Advances in imaging of tuberculosis: the role of ¹⁸F-FDG PET and PET/CT

Mariza Vorster^a, Mike M. Sathekge^a, and Jamshed Bomanji^b

Purpose of review

To review the main applications, advantages and limitations of ¹⁸F-FDG PET and PET/computed tomography (CT), and some other tracers in imaging of tuberculosis (TB).

Recent findings

In pulmonary TB, granulomas typically demonstrate increased ¹⁸F-FDG uptake, and areas of active TB can be differentiated from old or inactive disease by dual time point imaging. However, standardized uptake value measurements are high in both TB and malignant lesions, with significant overlap that limits their usefulness. In extrapulmonary TB, ¹⁸F-FDG PET detects more tuberculous lesions than CT, is of value in assessing response to tuberculostatic treatment, and helps in diagnosing spinal infection and identifying TB-related spondylitis; however, again, differentiation of malignant versus TB lymph node involvement is problematic. ¹⁸F-FDG PET can also be considered a marker of disease status in patients with HIV and TB co-infection. Overall, evaluation of treatment response is potentially the most important clinical application of ¹⁸F-FDG PET in TB, owing to its ability to distinguish active from inactive disease.

Summary

¹⁸F-FDG PET and PET/CT may assist early diagnosis and facilitate differentiation between malignancies and TB, identification of extrapulmonary TB, staging of TB, and assessment of treatment response.

Kevwords

fluorine-18 fluorodeoxyglucose, PET/computed tomography, tuberculosis

INTRODUCTION

Diagnosis of active pulmonary tuberculosis (TB) is a major challenge, especially in individuals with severe immunosuppression such as those coinfected with HIV. Such patients characteristically demonstrate an atypical radiographic pattern [1], for example middle and lower lung lobe involvement, absence of cavity formation, presence of lymphadenopathy and pleural effusions, or a miliary pattern, and occasionally they even have a normal chest X-ray.

[Fluorine-18]-fluoro-2-deoxy-D-glucose (¹⁸F-FDG) PET integrated with computed tomography (CT) is a noninvasive tool capable of early detection and assessment of disease involvement. Pulmonary and extrapulmonary TB involvement are assessed simultaneously, with time-saving and cost-saving implications. The most important role of ¹⁸F-FDG PET in TB is probably its ability to assess early treatment response (when radiological features may remain unchanged), with consequent significant impact on patient management.

The use of ¹⁸F-FDG is essentially based on its detection of increased glucose metabolism, which in

TB is mainly due to increased macrophage and neutrophil activity. ¹⁸F-FDG PET is unfortunately limited by its well documented lack of specificity and inability to clearly distinguish granulomatous disease from malignant involvement based on standardized uptake values (SUV_{max}) [2–4]. Furthermore, the value of dual time point imaging in this setting remains controversial [5–8].

Future developments are likely to include cyclotron-independent PET tracers, tracers linked with peptides or tuberculostatics, and improvements in the quantification of TB lesions. This article reviews

Correspondence to Dr Jamshed Bomanji, Institute of Nuclear Medicine, University College London Hospitals NHS Trust, 235 Euston Road, London NW1 2BU, UK. Tel: +44 203 447 0528; fax: +44 203 447 0596; e-mail: jamshed.bomanji@uclh.nhs.uk

^aDepartment of Nuclear Medicine, University of Pretoria and Steve Biko Academic Hospital, Pretoria, South Africa and ^bInstitute of Nuclear Medicine, University College London Hospitals NHS Trust, London, United Kingdom

KEY POINTS

- In extrapulmonary TB, ¹⁸F-FDG PET detects more tuberculous lesions than CT, is of value in assessing response to tuberculostatic treatment, and helps in diagnosing spinal infection and identifying TB-related spondylitis.
- ¹⁸F-FDG PET can differentiate active from inactive disease in patients with TB, and this is potentially an important clinical application in these patients.
- There is overlap in the standardized uptake values of TB and malignant lesions on ¹⁸F-FDG PET, which limits its usefulness in distinguishing them.
- ¹⁸F-FDG PET can be considered a marker of disease status in patients with HIV and TB co-infection.

the main applications, advantages and limitations of ¹⁸F-FDG PET/CT in TB.

PULMONARY AND EXTRAPULMONARY TUBERCULOSIS

Although pulmonary TB is the most common presentation of the disease, TB can spread to virtually any tissue or organ of the body by haematogenous or lymphatic dissemination or contiguity.

TB granulomas consist of macrophages and lymphocytes, which demonstrate high levels of glucose uptake, resulting in lesions that are ¹⁸F-FDG avid on PET imaging (Fig. 1). On activation, resting lymphocytes switch to glycolysis and increase their glucose uptake by approximately 20-fold over 24 h [9,10]. Unfortunately, these cannot reliably be differentiated from malignant lesions and false positives can also be due to other infective or inflammatory conditions.

Mycobacterium TB is divided into primary and postprimary TB on conventional imaging. Soussan *et al.* [11] identified two different patterns of TB on FDG PET scan: a pulmonary type with a more localized type of infection, and a lymphatic pattern of involvement associated with a more intense, systemic infection.

Pulmonary tuberculosis

The lungs are the most common site for TB and most patients present with pulmonary complaints. Goo et al. [12] studied 10 consecutive patients with histopathologically proven pulmonary TB and 10 tuberculomas. Nine of these granulomas demonstrated uptake of $^{18}\mbox{F-FDG}$ on PET with a mean maximal standardized uptake value (SUV $_{\rm max}$) value of 4.2 ± 2.2 (SD). The study showed that pulmonary

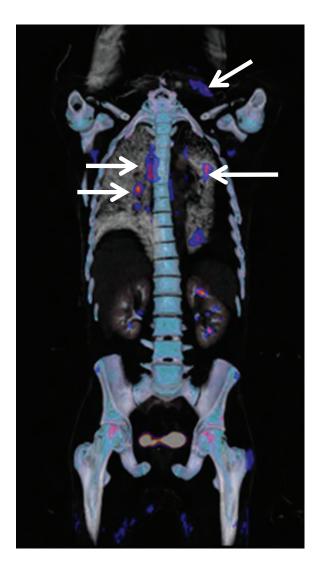


FIGURE 1. The figure shows tuberculosis lymphadenitis. ¹⁸F-FDG-fused PET/CT coronal view. Arrows indicate ¹⁸F-FDG uptake in left supraclavicular, right hilar and mediastinal nodes, and uptake in the left lung parenchyma compatible with active disease.

tuberculoma usually causes an increase in ¹⁸F-FDG uptake.

Kim *et al.* [13] evaluated the potential role of dual time point imaging with $^{18}\text{F-FDG}$ PET in the differentiation of active pulmonary tuberculoma. A total of 25 consecutive patients with pulmonary tuberculoma were included and PET/CT imaging was performed at 60 min and 120 min postinjection. Early (E) and delayed (D) SUV_{max} values as well as %Delta SUV_{max} values were obtained in all patients. Active tuberculoma showed statistically significantly higher values of SUV_{max}E (active = 2.3 ± 0.75 , 0.75, inactive = 0.79 ± 0.15), SUV_{max}D (active = 2.48 ± 0.79 , inactive = 0.75 ± 0.13) and %Delta SUV_{max} (active= 8.07 ± 7.77 , inactive= -3.83 ± 6.59)

6.59) compared with inactive tuberculoma. When a SUV_{max}E of 1.05 was used as the cutoff, sensitivity, and specificity were 100 and 100%. These results suggest that areas of active TB can be differentiated from old or inactive disease by imaging at two time points, which would also be of value in the evaluation of treatment response and follow-up.

In a series by Sathekge et al. [14] aimed at assessing the diagnostic accuracy for the differentiation of benign from malignant solitary pulmonary nodules, 12 patients with active lung TB were included. When compared with the series by Goo et al. [12] and Kim et al. [13], SUV_{max} values and %Delta SUV_{max} in lung tuberculoma were found to be higher. ¹⁸F-FDG SUV_{max} values and %Delta SUV_{max} values were not significantly different in benign and malignant lesions. These findings are in agreement with the data reported by Chen et al. [15], who included a selected group of patients with an initial mean ¹⁸F-FDG PET SUV of less than 2.5. A study by Kaneko *et al.* [16] evaluated the retention indices of tuberculous and nontuberculous lesions and found that these were high in both types of lesions with no statistically significant differences. A recent case series by Heysell et al. [17"] suggested a role for quantitative ¹⁸F-FDG PET in the diagnosis of active TB infection in which conventional methods are unavailable or unreliable.

The aforementioned results demonstrate that SUV measurements from both tuberculous and malignant lesions tend to be high with significant overlap. SUV measurements are therefore not useful in characterizing lesions as granulomatous or malignant.

Pleural effusions, which may show ¹⁸F-FDG or ⁶⁸Ga-citrate (Fig. 2) avidity, may also be observed and in some instances may be the only manifestation of the disease, usually unilateral with septations, especially in adult-onset primary TB. Shinohara *et al.* [18] recently reported a case of asymptomatic primary TB pleurisy, which demonstrated intense uptake similar to that seen in mesothelioma.

Extrapulmonary tuberculosis

The AIDS epidemic has led to a higher incidence of TB, with changed disease patterns and increases in disseminated and extrapulmonary involvement. Extrapulmonary TB may affect any organ and is an AIDS-defining condition indicative of stage 4 disease in adults [19,20]. The most frequently reported affected sites include lymph nodes, pleura, musculoskeletal, gastrointestinal and genitourinary tract [21,22]. Despite recent advances, the diagnosis of extrapulmonary involvement remains problematic, as obtaining tissue or fluid for analysis from

these sites is not always possible and is invasive. The correct assessment of the disease extent is important when deciding on the correct treatment regimen. ¹⁸F-FDG PET studies done on TB patients have demonstrated that PET detects more tuberculous lesions, especially extrapulmonary, than CT.

The potential impact of dual-phase ¹⁸F-FDG PET versus routine staging was evaluated by Sathekge et al. [14] in 16 TB patients. In nine patients, 18 sites of lymph node involvement were identified on both early and delayed images. Nine out of 18 sites of lymph node involvement, occurring in five patients, were missed on CT. In four of these five patients, the sites of lymph node involvement were the only sites of extrapulmonary TB identified. Sites of osseous involvement (n=4) and joint involvement (n=3)were identified on both CT and PET, and ¹⁸F-FDG PET imaging did not result in alterations of treatment planning in any of the patients studied. Furthermore, it was found that ¹⁸F-FDG PET cannot differentiate malignant lymph node involvement from lymph node involvement by TB: the median SUV_{mean} values of involved lymph node basins were 6.5 (range, 3.4–9.2) for TB and 8.0 (range, 2.5–20.1) for malignancy [14].

Although ¹⁸F-FDG PET is clearly unable to distinguish tuberculous lymphadenitis from metastatic lymph node involvement based on the SUV, certain patterns of lymph node tracer distribution provide

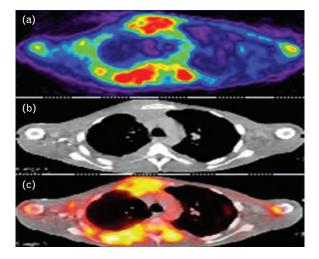


FIGURE 2. A 28-year-old man with a large right-sided pleural effusion and mycobacterium tuberculosis on pleural fluid analysis. Dual-time point imaging was performed at 60 min and 120 min following ⁶⁸Ga-citrate injection (224 MBq, IV) and IV contrast. (a) Transaxial section shows intense tracer accumulation in the anterior chest wall and posterior thickened pleura on the right. (b) Corresponding transaxial computed tomography (CT) section. (c) PET/CT-fused transaxial section showing the changes.

useful clues regarding diagnosis and management. Lymph nodes with central attenuation and peripheral enhancement are suggestive of TB involvement and are associated with nonresponse to tuberculostatics. In a series of 24 patients, using a cut-off value of five or more lymph node basins identified on a pretreatment ¹⁸F-FDG PET scan, treatment responders and nonresponders to first-line tuberculostatic treatment could be differentiated with an accuracy of 0.88 (area under the receiver operating characteristic curve) [23].

Dong *et al.* [24*] recently evaluated retrospectively the role of FDG-PET in differentiating acute tuberculous (n=5) from idiopathic pericarditis (n=10). Pericardial thickness as well as the $\mathrm{SUV}_{\mathrm{max}}$ measured here and in the mediastinal-clavicular and supraclavicular lymph nodes were used. The authors found that the mean $\mathrm{SUV}_{\mathrm{max}}$ of the mediastinal-clavicular and supraclavicular lymph nodes were significantly higher in those with TB pericarditis, and that knowledge of this pattern could be used to expedite diagnosis and treatment.

Musculoskeletal involvement is also seen often, frequently affecting the spine (most series report around 50% spinal involvement) [22]. Multiple vertebral bodies and disc spaces may be involved and diagnosis of spinal involvement is often difficult due to the lack of specific morphological imaging findings. Failure to identify and treat these areas of involvement in a timely manner may lead to serious complications such as vertebral collapse, spinal compression, and spinal deformity. According to a recent review by Skaf et al. [25], '18F-FDG PET is a promising technique for diagnosing spinal infection and has several potential advantages over other imaging modalities' (p. 8). These include a high sensitivity in lesion detection and the fact that image quality is not affected by metal artefacts [26,27]. The procedure can be completed in a single session and is characterized by high sensitivity and superior image resolution compared with singlephoton-emitting tracers. In addition, a recent study found that ¹⁸F-FDG PET/CT is more effective than MRI in distinguishing between tuberculous and pyogenic spondylitis [28]. Another recent review by Rivas-Garcia et al. [29] on the image findings in Pott's disease emphasizes the role of advanced imaging such as ¹⁸F-FDG-PET in the assessment of lesion extent, as a guide to biopsy, to assist in surgery planning, and to contribute to follow-up evaluation.

Kim *et al.* [30] investigated the use of ¹⁸F-FDG PET in the detection and differentiation of TB spondylitis and pyogenic spondylitis. They included 23 consecutive patients with suspected spondylitis and made use of dual time point imaging at 60 and

 $120\,\mathrm{min}$ postinjection. Analysis of $\mathrm{SUV_{max}}$ (early and delayed), as well as the percentage change between the two time points, did not reveal any statistically significant differences between the conditions. This suggests that dual time point imaging with $^{18}\text{F-FDG}$ PET is not helpful in distinguishing spondylitis caused by mycobacterium TB infection from other infective causes.

Gratz *et al.* [31] also investigated the use of ¹⁸F-FDG PET in 16 patients with suspected spondylitis, employing a target to background ratio in order to differentiate osteodegenerative changes from infective changes, and found that a lower ratio (<1.45) was associated with the former. The authors concluded that ¹⁸F-FDG PET/CT was superior to MRI and conventional nuclear medicine imaging (with ⁶⁷Ga-citrate and ^{99m}Tc-MDP).

These findings highlight the potential role of FDG PET/CT in demonstrating lesion extent, in detecting additional lesions missed on morphological imaging, and in serving as a guide for biopsy with aspiration for culture.

CO-INFECTION WITH HIV

In patients with HIV and TB co-infection, early diagnosis of TB is of the utmost importance, as initiation of highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART) has to be delayed in order to first treat the TB. Pulmonary TB presentation in an HIV-positive patient (especially where the CD4 cell count is low) is different from that in an HIV-negative patient in that the expected findings of consolidation, cavitation, and apical involvement are less frequently seen. Functional imaging by means of ¹⁸F-FDG PET may be helpful in reaching a diagnosis here. In the case in which typical morphological features of TB are absent, the intensity and pattern of FDG uptake may suggest the diagnosis in this clinical setting.

Available data suggest that HIV binding to resting CD4 T lymphocytes causes them to home from the blood into lymph nodes, and that they are induced into apoptosis via secondary signals through the homing receptors [32]. Clinically, this correlates to generalized, peripheral lymphadenopathy (with characteristic morphology) that precedes tissue involution and results in the loss of superficial lymph nodes in the later stage of disease [33].

Various studies on animal models have been conducted to determine whether FDG PET/CT can identify activated lymphoid tissues, and whether this pattern may reflect the extent of simian immunodeficiency virus infection. Within a few days after primary infection by intravenous, intrarectal, or intravaginal routes, FDG PET imaging revealed a

distinct pattern of lymphoid tissue activation centered on axillary, cervical, and mediastinal lymph nodes. Increased tissue FDG uptake preceded fulminant virus replication at these sites, suggesting that a diffusible factor of host or viral origin was responsible for lymphoid tissue changes [34,35].

Scharko et al. [34] evaluated FDG PET findings in 15 patients infected with HIV-1. They observed distinct lymphoid tissue activation in the head and neck during the acute phase, a generalized pattern of peripheral lymph node activation at the mid-phase and involvement of abdominal lymph nodes during the late stages. This suggests that lymphoid tissue activation follows a predictable sequence. This was confirmed by Sathekge et al. [36], who in addition demonstrated that the FDG signal derived from PET imaging in patients with HIV not only correlates with viral load but is also inversely related to the CD4 cell count. Knowledge of the CD4 cell count and the viral load can therefore be used to predict whether lymph node involvement is likely due to retroviral disease or whether other disorder (such as lymphoma or metastatic disease) is more likely.

EVALUATION OF TREATMENT RESPONSE

This is potentially the most important clinical application of ¹⁸F-FDG PET/CT in TB (Fig. 3). Morphological changes often take significantly longer than molecular changes to manifest, and it is in this context that PET may have a role, emphasizing the need for further evaluation.

In developing countries, multidrug-resistant and extensively drug-resistant TB has serious consequences, and monitoring of therapy is thus essential. A major advantage of PET is the ability to quantify ¹⁸F-FDG uptake, allowing assessment of response to therapy at an early stage of the disease and change/modification of treatment in non-responders [37].

TB treatment regimens can be complex in the settings of co-infection with HIV, where a high possibility of development of immune reconstitution inflammatory syndrome exists and where high levels of drug resistance occur. Treatment duration may need to be between 3 and 9 months, and PET might provide an objective measure of treatment response and the required duration.

Studies involving TB infection models in animals have demonstrated a clear correlation

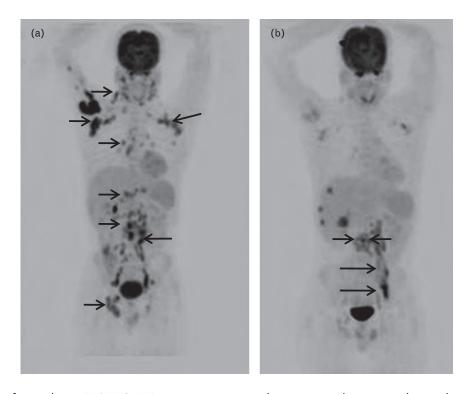


FIGURE 3. (a) The figure shows F-18-FDG PET scan in a patient with extensive pulmonary and nonpulmonary disease. Small arrows indicate F-18-FDG avid lymphadenopathy. (b) Tuberculosis response after 2 months of therapy. Good response with extrapulmonary lesions in the spine (small arrows) and psoas muscle (large arrows) lagging behind when compared with the lymph nodes.

between a decrease in ¹⁸F-FDG lung accumulation and successful antibacterial treatment, thus highlighting the potential of quantitative ¹⁸F-FDG PET/CT to evaluate treatment response [38].

Park *et al.* [39] have demonstrated that during anti-TB treatment, some bacillus-negative tuberculomas do not decrease in size and may even increase, making it difficult for physicians to decide whether or not to alter treatment regimens. Imaging with ¹⁸F-FDG PET may be useful in this situation. If it demonstrates an increase in activity in the lesion, then it is likely that the tuberculoma is active and that treatment should be discontinued or changed. If the lesion shows a decrease in activity, it is likely that the tuberculoma is responsive to anti-TB treatment, and current treatment should be continued according to standard protocols [39]. Park *et al.*'s findings have been confirmed by others [40,41,42**].

In addition, cancer patients receiving immunosuppressive therapy are at an increased risk for developing asymptomatic extrapulmonary disease. Although definitive diagnosis and exclusion of active TB infection by culture and histology is always recommended, ¹⁸F-FDG PET/CT may contribute in reaching an earlier diagnosis [41].

It has been shown that the SUV_{max} of involved lymph node basins (both early and delayed) and the number of involved lymph node basins on pretreatment scans are significantly higher in nonresponders than in responders (respective P values of 0.03, 0.04, and 0.002) [37]. Using a cutoff of 5 or more involved lymph node basins, responders could be separated from nonresponders with a sensitivity, specificity, and positive and negative predictive value of 88, 81, 70, and 93%, respectively. Using a cutoff of 8.15 for the early SUV_{max} of lymph node basins and of 10 for the late SUV_{max} of lymph node basins, a comparable sensitivity of 88% came at the cost of a lower specificity: 73 and 67%, respectively [37].

The accuracy of these findings tends to be slightly lower when FDG PET imaging is performed at 4 months after treatment initiation, and a cutoff for SUV_{max} values of involved lymph nodes of 4.5 then appears more accurate. Under these circumstances, Sathekge *et al.* [23] found that lymph nodes responding to TB treatment could be differentiated from nonresponsive ones with a sensitivity and specificity of 95 and 85% (area under the curve: 0.96), respectively. The number of lymph nodes with rim enhancement and low central attenuation was significantly higher in nonresponders compared with responders.

Several other studies have confirmed the value of ¹⁸F-FDG PET/CT in follow-up and evaluation of

treatment response, especially in patients with extrapulmonary involvement and when drug resistance is prevalent [42**,43-45].

OTHER PET TRACERS AND POTENTIAL APPLICATIONS

Although essentially beyond the scope of this review, it should be noted that various other PET tracers have been investigated for imaging of TB, including ¹¹C-choline [46–48], ¹⁸F-FLT [49,50], and ⁶⁸Ga-citrate, with some promising results, for example prediction of the nature of a solitary pulmonary nodule with ¹¹C-choline.

CONCLUSION

In addition to early identification of extrapulmonary TB, staging of TB, and assessment of treatment response, there is an increasing clinical need for effective imaging to facilitate differentiation between malignancies and TB (which is particularly important for solitary pulmonary nodules); PET/CT may provide clinicians with this much-needed tool.

Acknowledgements

None.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

REFERENCES AND RECOMMENDED READING

Papers of particular interest, published within the annual period of review, have been highlighted as:

- of special interest
- of outstanding interest
- Mendelson M. Diagnosing tuberculosis in HIV-infected patients: challenges and future prospects. Br Med Bull 2006; 81–82:149–165.
- Bakheet SM, Powe J. Benign causes of 18-FDG uptake on whole body imaging. Semin Nucl Med 1998; 28:352–358.
- Brown RS, Leung JY, Fisher SJ, et al. Intratumoral distribution of tritiated fluorodeoxyglucose in breast carcinoma: I. Are inflammatory cells important? J Nucl Med 1995; 36:1854–1861.
- Chang JM, Lee HJ, Goo JM, et al. False positive and false negative FDG-PET scans in various thoracic diseases. Korean J Radiol 2006; 7:57–69.
- Suga K, Kawakami Y, Hiyama A, et al. Dual-time point ¹⁸F-FDG PET/CT scan for differentiation between ¹⁸F-FDG-avid nonsmall cell lung cancer and benign lesions. Bull Cancer 2009; 23:427–435.
- Kim D-W, Park S-A, Kim CG. Dual-time-point positron emission tomography findings of benign mediastinal fluorine-18-fluorodeoxyglucose uptake in tuberculosis-endemic region. Indian J Nucl Med 2011; 26:3-6.
- Barger RL Jr, Nandalur KR. Diagnostic performance of dual-time ¹⁸F-FDG PET in the diagnosis of pulmonary nodules: a meta-analysis. Acad Radiol 2012: 19:153–158.
- Cloran FJ, Banks KP, Song WS, et al. Limitations of dual time point PET in the assessment of lung nodules with low FDG avidity. Lung Cancer 2010; 68:66-71
- Bental MM, Deutsch CC. Metabolic changes in activated T cells: an NMR study of human peripheral blood lymphocytes. Magn Reson Med 1993; 29:317–326.
- Marjanovic S, Skog S, Heiden T, et al. Expression of glycolytic isoenzymes in activated human peripheral lymphocytes: cell cycle analysis using flow cytometry. Exp Cell Res 1991; 193:425–431.

- Soussan M, Brillet P-Y, Mekinian A, et al. Patterns of pulmonary tuberculosis on FDG-PET/CT. Eur J Radiol 2012; 81:2872–2876.
- Goo JM, Im JG, Do KH, et al. Pulmonary tuberculoma evaluated by means of FDG PET: findings in 10 cases. Radiology 2000; 216:117–121.
 Kim I-J, Lee JS, Kim S-J, et al. Double-phase ¹⁸F-FDG PET-CT for determina-
- Kim I-J, Lee JS, Kim S-J, et al. Double-phase ¹⁹F-FDG PET-CT for determination of pulmonary tuberculoma activity. Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging 2007; 35:808-814.
- Sathekge MM, Maes A, Pottel H, et al. Dual time-point FDG PET-CT for differentiating benign from malignant solitary pulmonary nodules in a TB endemic area. S Afr Med J 2010; 100:598-601.
- 15. Chen C-J, Lee B-F, Yao W-J, et al. Dual-phase ¹⁸F-FDG PET in the diagnosis of pulmonary nodules with an initial standard uptake value less than 2.5. AJR Am J Roentgenol 2008; 191:475–479.
- 16. Kaneko K, Sadashima S, Irie K, et al. Assessment of FDG retention differences
- between the FDG-avid benign pulmonary lesion and primary lung cancer using dual-time-point FDG-PET imaging. Ann Nucl Med 2013; 27:329 – 339.

This study clarifies FDG retention differences between tuberculous and nontuberculous benign pulmonary nodules.

Heysell SK, Thomas TA, Sifri CD, et al. 18-Fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography for tuberculosis diagnosis and management: a case series. BMC Pulm Med 2013; 21:13-14.

This case series addresses the role of FDG PET/CT in the context of distinguishing latent versus active disease.

- Shinohara T, Shiota N, Kume M, et al. Asymptomatic primary tuberculous pleurisy with intense 18-fluorodeoxyglucose uptake mimicking malignant mesothelioma. BMC Infect Dis 2013; 13:12.
- Global tuberculosis, control: surveillance, planning, financing. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization; 2008.
- Peto HM, Pratt RH, Harrington TA, et al. Epidemiology of extrapulmonary tuberculosis in the United States, 1993–2006. Clin Infect Dis 2009; 49:1350–1357.
- Arciniegas WW, Orjuela DLD. Extrapulmonary tuberculosis: a review of 102 cases in Pereira, Colombia. Biomedica 2006; 26:71–81.
- **22.** Golden MP, Vikram HR. Extrapulmonary tuberculosis: an overview. Am Fam Physician 2005; 72:1761–1768.
- Sathekge M, Maes A, D'Asseler Y, et al. Tuberculous lymphadenitis: FDG PET and CT findings in responsive and nonresponsive disease. Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging 2012; 39:1184–1190.
- 24. Dong A, Dong H, Wang Y, et al. (18)F-FDG PET/CT in differentiating acute tuberculous from idiopathic pericarditis: preliminary study. Clin Nucl Med 2013: 38:160-165.

This pilot study looks at the role of FDG PET/CT in differentiating acute tuberculous from idiopathic pericarditis.

- Skaf GS, Domloj NT, Fehlings MG, et al. Pyogenic spondylodiscitis: an overview. J Infect Public Health 2010; 3:5–16.
- Kälicke T, Schmitz A, Risse JH, et al. Fluorine-18 fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography in infectious bone diseases: results of histologically confirmed cases. Eur J Nucl Med 2000; 27:524–528.
- Guhlmann A, Brecht-Krauss D, Suger G, et al. Chronic osteomyelitis: detection with FDG PET and correlation with histopathologic findings. Radiology 1998; 206:749–754.
- Lee IS, Lee JS, Kim SJ, et al. Fluorine-18-fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography/computed tomography imaging in pyogenic and tuberculous spondylitis: preliminary study. J Comput Assist Tomogr 2009; 33:587–592.
- Rivas-Garcia A, Sarria-Estrada S, Torrents-Odin C, et al. Imaging findings of Pott's disease. Eur Spine J 2013; 22:567–578.
- Kim S-J, Lee JS, Suh KT, et al. Differentiation of tuberculous and pyogenic spondylitis using double phase F-18 FDG PET. Open Med Imaging J 2008; 2:1-6.

- **31.** Gratz S, Dörner J, Fischer U, *et al.* ¹⁸F-FDG hybrid PET in patients with suspected spondylitis. Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imag 2002; 29:516–524.
- Cloyd MW, Chen JJ, Wang I. How does HIV cause AIDS? The homing theory. Mol Med Today 2000; 6:108–111.
- **33.** Lederman MMM, Margolis LL. The lymph node in HIV pathogenesis. Semin Immunol 2008; 20:187–195.
- **34.** Scharko AM, Perlman SB, Pyzalski RW, *et al.* Whole-body positron emission tomography in patients with HIV-1 infection. Lancet 2003; 362:959–961.
- Wallace M, Pyzalski R, Horejsh D, et al. Whole body positron emission tomography imaging of activated lymphoid tissues during acute simian-human immunodeficiency virus 89.6PD infection in rhesus macaques. Virology 2000; 274:255–261.
- Sathekge M, Maes A, Kgomo M, Van de Wiele C. Fluorodeoxyglucose uptake by lymph nodes of HIV patients is inversely related to CD4 cell count. Nucl Med Commun 2010; 31:137–140.
- Sathekge M, Maes A, Kgomo M, et al. Use of ¹⁸F-FDG PET to predict response to first-line tuberculostatics in HIV-associated tuberculosis. J Nucl Med 2011; 52:880–885.
- Sathekge M, Buscombe JR. Can positron emission tomography work in the African tuberculosis epidemic? Nucl Med Commun 2011; 32:241– 244
- Park IN, Ryu JS, Shim TS. Evaluation of therapeutic response of tuberculoma using F-18 FDG positron emission tomography. Clin Nucl Med 2007; 33:1-3.
- Tian G, Xiao Y, Chen B, et al. FDG PET/CT for therapeutic response monitoring in multisite nonrespiratory tuberculosis. Acta Radiol 2010; 51:1002-1006.
- Hofmeyr A, Lau WF, Slavin MA. Mycobacterium tuberculosis infection in patients with cancer, the role of 18-fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography for diagnosis and monitoring treatment response. Tuberculosis (Edinb) 2007: 87:459–463.
- 42. Sathekge M, Maes A, Van de Wiele C. FDG-PET imaging in HIV infection and
- tuberculosis. Semin Nucl Med 2013; 43:349-366.

This review outlines the role of FDG PET/CT in evaluating therapeutic response in

- Martinez V, Castilla-Lievre MA, Guillet-Caruba C, et al. ¹⁸F-FDG PET/CT in tuberculosis: an early noninvasive marker of therapeutic response. Int J Tuberc Lung Dis 2012; 16:1180–1185.
- Park YH, Yu CM, Kim ES, et al. Monitoring therapeutic response in a case of extrapulmonary tuberculosis by serial F-18 FDG PET/CT. Nucl Med Mol Imaging 2011; 46:69–72.
- **45.** Heysell SK, Thomas TA, Sifri CD, *et al.* 18-Fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography for tuberculosis diagnosis and management: a case series. BMC Pulm Med 2013; 13:14.
- Liu Q, Peng Z-M, Liu Q-W, et al. The role of 11C-choline positron emission tomography-computed tomography and videomediastinoscopy in the evaluation of diseases of middle mediastinum. Chin Med J 2006; 119:634–639.
- Hara T, Inagaki K, Kosaka N, Morita T. Sensitive detection of mediastinal lymph node metastasis of lung cancer with 11C-choline PET. J Nucl Med 2000: 41:1507–1513
- **48.** Hara T, Kosaka N, Suzuki T, *et al.* Uptake rates of ¹⁸F-fluorodeoxyglucose and 11C-choline in lung cancer and pulmonary tuberculosis: a positron emission tomography study. Chest 2003; 124:893–901.
- Yamamoto Y, Nishiyama Y, Kimura N, et al. Comparison of (18)F-FLT PET and (18)F-FDG PET for preoperative staging in nonsmall cell lung cancer. Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging 2008; 35:236–245.
- Yang W, Zhang Y, Fu Z, et al. Imaging of proliferation with ¹⁸F-FLT PET/CT versus ¹⁸F-FDG PET/CT in nonsmall-cell lung cancer. Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging 2010; 37:1291–1299.