Chest CT manifestations of new coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19): a pictorial review

Zheng Ye 1 · Yun Zhang 1 · Yi Wang 1 · Zixiang Huang 1 · Bin Song 1

Received: 25 February 2020 / Revised: 3 March 2020 / Accepted: 11 March 2020 / Published online: 19 March 2020
© European Society of Radiology 2020

Abstract
Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) outbreak, first reported in Wuhan, China, has rapidly swept around the world just within a month, causing global public health emergency. In diagnosis, chest computed tomography (CT) manifestations can supplement parts of limitations of real-time reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) assay. Based on a comprehensive literature review and the experience in the frontline, we aim to review the typical and relatively atypical CT manifestations with representative COVID-19 cases at our hospital, and hope to strengthen the recognition of these features with radiologists and help them make a quick and accurate diagnosis.

Key Points
• Ground glass opacities, consolidation, reticular pattern, and crazy paving pattern are typical CT manifestations of COVID-19.
• Emerging atypical CT manifestations, including airway changes, pleural changes, fibrosis, nodules, etc., were demonstrated in COVID-19 patients.
• CT manifestations may associate with the progression and prognosis of COVID-19.

Keywords Coronavirus infections · Pneumonia · Tomography, X-ray computed

Introduction
Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), a highly infectious disease caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), was firstly reported in Wuhan, Hubei Province, China, and rapidly spreads to other domestic cities and countries beyond China [1]. On January 30, 2020, the World Health Organization (WHO) declared this ongoing outbreak as a global public health emergency and raised the risk of COVID-19 to very high at the global level on February 28, 2020 [2]. A total of 88,948 COVID-19 cases with 3043 deaths were confirmed as of March 2, 2020, of which 80,174 were from China and 8774 were from other 64 countries [3]. In COVID-19 diagnosis, real-time reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) of viral nucleic acid is regarded as the reference standard; however, recent studies addressed the importance of chest computed tomography (CT) examination in COVID-19 patients with false negative RT-PCR results [4, 5], and reported the CT sensitivity as 98% [6]. Additionally, according to the official diagnosis and treatment protocol (6th edition) declared by the National Health Commission of China [7], CT examination is of great
CT manifestations of COVID-19

SARS-CoV-2 was reported to utilize angiotensin-converting enzyme-2 (ACE2) as the cell receptor into humans [14], and firstly causing pulmonary interstitial damages and subsequent with parenchymal changes. Table 1 shows the CT manifestations of COVID-19 in published articles. Reportedly, chest CT images could manifest different imaging features or patterns in COVID-19 patients with a different time course and disease severity [18, 20]. Hereinafter, we will respectively describe each imaging feature of COVID-19 with RT-PCR confirmed cases at our hospital.

Ground glass opacity

GGO were defined as hazy areas with slightly increased density in lungs without obscuration of bronchial and vascular margins, which may be caused by partial displacement of air due to partial filling of airspaces or interstitial thickening [26]. In patients with COVID-19, unilaterally or bilaterally GGO with a peripheral lung and subpleural distribution are commonly encountered [16, 19, 22] (Fig. 1a). In the very first radiologic investigation of 21 patients by Chung et al [9], GGO was found in 57% patients and was believed to be the earliest radiographically visible CT manifestation in some patients. These results are consistent with those of other subsequent studies, presenting GGO as the most common imaging finding with occurrence rate of up to 98% [23]. Recently, the first post-mortem biopsy in a COVID-19 patient was reported [27], showing pulmonary edema and hyaline membrane formation in both lungs, which we speculate may be the underlying pathological driver of GGO sign. Moreover, GGO are often accompanied by other features or patterns, including reticular and/or interlobular septal thickening and consolidation [19]. GGO together with small areas of consolidation may suggest an organizing pneumonia pattern of lung injury [28].

Consolidation

Consolidation refers to alveolar air being replaced by pathological fluids, cells, or tissues, manifested by an increase in pulmonary parenchymal density that obscures the margins of underlying vessels and airway walls [26]. Multifocal, patchy, or segmental consolidation, distributed in subpleural areas or along bronchovascular bundles, is usually presented in COVID-19 patients (Fig. 1b) with occurrence rate of 2–64% [12, 15, 23]. In COVID-19 patients, consolidation may relate to cellular fibromyxoid exudates in alveoli [27]. In addition, consolidation was considered as an indication of disease progression. A recent study showed lung involvement gradually increased to consolidation up to 2 weeks after disease onset [20], which concurs with another conclusion that GGO could progress to or co-existed with consolidations within 1–3 weeks [18]. Likewise, Song et al found more consolidative lesions in patients with longer time interval between symptom onset and CT scan or older than 50 years old [19], suggesting that this manifestation could serve as an alert in the management of patients.

Reticular pattern

Reticular pattern was defined as thickened pulmonary interstitial structures such as interlobular septa and intralobular lines [26, 29], manifested as a collection of innumerable small linear opacities on CT images (Fig. 2a). The formation of this pattern might associate with interstitial lymphocyte infiltration causing interlobular septal thickening [27]. Several studies have listed reticular pattern with interlobular septal thickening as the common chest CT manifestation of COVID-19, only second to GGO and consolidation [15, 18, 19]. As the disease course gets longer, the prevalence of reticular pattern could increase in COVID-19 patients [18].

Crazy paving pattern

Crazy paving pattern demonstrates as thickened interlobular septa and intralobular lines with superimposition on a GGO background, resembling irregular paving stones (Fig. 2b), which was not frequently observed as GGO and consolidation [20, 26]. Based on the previous pathological knowledge of SARS, this sign may result from the alveolar edema and interstitial inflammatory of acute lung injury [15, 30]. Recent investigations reported 5–36% COVID-19 patients with crazy paving pattern in their studies [12, 23]. Additionally, in combination with diffuse GGO and consolidation, crazy paving
Table 1  The occurrence rate of different CT manifestations of COVID-19 in published articles

| Author       | No. of patients | CT scan | GGO | Consolidation | GGO + consolidation | Interlobular septal thickening | Reticular pattern | Crazy paving | Air bronchogram | Bronchial wall thickening |
|--------------|-----------------|---------|-----|---------------|----------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------|-------------|-----------------|--------------------------|
| Wu et al [15]| 80              | S       | 91% (73/80) | 63% (50/80) | 59% (47/80)          | -                             | 29% (23/80)       | 11% (9/80) |
| Pan et al [16]| 63              | S       | 86% (54/63) | 19% (12/63) | -                    | -                             | -                 | -           | -               | -                        |
| Yoon et al [17]| 9*              | M       | 45% (35/77) | 5% (2/40)  | 50% (20/40)          | -                             | -                 | -           | -               | -                        |
| Shi et al [18]| 81              | S       | 65% (53/81) | 17% (14/81) | 35% (28/81)          | 4% (3/81)                     | 10% (8/81)        | -           | -               | -                        |
| Chung et al [9]| 21              | S       | 57% (12/21) | 29% (6/21)  | 29% (6/21)           | 14% (3/21)                    | 19% (4/21)        | -           | -               | -                        |
| Song et al [19]| 51              | S       | 76% (39/51) | 55% (28/51) | 59% (30/51)          | 75% (38/51)                   | 22% (11/51)       | -           | -               | -                        |
| Pan et al [20]| 21              | M       | 73% (60/82) | 63% (52/82) | -                    | -                             | 23% (19/82)       | -           | -               | -                        |
| Fang et al [6]| 51              | S       | 72% (36/50) | -          | -                    | -                             | -                 | -           | -               | -                        |
| Bernheim et al [12]| 121          | S       | 34% (41/121) | 2% (2/121)  | 41% (50/121)        | -                             | 5% (6/121)        | -           | -               | -                        |
| Ai et al [21]| 1014            | S       | 46% (409/888) | 50% (447/888) | 1% (8/888)        | 1% (8/888)                    | -                 | -           | -               | -                        |
| NG et al [22]| 21              | S       | 86% (18/21) | 62% (13/21) | 19% (4/21)          | -                             | -                 | -           | -               | -                        |
| Li et al [23]| 83              | S       | 98% (81/83) | 64% (53/83) | 63% (52/83)          | 5% (4/83)                     | 36% (30/83)       | -           | -               | -                        |
| Chen et al [24]| 99              | S       | 14% (14/99) | -          | -                    | -                             | -                 | -           | -               | -                        |
| Guan et al [25]| 1099            | S       | 56% (550/975) | -          | -                    | -                             | -                 | -           | -               | -                        |

| Author       | Bronchiolectasis | Pleural thickening | Pleural effusion | Subpleural line | Nodule | Reversed halo sign | Lymphadenopathy | Pericardial effusion | Others |
|--------------|-------------------|--------------------|------------------|-----------------|--------|-------------------|-----------------|----------------------|--------|
| Wu et al [15]| -                 | -                  | 6% (5/80)        | 20% (16/80)     | -      | 4% (3/80)         | 5% (4/80)       | -                    | -      |
| Pan et al [16]| -                | -                  | -                | -               | 13% (8/63) | -                 | -               | -                    | Fibrous stripes 17% (11/63) |
| Yoon et al [17]| -               | -                  | -                | -               | 3% (1/37) | -                 | -               | -                    | -      |
| Shi et al [18]| 11% (9/81)       | 32% (26/81)        | 5% (4/81)        | -               | 6% (5/81) | 6% (5/81)         | -               | -                    | -      |
| Chung et al [9]| -                | -                  | 5% (4/51)        | -               | 6% (3/51) | 6% (3/51)         | -               | -                    | -      |
| Song et al [19]| -                | -                  | 8% (4/51)        | -               | -       | -                 | -               | -                    | -      |
| Pan et al [20]| -                | -                  | -                | -               | -       | -                 | -               | -                    | -      |
| Fang et al [6]| -                | -                  | -                | -               | -       | -                 | -               | -                    | -      |
| Bernheim et al [12]| -    | -                  | 1% (1/121)      | -               | 2% (2/121) | -                 | -               | Bronchiectasis 1% (1/121) |
| Ai et al [21]| -                | -                  | -                | 3% (24/888)     | -       | -                 | -               | -                    | -      |
| NG et al [22]| -                | -                  | -                | -               | -       | -                 | -               | -                    | -      |
| Li et al [23]| -                | -                  | 8% (7/83)        | 20% (17/83)     | 7% (6/83) | 8% (7/83)         | 5% (4/83)       | -                    | -      |
| Chen et al [24]| -                | -                  | -                | -               | -       | -                 | -               | -                    | -      |
| Guan et al [25]| -                | -                  | -                | -               | -       | -                 | -               | -                    | -      |

*77 lesions in 9 patients were assessed (40 patchy to confluent lesions and 37 nodular lesions)

COVID-19, coronavirus disease 2019; No. of patients, number of patients; M, multiple, indicating multiple CT scans were assessed; S, single, indicating single CT scan was assessed; GGO, ground glass opacities
pattern can be the signal of COVID-19 entering progressive or peak stage [20].

**Air bronchogram**

Air bronchogram was defined as a pattern of air-filled (low-attenuation) bronchi on a background of opaque (high-attenuation) airless lung [26] and was reported to be another CT manifestation of COVID-19 [17, 19] (Fig. 3a). However, according to a recent general observation report of the COVID-19 autopsy [31], gelatinous mucus attachment was present in the lung bronchus; therefore, we infer the low-attenuation bronchi in CT imaging may be filled with gelatinous mucus instead of air. Moreover, this sign was often accompanied by slightly bronchiolar dilatation, and thus we think it may be more appropriate to term it as bronchiolectasis. As for the dry cough in COVID-19 patients, we surmise it may be explained by the high viscosity of mucus and the damage of dilated bronchioles, resulting in insufficient sputum motility.

**Airway changes**

Airway changes include bronchiecasis and bronchial wall thickening (Fig. 3b). Bronchiecasis was reported in some COVID-19 cases [4, 10], while bronchial wall thickening has been reported in around 10% to 20% COVID-19 patients [15, 23]. Pathogenesis can be the inflammatory damage of the bronchial wall and the bronchial obstruction, resulting in the destruction of bronchial wall structure, proliferation of fibrous tissue, fibrosis, and tractive bronchiolectasis [26]. Li et al investigated 83 COVID-19 patients and found the incidence of bronchial wall thickening in severe/critical patients was significantly higher than that in ordinary patients [23].

**Pleural changes**

Pleural changes including pleural thickening (Fig. 4a) and pleural effusion were reported in COVID-19, among which, the former sign is more prevalent [18]. According to a recent study comprising 81 patients with COVID-19, 32% of them...
demonstrated pleural thickening while 5% showed pleural effusion [12, 18]. Based on the experience of Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (MERS-CoV) infection and recent findings [18, 23], the presence of pleural effusion may suggest a poor prognosis in COVID-19. Moreover, the recent autopsy report also revealed a photo of pleural thickening with extensive adhesion in a COVID-19 patient [31], suggesting consistency between CT imaging presentations and autopsy findings.

**Subpleural curvilinear line**

This manifestation was defined as a thin curvilinear opacity with 1–3 mm thickness, lying less than 1 cm from and parallel...
to the pleural surface [26] (Fig. 4b). Wu et al [15] and Li et al [23] both reported around 20% of patients with COVID-19 demonstrated this sign, which might relate to pulmonary edema or fibrosis of COVID-19.

**Fibrosis**

CT manifestations of fibrosis or fibrous stripes were also observed in COVID-19 (Fig. 4c). Pan et al [16] reported 17% COVID-19 patients with fibrous stripes in their study. Fibrous lesions may form during the healing of pulmonary chronic inflammation or proliferative diseases, with gradual replacement of cellular components by scar tissues. Currently, the relation between fibrosis and patients’ prognosis is debatable. Some researchers suggested the presence of fibrosis indicates good prognosis of a COVID-19 patient with stabilizing disease status [16]. However, others argued that fibrosis might indicate a poor outcome of COVID-19, reporting it may subsequently progress to peak stage or result in pulmonary interstitial fibrosis disease [20, 32].

**Vascular enlargement**

Vascular enlargement is often described as the dilatation of pulmonary vessels around and within the lesions on CT images (Fig. 4d). One previous study reported this particular CT manifestation on a RT-PCR-negative COVID-19 patient who was admitted to a hospital 6 days after symptom onset [4]. Although rarely reported, we found this manifestation in most of our cases, which might be attributed to the damage and swelling of the capillary wall caused by pro-inflammatory factors.

**Air bubble sign**

Air bubble sign refers to a small air-containing space in the lung (Fig. 5a), which might be the pathological dilation of a physiological space or a cross section of the bronchiolactasis, or associated with the process of consolidation resorption. Shi et al termed this sign as round cystic change in their study [18], while Kong et al reported it as cavity sign [32]. However, given the displayed pictures in their studies and the definition of cyst and cavity [26], we believe it may be more appropriate to term this small bubble-like air-containing space as air bubble sign.

**Nodules**

A nodule refers to a rounded or irregular opacity with well- or poorly defined edges, measuring less than 3 cm in diameter [26] (Fig. 5b). This sign has been frequently associated with viral pneumonia [33]. As reported, 3–13% of COVID-19 patients can appear with multifocal solid irregular nodules [16, 21] or nodules with visible halo sign [34].

**Halo sign**

Halo sign was defined as nodules or masses surrounded by ground glass [26] (Fig. 5c). In current limited research, only Li et al [34] reported a case of halo sign in a 27-year-old female COVID-19 patient. In the past, halo sign is thought to be associated with perilesional hemorrhage in angioinvasive fungal infections or hypervascular metastases [35], as well as viral infections and organizing pneumonia [36]. However, the main pathological driver of this manifestation remains unknown at present.
Reversed halo sign or atoll sign

Reversed halo sign, also known as atoll sign, was under a definition of a focal rounded GGO surrounded by a more or less complete ring-like consolidation [26] (see Fig. 5d). It was initially reported to be specific for cryptogenic organizing pneumonia [37, 38] but was subsequently described in other patients [39]. Recently, this sign was reported in several COVID-19 cases, which may be attributed to disease progression making consolidation developed around GGO or lesion absorption leaving a decreased intensity in the center [5, 12, 17, 40].

Lymphadenopathy

Thresholds for lymphadenopathy were somewhat arbitrary, typically 1 cm in short axis diameter for mediastinal nodes [26] (Fig. 6). Lymphadenopathy was reported in 4–8% of patients with COVID-19 [15, 18]. Moreover, lymphadenopathy was considered one of the significant risk factors of severe/critical COVID-19 pneumonia [23]. Occurring with pleural effusion and extensive tiny lung nodules may suggest bacterial super-infection [41].

Pericardial effusion

Pericardial effusion is rare to identify in COVID-19 patients, with incidence of approximately 5%, which may indicate the occurrence of severe inflammation [15, 23]. A recent study found severe/critical COVID-19 patients showed higher incidences of pericardial effusion than ordinary patients [23].

Summary

Early recognition and isolation of COVID-19 patients is of crucial importance in controlling this outbreak, especially in those with false negative RT-PCR or without symptoms. Although bilateral GGO and consolidation were reported as the predominant imaging characteristics in COVID-19, chest CT manifestations can vary in different patients and stages. In this paper, we review the typical and atypical CT manifestations with representative pictures and, hopefully, help familiarize radiologists with these features and make right diagnosis when encountering. Moreover, as the COVID-19 autopsies were in progress, we believe that the radiologic-pathologic correlation will be further explored, which is expected to be helpful in determining prognostic imaging features and guiding clinical treatment.
References

1. Zhu N, Zhang D, Wang W et al (2020) A novel coronavirus from patients with pneumonia in China, 2019. N Engl J Med. https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa2001017
2. World Health Organization (2020) Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) situation report–39. World Health Organization, Geneva. Available via https://www.who.int/docs/default-source/coronaviruse/situation-reports/20200228-sitrep-39-covid-19.pdf?sfvrsn=5bfb3fe7d_2. Accessed 3 Mar 2020
3. World Health Organization (2020) Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) situation report–42. World Health Organization, Geneva. Available via https://www.who.int/docs/default-source/coronaviruse/20200302-sitrep-42-covid-19.pdf?sfvrsn=d863e045_2. Accessed 3 Mar 2020
4. Xie X, Zhong Z, Zhao W, Zheng C, Wang F, Liu J (2020) Chest CT for typical 2019-nCoV pneumonia: relationship to negative RT-PCR testing. Radiology. https://doi.org/10.1148/radiol.2020200343
5. Huang P, Liu T, Huang L et al (2020) Use of chest CT in combination with negative RT-PCR assay for the 2019 novel coronavirus but high clinical suspicion. Radiology. https://doi.org/10.1148/radiol.2020200330
6. Fang Y, Zhang H, Xie J et al (2020) Sensitivity of chest CT for COVID-19: comparison to RT-PCR. Radiology. https://doi.org/10.1148/radiol.2020200432
7. National Health Commission of the People’s Republic of China (2020) The diagnostic and treatment protocol of COVID-19. Available via http://www.gov.cn/zhengce/zhengceku/2020–02/02/content_5480948.htm Accessed 3 Mar 2020
8. Wang D, Hu B, Hu C et al (2020) Clinical characteristics of 138 hospitalized patients with 2019 novel coronavirus–infected pneumonia in Wuhan, China. JAMA. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.1585
9. Chung M, Bernheim A, Mei X et al (2020) CT imaging features of 2019 novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV). Radiology. https://doi.org/10.1148/radiol.2020200230
10. Fang Y, Zhang H, Xu Y, Xie J, Pang P, Ji W (2020) CT manifestations of two cases of 2019 novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) pneumonia. Radiology. https://doi.org/10.1148/radiol.2020200280
11. Qian L, Yu J, Shi H (2020) Severe acute respiratory disease in a Huanan seafood market worker: images of an early casualty. Radiology: Cardiothoracic Imaging. https://doi.org/10.1148/ryct.2020200033
12. Bernheim A, Mei X, Huang M et al (2020) Chest CT findings in coronavirus disease-19 (COVID-19): relationship to duration of infection. Radiology. https://doi.org/10.1148/radiol.2020200463
13. Kay F, Abbara S (2020) The many faces of COVID-19: spectrum of imaging manifestations. Radiology: Cardiothoracic Imaging. https://doi.org/10.1148/ryct.2020200037
14. Xu X, Chen P, Wang J et al (2020) Evolution of the novel coronavirus from the ongoing Wuhan outbreak and modeling of its spike protein for risk of human transmission. Sci China Life Sci 2020:1–4
15. Wu J, Wu X, Zeng W et al (2020) Chest CT findings in patients with coronavirus disease 2019 and its relationship with clinical features. Invest Radiol. https://doi.org/10.1093/IR/RLA0000000000670
16. Pan Y, Guan H, Zhou S et al (2020) Initial CT findings and temporal changes in patients with the novel coronavirus pneumonia (2019-nCoV): a study of 63 patients in Wuhan, China. Eur Radiol. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00330-020-06731-x
17. Yoon S, Lee K, Kim J et al (2020) Chest radiographic and CT findings of the 2019 novel coronavirus disease (COVID-19): analysis of nine patients treated in Korea. Korean J Radiol. https://doi.org/10.3348/kjr.2020.0132
18. Shi H, Han X, Jiang N et al (2020) Radiological findings from 81 patients with COVID-19 pneumonia in Wuhan, China: a descriptive study. Lancet Infect Dis. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(20)30086-4
19. Song F, Shi N, Shan F et al (2020) Emerging coronavirus 2019-nCoV pneumonia. Radiology. https://doi.org/10.1148/radiol.2020200274
20. Pan F, Ye T, Sun P et al (2020) Time course of lung changes on chest CT during recovery from 2019 novel coronavirus (COVID-19) pneumonia. Radiology. https://doi.org/10.1148/radiol.2020200370
21. Ai T, Yang Z, Hou H et al (2020) Correlation of chest CT and RT-PCR testing in coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) in China: a report of 1014 cases. Radiology. https://doi.org/10.1148/radiol.2020200642
22. Ng M-Y, Lee EY, Yang J et al (2020) Imaging profile of the COVID-19 infection: radiologic findings and literature review. Radiology: Cardiothoracic Imaging. https://doi.org/10.1148/ryct.2020200034
23. Kunhua Li JW, Wu F, Guo D, Chen L, Zheng F, Li C (2020) The clinical and chest CT features associated with severe and critical COVID-19 pneumonia. Invest Radiol. https://doi.org/10.1097/RLI.0000000000000672
24. Chen N, Zhou M, Dong X et al (2020) Epidemiological and clinical characteristics of 99 cases of 2019 novel coronavirus pneumonia in Wuhan, China: a descriptive study. Lancet. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30211-7
25. Guan WJ, Ni ZY, Hu Y et al (2020) Clinical characteristics of coronavirus disease 2019 in China. N Engl J Med. https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa200232
26. Hansell DM, Bankier AA, MacMahon H, McLeod TC, Muller NL, Remy J (2008) Fleischner Society: glossary of terms for thoracic imaging. Radiology 246:697–722
27. Xu Z, Shi L, Wang Y et al (2020) Pathological findings of COVID-19 associated with acute respiratory distress syndrome. Lancet Respir Med. https://doi.org/10.1016/S2213-2600(20)30076-X
28. Kanne JP (2020) Chest CT findings in 2019 novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) infections from Wuhan, China: key points for the radiologist. Radiology. https://doi.org/10.1148/radiol.2020200241
29. Ajlan AM, Ahyad RA, Jamjoom LG, Alharthy A, Madani TA (2014) Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (MERS-CoV) infection: chest CT findings. AJR Am J Roentgenol 203: 782–787
30. Wong K, Antonio GE, Hui DS et al (2003) Thin-section CT of cryptogenic organizing pneumonia: diagnostic imaging. AJR Am J Roentgenol 180:1251–1257
31. Xi Liu RW, Guoqiang Q, Wang Y et al (2020) A observational study of 99 cases of 2019 novel coronavirus pneumonia in Wuhan, China: key points for the radiologist. Radiology. https://doi.org/10.1148/radiol.2020200241
32. Kong W, Agarwal PP (2020) Chest imaging appearance of COVID-19 infection: chest CT findings. AJR Am J Roentgenol 203: 782–787
33. Wang K, Antonio GE, Hui DS et al (2003) Thin-section CT of cryptogenic organizing pneumonia: diagnostic imaging. AJR Am J Roentgenol 180:1251–1257
34. Kuhlman JE, Fishman EK, Siegelman S (1985) Invasive pulmonary aspergillosis in acute leukemia: characteristic findings on CT, the atoll sign. Radiology 156:611–614
35. Zompatori M, Poletti V, Battista G, Diegoli M (1999) Bronchiolitis obliterans with organizing pneumonia (BOOP), presenting as a ring-shaped opacity at HRCT (the atoll sign). A case report. Radiol Med 97:308
36. Kim SJ, Lee KS, Ryu YH et al (2003) Reversed halo sign on high-resolution CT of cryptogenic organizing pneumonia: diagnostic implications. AJR Am J Roentgenol 180:1251–1254
39. Gasparetto EL, Escuissato DL, Davaus T et al (2005) Reversed halo sign in pulmonary paracoccidioidomycosis. AJR Am J Roentgenol 184:1932–1934

40. Xu RDM, Li L, Zhen Z, Wang H, Hu X (2020) CT imaging of one extended family cluster of corona virus disease 2019 (COVID-19) including adolescent patients and “silent infection”. Quant Imaging Med Surg. https://doi.org/10.21037/qims.2020.02.13

41. Kanne JP, Little BP, Chung JH, Elicker BM, Ketai LH (2020) Essentials for radiologists on COVID-19: an update—radiology scientific expert panel. Radiology. https://doi.org/10.1148/radiol.2020200527

Publisher’s note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.