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Curr Cardiovasc Imaging Rep _#####################_ DOI 10.1007/s12410-017-9425-1

3 CARDIAC NUCLEAR IMAGING (A CUOCOLO AND M PETRETTA, SECTION EDITORS)

⁴ Radionuclide Imaging of Infective Endocarditis: State of Art ⁵ and Future Perspective

6 Stella Marchetta¹ · Nadia Withofs² · Paola Anna Erba³ · Gilbert Habib^{4,5} · 7 Roland Hustinx² • Patrizio Lancellotti^{1,6,7}

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landa Q2 11 Abstract Infectious endocarditis is a serious disease requir- ing rapid diagnosis and accurate risk stratification to offer the best therapeutic strategy. Infection of prosthetic valve (PV) and cardiovascular implantable electronic device (CIED) is increasing due to the ageing of the population and the growing number of implants. Foreign material infection remains clini- cally challenging given the limitation of ultrasound techniques 18 in this context whereas the diagnosis must be precocious. 18 F- fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography/computed 20 tomography $(I^{18}F)FDG$ PET/CT) and radiolabelled leuko- cytes single-photon emission computed tomography/ computed tomography (SPECT/CT) are commonly used for this purpose. In the present article, we summarized the avail- able evidence for the use of nuclear imaging for the evaluation of infectious endocarditis.

This article is part of the Topical Collection on Cardiac Nuclear Imaging

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Keywords Infective endocarditis \cdot Cardiac prosthetic valves \cdot 26 Cardiovascular implantable electronic device \cdot \lceil ¹⁸F]FDG 27 positron emission tomography . Radiolabelled leukocyte 28 scintigraphy \cdot Embolic events 29

Introduction 30

Infective endocarditis (IE) remains a deadly disease despite con- 31 tinuous advances in medical and surgical management [1–3•, 32] 4••]. In the recent years, epidemiology of IE has undergone sig- 33 nificant changes with increasing number of elderly patients pre- 34 senting with degenerative valvular disease, nosocomial infec- 35 tions, or device-related IE (prosthetic valves (PV), cardiac im- 36 plantable electronic devices (CIED)). Though the diagnosis of $IE = 37$ remains challenging, the main advantage of timely diagnosis is 38 the potential to prevent complications such as embolic events, 39 septic complications, and valvular destruction [1]. In daily prac- 40 tice, the diagnosis of IE relies on the modified Duke criteria that 41 use typical clinical signs and symptoms and positive blood cul- 42 tures to reach a definitive diagnosis when the valve/device can be 43 shown to be affected on echocardiography (vegetation, abscess 44 or pseudoaneurysm, and new PV dehiscence). However, this 45 technique has a sensitivity and specificity of approximately 46 80% for native valve endocarditis (NVE) [2]. The diagnostic 47 accuracy is even lower for PVE [3•] or CIED infection [4••], in 48 which echocardiography gives uncertain results in up to 30% of 49 cases. The major drawbacks of transthoracic (TTE) and 50 transoesophageal (TOE) echocardiography are related to patient 51 morphology, instrumental settings, transducer position, operator 52 skill, artefacts secondary to calcifications and reverberations of 53 metallic structures, and the disease course (less accurate in the 54 early stage) [5]. The shortcomings of the diagnosis of IE based 55 on morphological changes have triggered an increasing use of 56 functional imaging $(^{18}F$ -fluorodeoxyglucose $(\text{I}^{18}F]FDG)$ 57

 positron emission tomography (PET) and radiolabelled leuko- cytes single-photon emission computed tomography (SPECT)) for the evaluation of the metabolic activity caused by the infec- tion, prior to any structural (morphological) change. When com- bined with standard diagnostic tests, functional imaging proce- dures have been shown to reduce the rate of misdiagnosed cases of IE. The recent European Society of Cardiology (ESC) guide- lines have incorporated molecular imaging in the diagnostic work-up of PVE, whereas in case of CIED infection, the indica- tion is less supported by the literature (recommendation class IIB level of evidence C) [1]. According to the new guidelines, the 69 finding of abnormal $[{}^{18}$ F]FDG or radiolabelled leukocyte uptake around PV represents a major Duke criterion, whilst an embolic event or infectious aneurysms detected by imaging represents a minor criterion. All this has highlighted the major role of the imaging specialists as part of the 'Endocarditis Team', in the management of IE. In the present article, we summarized the available evidence for the use of nuclear imaging for the evalu-ation of IE.

77 [[¹⁸F]FDG PET/CT and Radiolabelled White Blood Cell 78 (WBC) SPECT/CT

79 [1^{18} F]FDG PET/CT is a non-invasive imaging technique evaluating the metabolic activities of healthy and patho-81 logical tissues. $[$ ¹⁸F]FDG is a glucose analogue, which is incorporated by cells with enhanced expression of the glucose transporters (GLUT 1 and GLUT 3), as in pres- ence of activated leukocytes, macrophages and CD4⁺ 85 lymphocytes. Once in the cytoplasm, $[{}^{18}$ F]FDG is phos-86 phorylated and trapped into the cells [6••]. By the combi-87 nation of $[{}^{18}F]FDG$ PET and high-resolution computed tomography (CT), the functional information and the an- atomical details are entailed in single image [7]. Whole- body PET/CT is performed using a single acquisition time-point, generally 45–60 min after intravenous injec-92 tion of \int^18 F]FDG, with an emission time/bed position de- pending on the sensitivity of the scanner. The field of acquisition is usually derived from oncology studies from skull base to mid thighs. The majority of PET/CT studies consists of a protocol comprising a scanogram/scout scan/topogram and CT-AC. The simultaneous acquisition of a standard diagnostic CT scan with intravenous contrast agent is possible. PET images are visually evaluated to 100 search for area of increased $[$ ¹⁸F]FDG uptake, taking into consideration the pattern (focal, linear, diffuse), intensity, and relationship to areas of physiologic distribution. PET information is compared with morphologic information obtained by CT. Semi-quantitative analysis by maximal standardized uptake value (SUVmax) or other semi- quantitative parameters is also possible. However, SUV 107 has not been validated in infection $[8 \cdot]$. When $[18F]FDG$ PET/CT is used to diagnose cardiac and pericardiac

infection, patient preparation becomes very important 109 due to the possible presence of physiologic uptake of 110 $[$ ¹⁸F]FDG in normal myocardium (for details about this 111 topic, see the Addendum). The current SNMMI/ASNC/ 112 SCCT guidelines recommend preparation with a fat- 113 enriched diet lacking carbohydrates for 12–24 h prior to 114 the scan, a 12–18 h fast, and/or the use of intravenous 115 heparin approximately 15 min prior to \int^{18} F]FDG injection 116 [9]. To prevent misinterpretation of a positive scan due to 117 early imaging after valve implantation, the ESC 118 Guidelines recommend not to consider $[$ ¹⁸F]FDG PET re- 119 sults in the 3-month period following prosthetic heart 120 valve (PHV) implantation [5] (Table 1). 121

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122 tologous radiolabelled leukocytes after radiolabelling with 123 111 In-oxine and 99 ^mTc-hexamethylpropyleneamine oxime 124 (HMPAO). Imaging acquisition protocol includes planar 125 acquisitions at 30 min (early images), 4–6 h (delayed im- 126 ages) and $20-24$ h (late images) after reinjection of 99m Tc- 127 $HMPAO^{{111}In-oxine-WBC.$ A SPECT/CT acquisition is 128 mandatory as part of the standard imaging protocol, and 129 it is usually acquired at $4-6$ h and/or at $20-24$ h p.i. $\frac{99 \text{m}}{2}$ Tc- 130 HMPAO is preferred because more available, provides 131 better image quality with lower patients radiation burden 132 [6, 10•]. The interpretation of WBC scintigraphy should 133 always begin with a visual quality control performed on 134 WB images and chest planar acquisitions. The signal ki- 135 netics between 4 and 6 h and 20–24 h acquisitions is an 136 important feature for interpretation: any stable-increased 137 uptake intensity or size over time, confirmed at SPECT/ 138 CT, is highly suggestive of infection (Table 1). 139

Native Valve Endocarditis 140

In native valve endocarditis (NVE), the usefulness of func- 141 tional nuclear imaging has yet to be demonstrated. Indeed, 142 few studies evaluated this specific clinical setting. In a recent 143 prospective study concerning 72 patients with bacteraemia 144 (Staphylococcus, Streptococcus species and Enterococcus 145 species), Kouijzer et al. reported a limited accuracy (sensitiv- 146 ity 39%, specificity was 93%) of \int_0^{18} F]FDG PET/CT for diag- 147 nosing IE. Only two patients had PV in this study $[11\bullet \bullet]$. Other 148 smaller studies did not show better results [12••] (Table 2). 149 Nevertheless, this technique may allow early detection 150 of metastatic infectious disease with a high sensitivity 151 $(87-100\%)$ and specificity (80%) [12••], at a reasonable 152 cost-effectiveness, especially in patients with Gram- 153 positive bacteraemia [13•]. 154

 155 99m TC-HMPAO WBC SPECT/CT has been used by 155 Erba et al. in a mixed population (16 NVE and 35 156 PVE) showing that no cases were undiagnosed when 157 either the echography or the blood cultures were posi- 158 tive [14••] (Table 2) (Fig. 1). 159

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^a Effective dose calculated in an adult male using the "Nuclear Medicine Radiation Dose Tool" of the Society of nuclear medicine and molecular imaging available at <http://www.snmmi.org/ClinicalPractice/doseTool.aspx?ItemNumber=11216&navItemNumber=11218>

160 Prosthetic Valve Endocarditis

 The rate of prosthetic valve endocarditis (PVE) ranges from 1–6 to 15%, being higher in revision surgery [15]. Conversely to NVE, which is usually limited to the presence of a vegetation, PVE infection generally spread along the sewing ring and leads to peri-annular extension (pseudo- aneurysms, abscess) [16]. In a recent prospective study concerning 72 patients, Saby et al. showed that adding ab-168 normal ¹⁸F-FDG uptake around a PV to the modified Duke criteria at admission increased the sensitivity for definite PVE from 70 to 97% (Table 2) [17••]. This result was due to a significant reduction in the number of possible PVE 172 cases from 56 to 32%. In addition, $[18F]FDG$ PET/CT allowed detection of valvular damage before ultrasounds [8, 18]. Other smaller studies also confirmed these data [12]. More recently, Pizzi et al. reported the incremental 176 value of $[{}^{18}F]FDG$ PET/CT imaging in association with CT-angiography (CTA) over the modified Duke score at ad- mission for the diagnosis of IE in 75 patients with PV or 179 intra-cardiac devices. $[$ ¹⁸F]FDG PET/CTA offered excellent diagnostic performances (sensitivity 87%, specificity 90%) 181 for the detection of IE. $[$ ¹⁸F]FDG PET/CTA in association with Duke criteria allowed reclassifying 90% (35/39) of cases initially classified as ¨possible¨ IE and provided a more 183 conclusive diagnosis (definite/reject) in 95% (71/75) of cases 184 (Table 2). Besides, \int_{0}^{18} F]FDG PET/CTA identified a greater 185 number of anatomic lesions than PET/CT or echocardiogra- 186 phy, many of them relevant for clinical and surgical decision- 187 making (pseudoaneurysms, fistulas, thrombosis and coronary 188 involvement) [18]. 189

A clear advantage of CTA in IE patients is the ability to 190 assess the entire chest (identification of septic pulmonary 191 infarcts and abscesses), the aorta and the coronary arteries 192 before contemplated surgery [18••]. Several reports have 193 also highlighted the potential added value of radiolabelled 194 leukocytes SPECT/CT in the diagnosis of PVE (sensitivity 195 64–90%, specificity 36–100%), even in the early post- 196 intervention phase [14, 19•]. As for $\lceil 1^8F \rceil FDG$ PET/CT, 197 ^{99m}Tc-WBC SPECT/CT has an excellent positive predic- 198 tive value for the detection of perivalvular infection and 199 abscesses in patients with a suspicion of PVE. In addition, 200 the intensity of radiolabelled leucocyte accumulation in 201 the perivalvular area detected with scintigraphy represents 202 an interesting marker of local infectious activity and ex- 203 tension. Patients with a mild activity on the first exam 204 disappearing on the second imaging evaluation seem to 205 have a favourable outcome [19•] (Fig. 2). 206

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Fig. 1 To the left of the picture, transophagic ultrasound showing massive mitral endocarditis on native valve (a standard sections; b 3D sections). To the right of the picture (c) , ¹⁸F-FDG PET/CT images (from

left to right; coronal slice, sagittal slice, axial slice) of a patient with a native mitral valve endocarditis (red arrows, SUVmax: 4.4)

207 Cardiac Device-Related IE

 Cardiac device-related IE (CDRIE)—infection extending to the electrode leads, cardiac valve leaflets, or endocardial surface— should be distinguished from local device infection (pocket/gen- erator). An incidence of 1.4 per 1000 device-years of definite 212 CDRIE has been reported $[3\bullet]$. As for PV, 99m Tc-WBC 213 SPECT/CT and $[{}^{18}$ F]FDG PET/CT are able to differentiate CDRIE from post-implantation changes (i.e., pocket hematoma) and to characterize the extension of the infectious process 216 (Fig. 3). \int_{0}^{18} F]FDG PET/CT diagnoses pocket infection with a good sensitivity (87–91%) and specificity (93–100%). The use of functional nuclear imaging can, therefore, allow the distinction between superficial and deep pocket infection, which necessitates

Example 19

Fig. 10. The constraints of the generator rather than

The diamostic contractions; b 3D mative mitral valve endocarditis *(red arrow*)
 removal of the generator rather than a medical treatment [21•]. 220 The diagnostic accuracy of \int ¹⁸F]FDG PET/CT for lead infections 221 is, however, lower (sensitivity 24–100%, specificity 79–100%) 222 [12]. Such a finding is mainly related to the small size of the 223 vegetations along the leads, which are often under the spatial 224 resolution of the system [20]. \int_1^{18} F]FDG PET/CT in association 225 with Duke criteria also allowed reclassifying most of cases ini- 226 tially classified as ¨possible¨ IE [18]. Erba et al. also reported a 227 good diagnostic accuracy (94%) of ^{99m} TC-HMPAO WBC 228 SPECT/CT for CIED infection and for distinguishing infection 229 limited to the pocket or leads from a more severe infection af- 230 fecting the whole device [23] (Table 2). Therefore, both imaging 231 approaches can be of help in patients with suspected CDRIE 232 (ESC class IIb recommendations) [5]. 233

Fig. 2 To the left of the picture, transoephagic ultrasound of a mitral prosthesis revealing no obvious anomaly. To the right, $\lceil \cdot^8 \text{F} \rceil$ FDG PET/ CT images (a coronal slice; b sagittal slice; c axial slice) of a patient with a

PVE showing two foci of FDG uptake in the prosthetic mitral valve (red arrows, SUVmax: 4.4; purple arrows, SUVmax 3.5)

Fig. 3 To the left of the picture, transoesophageal ultrasound of a patient with a pacemaker suffering from a fever of undetermined origin; absence of obvious lesion identified. To the right of the picture, [18F]FDG PET/CT images (a maximum intensity projection of PET images; b,c axial slices)

of a patient with a CIED. Images show a focus of FDG uptake in pacemaker leads in the superior vena cava (a, b red arrows, SUVmax 4.7) and a FDG avid reactive lymph node in the mediastinum (a, c green arrows, SUVmax 5.4)

234 Detection of Metastatic Infectious Events

External states and the states and point and the states of a partiest tent in a comparison of a partiest when a few of the right of the picture. [¹⁸F]FDG PET/CT a 4.7) and a FDG avid reactive lymph node by projection of Embolic events are a frequent and life-threatening complica-236 tion of IE. They occur in 20–50% of patients and can be totally silent in 20–50% of cases. The brain and spleen are the most affected in the left IE while the lungs complicate the right IE, particularly in CDRIE [5]. In the recent ESC guidelines, the imaging detection of septic emboli clearly impacts on the Duke score and consequently on the diagnostic certainty of IE (minor criterion) and decision-making. In fact, as reported 243 by several authors, $[{}^{18}$ F]FDG PET/CT is capable of detecting distant embolic sites (15%) with a reasonable sensitivity (14– 100%) and specificity (80%), most of which clinically silent (up to 30%), and previously undiagnosed tumours (6.5%), many of them in early stages and potentially curable [12, 24]. This approach is relatively cost-effective and may avoid 249 using additional ionizing radiologic techniques. $[18F]FDG$ PET/CT is very accurate in organs with low physiological uptake, therefore not applicable in ruling out the presence of brain embolism [25•]. Radiolabelled leukocytes SPECT/CT shares with PET/CT the possibility of acquiring whole-body images and by performing additional planar and SPECT/CT spot images also constitutes an invaluable aid for detecting septic embolism even in asymptomatic patients [14, 23•].

257 Left Ventricular Assist Device Associated Infections

 The prevalence of infection and sepsis in left ventricular assist device (LVAD) patients ranges from 23 to 58%, being associ- ated with a high mortality rate (15–44%) [26]. The major sites of infection comprise the mediastinum drivelines and device 262 surface, so called « LVAD endocarditis » [27]. In a recent 263 retrospective study concerning 31 patients, $[18$ F]FDG PET/ CT yielded a sensitivity of 100% and a specificity of 94%

for the diagnosis of LVAD infection [28]. Litzler et al. also 265 highlighted the potential usefulness of radiolabelled leuko- 266 cytes SPECT/CT in the management of LVAD infection (8 267 patients) by determining the precise anatomic location and 268 extent of a suspected infection [26]. The evidence in this set- 269 ting is, however, still quite limited. 270

Limitations and Technical Considerations 271

Despite significant advantages, molecular imaging techniques 272 still present limitations that would require further developments 273 (Table 1). The majority of them are related to the complexity of 274 imaging interpretation, particularly when \int^18 F]FDG is used. In 275 fact, several pathological conditions can mimick the pattern of 276 focally increased uptake such as non-infected tissue (active 277 thrombi, atherosclerotic plaques, vasculitis, tumours, lipomatous 278 hypertrophy of the inter-atrial septum, foreign body reactions (i.e. 279 BioGlue surgical adhesive used to seal the aortic graft at time of 280 surgery)). Timing of imaging in relation to surgical intervention 281 still remains an open issue since up to 4–8 weeks, the persistence 282 of post-operative inflammatory response with false positive re- 283 sults is possible. Clear definition of the impact of antimicrobial 284 treatment (risk of false negative cases) as well as of blurring 285 artefacts has also to be established. In addition, the problem of 286 false negative results in presence of small oscillating vegetation 287 and metastatic foci <5 mm which are below the threshold of 288 detectability/resolution has to be considered as well as the issue 289 of radiation burden that might increase when certain protocol for 290 imaging acquisition are applied (i.e. retrospective ECG-trigger- 291 ing) [6, 29]. 292

The best strategy to reduce false positive finding is correct 293 patient preparation and selection. We want to underline, once 294 more, how important is the optimal suppression of physiologic 295 myocardial glucose utilization with (1) high fat, low 296

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 carbohydrate diet for at least two meals with a fast of at least 4 h prior imaging [24, 30•]; (2) possible use of intravenous unfractionated heparin (50 IU/kg) approximately 15 min prior to 18F-FDG injection [16, 31]. In addition, we also recommend to withdraw of metformin which is associated with intense and 302 diffuse \int_1^{18} F]FDG uptake in the small and large bowels [32•]; (4) discontinuation/reduction to the lowest possible dose the use of steroid in the 24 h preceding the exam [32•]; (5) avoid the inclu-sion of patients <3 months of PV implantation [5].

 Of note, neither diabetes nor hyperglycemia at the time of the study seems to increase the false-negative rate; a blood glucose level below 200 mg/dL might be suggested [32]. At this stage, there is no evidence to routinely recommend anti- microbial treatment discontinuation before performing 311 [$[18F]FDG PET/CT$. However, the use of antimicrobial should be taken into account during imaging interpretation since they might affect the intensity of FDG uptake due to their immu-nomodulatory effect [7]. Late PET/CT imaging (2–3 h after FDG injection) should be considered in patients when nega- 315 tive 1-h PET/Ct scan in maximizing the contrast between sep- 316 tic foci and background [33]. 317

As compared to \int_0^{18} F]FDG PET/CT, radiolabelled leukocyte 318 imaging is more time consuming, necessitates in-house leuko- 319 cytes labelling with direct handling of blood products, requiring 320 specific experience (and should be performed in trained centres) 321 [19, 32•, 34•]. As for $\lceil \sqrt[18]{\text{F}} \rceil$ FDG PET, the major goals of 322 radiolabelled leukocytes SPECT/CT are to minimize tracer up- 323 take in normal tissues, while maintaining uptake in target tissues. 324 False positive findings have been described in distant septic 325 embolisms (cold spot in spleen/kidney embolism or 326 spondylodiskitis; hot spot in benign or malign process) but not 327 in cardiac infection [14]. False negative scans have been 328 observed (1) in patients with small valve vegetation 329 (<6 mm, limit of spatial resolution), (2) in case of IE 330 by some strains (Staphylococcus epidermidis, 331 Enterococcus, Candida, Coxiella burnetii) able to form 332

 a biofilm limiting neutrophil recruitment at the primary site of IE and the local efficacy of antimicrobial treat- ment, (3) in case of drained abscess [14, 32•]. Of note, the impact of antibiotic therapy has not been specifical-ly examined.

338 Perspectives and Future Developments

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19. expec The ideal molecular imaging modality would allow for a reli- able detection of infection at an early stage, differentiate infec- tion from other causes of inflammation, provide species (causative micro-organism) and resistance information to guide optimal therapy and monitor disease progression, contribute to shorten the hospital stay, prevent clinical complications, and reduce the cost of hospitalization. Such an imaging modality would require discovery of pathogenic mechanisms that can serve as imaging targets (i.e. fibrin, platelet, granulocytes, etc.), development and validation of new pathogen-specific probes (bacteria-targeted imaging approaches), and implemen- tation of technologies that are capable of specific IE detection (targeted molecular imaging), combine molecular imaging to anatomical imaging with high soft-tissue contrast such as PET/ MRI (magnetic resonance imaging) and/or providing detectors with higher sensitivity and spatial resolution (i.e. digital PET/ CT and cadium-zinc-telluride camera) [35, 36].

356 Conclusion

 Functional nuclear imaging has gained growing interest in the diagnosis and management of IE (Fig. 4). Radiolabelled leukocyte SPECT/CT seems to be more specific for the detection of IE and infectious foci than ¹⁸F-FDG $[$ ¹⁸F]FDG PET/CT. Nevertheless, $[$ ¹⁸F]FDG PET/CT is likely the preferred first-line metabolic imag- ing technique since SPECT/CT is less sensitive, more time consuming and require in-house leukocyte labelling. Radiolabelled leukocytes could be reserved for doubtful cases with PET/CT. Nonetheless, radiolabelled leukocytes could be particularly useful in early post-operative period and in NVE. Further research should focus on defining the best protocol and the ideal timing for image acquisi-tion and on the development of more specific probes.

371 Compliance with Ethics Guidelines

372 Conflict of Interest Paola Anna Erba reports grants, personal fees and 373 non-financial support from AAA, grants and non-financial support from
374 Sigma Tau, personal fees from Springer, non-financial support from 374 Sigma Tau, personal fees from Springer, non-financial support from Gammaservizi, and personal fees and non-financial support from GE 376 Healthcare, outside the submitted work.

377 All other authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Human and Animal Rights and Informed Consent This article does 378 not contain any studies with human or animal subjects performed by any 379 not contain any studies with human or animal subjects performed by any 379 of the authors. 380

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