The American College of Radiology, with more than 30,000 members, is the principal organization of radiologists, radiation onco logists, and clinical medical physicists in the United States. The College is a nonprofit professional society whose primary purposes are to advance the science of radiology, improve radiologic services to the patient, study the socioecono mic aspects of the practice of radiology, and encour age continuing education for radiologists, radiation oncologists, medical physicists, and persons practicing in allied professional fields.

The American College of Radiology will periodically define new practice para meters and technical standards for radiologic practice to help advance the science of radiology and to improve the quality of service to patients throughout the United States. Existing practice parameters and technical standards will be reviewed for revision or renewal, as appropriate, on their fifth anniversary or sooner, if indicated.

Each practice parameter and technical standard, representing a policy statement by the College, has undergone a thorough consensus process in which it has been subjected to extensive review and approval. The practice parameters and technical standards recognize that the safe and effective use of diagnostic and therapeutic radiology requires specific training, skills, and techniques, as desc ribed in each document. Reproduction or modification of the published practice parameter and technical standard by those entities not providing these services is not authorized.

Amended 2014 (Resolution 39)\*

# ACR-SPR PRACTICE PARAMETER FOR THE PERFORMANCE OF RENAL SCINTIGRAPHY

#### PREAMBLE

This document is an educ ational tool designed to assist practitioners in pr oviding appropriate radiologic care for patients. Practice Parameters and Technical Standards are not inflexible rules or requirements of practice and are not intended, nor should they be used, to establish a legal standard of care <sup>1</sup>. For these reasons and those set forth below, the American College of Radiol ogy and our collaborating medical specialty societies caution against the use of these documents in litigation in which the clinical decisions of a practitioner are called into question.

The ultimate judgment regarding the propriety of any specific procedure or course of action must be made by the physician or medical physicist in light of all the circumstances presented. Thus, an approach that differs from the practice parameters, standing alone, does not necess arily imply that the approach was below the standard of care. To the contrary, a conscientious practitioner may responsibly adopt a course of action different from that set forth in the practice parameters when, in the reasonable judgment of the practitioner, such course of action is indicated by the condition of the patient, limitations of avail able resources, or advances in knowledge or technology subsequent to publication of t he practice parameters. However, a practitioner who employ s an approach substantially different from these practice parameters is advised to docum ent in the patient record information sufficient to explain the approach taken.

The practice of medicine involves not only the science, but also the art of dealing with the prevention, diagnosis, alleviation, and treat ment of disease. The variety and complexity of hum an conditions make it impossible to always reach the most appropriate diagnosis or to pred ict with certainty a particular response to treat ment. Therefore, it should be r ecognized that adherence to these practice par ameters will not assure an accurate diagnosis or a successful outcome. All that should be expected is that the practitioner will follow a reasonable course of action based on c urrent knowledge, available resources, and the needs of the patient to deliver effective and safe medical care. The sole purpos e of these practice pa rameters is to assist practitioners in achieving this objective.

# I. INTRODUCTION

This practice parameter was revised collaboratively by the American College of Radiology (ACR) and the Society for Pediatric Radiology (SPR) to guide physicians performing renal scintigraphy in adult and pediatric patients. Renal scintigraphy involves the intravenous injection of a radiopharmaceutical, which is extracted from the blood by the kidneys and imaged using a gamma camera. Esti mation of renal function using a well counter may be performed in conjunction with, or in lieu of, renal scintigraphy.

Properly performed, renal scintigraphy is a sensitive means for detecting, evaluating, and quantifying a variety of renal disorders. Pharmacologic manipulation may enhance the sensitivity and specificity in certain renal diseases. It also is possible to accurately quantify some guidelines of renal function. As with all scintigraphic examinations, correlation of findings with the results of other im aging and nonimaging procedures, as w ell as with cl inical information, is imperative for maximum diagnostic yield.

The goal of renal scintigraphy is to enable the physician to detect anatomic and/or functional abnormalities of the kidneys or urinary tract by interpreting images of diagnostic quality and/or using reliable quantitative data.

Application of this standard should b e in accordance with the ACR–SNM Technical Standard for Diagnostic Procedures Using Radiopharmaceuticals.

# II. INDICATIONS

Clinical indications for renal scintigraph y include, but are not lim ited, to detection, evaluation , and/or quantification of:

- 1. Renal function.
- 2. Congenital and acquired renal abnormalities, including mass lesions.
- 3. Urinary tract obstruction.
- 4. Renovascular hypertension.
- 5. Pyelonephritis and parenchymal scarring.
- 6. Renal allografts.
- 7. Guidelines of renal function, including effective rena l plasma flow (ERPF), glom erular filtration rate (GFR), and differential (also known as split or relative) renal function.

For the pregnant or potentially pregnant patient, see the ACR–SPR Practice Parameter for Imaging Pregnant or Potentially Pregnant Adolescents and Women with Ionizing Radiation.

#### III. QUALIFICATIONS AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF PERSONNEL

See the ACR-SNM Technical Standard for Diagnostic Procedures Using Radiopharmaceuticals.

#### IV. SPECIFICATIONS OF THE EXAMINATION

The written or electronic request for renal scintigraphy should provide sufficient information to demonstrate the medical necessity of the examination and allow for its proper performance and interpretation.

Documentation that satisfies medical necessity includes 1) signs and s ymptoms and/or 2) relevant history (including known diagnoses). Additional inform ation regarding the specific r eason for the exam ination or a provisional diagnosis would be helpful and may at times be needed to allow for the pro per performance and interpretation of the examination.

The request for the examination must be originated by a physician or other appropriately licensed health care provider. The accompanying clinical information should be provided by a physician or other appropriately

licensed health care provider familiar with the patient's clinical problem or question and consistent with the state scope of practice requirements. (ACR Resolution 35, adopted in 2006)

# A. Radiopharmaceuticals

Radiopharmaceuticals for evaluation of the kidneys may be classified into 3 broad categories.

- 1. Tubular radiopharmaceuticals: mainly cleared by tubular secretion [1]
  - a. Technetium-99m mercaptoacetyl triglycine (MAG3)

This radiopharmaceutical is rapidly extracted and secr eted by tubular cells in a manner that is qualitatively similar to the action of orthoiodohippurate (OIH). Renal uptake of MAG3 is reduced by poor function but not as severely as with technetium-99m DTPA. MAG3 may be used quantitatively or qualitatively for evaluating obstructive uropathy, renovascular hypertension, and renal allografts and has been used to estimate ERPF. Administered activity of up to 10 millicuries (370 MBq) is used for adults. Administered activity for children should be determined based on body weight and should be as low as reasonably achievable for diagnostic image quality.<sup>1</sup> Pediatric ad ministered activity ranges from 0.05 to 0.1 millicuries (1.85 to 3.7 MBq) per kilogram , with a minimum of 0.5 millicuries (18.5 MBq) and a maximum of 5.0 millicuries (185 MBq)<sup>2</sup> [2].

- 2. Glomerular radiopharmaceuticals: mainly cleared by glomerular filtration
  - a. Technetium-99m diethylene triamine penta-acetic acid (DTPA)
    - This radiopharmaceutical is excreted predom inantly by glomerular filtration and can be used to measure GFR. Excretion by the kidneys is significantly affected by reduced renal function. The radiopharmaceutical may be used to assess r enal blood fl ow and function, renal allografts, renovascular hypertension, and obstructive uropathy. For dynamic renal scintigraphy, administered activity of up to 15 millicuries (555 MBq) may be given to adults. If the examination is performed for calculation of GFR without imaging, the ad ministered activity may be reduced to 0.20 to 0.50 millicurie (7.4 to 18.5 MBq). Administered activity for children should be determined based on body weight and should be as l ow as reasonably achievable for diagnostic image qualit y.<sup>1</sup> For children, administered activities are typically in the range of 0.1 to 0.2 millicurie (3.7 to 7.4 MBq) per kilogram, with a minimum of 1.0 millicurie (37 MBq) and a maximum of 5.0 millicuries [2] (185 MBq).
  - b. Iodine-125 iothalamate

This radiopharmaceutical is used in administered activities of 0.01 to 0.05 millicurie (0.37 to 1.85 MBq) for the nonimaging assessment of GFR.

- 3. Cortical radiopharmaceuticals: primarily incorporated by tubular cells
  - a. Technetium-99m dimercaptosuccinic acid (DMSA)

This radiopharmaceutical is predom inantly incorporated by renal tubular cells with a minor component of glom erular filtration. It is an excellent parenchymal im aging radiopharmaceutical, primarily used for detecting and defining py elonephritis and renal cortical scars. Technetium -99m DMSA is also used to assess the si ze, shape, position, and relative functional cortical mass of the kidneys. Administered activit y of up to 5.0 m illicuries (185 MBq) may be given to adults. Administered activity for children should be determined based on body weight and should be as lo w as reasonably achievable for diagnostic image quality. For children, an administered activity of 0.05 to 0.1 millicurie (1.85 to 3.7 MBq) per kilogram is usually given, with a minimum of 0.3 millicurie (11.1 MBq) and a maximum of 3.0 millicurie (1111 MBq)<sup>2</sup> [2].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>For more specific guidance on pediatric dosing, please refer to the *Pediatric Radiopharmaceutical Administered Doses: 2010 North American Consensus Guidelines* [9]

#### B. Radionuclide Renography

Radionuclide renography refers to serial imaging after intravenous ad ministration of technetium-99m DTPA or technetium-99m MAG3. It is used for qualitative and quantitative evaluation of differenti al renal function. A commonly used technique involves dynam ic acquisition of 1-2 second images for 1 m inute (vascular phase), followed by 15-60 second images for 20 to 30 minutes (functional uptake, cortical transit, and excretion phases). If evaluation of renal perfusion is not needed, the examination is performed without the first phase.

The regions of interest are typically dr awn around the whole kidneys, but occasionally are limited to the renal cortex if a considerable amount of collecting system activity is present. A background region of interest is placed adjacent to each kidney. Depending on the regions of inter est drawn, the time-activity curves will reflect the functional clearance of the whole kidn ey, renal cortex, or collecting system. The differential renal function is calculated based on the relative counts accumulated in each kidney during the second minute after injection of the radiopharmaceutical.

#### C. Diuresis Renography

Diuresis renography is used to differentiate a dilated but nonobstructed collecting system from a dilated system with urodynamically significant obstruction. It is also useful for assessing functional and urodynamic results of corrective surgery.

A commonly used technique includes intravenous adm inistration of technetium-99m MAG3 or techneti um-99m DTPA and acquisition of dynamic 15-60 second posterior renal images for 20 to 30 minutes [3,4]. Furosemide, 0.5 mg/kg (1 mg/kg for children) with a maximum dose of 40 mg, is then administered intravenously, and dynamic 15-60 second renal images are obtained for another 20 to 30 minutes (F+20). Other techniques include administering furosemide 15 minutes prior to (F-15) or at the time of (F0) radiopharmaceutical administration. The initial set of images is used for evaluating di fferential renal function. T he images obtain ed after administration of f urosemide are used for quantita tive analysis of postdiuresis clearance of the radiopharmaceutical from the dilated collecting system(s). Regions of interest, including the entire dilated collecting system(s), are drawn and a background subtracted time-activity curve is generated.

Diuresis renography is usually performed with the patient in the supine position. This may cause delay ed clearance of the tracer from some dilated but nonobstructed collecting systems. Therefore, an additional posterior static image after the patient has been in an uprig ht position for 10 to 15 m inutes will help to assess gravity-assisted clearance [3].

It is important to ensure that the patient is well h ydrated. Intravenous fluid infusion is particularly useful in children. A distended bladder may prolon g renal co llecting system drainage. Depending on clinical circumstances, an indwelling bladder catheter may be necessary to assess adequately for obstruction of the upper tracts [3].

The natural history of hydronephrosis in children, particularly in neonates, is variable, and definitive diagnosis of obstructive uropathy on a single diure sis renogram is often dif ficult. Multiple examinations at appropriate intervals may be needed to detect gradual im provement or worsening of the postdiu resis drainage. Therefore, whatever technique is us ed, it should be standardized in order to allow meaningful comparison of the serial examinations in each patient.

#### D. Captopril (ACE Inhibitor) Renography

Renovascular hypertension is caused by hemodynamically significant stenosis of the renal artery or one of its branches. However; renal artery stenosis may be present but not be the etiology of the patient's hypertension. Therefore, the goal of ren al scintigraphy in the evaluation of hypertensive patients is to identify those who have renal artery stenosis with associated renin-dependent hypertension and would benefit from revascularization [5].

In the presence of hemodynamically significant renal artery stenosis, renal perfusion pressure is reduced, resulting in activation of the renin-angiotensin system. Angiotensin II causes selective constriction of the efferent arterioles and raises the pressur e gradient across the glo merular capillary membrane. Because of this autoregulatory mechanism, the GFR is maintained and conventi onal renal scintigraphy may be normal. In these patients, blockade of the conversion of angiot ensin I to angiotensin II b y administering angiotensin converting enzy me (ACE) inhibitors causes dilatation of the efferent arterioles. This leads to a significant but reversible dec rease in GFR that is detectable on renal scintigraphy.

The choice of radiopharmaceutical, ACE inhibitor and technique of examinati on varies among institutions. Technetium-99m MAG3 is preferred, but technetiu m-99m DTPA may be used. Renal scintigraphy is performed approximately 1 ho ur after oral administration of 25 to 50 milligrams of captopril or 10 to 20 minutes after intravenous injection of 40 micrograms/kg (maximum 2.5 mg) of Enalaprilat. The usual administered dose of captopril in children is 1 mg/kg with a maximum of 50 mg.

Food ingestion within 4 hours prior to captopril administration may decrease absorption and test accuracy [6]. Blood pressure should be measured bef ore administration of the ACE inhibitor and monitored every 10 to 15 minutes. An intravenous li ne should be kept in place to allow prompt fluid replacement if the patient becomes hypotensive. Furosemide (0.25 mg/kg, maximum 20 mg) given intravenously at the time of radiopharmaceutical administration decreases radiopharmaceutical retention in the collecting systems and may facilitate detection of cortical retention of the radiopharmaceutical. The patient should be well hydrated, especially if furosemide is used [6].

One protocol is to obtain a baseline scan without an ACE inhibitor followed by a repeat exam ination after administration of an ACE inhibitor on the same or following day [5]. The combined examinations help to detect subtle ACE inhibitor induced scintigraphic abnormalities.

An alternative protocol is to obtain t he examination with an ACE inhibitor first [6]. A normal examination indicates a low probability for renovascular hy pertension and obviates the need for a baseline examination without an ACE inhibitor. If the examination with an ACE inhibitor is abnorm al, a baseline examination is obtained the next day or later.

Chronic use of ACE inhibitors may decrease the sensitivity of the test. ACE inhibitors should be discontinued for 3 to 7 days before the test, depending on their half-life. If stopping the patient's ACE inhibitor is not possible, the study may still be performed [5,6].

#### E. Evaluation of Renal Allografts

Technetium-99m MAG3 or technetium-99m DTPA may be used for evaluating renal allografts. Renal perfusion images are obtained using a technique similar to that outlined in section V.B, except that an anterior projection is used and is centered over the lower abdomen and pelvis. It is possible to assess the presence or absence of renal perfusion, urine leaks, infarcts, ly mphoceles, hematomas, acute tubular necros is, obstruction, nephrotoxic effect of medications (e.g., cyclosporin A), and rejection. Comparison of serial examinations will enhance detection of subtle physiological changes [7,8].

#### F. Renal Cortical Imaging

The radiopharmaceutical for renal cortical i maging is technetium-99m DMSA. In m ost cases, optimal parenchymal imaging can be obtained 2 to 4 hours after injection. If there is significant h ydronephrosis, delayed images at 24 hours or administration of furosem ide prior to delayed imaging may be helpful. If there is no retention of tracer in the c ollecting system, relative renal function can be calculated. When assessing differential renal function in children with vesicour eteral reflux, refluxed radiopharmaceutical may interfere with accurate quantification [9].

In adults, between 500,000 and 1,000,000 counts per i mage are desirable. At least 300,000 counts or 5 minutes per image should be used when imaging children [10]. A 256 x 256 matrix is preferred. Pinhole (4 mm aperture) images may be useful, especially in infants. Pinhole images should be acquired for a minimum of 100,000 to 150,000 counts or 10 m inutes per image. At a minimum, posterior and both posterior oblique views should be obtained. When imaging a "horseshoe" or pelvic kidney, anterior images should also be obtained. Single-photonemission computed tomography (SPECT) imaging may also be performed, although no definitive improvement in sensitivity has been demonstrated, and false-positive SPECT defects may decrease specificity [11]. Determination of differential renal function should be performed on the posterior plan ar image using a parallel-hole collimator. Background and depth corrections are optional. Depth correction, which can be accomplished by using the geometric mean, should be considered when there is a major rvariation or abnormality in the shape or location of the kidneys such as with a "horseshoe" or pelvic kidney.

#### G. Estimation of GFR

The radiopharmaceuticals used for estimating GFR are technetium -99m DTPA and iodi ne-125 iothalamate. Numerous protocols are available, some of which involve imaging [1,10,12-14]. Whichever protocol is used, it is imperative that the technique is meticulous and that the protocol is followed assiduously.

# H. Estimation of ERPF

Technetium-99m MAG3 does not provide a true ERPF measurement, but it provides a value that can be extrapolated to an ERPF equivalent measurement. Numerous protocols are available, so me of which involve imaging [1,12,15,16]. Whichever protocol is used, it is im perative that the technique is m eticulous and that the protocol is followed assiduously.

# V. EQUIPMENT

A gamma camera with a parallel-hole collimator is required. When magnification is desired, a pinhole collimator may be used. For adults, a large-field-of-view gamma camera (400 mm) is desirable, but for children a small-field-of-view camera (250 to 300 mm) is also acceptable. If a large-field-of-view camera is used in a pediatric patient, "zoom" or pinhole collimation may be used. For most situations using technetium-99m-labeled tracers, low-energy all-purpose/general all-purpose (LEAP/GAP) collimators are sufficient. If re nal cortical a natomic detail is desired, a high-resolution collimator will improve image quality, provided the count density is adequate.

For digital acquisition, a 128 x 128 matrix is the minimum necessary, but a 256 x 256 matrix may be preferred. SPECT (or SPECT/CT in adults) renal imaging using techn etium-99m DMSA may be helpful in some circumstances.

#### VI. DOCUMENTATION

Reporting should be in accordance with the ACR Practice Parameter for Communication of Diagnostic I maging Findings.

The report should include the radiopharmaceutical used and the administered activity and route of administration, as well as any other pharmaceuticals administered, also with dose and route of administration.

# VII. RADIATION SAFETY

Radiologists, medical physicists, regist ered radiologist assistants, radiologic technologists, and all supervisin g physicians have a responsibility for safety in the workplace by keeping radiation exposure to staff, and to society as a whole, "as low as reasonably achievable" (ALARA) and to assure that radiation doses to individual patients are appropriate, taking into account the possible risk from radiation exposure and the diagnostic image quality necessary to achieve the clinical objec tive. All personnel that work with ionizing radiation must understand the

key principles of occupat ional and public radiation protection (justification, optimization of protection and application of dose limits) and the principles of proper management of radiation d ose to patients (justification, optimization and the use of dose refere nce levels) <u>http://www-pub.iaea.org/MTCD/Publications/PDF/p1531interim\_web.pdf</u>

Facilities and their responsible staff sh ould consult with the radiation safety officer to ensure that there are policies and procedures for the safe handling and administration of radiophar maceuticals and that they are adhered to in accordance with ALARA. These policies and procedures must comply with all applicable radiation safety regulations and con ditions of lic ensure imposed by the Nu clear Regulatory Commission (NRC) and by state and/or other regulatory agencies. Quantities of radiopharmaceuticals should be tailored to the individual patient by prescription or protocol

Nationally developed guidelines, such as the ACR's Appropriateness Criteria<sup>®</sup>, should be used to help choose the most appropriate imaging procedures to prevent unwarranted radiation exposure.

Additional information regarding patie nt radiation safety in i maging is available at the Image Gently® for children (<u>www.imagegently.org</u>) and I mage Wisely® for adults (<u>www.imagewisely.org</u>) websites. These advocacy and awareness campaigns provide free educational materials for all stakeholders involved in imaging (patients, technologists, referring providers, medical physicists, and radiologists).

Radiation exposures or other dose i ndices should be measured and patient radiation dose estimated for representative examinations and types of patients by a Qualified Medical Phy sicist in accordance with the applicable ACR technical standards. Regular auditing of patient dose indices should be performed by comparing the facility's dose information with national benchmarks, such as the ACR Dose Index Registry, the NCRP Report No. 172, Reference Levels and Achievable Doses in Medical and Dental Imaging: Recommendations for the United S tates or the Conference of Radiation Control Program Director's National Evaluation of X-ray Trends. (ACR Resolution 17 adopted in 2006 – revised in 2009, 2013, Resolution 52).

# VIII. QUALITY CONTROL AND IMPROVEMENT, SAFETY, INFECTION CONTROL, AND PATIENT EDUCATION

Policies and procedures related to quality, patient education, infection control, and safety should be developed and implemented in accordance with the ACR Policy on Quality Control and Improvement, Safety, Infection Control, and Patient Education appearing under the heading *Position Statement on QC & Improvement, Safety, Infection Control, and Patient Education* on the ACR website (http://www.acr.org/guidelines).

Equipment performance monitoring should be in accordance with the ACR Technical Standard for Medical Nuclear Physics Performance Monitoring of Gamma Cameras.

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