

Review

Lewy body dementia

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SUMMARY: Dementia with Lewy bodies represents the second most common cause of neurodegenerative dementia after Alzheimer’s disease. The Dementia with Lewy Bodies Consortium has refined its recommendations about the clinical and pathologic diagnosis of dementia with Lewy bodies, updating the previous report, which has been in widespread use for the last decade. The revised dementia with Lewy bodies consensus criteria now distinguish clearly between clinical features and diagnostic biomarkers, and give guidance about optimal methods to establish and interpret these. Important new information has been updated about previously reported aspects of dementia with Lewy bodies, with increased diagnostic weighting given to REM sleep behavior disorder and ^{123}I -iodine-metiodobenzylguanidine myocardial scintigraphy. The diagnostic role of other neuroimaging, electrophysiological, and laboratory investigations is also better specified. Substantial progress has been made since the previous report in the detection and recognition of dementia with Lewy bodies as a common and important clinical disorder.

KEY WORDS: Biomarkers, Consensus criteria, Dementia with Lewy bodies, EEG abnormalities, Magnetic resonance imaging studies, Treatment options.

OVERVIEW

Dementia with Lewy bodies is the second most common form of neurodegenerative dementia after Alzheimer’s disease.

DLB tends to be underdiagnosed during life and mostly misdiagnosed as AD, due to clinical overlap between the two diseases.

It is important, however, to differentiate between these two forms of dementia since the earliest stages because, compared to patients with AD, those with DLB may be considerably more sensitive to adverse effects of neuroleptics⁽⁵⁾ and may exhibit faster disease progression⁽⁴⁵⁾ and different response to ChEIs⁽³⁰⁾. To reach a satisfactorily accuracy of the diagnosis of

DLB, great emphasis has been placed on methods evaluating the uptake of either DAT in basal ganglia^(44,52) or MIBG in the myocardium⁽⁵⁴⁾. These methods, respectively exploring the integrity of the nigrostriatal dopaminergic system and of postganglionic sympathetic cardiac innervation, have been suggested to improve clinical diagnostic accuracy of DLB, but there is a clear need of other biomarkers to assist with accurate identification of this entity.

Cognitively, DLB patients can display marked deficits in executive and visuo-visuo/spatial-perceptual function, as well as marked variations in their level of arousal and attention, which are typically known as cognitive fluctuations^(29,39,40,42). Clinical features associated with DLB also include spontaneous motor

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS: **¹²³I-FP-CIT** = [¹²³I]-N-(3-FluoroPropyl)-2-Carbomethoxy-3-(4-Iodophenyl)norTropane; **AD** = Alzheimer's disease; **ChEIs** = CholinEsterase Inhibitors; **CIS** = Cingulate Island Sign; **DAT** = Dopamine Transporter; **DLB** = Dementia with Lewy bodies; **DTI** = Diffusion Tensor Imaging; **EEG** = ElectroEncephaloGram; **GM** = Grey Matter; **FDG-PET** = Fluoro-Dexosi-Glucose Positron Emission Tomography; **GM** = Gray Matter; **MIBG** = MetalodoBenzylGuanidine; **MMSE** = Mini-Mental State Examination; **MRI** = Magnetic Resonance Imaging; **NAA/tCr** = N-Acetylaspartate/Total Creatine; **PSG** = PolySomnoGraphy; **RBD** = Rapid eye movement sleep Behavior Disorder; **REM** = Rapid Eye Movement; **tCho/tCr** = total Cholines/tCr = total creatines; **SPECT** = Single Photon Emission Computed Tomography.

features of parkinsonism⁽³⁹⁾, but it is the non-motor manifestations including visual hallucinations, autonomic dysfunction, syncope, repeated falls, REM sleep behaviour disorder, delusions and depression, to represent the most disruptive symptoms for patients and their caregivers⁽³⁹⁾.

There are also a number of treatment challenges. CHEIs may produce substantial reduction in apathy and improve visual hallucinations and delusions in DLB⁽⁴⁰⁾. The use of antipsychotics for the acute management of substantial behavioral disturbance, delusions, or visual hallucinations comes with attendant mortality risks in patients with dementia, and particularly in the case of DLB they should be avoided whenever possible, given the increased risk of a serious sensitivity reaction^(36,42). Low-dose quetiapine may be relatively safer⁽³⁴⁾ than other antipsychotics and is widely used. There is a positive evidence base for clozapine in PD psychosis, but efficacy and tolerability in DLB have not been established. Newer drugs targeting the serotonergic system, such as pimavanserin⁽¹⁵⁾, may be alternatives, but controlled clinical trial data in DLB are needed. Although depressive symptoms are common in DLB, trial data are insufficient.

DLB patients may benefit from levodopa preparations introduced at low doses and increased slowly to the minimum required to minimize motor disability without exacerbating psychiatric symptoms^(25,41).

The Dementia with Lewy Bodies Consortium has refined its recommendations about the clinical and pathologic diagnosis of DLB. The revised DLB consensus criteria now distinguish clearly between clinical features and diagnostic biomarkers.

Important new information has been updated about previously reported aspects of DLB, with increased diagnostic weighting given to REM sleep behavior disorder. The diagnostic role of other neuroimaging, electrophysiological, and laboratory investigations is also better specified. Substantial progress has been made since the previous report in the detection and recognition of DLB as a common and important

clinical disorder. During that period DLB has been incorporated as a separate nosological entity into DSM-5, as major neurocognitive disorder with Lewy bodies. ‘There remains a pressing need to understand the underlying neurobiology and pathophysiology of DLB, to develop and deliver clinical trials with both symptomatic and disease-modifying agents, and to help patients and carers worldwide to inform themselves about the disease, its prognosis, best available treatments, ongoing research, and how to get adequate support’.

A collection of studies have been recently performed in order to define possible specific pathophysiological mechanisms underlying the appearance of specific clinical features of DLB, with the double aim to explain clinical presentation and potentially to provide possible diagnostic markers of disease⁽³⁸⁾. In the present chapter we will summarize the main results of studies focused on DLB biomarkers and we will underline the significance of each of these biomarkers in terms of diagnostic accuracy and of pathophysiological mechanisms. Biomarkers will be divided in two sections, as suggested by the last Consensus document⁽³⁸⁾: Indicative and supportive biomarkers. Major emphasis will be given to EEG and MRI studies which are the main fields of contributions by the authors.

□ INDICATIVE BIOMARKERS

■ **SPECT-DAT SCAN.** The functional integrity of dopaminergic nigrostriatal pathway can be studied with SPECT imaging by using ligands of pre-synaptic DAT, such as ¹²³I-FP-CIT. A reduction of SPECT ligand binding to DAT correlates with the loss of presynaptic dopamine. The rationale supporting the use of ¹²³I-FP-CIT SPECT as a supportive tool in the diagnosis of DLB is represented by the pathological peculiarities of DLB, characterized by abnormal inclusion bodies (Lewy bodies) in limbic, neocortical and brainstem areas with concomitant nigrostriatal degeneration

and loss of pre-synaptic dopamine transporters in the striatum^(37,53). For these reasons, low dopamine transporter uptake in basal ganglia on ¹²³I-FP-CIT SPECT has been listed as an indicative biomarker of DLB in the international consensus criteria for the diagnosis^(38,55).

■ **META-IODO-BENZYL-GUANIDINE.** Reduced uptake on metaiodobenzylguanidine myocardial scintigraphy. ¹²³Iodine-MIBG myocardial scintigraphy quantifies postganglionic sympathetic cardiac innervation, which is reduced in DLB^(43,51). Useful sensitivity (69%) and specificity (87%) values for discriminating probable DLB from probable AD rise to 77% and 94% in milder cases (MMSE > 21). MIBG imaging was already described in the supportive feature section of the previous version of the Consortium on DLB Guidelines⁽³⁹⁾. According to this report, delayed MIBG images resulted in highly reliable differentiation of DLB from AD with both the sensitivity and the specificity being 100%, regardless of the presence or absence of parkinsonism⁽⁵⁵⁾.

■ **POLYSOMNOGRAPHY CONFIRMATION OF REM SLEEP WITHOUT ATONIA.** PSG demonstration of REM sleep without atonia^(22,35) is a highly specific predictor of Lewy-related pathology. If the PSG shows REM sleep without atonia in a person with dementia and a history of RBD, there is a 90% likelihood of a synucleinopathy⁽⁷⁾ sufficient to justify a probable DLB diagnosis even in the absence of any other core feature or biomarker. RBD is characterized by loss of normal skeletal muscle atonia during REM sleep with prominent motor activity and dreaming^(1,3,23,46,50). RBD can occur without any coexisting neurological disorders or findings (so-called idiopathic RBD) and can be precipitated or aggravated by medications, such as selective serotonin or norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors^(11,48). All structural lesions associated with RBD identified to date have been localized in the dorsal midbrain, pons, or medulla.

SUPPORTIVE BIOMARKERS

■ **EEG.** Resting-state electroencephalographic rhythms have extensively been used as a possible tool to assess the neurophysiological correlates of dementia^(12,13,24). Quantitative EEG has demonstrated good discriminative capacity for DLB diagnosis as compared to AD with a predictive value of 100%

in cohort studies, even at the stage of MCI^(9,10) and the percentage of 90% in a multicentric cohort study⁽⁸⁾. Specifically, discriminant analysis detected specific cut-offs for every EEG mathematical descriptor; dominant frequency = 8, dominant frequency variability = 2.2 Hz, frequency prevalence pre-alpha = 33%, FP alpha = 41% for posterior derivations. The occipital low frequency alpha 2 source activity showed a classification accuracy of 75% in the contrast between the AD and DLB patients⁽⁴⁾.

■ **STRUCTURAL IMAGING STUDIES (PRESERVATION OF MEDIAL TEMPORAL GREY MATTER).** Recent advance in structural MRI allows to perform physical measurements of brain cortical thickness for each individual and to map, within and between groups, the macrostructural changes in GM regions. The measurement of the cortical thickness⁽²¹⁾ showed 82% sensitivity and 85% specificity in differentiating AD from DLB⁽²⁸⁾. At cortical level, DLB patients show a preservation of medial temporal GM as compared to AD^(14,17,38) and a thinning in the posterior areas including the precuneus, superior parietal gyrus, cuneus, pericalcarine and lingual gyri⁽¹⁷⁾. Of note, the posterior atrophy of the cuneus, precuneus and superior parietal cortex has been related to visual deficit and hallucinations in DLB^(6,17). Moreover, increased rates of cortical thinning in the parietal regions were also correlated with motor deterioration in DLB⁽³³⁾.

■ **FURTHER EVIDENCES COMING FROM STRUCTURAL IMAGING STUDIES.** At subcortical level, microstructural and macrostructural alterations have been also described in DLB patients. Macrostructural assessment highlighted that the hippocampus, especially in the cornu ammonis and subiculum, is relatively preserved in DLB as compared to AD^(16,33). Grey matter (GM) reduction was also observed in DLB patients in the adjacent extrahippocampal structures including the perirhinal and parahippocampal cortices⁽¹⁶⁾. Microstructural damage of GM subcortical nuclei in DLB patients has been observed in the pons, hippocampus and thalamus^(18,19,32). Additionally, by combining structural MRI and DTI data, the thalamus was further divided in sub-regions according to their structural connectivity to cortex. The assessment of microstructural changes in each thalamic sub-region in DLB have revealed: microstructural grey matter preservation of the sub-regions which projects to temporal cortex⁽¹⁹⁾,

alterations within the thalamic portions projecting to the prefrontal and parieto-occipital cortices and amygdala⁽¹⁹⁾. Moreover, DLB patients present reduced structural connectivity within the anterior thalamic radiation, which projects to frontal cortex⁽⁴⁸⁾. These results are in agreement with the role of thalamus in shaping the cortico-cortical control⁽⁴⁹⁾ and with emerging hypotheses suggesting that thalamic dysregulation could induce reduced levels of arousal and consciousness state⁽²⁾. In this context, we observed reduction of NAA/tCr (marker of axonal density) and increase of tCho/tCr (marker of cholinergic dysfunction) in DLB patients, which correlated with frequency and severity of fluctuating cognition in DLB⁽¹⁸⁾. Moreover, it was observed that the microstructural damage of the thalamic portions projecting to cortical posterior regions including parietal and occipital lobes is closely related to the presence and severity of visual hallucinations⁽¹⁹⁾. These findings are in agreement with the role of the pulvinar in the visual processing⁽⁴⁷⁾ and with recent reports from neuropathological studies showing severe neuronal loss in the medial pulvinar in post-mortem brain tissue acquired from patients with DLB⁽²⁰⁾.

■ **CINGULATE ISLAND SIGN.** The CIS, a term referring to sparing of the posterior cingulate relative to the precuneus and cuneus, has been proposed as an FDG-PET imaging feature of DLB^(27,31) due to its good diagnostic power to distinguish DLB patients from AD. The preservation of the CIS is not associated with Aβ load but does predict lower Braak neurofibrillary tangle stage in clinically diagnosed DLB cases⁽²⁶⁾. Furthermore clinical symptoms of DLB (parkinsonism and global cognitive function) were found to be correlated with precuneus plus cuneus hypometabolism but not the CIS⁽²⁶⁾.

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