificity of the test compared to a manual, qualitative approach, reported values must be interpreted with caution as only patients with positive mammograms were subjected to diagnostic reference testing. Neal et al. (2018) indicated that 95% of patients referred for follow-up imaging evaluation following abnormal thermography testing did not have breast cancer, concluding that conventional breast imaging appears sufficient to manage patients. (4) According to Omranipour et al. (2016) (5) the diagnostic accuracy of thermography (67.7%) was lower than for mammography (76.9%; p-values not reported). The reported false-negative rate was not accurately calculated in Rassiwala et al. (2014) because women who had normal thermograms only had a clinical examination and did not undergo radiologic and

^{**} Clinical validity results for this subgroup must be interpreted with caution as subjects with normal thermograms did not undergo radiologic and histopathologic reference testing for diagnostic confirmation, only clinical assessment.

histopathologic reference tests for confirmation, highlighting a major limitation of this study. (6) For patients with positive or abnormal thermograms, eight results were considered false-positive. One false-negative was reported but it is unclear which subgroup this patient belonged to or how this was determined, given that patients with normal thermograms were only assessed with a clinical examination. Limitations tables (see Tables 6a and 6b and 7a and 7b) display further notable limitations identified in each study. This information is synthesized as a summary of the body of evidence following each table and provides the conclusions on the sufficiency of the evidence supporting the position statement.

Table 6a. Study Relevance Limitations: Breast Cancer Screening or Diagnosis

Study	Population ^a	Intervention ^b	Comparator ^c
Morales-	1, 4. Intended use	1, 2. Classification	1, 2. BI-RADS
Cervantes et	population unclear;	thresholds for manual	classification
al. (2018) (3)	study population not	thermographic	thresholds for
	representative of	assessment	mammography not
	intended use (screening	not described; BI-RADS	defined; normal
	study enriched with	version used unclear	mammograms not
	patients with clinical	with no description of	compared to credible
	symptoms).	classification thresholds.	reference standard.
Neal et al.		1. Classification	1. Not compared to
(2018) (4)		thresholds for patients	consistent reference
		receiving ultrasounds	standard.
		after declining	
		mammography not	
		described; classification	
		thresholds for	
		thermography not	
		evaluated.	
Omranipour et			
al. (2016) (5)			
Rassiwala et al.	4. Study population not		1, 2. Classification
(2014) (6)	representative of		thresholds not
	intended use (age for		defined; normal index
	screening).		tests not compared to
			credible reference
			standard.

The study limitations stated in this table are those notable in the current literature review; this is not a comprehensive gaps assessment.

BI-RADS: breast imaging reporting and data system.

^a Population key: 1. Intended use population unclear; 2. Clinical context is unclear; 3. Study population is unclear; 4. Study population not representative of intended use.

^b Intervention key: 1. Classification thresholds not defined; 2. Version used unclear; 3. Not intervention of interest.

^c Comparator key: 1. Classification thresholds not defined; 2. Not compared to credible reference standard; 3. Not compared to other tests in use for same purpose.

Table 6b. Relevance Limitations: Breast Cancer Screening or Diagnosis

Study	Outcomes ^d	Duration of Follow-Upe
Morales-Cervantes et al. (2018)	1, 3, 5. Study does not	
(3)	directly assess a key health	
	outcome; key clinical validity	
	outcomes not reported;	
	adverse events of the test not	
	described.	
Neal et al. (2018) (4)	1. Study does not report on	1. Follow-up duration
	key long-term health	not sufficient for patients
	outcomes; key clinical validity	not evaluated by biopsy.
	outcomes not reported.	
Omranipour et al. (2016) (5)	1, 5. Study does not directly	
	assess a key health outcome;	
	adverse events of the test not	
	described.	
Rassiwala et al. (2014) (6)	1, 4, 5. Study does not	
	directly assess a key health	
	outcome; reclassification of	
	diagnostic or risk categories	
	not reported; adverse events	
	of the test not described.	

The study limitations stated in this table are those notable in the current literature review; this is not a comprehensive gaps assessment.

Table 7a. Study Design and Conduct Limitations: Breast Cancer Screening or Diagnosis

Study	Selectiona	Blinding ^b	Delivery of Test ^c
Morales-	1. Selection	1. Blinding	3, 4. Procedure for manual
Cervantes et al.	not described.	to index and	interpretation of
(2018) (3)		reference	thermograms and
		tests not fully	mammograms not described;
		described.	expertise of all evaluators not
			described.

^d Outcomes key: 1. Study does not directly assess a key health outcome; 2. Evidence chain or decision model not explicated; 3. Key clinical validity outcomes not reported (sensitivity, specificity and predictive values); 4. Reclassification of diagnostic or risk categories not reported; 5. Adverse events of the test not described (excluding minor discomforts and inconvenience of venipuncture or noninvasive tests).

^e Follow-Up key: 1. Follow-up duration not sufficient with respect to natural history of disease (true positives, true negatives, false positives, false negatives cannot be determined).

Neal et al. (2018) (4)	1. Selection not described.	1. Blinding not described.	2-3. Timing of index and comparator tests not same; procedures for interpreting all tests not described.
Omranipour et al. (2016) (5)	1. Selection not described.	1. Blinding to index and reference tests not described.	1. Timing of delivery of index and reference tests not fully described.
Rassiwala et al. (2014) (6)	1. Selection not described.	1. Blinding not described.	1,3-4. Timing of delivery of index and reference tests not fully described; procedure for interpreting reference tests not described; expertise of evaluators not described.

The study limitations stated in this table are those notable in the current literature review; this is not a comprehensive gaps assessment.

Table 7b. Study Design and Conduct Limitations: Breast Cancer Screening or Diagnosis

Study	Selective Reporting ^d	Data Completeness ^e	Statistical ^f
Morales-	1-2. Not registered;	1. No description of	1-2. Confidence
Cervantes	evidence of selective	indeterminate or	intervals and/or p
et al.	reporting	missing samples.	values not reported;
(2018) (3)	(mammography		comparison to
	data not reported).		mammography not
			reported.
Neal et al.	1. Not registered.	3. High loss to follow-	1-2. Confidence
(2018) (4)		up or missing data.	intervals and/or p
			values not reported;
			comparison to other
			tests not reported.
Omranipour	1. Not registered.	1. No description of	1. Confidence intervals
et al.		indeterminate or	and/or p values not
(2016) (5)		missing samples.	reported.
Rassiwala	1. Not registered.	1. Inadequate	1. Confidence intervals
et al. (2014)		description of	and/or p values not
(6)		indeterminate or	reported.
		missing samples.	

^a Selection key: 1. Selection not described; 2. Selection not random or consecutive (i.e., convenience).

^b Blinding key: 1. Not blinded to results of reference or other comparator tests.

^c Test Delivery key: 1. Timing of delivery of index or reference test not described; 2. Timing of index and comparator tests not same; 3. Procedure for interpreting tests not described; 4. Expertise of evaluators not described.

The study limitations stated in this table are those notable in the current literature review; this is not a comprehensive gaps assessment.

Clinically Useful

A test is clinically useful if the use of the results informs management decisions that improve the net health outcome of care. The net health outcome can be improved if patients receive correct therapy, or more effective therapy, or avoid unnecessary therapy, or avoid unnecessary testing.

Direct Evidence

Direct evidence of clinical utility is provided by studies that have compared health outcomes for patients managed with and without the test. Because these are intervention studies, the preferred evidence would be from randomized controlled trials (RCTs).

No studies have demonstrated how the results of thermography could be used to enhance the management of breast cancer patients in a manner that would improve their health outcomes.

Chain of Evidence

Indirect evidence on clinical utility rests on clinical validity. If the evidence is insufficient to demonstrate test performance, no inferences can be made about clinical utility.

It is not possible to construct a chain of evidence for clinical utility due to the lack of sufficient evidence that the diagnostic accuracy of thermography is at least as high as mammographic techniques for breast cancer screening and diagnosis.

Section Summary: Breast Cancer

Systematic reviews of studies evaluating the accuracy of thermography for diagnosing breast cancer found wide ranges of sensitivities and specificities and, where data are available, relatively low diagnostic accuracy compared with mammography. To date, no study has demonstrated that thermography is sufficiently accurate to replace or supplement mammography for breast cancer diagnosis. Moreover, there are no studies on the impact of thermography on patient management or health outcomes for patients with breast cancer.

Musculoskeletal Injuries

Clinical Context and Test Purpose

The purpose of using thermography in individuals who have a musculoskeletal injury is to inform a decision whether to proceed to appropriate treatment or not.

^d Selective Reporting key: 1. Not registered; 2. Evidence of selective reporting; 3. Evidence of selective publication.

^e Data Completeness key: 1. Inadequate description of indeterminate and missing samples; 2. High number of samples excluded; 3. High loss to follow-up or missing data.

f Statistical key: 1. Confidence intervals and/or p values not reported; 2. Comparison with other tests not reported.

The following PICO was used to select literature to inform this policy.

Populations

The relevant population of interest is individuals with musculoskeletal injuries.

Interventions

The intervention of interest is thermography.

Comparators

The following tests and practices are currently being used to make decisions about musculoskeletal injuries: standard care without imaging and other forms of imaging (e.g., with radiography, magnetic resonance imaging).

Outcomes

The outcomes of interest for diagnostic accuracy include test accuracy and test validity (i.e., sensitivity, specificity). The primary outcomes of interest for clinical utility are a reduction in pain symptoms and improvement in functional ability. The timing would be following a musculoskeletal injury.

Study Selection Criteria

For the evaluation of clinical validity of thermography, studies that meet the following eligibility criteria were considered:

- Reported on the accuracy of the marketed version of the technology (including any algorithms used to calculate scores);
- Included a suitable reference standard;
- Patient/sample clinical characteristics were described;
- Patient/sample selection criteria were described.

Clinically Valid

A test must detect the presence or absence of a condition, the risk of developing a condition in the future, or treatment response (beneficial or adverse).

Systematic Reviews

A systematic review by Sanchis-Sanchez et al. (2014) evaluated the literature on thermography for diagnosing musculoskeletal injuries. (7) Six studies met the eligibility criteria (N=416); 3 included patients with suspected stress fractures (n=119) and the remainder addressed other musculoskeletal injuries. Characteristics and results of clinical validity for stress fracture diagnostic studies were reported and summaries are provided in Tables 8a and 8b and 9a and 9b. A systematic review by Vardasca et al. (2019) evaluated the literature on musculoskeletal applications of thermography specific to the arm and forearm. However, the review mainly focused on correlations between skin surface temperatures and physical condition or health recovery monitoring. As diagnostic accuracy data was not extracted or pooled from included studies, this review was not assessed for evidence of clinical validity.

Table 8a. Systematic Review: Characteristics of Clinical Validity of Thermography in Musculoskeletal Injury

Study	Study Population	Designa	Reference
Sanchis- Sanchez (2014) (7)	For diagnostic studies: • Studies reporting on the diagnostic accuracy of infrared thermal imaging in the diagnosis of musculoskeletal injuries (e.g., bone fractures, dislocations, sprains, muscle contractures, tendinopathy, contusions, or	 Prospective cohort; sample selection consecutive (4/6) Prospective cohort; sample selection NR (1/6) Prospective 	Standard High-quality radiographic imaging (various)
	compartment syndrome) that utilized a recognized reference standard (e.g., radiographs, CT, MRI, or ultrasound scanning)	cohort; sample selection by convenience (1/6)	

CT: computed tomography; MRI: magnetic resonance imaging; NR: not reported.

Table 8b. Systematic Review: Characteristics of Clinical Validity of Thermography in Musculoskeletal Injury

Study	Threshold for	Timing of	Blinding of	Comment ^b
	Positive Index	Reference and	Assessors	
	Test	Index Tests		
Sanchis-	NR; various	Reported (1/6	Reported (2/6	High heterogeneity
Sanchez	methodologies	studies)	studies)	in thermography
(2014) (7)	utilized			index test
		Unclear (4/6	Unclear (4/6	methodologies and
		studies, including	studies,	diagnostic accuracy.
		all studies on	including all	QUADAS
		stress fractures)	studies on stress	assessment by
			fractures)	authors indicates
		NR (1/6 studies)		moderate-to-high
				risk of bias in
				studies on stress
				fractures

NR: not reported; QUADAS: Quality Assessment of Diagnostic Accuracy Studies.

Table 9a. Systematic Review: Clinical Validity of Thermography in Musculoskeletal Injury

and the state of t					
Study;	Initial N (Range)	Final N (Range)	Excluded N	Prevalence of	
Subgroup				Condition	

^a Note 2 aspects of design: prospective, retrospective or nonconcurrent prospective; sample selection random or consecutive.

^b Note other characteristics that could bias or limit relevance such as use of historical data, evolution of technology, or practice setting.

Sanchis-Sanchez	NR	119 (17-84)	NR	NR
(2014)				
Stress Fractures				
(7)				

N: number(s); NR: not reported.

Table 9b. Systematic Review: Clinical Validity of Thermography in Musculoskeletal Injury

Study; Subgroup	Clinical Validity (95% Confidence Interval)			
	Sensitivity	Specificity	PPV	NPV
Sanchis-Sanchez (2014)	NR	69% (49-	NR	NR
Stress Fractures (7)		85%)		
	Range:45.3-82%		Positive	Negative
		Range: 60-	Likelihood	Likelihood
		100%	Ratio:2.31	Ratio: NR
			(0.63-8.47)	
		p-value: 0.17		Range: 0.22-
			Range: 1.13-	0.91
			6.25	
			p-value: 0.12	

NPV: negative predictive value; NR: not reported; PPV: positive predictive value.

Clinically Useful

A test is clinically useful if the use of the results informs management decisions that improve the net health outcome of care. The net health outcome can be improved if patients receive correct therapy, or more effective therapy, or avoid unnecessary therapy, or avoid unnecessary testing.

Direct Evidence

Direct evidence of clinical utility is provided by studies that have compared health outcomes for patients managed with and without the test. Because these are intervention studies, the preferred evidence would be from RCTs.

Longitudinal Studies

Côrte et al. (2019) published pilot data from a longitudinal prospective study on the screening and prevention of muscle injuries in 28 professional Brazilian soccer players. (8) Players were monitored for musculoskeletal imaging during the 2015-2016 seasons with ultrasound. In the second season, a thermographic monitoring regimen was added twice-weekly 48 hours after matches, and an injury prevention protocol was followed based on the results of thermographic imaging. The number of musculoskeletal injuries was compared for both seasons based on these management protocols. The total number of muscle injuries reported decreased from 11 in 2015 to 4 in 2016 (p=0.04). Seven players were on the team roster across both seasons.

There was no statistically significant reduction in muscle injury in this subgroup (p=0.06). Limitations of this study are addressed in Tables 10 and 11a/11b.

Table 10. Study Relevance Limitations: Musculoskeletal Injury

Study	Population ^a	Intervention ^b	Comparator ^c	Outcomes ^d	Duration of Follow- Up ^e
Côrte et al. (2019) (8)	2. Clinical context is unclear (definition and reporting of muscle injuries are subjective).	2. Version used unclear (therapy utilized in prevention protocol was based on physician discretion and not	1, 2. Classification thresholds for ultrasound not defined; comparison to credible reference standard	3, 4, 5. Key clinical validity outcomes not reported; reclassification of diagnostic or risk categories not reported; adverse events	
		standardized).	unclear.	of the test not described.	

The study limitations stated in this table are those notable in the current literature review; this is not a comprehensive gaps assessment.

Table 11a. Study Design and Conduct Limitations: Musculoskeletal Injury

Study	Selectiona	Blindingb	Delivery of Test ^c
Côrte et al. (2019)	1.Selection not	1. Blinding to	1-4. Timing of delivery of index or
(8)	random or	index and	reference tests not described;
	consecutive.	reference tests	timing of index and comparator
		not described.	tests not described; procedure
			for interpreting comparator
			and/or reference tests not
			described; expertise of
			evaluators not described.

^a Population key: 1. Intended use population unclear; 2. Clinical context is unclear; 3. Study population is unclear; 4. Study population not representative of intended use.

^b Intervention key: 1. Classification thresholds not defined; 2. Version used unclear; 3. Not intervention of interest.

^c Comparator key: 1. Classification thresholds not defined; 2. Not compared to credible reference standard; 3. Not compared to other tests in use for same purpose.

^d Outcomes key: 1. Study does not directly assess a key health outcome; 2. Evidence chain or decision model not explicated; 3. Key clinical validity outcomes not reported (sensitivity, specificity and predictive values); 4. Reclassification of diagnostic or risk categories not reported; 5. Adverse events of the test not described (excluding minor discomforts and inconvenience of venipuncture or noninvasive tests).

^e Follow-Up key: 1. Follow-up duration not sufficient with respect to natural history of disease (true positives, true negatives, false positives, false negatives cannot be determined).

The study limitations stated in this table are those notable in the current literature review; this is not a comprehensive gaps assessment.

Table 11b. Study Design and Conduct Limitations: Musculoskeletal Injury

Study	Selective	Data	Statistical ^f
	Reporting ^d	Completeness ^e	
Côrte et al. (2019)	1. Not	1. No description of	1, 2. Confidence intervals and/or
(8)	registered.	indeterminate or	p values not reported;
		missing samples.	diagnostic comparison to other
			tests not reported.

The study limitations stated in this table are those notable in the current literature review; this is not a comprehensive gaps assessment.

No high-quality or randomized studies have been published that evaluate health outcomes in patients with musculoskeletal injuries who were managed with and without thermography.

Chain of Evidence

Indirect evidence on clinical utility rests on clinical validity. If the evidence is insufficient to demonstrate test performance, no inferences can be made about clinical utility.

It is not possible to construct a chain of evidence for clinical utility due to the lack of sufficient evidence that the diagnostic accuracy of thermography is at least as high as standard techniques for diagnosing musculoskeletal injuries.

Section Summary: Musculoskeletal Injuries

A systematic review of studies on thermography for diagnosing musculoskeletal injuries found moderate levels of accuracy compared with other diagnostic imaging tests. There was a lack of a consistent reference standard. This evidence does not permit conclusions as to whether thermography is sufficiently accurate to replace or supplement standard testing. Moreover, there are insufficient studies on the impact of thermography on patient management or health outcomes for patients with musculoskeletal injuries.

Temporomandibular Joint Disorder

Clinical Context and Test Purpose

^a Selection key: 1. Selection not described; 2. Selection not random or consecutive (ie, convenience).

^b Blinding key: 1. Not blinded to results of reference or other comparator tests.

^c Test Delivery key: 1. Timing of delivery of index or reference test not described; 2. Timing of index and comparator tests not same; 3. Procedure for interpreting tests not described; 4. Expertise of evaluators not described.

^d Selective Reporting key: 1. Not registered; 2. Evidence of selective reporting; 3. Evidence of selective publication.

^e Data Completeness key: 1. Inadequate description of indeterminate and missing samples; 2. High number of samples excluded; 3. High loss to follow-up or missing data.

f Statistical key: 1. Confidence intervals and/or p values not reported; 2. Comparison with other tests not reported.

The purpose of using thermography in individuals who have temporomandibular joint (TMJ) disorder is to inform a decision whether to proceed to appropriate treatment or not.

The following PICO was used to select literature to inform this policy.

Populations

The relevant population of interest is individuals with TMJ disorder.

Interventions

The intervention of interest is thermography.

Comparators

The following tests and practices are currently being used to make decisions about TMJ disorder: standard clinical examination without imaging, diagnostic scales (e.g., Research Diagnostic Criteria for Temporomandibular Disorders [RDC/TMD], Fonseca Anamnestic Index, Anamnestic Index), and other forms of imaging (e.g., with radiography, arthrotomography, magnetic resonance imaging).

Outcomes

The outcomes of interest for diagnostic accuracy include test accuracy and test validity (e.g., sensitivity, specificity). The primary outcomes of interest for clinical utility are a reduction in pain symptoms and improvement in functional ability.

Study Selection Criteria

For the evaluation of clinical validity of thermography for TMJ disorder, studies that meet the following eligibility criteria were considered:

- Reported on the accuracy of the marketed version of the technology (including any algorithms used to calculate scores);
- Included a suitable reference standard;
- Patient/sample clinical characteristics were described;
- Patient/sample selection criteria were described.

Clinically Valid

A test must detect the presence or absence of a condition, the risk of developing a condition in the future, or treatment response (beneficial or adverse).

Systematic Reviews

A systematic review by de Melo et al. (2019) evaluated the diagnostic accuracy of infrared thermography in TMJ disorder. (9) Nine studies were identified utilizing a variety of comparators. The authors note that while no specific diagnostic tool is currently considered the gold standard for the diagnosis of TMJ disorder, the RDC/TMD diagnostic is commonly used with a reported sensitivity and specificity of 87% and 92%, respectively. Four out of nine studies utilized RDC/TMD, whereas the remaining studies utilized clinical examination or other methods. Characteristics and results of clinical validity for temporomandibular joint disorder

diagnostic accuracy in this systematic review are summarized in Tables 12a and 12b and 13a and 13b.

Table 12a. Systematic Review: Characteristics of Clinical Validity of Thermography in Temporomandibular Joint Disorder

Study	Study Population	Design ^a	Reference Standard
de Melo	For diagnostic studies:	NR; sample	RDC/TMD
et al. (2019)	Studies reporting on the diagnostic accuracy of infrared thermography vs	selection consecutive (1/9	diagnostic, clinical
(9)	other diagnostic tests and imaging methods in patients with temporomandibular disorder	studies) or by convenience (8/9 studies)	examination, or other imaging methods

NR: not reported; RDC/TMD: Research Diagnostic Criteria for Temporomandibular Disorders.

Table 12b. Systematic Review: Characteristics of Clinical Validity of Thermography in Temporomandibular Joint Disorder

Study	Threshold for Positive Index Test	Timing of Reference and Index Tests	Blinding of Assessors	Comment ^b
de Melo et al. (2019) (9)	NR	NR High-risk of bias based on flow and timing: 4/9 studies Unclear risk of bias based on flow and timing: 5/9 studies	NR	Thermography index test methodologies unclear. Heterogeneity in use of comparator and/or reference standard. Assessment by authors indicates high-risk of bias in all studies.

NR: not reported.

Table 13a. Systematic Review: Clinical Validity of Thermography in Temporomandibular Joint Disorder

Study	Initial N (Range)	Final N (Range)	Excluded N	Prevalence of Condition
de Melo et al. (2019) (9)	NR	548 (23-104)	NR	NR

NR: not reported.

Table 13b. Systematic Review: Clinical Validity of Thermography in Temporomandibular Joint Disorder

^a Note 2 aspects of design: prospective, retrospective or nonconcurrent prospective; sample selection random or consecutive.

^b Note other characteristics that could bias or limit relevance such as use of historical data, evolution of technology, or practice setting.

Study	Clinical Validity (95% Confidence Interval)			
de Melo et al. (2019) (9)	Sensitivity	Specificity	PPV	NPV
	NR	NR	NR	NR
	Range: 38.5-90%	Range:22.8-95.5%		

NPV: negative predictive value; NR: not reported; PPV: positive predictive value.

Clinically Useful

A test is clinically useful if the use of the results informs management decisions that improve the net health outcome of care. The net health outcome can be improved if patients receive correct therapy, or more effective therapy, or avoid unnecessary therapy, or avoid unnecessary testing.

Direct Evidence

Direct evidence of clinical utility is provided by studies that have compared health outcomes for patients managed with and without the test. Because these are intervention studies, the preferred evidence would be from RCTs.

No studies have been published that evaluate health outcomes in patients with TMJ disorder who were managed with and without thermography.

Chain of Evidence

Indirect evidence on clinical utility rests on clinical validity. If the evidence is insufficient to demonstrate test performance, no inferences can be made about clinical utility.

It is not possible to construct a chain of evidence for clinical utility due to the lack of sufficient evidence that the diagnostic accuracy of thermography is at least as high as standard techniques for diagnosing TMJ disorder.

Section Summary: TMJ Disorder

A systematic review of studies on thermography for diagnosing TMJ disorder found a wide variation in accuracy compared with other diagnostics. There was a lack of a consistent reference standard. This evidence does not permit conclusions as to whether thermography is sufficiently accurate to replace or supplement standard testing. Moreover, there are no studies on the impact of thermography on patient management or health outcomes for patients with TMJ disorder.

Miscellaneous Conditions

A number of studies have assessed a range of potential thermography applications. To date, no study has examined the impact of thermography on patient management decisions or health outcomes. Examples of other studies on thermography, mainly conducted outside of the United States, include those evaluating the association between thermographic findings and postherpetic neuralgia in patients with herpes zoster, (10, 11) surgical site healing in patients who underwent knee replacements, (12) predicting pressure ulcers (13) and pressure ulcer healing,

(14, 15) posttreatment pain in patients with coccygodynia, (16) evaluation of allergic conjunctivitis, (17) evaluation of burn depth, (18, 19) association between thermographic findings and burn treatment, (20) detecting cervical lymph node metastasis from oral cavity cancer, (21) monitoring lesions or inflammation in patients with scleroderma, (22, 23) detection of vascular obstruction, (24) or perforator vessels during surgery, (25, 26) diagnosis of lower extremity cellulitis, (27) prediction of infrainguinal bypass surgery, (28) detection of melanoma, (29) detection of contact dermatitis during allergy patch testing, (30) diagnosis of acute appendicitis, (31) and measuring disease activity in patients with rheumatoid arthritis, osteoarthritis, or other rheumatic diseases. (32-35)

Several studies evaluating the clinical validity of thermography to assess potential complications of the diabetic foot have been conducted. Thermographic images of nondiabetic feet, nonulcerated diabetic feet and ulcerated diabetic feet have been compared. (36-40) Another study used thermography to diagnose infections in patients admitted with diabetic foot complications. (41) The only study to date to investigate the clinical utility of thermography compared with no thermography assessed diabetic foot ulcer incidence in 110 participants with a history of diabetic neuropathy and foot ulcers. (42) After 12 months follow-up, the study found no significant difference between use of monthly thermography versus no thermography and foot ulcer incidence (62% versus 56%; adjusted OR 0.55, 95% CI 0.21 to 1.40) or time to ulcer recurrence (adjusted HR 0.67, 95% CI 0.34 to 1.3).

Section Summary: Miscellaneous Conditions

For most of these potential indications, there are 1 or 2 preliminary studies on each of the indications. Several studies evaluated the clinical validity of thermography in assessing diabetic foot and related complications. For all indications, the studies described temperature gradients or the association between temperature differences and the clinical condition. Due to the small number of studies for each indication, the diagnostic accuracy could not adequately be evaluated. The clinical utility of thermography for these miscellaneous conditions was not investigated in any study.

Summary of Evidence

For individuals who have an indication for breast cancer screening or diagnosis who receive thermography, the evidence includes diagnostic accuracy studies and systematic reviews. Relevant outcomes are overall survival, disease-specific survival, and test validity. Using histopathologic findings as the reference standard, a series of systematic reviews of studies have evaluated the accuracy of thermography to screen and/or diagnose breast cancer and reported wide ranges of sensitivities and specificities. To date, no study has demonstrated whether thermography is sufficiently accurate to replace or supplement mammography for breast cancer diagnosis. Moreover, there are no studies on the impact of thermography on patient management or health outcomes for patients with breast cancer. The evidence is insufficient to determine that the technology results in an improvement in the net health outcome.

For individuals who have musculoskeletal injuries who receive thermography, the evidence includes diagnostic accuracy studies, a longitudinal prospective study, and a systematic review. Relevant outcomes are test validity, symptoms, and functional outcomes. A systematic review of studies on thermography for diagnosing musculoskeletal injuries found moderate levels of accuracy compared with other diagnostic imaging tests. There is a lack of a consistent reference standard. This evidence does not permit conclusions as to whether thermography is sufficiently accurate to replace or supplement standard testing. Moreover, there are no high-quality or randomized studies on the impact of thermography on patient management or health outcomes for patients with musculoskeletal injuries. The evidence is insufficient to determine that the technology results in an improvement in the net health outcome.

For individuals who have temporomandibular joint (TMJ) disorder who receive thermography, the evidence includes a systematic review. Relevant outcomes are test validity, symptoms, and functional outcomes. A systematic review of studies on thermography for diagnosing TMJ disorder found a wide variation in accuracy compared to other diagnostics. There is no consistent reference standard. The evidence does not permit conclusions as to whether thermography is sufficiently accurate to replace or supplement standard testing. Moreover, there are no studies on the impact of thermography on patient management or health outcomes for patients with TMJ disorder. The evidence is insufficient to determine that the technology results in an improvement in the net health outcome.

For individuals who have miscellaneous conditions (e.g., herpes zoster, pressure ulcers, diabetic foot) who receive thermography, the evidence primarily includes diagnostic accuracy studies. Outcomes in these studies are test validity, symptoms, and functional outcomes. Most studies assessed temperature gradients or the association between temperature differences and the clinical condition. Due to the small number of studies for each indication, diagnostic accuracy could not adequately be evaluated. The clinical utility of thermography has only been considered in 1 study of diabetic foot ulcers. For other miscellaneous conditions, the clinical utility of thermography has not been investigated. The evidence is insufficient to determine that the technology results in an improvement in the net health outcome.

Practice Guidelines and Position Statements

European Society of Breast Imaging et al.

A position paper by the European Society of Breast Imaging (2017) and 30 other national breast radiology bodies on screening for breast cancer stated that "screening with thermography or other optical tools as alternatives to mammography is discouraged." (43)

American College of Physicians

The American College of Physicians (2019) issued a guidance statement for breast cancer screening in average-risk women that reviews existing screening guidelines. (44) While the use of thermography was not mentioned in this statement, the authors conclude that evidence is insufficient to understand the benefits and harms of primary or adjunctive screening strategies in women who are found to have dense breasts on screening mammography.

American College of Radiology (ACR)

The American College of Radiology guidelines for breast cancer screening (revised 2017) do not mention the use of thermography for breast cancer screening. (45)

National Comprehensive Cancer Network

National Comprehensive Cancer Network guidelines on breast cancer screening and diagnosis (v.3.2023) states that "Current evidence does not support the routine use of thermography as screening procedures." (46)

U.S. Preventive Services Task Force Recommendations

The U.S. Preventive Services Task Force (2016) recommendations on breast cancer screening (currently undergoing an update) do not mention thermography. Additionally, there is insufficient evidence for the use of adjunctive screening methods for breast cancer (ultrasonography, magnetic resonance imaging, digital breast tomosynthesis, or other methods) in women identified to have dense breasts on a negative screening mammogram. (47)

Medicare National Coverage

Medicare does not cover thermography. Current Medicare coverage policy states:

"Thermography for any indication (including breast lesions which were excluded from Medicare coverage ...) is excluded from Medicare coverage because the available evidence does not support this test as a useful aid in the diagnosis or treatment of illness or injury. Therefore, it is not considered effective..." (48)

Ongoing and Unpublished Clinical Trials

Some currently ongoing and unpublished trials that might influence this policy are listed in Table 14.

Table 14. Summary of Key Trials

NCT Number	Trial Name	Planned	Completion
		Enrollment	Date
Unpublished			
NCT04013711	Quantitative Thermal Imaging to	200	Jul 2022
	Evaluate Skin Toxicity from Radiation		
	Treatment		
NCT03735550	Investigation of the Effectiveness of	3000	Jan 2019
	Liquid Crystal Contact Thermography in		
	Detecting Pathological Changes in		
	Female Breasts Compared to Standard		
	Diagnostic Methods of Breast Cancer		
NCT03217214	Investigation of Contact Based Method	67	Sep 2019
	for Diagnosis of Cardiovascular Disease		
NCT02776995	Tumor Monitoring Using Thermography	80	Dec 2020
	During Radiation Therapy		

NCT: national clinical trial.

Coding

Procedure codes on Medical Policy documents are included **only** as a general reference tool for each policy. **They may not be all-inclusive.**

The presence or absence of procedure, service, supply, or device codes in a Medical Policy document has no relevance for determination of benefit coverage for members or reimbursement for providers. **Only the written coverage position in a Medical Policy should be used for such determinations.**

Benefit coverage determinations based on written Medical Policy coverage positions must include review of the member's benefit contract or Summary Plan Description (SPD) for defined coverage vs. non-coverage, benefit exclusions, and benefit limitations such as dollar or duration caps.

CPT Codes	93740, 93799
HCPCS Codes	None

^{*}Current Procedural Terminology (CPT®) ©2023 American Medical Association: Chicago, IL.

References

- 1. Vreugdenburg TD, Willis CD, Mundy L, et al. A systematic review of elastography, electrical impedance scanning and digital infrared thermography for breast cancer screening and diagnosis. Breast Cancer Res Treat. Feb 2013; 137(3):665-676. PMID 23288346
- 2. Fitzgerald A, Berentson-Shaw J. Thermography as a screening and diagnostic tool: a systematic review. N Z Med J. Mar 2012; 125(1351):80-91. PMID 22426613
- 3. Morales-Cervantes A, Kolosovas-Machuca E, Guevara E, et al. An automated method for the evaluation of breast cancer using infrared thermography. EXCLI J. Oct 26 2018; 17:989-998. PMID 30564079
- 4. Neal C, Flynt K, Jeffries D, et al. Breast Imaging Outcomes following Abnormal Thermography. Acad Radiol. Mar 2018; 25(3):273-278. PMID 29275941
- 5. Omranipour R, Kazeman A, Alipour S, et al. Compassion of the accuracy of thermography and mammography in the detection of breast cancer. Breast Care (Basel). Aug 2016; 11(4): 260-264. PMID 27721713
- Rassiwala M, Mathur P, Mathur R, et al. Evaluation of digital infra-red thermal imaging as an adjunctive screening method for breast carcinoma: a pilot study. Int J Surg. Dec 2014; 12(12):1439-1443. PMID 25448668
- 7. Sanchis-Sanchez E, Vergara-Hernandez C, Cibrian RM, et al. Infrared thermal imaging in the diagnosis of musculoskeletal injuries: a systematic review and meta-analysis. AJR Am J Roentgenol. Oct 2014; 203(4):875-882. PMID 25247955
- 8. Côrte A, Pedrinelli A, Marttos A, et al. Infrared thermography study as a complementary method of screening and prevention of muscle injuries: pilot study. BMJ Open Sport Exerc Med. Jan 03 2019; 5(1):e000431. PMID 30687515
- 9. de Melo D, Bento P, Peixoto L, et al. Is infrared thermography effective in the diagnosis of temporomandibular disorders? A systematic review. Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol. Feb 2019; 127(2):185-192. PMID 30482738

- 10. Han SS, Jung CH, Lee SC, et al. Does skin temperature difference as measured by infrared thermography within 6 months of acute herpes zoster infection correlate with pain level? Skin Res Technol. May 2010; 16(2):198-201. PMID 20456100
- 11. Park J, Jang WS, Park KY, et al. Thermography as a predictor of postherpetic neuralgia in acute herpes zoster patients: a preliminary study. Skin Res Technol. Feb 2012; 18(1):88-93. PMID 21605168
- 12. Romano CL, Logoluso N, Dell'Oro F, et al. Telethermographic findings after uncomplicated and septic total knee replacement. Knee. Jun 2012; 19(3):193-197. PMID 21441031
- 13. Oliveira AL, Moore Z, T OC, et al. Accuracy of ultrasound, thermography and subepidermal moisture in predicting pressure ulcers: a systematic review. J Wound Care. May 02 2017; 26(5):199-215. PMID 28475447
- 14. Nakagami G, Sanada H, Iizaka S, et al. Predicting delayed pressure ulcer healing using thermography: a prospective cohort study. J Wound Care. Nov 2010; 19(11):465-466, 468, 470 passim. PMID 21135794
- 15. Bilska A, Stangret A, Pyzlak M, et al. Skin surface infrared thermography in pressure ulcer outcome prognosis. J Wound Care. Dec 2020; 29(12):707-718. PMID 33320753
- 16. Wu CL, Yu KL, Chuang HY, et al. The application of infrared thermography in the assessment of patients with coccygodynia before and after manual therapy combined with diathermy. J Manipulative Physiol Ther. May 2009; 32(4):287-293. PMID 19447265
- 17. Hara Y, Shiraishi A, Yamaguchi M, et al. Evaluation of allergic conjunctivitis by thermography. Ophthalmic Res. Mar 2014; 51(3):161-166. PMID 24603108
- 18. Singer AJ, Relan P, Beto L, et al. Infrared thermal imaging has the potential to reduce unnecessary surgery and delays to necessary surgery in burn patients. J Burn Care Res. Dec 2015; 37(6):350-355. PMID 26720102
- 19. Dang J, Lin M, Tan C, et al. Use of infrared thermography for assessment of burn depth and healing potential: a systematic review. J Burn Care Res. Jun 12 2021. PMID 34120173
- 20. Martínez-Jiménez M, Ramirez-Garcia Luna J, Kolosovas-Machuca E, et al. Development and validation of an algorithm to predict the treatment modality of burn wounds using thermographic scans: Prospective cohort study. PLoS ONE. Nov 14 2018; 13(11):e0206477. PMID 30427892
- 21. Dong F, Tao C, Wu J, et al. Detection of cervical lymph node metastasis from oral cavity cancer using a non- radiating, noninvasive digital infrared thermal imaging system. Sci Rep. May 08 2018; 8(1):7219. PMID 29739969
- 22. Agazzi A, Fadanelli G, Vittadello F, et al. Reliability of LoSCAT score for activity and tissue damage assessment in a large cohort of patients with Juvenile Localized Scleroderma. Pediatr Rheumatol Online J. Jun 18 2018; 16(1):37. PMID 29914516
- 23. Ranosz-Janicka I, Lis-ÅšwiA A, Skrzypek-Salamon A, et al. Detecting and quantifying activity/inflammation in localized scleroderma with thermal imaging. Skin Res Technol. Mar 2019; 25(2):118-123. PMID 30030915
- 24. Cruz-Segura A, Cruz-Domínguez M, Jara L, et al. Early Detection of Vascular Obstruction in Microvascular Flaps Using a Thermographic Camera. J Reconstr Microsurg. Sep 2019; 35(7):541-548. PMID 31067581

- 25. Unger M, Markfort M, Halama D, et al. Automatic detection of perforator vessels using infrared thermography in reconstructive surgery. Int J Comput Assist Radiol Surg. Mar 2019; 14(3):501-507. PMID 30519870
- 26. Chen R, Huang Z, Chen W, et al. Value of a smartphone-compatible thermal imaging camera in the detection of peroneal artery perforators: Comparative study with computed tomography angiography. Head Neck. May 2019; 41(5):1450-1456. PMID 30636085
- 27. Li D, Dewan A, Xia F, et al. The ALT-70 predictive model outperforms thermal imaging for the diagnosis of lower extremity cellulitis: A prospective evaluation. J Am Acad Dermatol. Dec 2018; 79(6):1076-1080. PMID 30003987
- 28. Al Shakarchi J, Inston N, Dabare D, et al. Pilot study on the use of infrared thermal imaging to predict infrainguinal bypass outcome in the immediate post-operative period. Vascular. Dec 2019; 27(6):663-667. PMID 31067207
- 29. Magalhaes C, Vardasca R, Rebelo M, et al. Distinguishing melanocytic nevi from melanomas using static and dynamic infrared thermal imaging. J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol. Sep 2019; 33(9):1700-1705. PMID 30974494
- 30. Anzengruber F, Alotaibi F, Kaufmann L, et al. Thermography: High sensitivity and specificity diagnosing contact dermatitis in patch testing. Allergol Int. Apr 2019; 68(2):254-258. PMID 30598404
- 31. Aydemir U, Sarıgoz T, Ertan T, et al. Role of digital infrared thermal imaging in diagnosis of acute appendicitis. Ulus Travma Acil Cerrahi Derg. Nov 2021; 27(6):647-653. PMID 34710229
- 32. Umapathy S, Thulasi R, Gupta N, et al. Thermography and colour Doppler ultrasound: a potential complementary diagnostic tool in evaluation of rheumatoid arthritis in the knee region. Biomed Tech (Berl). May 26 2020; 65(3):289-299. PMID 31821162
- 33. Jones B, Hassan I, Tsuyuki RT, et al. Hot joints: myth or reality? A thermographic joint assessment of inflammatory arthritis patients. Clin Rheumatol. Sep 2018; 37(9):2567-2571. PMID 29679167
- 34. Schiavon G, Capone G, Frize M, et al. Infrared Thermography for the Evaluation of Inflammatory and Degenerative Joint Diseases: A Systematic Review. Cartilage. Dec 2021; 13(2 suppl):1790S-1801S. PMID 34933442
- 35. Branco JHL, Branco RLL, Siqueira TC, et al. Clinical applicability of infrared thermography in rheumatic diseases: A systematic review. J Therm Biol. Feb 2022; 104:103172. PMID 35180959
- 36. Gatt A, Falzon O, Cassar K, et al. The application of medical thermography to discriminate neuroischemic toe ulceration in the diabetic foot. Int J Low Extrem Wounds. Jun 2018; 17(2):102-105. PMID 29947290
- 37. Gatt A, Falzon O, Cassar K, et al. Establishing differences in thermographic patterns between the various complications in diabetic foot disease. Int J Endocrinol. 2018:9808295. PMID 29721019
- 38. Balbinot LF, Robinson CC, Achaval M, et al. Repeatability of infrared plantar thermography in diabetes patients: a pilot study. J Diabetes Sci Technol. Sep 2013; 7(5):1130-1137. PMID 24124938

- 39. van Doremalen R, van Netten J, van Baal J, et al. Validation of low-cost smartphone-based thermal camera for diabetic foot assessment. Diabetes Res Clin Pract. Mar 2019; 149:132-139. PMID 30738090
- 40. Sandi S, Yusuf S, Kaelan C, et al. Evaluation risk of diabetic foot ulcers (DFUs) using infrared thermography based on mobile phone as advanced risk assessment tool in the community setting: A multisite cross-sectional study. Enferm Clin. Mar 2020; 30 Suppl 2:453-457. PMID 32204210
- 41. Hazenberg CE, van Netten JJ, van Baal SG, et al. Assessment of signs of foot infection in diabetes patients using photographic foot imaging and infrared thermography. Diabetes Technol Ther. Jun 2014; 16(6):370-377. PMID 24690146
- 42. Petrova NL, Donaldson NK, Tang W, et al. Infrared thermography and ulcer prevention in the high-risk diabetic foot: data from a single-blind multicentre controlled clinical trial. Diabet Med. Jan 2020; 37(1):95-104. PMID 31629373
- 43. Sardanelli F, Aase HS, Alvarez M, et al. Position paper on screening for breast cancer by the European Society of Breast Imaging (EUSOBI) and 30 national breast radiology bodies from Austria, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Israel, Lithuania, Moldova, The Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Serbia, Slovakia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland and Turkey. Eur Radiol. Jul 2017; 7(7):2737-2743. PMID 27807699
- 44. Qaseem A, Lin J, Mustafa R, et al. Screening for Breast Cancer in Average-Risk Women: A Guidance Statement From the American College of Physicians. Ann Intern Med. Apr 16 2019; 170(8):547-560. PMID 30959525
- 45. Mainiero M, Moy L, Baron P, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria® Breast Cancer Screening. J Am Coll Radiol. Nov 2017; 14(11S):S383-S390. PMID 29101979
- 46. National Comprehensive Cancer Network (NCCN). NCCN Clinical Practice Guidelines in Oncology: Breast Cancer Screening and Diagnosis. Version 3.2023. Available at https://www.nccn.org (accessed November 6, 2023).
- 47. U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Breast Cancer: Screening (2016). Available at http://www.uspreventiveservicestaskforce.org (accessed July 11, 2023).
- 48. Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services (CMS). National Coverage Determination for Thermography (220.11) (1992). Available at https://www.cms.gov (accessed July 11, 2023).

Additional Literature

- 49. Frykberg RG, Gordon IL, Reyzelman AM, et al. Feasibility and Efficacy of a Smart Mat Technology to Predict Development of Diabetic Plantar Ulcers. Diabetes Care. Jul 2017; 40(7):973-980. PMID 28465454
- 50. Lavery LA, Petersen BJ, Linders DR, et al. Unilateral remote temperature monitoring to predict future ulceration for the diabetic foot in remission. BMJ Open Diabetes Research and Care. 2019; 7:e000696.
- 51. Isaac AL, Swartz TD, Miller ML, et al. Lower resource utilization for patients with healed diabetic foot ulcers during participation in a prevention program with foot temperature monitoring. BMJ Open Diabetes Research and Care. 2020; 8:e001440.

52. Petersen BJ, Linde-Zwirble WT, Tam TW, et al. Higher rates of all-cause mortality and resource utilization during episodes-of-care for diabetic foot ulceration. Diabetes Res Clin Pract. Feb 2022; 184:109182. PMID 35063288

Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services (CMS)

The information contained in this section is for informational purposes only. HCSC makes no representation as to the accuracy of this information. It is not to be used for claims adjudication for HCSC Plans.

The Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services (CMS) does have a national Medicare coverage position. Coverage may be subject to local carrier discretion.

A national coverage position for Medicare may have been changed since this medical policy document was written. See Medicare's National Coverage at https://www.cms.hhs.gov.

Policy Histor	y/Revision
Date	Description of Change
11/15/2024	Reviewed. No changes.
12/01/2023	Document updated with literature review. Coverage unchanged.
	Added/updated the following references: 31, 34-35, 46, and 49-52.
10/01/2022	Document updated with literature review. Coverage unchanged.
	Added/updated the following references: 15, 19, and 43.
02/01/2022	Reviewed. No changes.
07/15/2021	Document updated with literature review. Coverage unchanged.
	Added/updated the following references: 29, 35, 37, and 41.
01/15/2021	Reviewed. No changes.
08/15/2020	Document updated with literature review. Coverage unchanged. References
	3, 4, 8, 9, 18, 24-28, 33, 36, 37 and 40 added, others updated.
04/01/2019	Document updated with literature review. Coverage unchanged. The
	following references were added: 3, 9, 15-20, 22-24.
04/15/2018	Reviewed. No changes.
03/01/2017	Document updated with literature review. Coverage unchanged.
02/15/2016	Reviewed. No changes.
02/01/2015	Document updated with literature review. Coverage unchanged.
09/01/2011	Document reviewed with literature review. Coverage unchanged, rationale
	and description updated.
02/15/2008	Revised/updated entire document
01/01/2006	Revised/updated entire document
10/24/2006	Revised/updated entire document
03/01/2005	CPT/HCPCS code(s) updated, medical policy unchanged
10/24/2003	Revised/updated entire document

11/01/1997	Revised/updated entire document
05/01/1996	Revised/updated entire document