

Epidemiology of cardiac implantable electronic device infections: incidence and risk factors

Hui-Chen Han¹, Nathaniel M. Hawkins¹, Charles M. Pearman^{1,2}, David H. Birnie³, and Andrew D. Krahn^{1*}

¹Heart Rhythm Services, Division of Cardiology, Department of Medicine, Center for Cardiovascular Innovation, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada; ²Unit of Cardiac Physiology, Division of Cardiovascular Sciences, Manchester Academic Health Science Centre, Core Technology Facility, University of Manchester, Manchester M13 9XX, UK; and ³University of Ottawa Heart Institute, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada

Received 13 January 2021; editorial decision 13 February 2021

Abstract

Cardiac implantable electronic device (CIED) infection is a potentially devastating complication of CIED procedures, causing significant morbidity and mortality for patients. Of all CIED complications, infection has the greatest impact on mortality, requirement for re-intervention and additional hospital treatment days. Based on large prospective studies, the infection rate at 12-months after a CIED procedure is approximately 1%. The risk of CIED infection may be related to several factors which should be considered with regards to risk minimization. These include technical factors, patient factors, and periprocedural factors. Technical factors include the number of leads and size of generator, the absolute number of interventions which have been performed for the patient, and the operative approach. Patient factors include various non-modifiable underlying comorbidities and potentially modifiable transient conditions. Procedural factors include both peri-operative and post-operative factors. The contemporary PADIT score, derived from a large cohort of CIED patients, is useful for the prediction of infection risk. In this review, we summarize the key information regarding epidemiology, incidence and risk factors for CIED infection.

Graphical Abstract

CIED infection risk factors		
Device-related	Patient	Procedural
<p><i>Leads & Generator</i></p> <p>More leads (5.4) ICD (1.8–8.5) CRT (2.7–28.5)</p> <p><i>Additional interventions</i></p> <p>Generator replacement (2.0–3.8) System upgrade (3.1–39.6) Reintervention (3.1–8.0)</p> <p><i>Operative approach</i></p> <p>Epicardial Abdominal device</p>	<p><i>Underlying</i></p> <p>Younger age (1.4–1.6) Male (1.5) Renal dysfunction (1.5–13.4) Heart disease (3.8) COPD (2.2–9.8) AF (3.1) Immunocompromised (2.3–13.9)</p> <p><i>Transient</i></p> <p>Recent fever (5.8) Temporary pacing (2.5) Anticoagulation (2.8)</p>	<p><i>Peri-operative</i></p> <p>Absence of antibiotics (2.0–11.5) Operator inexperience (2.5) Procedure duration (1.03)</p> <p><i>Post-operative</i></p> <p>Hematoma (27.2)</p>

*Corresponding author. Tel: +604 682 2344; fax: +604 806 8723. E-mail address: akrahn@mail.ubc.ca

© The Author(s) 2021. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the European Society of Cardiology.

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>), which permits non-commercial re-use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited. For commercial re-use, please contact journals.permissions@oup.com

Keywords

Cardiac implantable electronic device • Pacemaker • Defibrillator • Infection

Introduction

Cardiac implantable electronic device (CIED) infection is a potentially devastating cause of morbidity and mortality for patients,^{1–3} resulting in significant strain on healthcare resources.^{4,5} Despite heightened awareness and measures to reduce risk of infection,^{6–8} the incidence remains high and the overall burden is increasing as the population receiving CIED continues to grow.^{9–11} Various technical, patient, and procedural factors can influence the infection risk associated with CIED procedures.^{12–14} In this review, we summarize the key information regarding epidemiology, incidence, and risk factors for CIED infection.

Definition

Various classifications exist for CIED infection. These can include conditions not necessarily requiring intervention, such as post-operative wound inflammation or simple stitch abscess. In contrast, conditions, which require intervention, include isolated pocket/generator infection, device pocket pre-erosion, pocket erosion with generator or lead externalization, isolated bacteraemia, pocket infection

with systemic involvement, and device-related infective endocarditis (Figure 1).^{15–18}

Incidence

Multiple factors influence the overall incidence of CIED infection including the type of CIED procedure and follow-up duration (Table 1). Of note, these studies have focused on CIED infections which require intervention. Based on two recent prospective multicentre trials, the overall 12-month CIED infection rate is ~1%.^{7,8}

De novo CIED implants are associated with lower infection risk when compared with generator procedures or lead revisions and upgrades.^{5,14,24,28,29} Pacemaker (PM) procedures are associated with lower infection risk compared to implantable cardioverter-defibrillator (ICD) and cardiac resynchronization therapy (CRT) procedures.^{5,14,24,29,30} In a retrospective study of 78 267 French patients having a CIED procedure, the 36-month infection rate for *de novo* device implant was 0.5–1.6% [0.5% for PM, 1.6% for ICD, 1.0% for CRT-pacemaker (CRT-P) and 1.6% for CRT-defibrillator (CRT-D)] compared to an infection rate of 1.3–3.9% for generator change procedures (1.4% for PM, 2.9% for ICD, 1.3% for CRT-P, and 3.9% for



Figure 1 Examples of CIED infections. (A) Localized pocket infection; (B) device tethering consistent with pre-erosion; (C) device erosion without site inflammation; and (D) localized inflammation and erosion. CIED, cardiac implantable electronic device.

Table 1 CIED infection rates

Study	Year	N ^a	Design	Follow-up	Infection rate (%; <i>de novo</i> implant unless specified)
Klug <i>et al.</i> ¹⁹	2007	6319	Prospective, cohort	12 months	1.2% overall
Poole <i>et al.</i> ²⁰	2010	1744	Prospective, cohort	6 months	1.4% generator; 1.1% lead procedure
Romeyer-Bouchard <i>et al.</i> ²¹	2010	303	Retrospective	31 months (mean)	1.6% CRT-P; 8.6% CRT-D; 1.5% CRT upgrade
Johansen <i>et al.</i> ²²	2011	56 657	Retrospective	12 months Device years ^b	0.5% PM; 1.2% PM generator within 12 months 0.1% PM; 0.3% PM generator after the first 12 months
Krahn <i>et al.</i> ²²	2011	1081	Prospective, cohort	45 days	2.1% ICD generator
Lyman <i>et al.</i> ²³	2011	38 992	Retrospective	90 days	1.2% ICD
Palmisano <i>et al.</i> ²⁴	2013	2671	Retrospective	Device years	0.9% overall; 0.2%, 0%, 2.1% for PM, ICD CRT respectively; 1.2% generator; 3.0% lead procedure
Schuchert <i>et al.</i> ²⁵	2013	402	Retrospective	12 months	1.2% CRT-P; 1.3% CRT-D
Peterson <i>et al.</i> ²⁶	2013	32 034	Retrospective	90 days	0.7% ICD
Prutkin <i>et al.</i> ²⁷	2014	200 909	Retrospective	6 months	1.7% ICD procedures; 2.0% CRT-D; 1.9% ICD generator
Kirkfeldt <i>et al.</i> ²⁸	2014	5918	Retrospective	6 months	0.8% overall; 0.6% implant; 1.5% generator; 1.9% lead procedure
Clémenty <i>et al.</i> ⁵	2018	78 267	Retrospective	36 months	0.5%, 1.6%, 1.0%, 1.6% for PM, ICD, CRT-P, CRT-D respectively; 1.4%, 2.9%, 1.3%, 3.9% for PM, ICD, CRT-P, CRT-D generators respectively
Yang <i>et al.</i> ²⁹	2019	16 908	Retrospective	Device years	2.0% overall; 1.4%, 1.5%, 1.5% for PM, ICD, CRT, respectively; 3.5%, 6.5%, 6.8% for PM, ICD, CRT generators, respectively
Tarakji <i>et al.</i> ⁸	2019	6983	Prospective, randomized	12 months	1.0% overall CRT-D or repeat procedure
Birnie <i>et al.</i> ¹⁴	2019	19 599	Prospective, randomized	12 months	0.9% overall; 0.3%, 0.9%, 0.6%, 1.1% for PM, ICD, CRT-P, CRT-D, respectively; 0.5%, 1.0%, 2.5% for PM, ICD, CRT generators, respectively; 2.1% lead procedures

CIED, cardiac implantable electronic device; CRT, cardiac resynchronization therapy; CRT-D, CRT-defibrillation; CRT-P, CRT-pacemaker; ICD, implantable cardioverter-defibrillator; PM, permanent pacemaker.

^aNumber of procedures (where available), otherwise number of patients.

^bAfter 12 months.

CRT-D).⁵ Similarly, in a prospective, multicentre study of 19 599 patients having a CIED procedure, the 12-month infection rate for *de novo* device implant was 0.3–1.1% (0.3% for PM, 0.9% for ICD, 0.6% for CRT-P, and 1.1% for CRT-D) compared to an infection rate of 0.5–2.5% for generator procedures (0.5% for PM, 1.0% for ICD, and 2.5% for CRT) and an infection rate of 2.1% for lead revision or upgrade procedures.¹⁴

The infection rate is greatest in the initial period after CIED procedure.^{21,27,31} In a retrospective study of 200 909 ICD procedures, the infection rates at 30, 60, and 90 days were 0.8%, 1.2%, and 1.4%, respectively.²⁷ In another retrospective study of 56 657 PM procedures (46 299 patients) with 236 888 device-years of follow-up, the annual infection rate within the initial 12 months was 0.5% for *de novo* implants and 1.2% for generator change procedures. However, there remained a residual risk of late infections, with an annual infection rate of 0.1% for *de novo* implants and 0.3% for generator change procedures after the initial 12-month period.³¹ This late risk likely stems from the high prevalence of subclinical pocket colonization which

may lie dormant for many years. In patients undergoing elective CIED generator replacement, ~25% have evidence of asymptomatic bacterial colonization of the pocket.^{32,33}

Temporal trends up until 2012 indicated that the rate of CIED infections was increasing, with concurrent growth in device procedures performed.^{11,34,35} Using national registry data from the USA, CIED infection rates increased from 1.5% in 1993 to 2.4% in 2008 and 3.4% in 2012.^{11,35} This is explained, in part, by an increase in complex and thus higher risk device procedures, whereby ICDs accounted for 12% of total implants in 1993, but 35% of total implants in 2008.³⁵ Global trends have also shown an increase in the number of CRT devices implanted as a proportion of total CIED procedures.^{9,10} While differences in CIED case mix may be partially responsible for this increase, infection rates for individual subsets of CIED procedures also appeared to be rising.¹¹ This finding is likely due to an increased incidence of comorbidities including renal failure, diabetes mellitus, heart failure, and chronic respiratory disease in patients receiving CIED.³⁵ The subsequent prospective PADIT and

Table 2 Cost of CIED infections

Country	Estimated cost
France ⁵	€22 000—mean over 24 months
UK ^{4,41}	£15 000—median per episode
Germany ⁴²	€32 000—mean over 36 months
USA ⁴³	\$51 000 (USD)—mean admission
Canada ⁴⁴	\$30 000 (CAD)—mean per episode
Australia ⁴⁵	\$17 000 (AUD)—mean admission
Korea ²⁹	\$17 000 (USD)—mean admission

CIED, cardiac implantable electronic device.

WRAP-IT trials conducted after 2012 reported a lower rate of infection in the order of 0.5–1.5% between risk groups in the control arm.^{7,8,14} Both studies involved a broad range of centre types and intentionally involved high-risk patients. While increasingly complex CIED procedures and patients should provide impetus for physicians to evaluate approaches for minimization of risk, a target infection rate of 1% is clearly achievable.

Healthcare consequences

Cardiac implantable electronic device infections are associated with significant consequences for the patient and the healthcare system. In-hospital mortality is estimated to be ~5–10%,^{35–37} while 1-year all-cause mortality ranges between 16% and 36%,^{36–39} although both appear to be reducing over time.^{11,39,40} Hospitalization for CIED infection typically lasts 1–3 weeks,^{11,29,35,36,40,41} with an associated reduction in quality of life.³⁹

The resultant healthcare costs are therefore substantial (Table 2), although this varies according to geographic region, type of CIED, and associated management decision.^{4,5,11,29,41,43–46} Costs related to medical care include hospitalization, procedural (both extraction and reimplantation of replacement device), physician service, outpatient care, and associated investigations and medications.^{5,41,42,44} In addition, the provision of sick pay contributes to the societal burden of CIED infections.⁴² Of all CIED complications, infection has the greatest impact on mortality, requirement for re-intervention, and additional hospital treatment days.²⁴

Microbiology

Staphylococcal species, both *Staphylococcus aureus* and coagulase negative staphylococci, account for ~60–70% of CIED infections (Table 3).⁴⁷ Of note, a significant proportion of these organisms display methicillin resistance, varying by local risk of exposure to resistant organisms.^{48,49} Other organisms identified include enterococci, streptococci, gram-negative bacteria, anaerobes, fungi, mycobacteria, and polymicrobial.^{37,48–51} In addition, up to 21% of CIED infections may be culture negative.⁴⁸ Those with CIED infection due to *Staphylococcus aureus* have consequently longer treatment duration requirements compared to those with coagulase negative

Table 3 Microbiology of CIED infections

Organism	Infections rate ^a
Staphylococci	
<i>S. aureus</i>	29–44%
Methicillin sensitive	12–25%
Methicillin resistant	4–22%
Coagulase negative	26–42%
Methicillin sensitive	~19%
Methicillin resistant	~19%
Streptococci	0.6–2.5%
Enterococci	4–13%
Anaerobes	1.6–6.5%
Gram negative	5–9%
Fungi	1–2%
Mycobacteria	0.2%
Polymicrobial	2–14%
Culture negative	7–21%

CIED, cardiac implantable electronic device.

^aInfection rates summarized from Refs.^{37,47–51}

staphylococci or those which are culture negative,⁴⁷ along with having a higher 12-month mortality.³⁷ The impact of antimicrobial-resistant organisms on the treatment and outcomes of CIED infections requires further clarification.

Temporally, infections occurring within 12 months are more likely to be caused by *Staphylococcus aureus* which is methicillin sensitive, while infections after 12 months are more likely to be caused by coagulase negative staphylococci or be microbial negative, using traditional culture methods.⁴⁹ The implementation of sonification techniques may increase the microbiological diagnostic yield in these circumstances.^{33,52}

Cardiac implantable electronic device infection risk factors

Cardiac implantable electronic device infection may be related to several factors, which should be considered with regards to risk minimization and appropriate pre-procedural planning. These include device-related factors, patient factors that may or may not be modifiable, and procedural factors.

Device-related factors

Leads and generator

Procedures involving ICD or CRT-D generators result in more infections than procedures involving PM or CRT-P generators, respectively [adjusted odds ratio (aOR) 1.8–8.5].^{14,53} Furthermore, CRT devices confer a higher infection risk than non-CRT devices (both PM and ICD) (aOR 2.7–28.5).^{14,21,24,54} The presence of additional leads (abandoned intravascular leads and not necessarily CRT) may also influence CIED infection risk. Procedures on patients with >2 CIED leads are independently associated with more infections compared to devices involving two implanted leads (aOR 5.4).⁵⁵ It is

Table 4 Risk prediction scores for CIED infection

	Infections/Patients		Factors	Points	Score	Infection risk (%)		
PADIT ¹⁴	177/19 603	Device related	Procedure type		0	0.36		
			ICD	2	1	0.32		
			CRT	4	2	0.39		
			Revision/upgrade	4	3	0.65		
			Number of previous procedures		4	0.81		
					1	5	1.06	
					≥2	3	6	1.64
		Patient	Age		≥7	2.91		
			<60	2				
			60–69	1				
Renal dysfunction (eGFR<30)	1							
Immunocompromise	3							
Mittal et al. ¹²	33/2891	Device related	Reintervention	11	0–7	1		
			Upgrade	2	8–14	3.4		
		Patient	Male gender	6	15–25	11.1		
			Diabetes	3				
			Heart failure	1				
			Hypertension	1				
			Renal dysfunction (eGFR<60)	1				
Shariff et al. ¹³	19/1111	Device related	Generator change/upgrade	1	<3	1		
			Epicardial lead	1	≥3	2.4		
			>2 leads	1				
		Patient	Diabetes	1				
			Heart failure	1				
			Oral anticoagulation	1				
			Corticosteroid	1				
			Renal dysfunction (Cr>1.5mg/dL)	1				
			Prior CIED infection	1				
			Temporary pacing	1				

CIED, cardiac implantable electronic device; Cr, serum creatinine; CRT, cardiac resynchronization therapy; eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate; ICD, implantable cardioverter-defibrillator.

postulated that a greater burden of hardware—either more intravascular leads or larger generator battery—poses additional technical challenges and provides increased foreign body surface area for microbial adherence,⁵⁶ thereby potentiating infection risk.

Additional interventions

Any intervention to an existing CIED system carries additional infection risk when compared with a *de novo* implant. This includes generator changes (aOR 2.0–3.8),^{19,57–59} device system upgrades (aOR 3.1–39.6),^{14,24,60} and other lead or pocket re-interventions (aOR 3.1–8.0).^{14,21,57,60} Alternatively, it can be considered that each additional CIED procedure after the initial implant carries incremental risk for device infection where 2, 3, 4, and 5 (or more) procedures are associated with an infection risk of 1.5–2.7, 3.4–3.8, 5.5, and 8.7, respectively (all aOR when compared with an initial implant).^{14,31} Factors that contribute to this include the presence of an existing relatively avascular pocket with impaired immunity and increasing procedural complexity associated with reinterventions.^{20,57}

Operative approach

Cardiac implantable electronic device infections are also more common using epicardial and extrathoracic approaches compared to a transvenous approach with infraclavicular device placement. This includes the placement of epicardial leads, placement of epicardial or extrapericardial defibrillator patch electrodes, or use of a tunnelling approach (aOR 5.0–9.7).^{61–65} While transvenous devices are now considered standard of care, alternate surgically implanted devices remain important in certain subsets of patients including young children or those with limiting transvenous anatomy.^{66,67}

Patient factors

Underlying factors

Contemporary studies indicate that younger age is associated with a greater risk of infection.^{14,31,54} In a retrospective Danish cohort of 46 299 patients and 56 637 device procedures, younger age was independently associated with CIED infection.³¹ Similarly, a prospective multi-centre study from Canada and Europe involving 19 603 patients found incremental CIED infection risk with

younger age (aOR 1.4–1.6).^{7,14} While the reasons for this are unclear, it is postulated that younger individuals have firmer subcutaneous tissue resulting in more traumatic pocket creation.

While some studies have suggested that male gender (aOR 1.5) is associated with an increased risk of CIED infection,^{12,31} this was not demonstrated in two recent multi-centre prospective studies.^{8,14} The potential reasons for this are unclear, although the presence of firmer prepectoral subcutaneous tissue in males may provide a similar pathophysiological explanation.

Certain comorbid conditions independently predict CIED infections. Foremost, patients who have had a previous CIED infection are unsurprisingly at greater risk of subsequent infections.⁶⁸ Other comorbidities include chronic kidney disease with (aOR 13.4) or without (aOR 1.5–4.6) dialysis,^{12,14,21,57} heart disease (including hypertrophic cardiomyopathy, valvular disease, or congestive cardiac failure, aOR 3.1),^{12,69} chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (aOR 2.2–9.8),^{59,65} atrial fibrillation (aOR 3.1),⁶⁰ and immune suppression (aOR 2.3–13.9).^{14,55} In general, the presence of these conditions indicates an underlying vulnerability resulting from medical comorbidities.

Transient factors

Transient and potentially modifiable patient factors such as fever in the 24-h prior to device procedure (aOR 5.8),¹⁹ presence of temporary pacing wire (aOR 2.5),¹⁹ and anti-coagulation therapy (aOR 2.8)⁵⁷ are also independent predictors of CIED infections. Judicious management of anti-coagulation is critical for minimization of infectious complications. In a multicentre randomized controlled trial, BRUISE CONTROL assigned 681 patients on warfarin at high risk for thromboembolic complications to warfarin continuation vs. warfarin cessation with bridging heparin.⁷⁰ The trial was stopped early due to significantly more pocket haematoma in the warfarin cessation group,⁷¹ which in turn resulted in significantly more CIED infections at 12-month follow-up.⁷² Additionally, careful consideration of procedural timing and necessity of temporary pacing may further minimize CIED infection rates.

Procedural factors

Peri-operative factors

Administration of peri-procedural antibiotics is now considered standard care in CIED procedures. The absence of antibiotics is consistently shown to be an independent predictor of CIED infections (aOR 2.0–11.5),^{19,31,55,58} while randomized trials demonstrate that intravenous antibiotics reduce infection risk.^{73,74} In a single-centre, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial comparing peri-procedural administration of 1 g IV cefazolin vs. placebo, the trial was stopped early (649 out of an intended 1000 patients enrolled) due to significantly lower CIED infection rates in those receiving antibiotic therapy.⁷⁴ The infection rate in the antibiotic arm was 2 of 314 (0.6%) compared to 11 of 335 (3.3%) in the placebo arm.

Additional antibiotic therapies may offer risk modification in certain cases. The results of the PADIT and WRAP-IT trials are discussed in detail later in this Supplement, but consideration of incremental systemic antibiotics or use of the TYRX antibiotic eluting absorbable envelope may be considered in certain circumstances.^{7,8,14,75,76}

In addition, operator proficiency affects the CIED infection risk. Both lower volume implanter status (aOR 2.5),⁷⁷ and increasing procedure time have been found to be independent predictors of CIED infections.²¹ Thus, a robust training curriculum for device implanters is critical for infection minimization.⁷⁸

Post-operative factors

Post-operative complications are associated with increased risk of CIED infections. Wound complications, predominantly haematoma, independently predict CIED infections (aOR 27.2).^{65,72,74} This can be largely mitigated by careful perioperative anti-coagulation and anti-platelet management.⁷⁹ Lead dislodgement is also associated with infection,²¹ although this is likely due to the repeat intervention rather than as a direct cause.

Cardiac implantable electronic device infection risk prediction

Several risk scores have been developed for the pre-operative assessment of CIED infection risk, combining both device related and patient factors (Table 4).^{12–14} The PADIT score was developed from a contemporary prospective study involving 19 603 patients with infection outcomes defined at 12 months.^{7,14} Risk score points are assigned for individual variables of age (<60 or 60–69), procedure type (ICD, CRT or revision/upgrade), renal insufficiency (eGFR <30 mL/min), immunocompromise, and number of previous procedures (1 or ≥2). Based on this cohort, a total score of 0–4, 5–6, and ≥7 confers a CIED infection risk of <1%, 1–2%, and 2.9%, respectively. A convenient web-based calculator is available for point of care use when considering extent of prevention measures (<https://padit-calculator.ca>), including the administration of additional antibiotics and/or use of an antibiotic envelope in high-risk patients. Two additional risk scores have been proposed by Mittal et al. and Shariff et al.,^{12,13} although these were developed from smaller cohorts of retrospectively studied patients.

Conclusion

Cardiac implantable electronic device infections can have potentially devastating consequences, resulting in significant burdens to health-care systems. Various device related, patient and procedural factors may potentiate risk of CIED infection. Strategies to minimize risk include identifying higher risk individuals using risk score systems, avoidance of haematoma including careful management of anticoagulants, and the use of additional antimicrobial measures in selected high-risk groups. With the advancement of risk recognition and mitigation strategies, an overall CIED infection rate of 1% is achievable.

Funding

A.D.K. receives support from the Sauder Family and Heart and Stroke Foundation Chair in Cardiology (Vancouver, BC), the Paul Brunet Chair in Heart Rhythm Disorders (Vancouver, BC), and the Paul Albrechtson Foundation (Winnipeg, MB). This article was published as part of a supplement supported by an educational grant from Medtronic.

Conflict of interest: The authors had full access to the data and take full responsibility for its integrity. All authors have read and agreed to the manuscript as written. A.D.K. is a consultant to Medtronic. All remaining authors have declared no conflicts of interest.

Data availability

Source data for this review article have been cited and are available from web-based medical libraries.

References

- Nof E, Epstein LM. Complications of cardiac implants: handling device infections. *Eur Heart J* 2013;**34**:229–36.
- Nielsen JC, Gerdes JC, Varma N. Infected cardiac-implantable electronic devices: prevention, diagnosis, and treatment. *Eur Heart J* 2015;**36**:2484–90.
- Blomström-Lundqvist C, Traykov V, Erba PA, Burri H, Nielsen JC, Bongjorni MG et al.; ESC Scientific Document Group. European Heart Rhythm Association (EHRA) international consensus document on how to prevent, diagnose, and treat cardiac implantable electronic device infections-endorsed by the Heart Rhythm Society (HRS), the Asia Pacific Heart Rhythm Society (APHRS), the Latin American Heart Rhythm Society (LAHRS), International Society for Cardiovascular Infectious Diseases (ISCVI) and the European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases (ESCMID) in collaboration with the European Association for Cardio-Thoracic Surgery (EACTS). *Europace* 2020;**22**: 515–49.
- Ahsan SY, Saberwal B, Lambiase PD, Koo CY, Lee S, Gopalamurugan AB et al. A simple infection-control protocol to reduce serious cardiac device infections. *Europace* 2014;**16**:1482–9.
- Clémenty N, Carion PL, Léotoing L, Lamarsalle L, Wilquin-Bequet F, Brown B et al. Infections and associated costs following cardiovascular implantable electronic device implantations: a nationwide cohort study. *Europace* 2018;**20**:1974–80.
- Polyzos KA, Konstantelias AA, Falagas ME. Risk factors for cardiac implantable electronic device infection: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Europace* 2015;**17**:767–77.
- Krahn AD, Longtin Y, Philippon F, Birnie DH, Manlucu J, Angaran P et al. Prevention of arrhythmia device infection trial: the PADIT Trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2018;**72**:3098–109.
- Tarakji KG, Mittal S, Kennergren C, Corey R, Poole JE, Schloss E et al. Antibacterial envelope to prevent cardiac implantable device infection. *N Engl J Med* 2019;**380**:1895–905.
- Mond HG, Irwin M, Ector H, Proclemer A. The world survey of cardiac pacing and cardioverter-defibrillators: calendar year 2005 an International Cardiac Pacing and Electrophysiology Society (ICPES) project. *Pacing Clin Electrophysiol* 2008;**31**:1202–12.
- Mond HG, Proclemer A. The 11th world survey of cardiac pacing and implantable cardioverter-defibrillators: calendar year 2009—a World Society of Arrhythmia's project. *Pacing Clin Electrophysiol* 2011;**34**:1013–27.
- Joy PS, Kumar G, Poole JE, London B, Olshansky B. Cardiac implantable electronic device infections: who is at greatest risk? *Heart Rhythm* 2017;**14**:839–45.
- Mittal S, Shaw RE, Michel K, Palekar R, Arshad A, Musat D et al. Cardiac implantable electronic device infections: incidence, risk factors, and the effect of the AigisRx antibacterial envelope. *Heart Rhythm* 2014;**11**:595–601.
- Shariff N, Eby E, Adelstein E, Jain S, Shalaby A, Saba S et al. Health and economic outcomes associated with use of an antimicrobial envelope as a standard of care for cardiac implantable electronic device implantation. *J Cardiovasc Electrophysiol* 2015;**26**:783–9.
- Birnie DH, Wang J, Alings M, Philippon F, Parkash R, Manlucu J et al. Risk factors for infections involving cardiac implanted electronic devices. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2019;**74**:2845–54.
- Chua JD, Wilkoff BL, Lee I, Juratli N, Longworth DL, Gordon SM. Diagnosis and management of infections involving implantable electrophysiologic cardiac devices. *Ann Intern Med* 2000;**133**:604–8.
- Chamis AL, Peterson GE, Cabell CH, Corey GR, Sorrentino RA, Greenfield RA et al. Staphylococcus aureus bacteremia in patients with permanent pacemakers or implantable cardioverter-defibrillators. *Circulation* 2001;**104**:1029–33.
- Sandoe JA, Barlow G, Chambers JB, Gammage M, Guleri A, Howard P et al. Guidelines for the diagnosis, prevention and management of implantable cardiac electronic device infection. Report of a joint Working Party project on behalf of the British Society for Antimicrobial Chemotherapy (BSAC, host organization), British Heart Rhythm Society (BHRS), British Cardiovascular Society (BCS), British Heart Valve Society (BHVS) and British Society for Echocardiography (BSE). *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2015;**70**:325–59.
- Padfield GJ, Steinberg C, Bennett MT, Chakrabarti S, Deyell MW, Bashir J et al. Preventing cardiac implantable electronic device infections. *Heart Rhythm* 2015;**12**:2344–56.
- Klug D, Balde M, Pavin D, Hidden-Lucet F, Clementy J, Sadoul N et al. Risk factors related to infections of implanted pacemakers and cardioverter-defibrillators: results of a large prospective study. *Circulation* 2007;**116**:1349–55.
- Poole JE, Gleva MJ, Mela T, Chung MK, Uslan DZ, Borge R et al.; the REPLACE registry. Complication rates associated with pacemaker or implantable cardioverter-defibrillator generator replacements and upgrade procedures: results from. *Circulation* 2010;**122**:1553–61.
- Romeyer-Bouchard C, Da Costa A, Dauphinot V, Messier M, Bisch L, Samuel B et al. Prevalence and risk factors related to infections of cardiac resynchronization therapy devices. *Eur Heart J* 2010;**31**:203–10.
- Krahn AD, Lee DS, Birnie D, Healey JS, Crystal E, Dorian P et al. Predictors of short-term complications after implantable cardioverter-defibrillator replacement: results from the Ontario ICD Database. *Circ Arrhythm Electrophysiol* 2011;**4**: 136–42.
- Lyman S, Sedrakyan A, Do H, Razzano R, Mushlin AI. Infrequent physician use of implantable cardioverter-defibrillators risks patient safety. *Heart* 2011;**97**: 1655–60.
- Palmisano P, Accogli M, Zaccaria M, Luzzi G, Nacci F, Analerio M et al. Rate, causes, and impact on patient outcome of implantable device complications requiring surgical revision: large population survey from two centres in Italy. *Europace* 2013;**15**:531–40.
- Schuchert A, Muto C, Maounis T, Frank R, Boulogne E, Polauck A et al.; for the MASCOT study group. Lead complications, device infections, and clinical outcomes in the first year after implantation of cardiac resynchronization therapy-defibrillator and cardiac resynchronization therapy-pacemaker. *Europace* 2013;**15**:71–6.
- Peterson PN, Varosy PD, Heidenreich PA, Wang Y, Dewland TA, Curtis JP et al. Association of single- vs dual-chamber ICDs with mortality, readmissions, and complications among patients receiving an ICD for primary prevention. *JAMA* 2013;**309**:2025–34.
- Prutkin JM, Reynolds MR, Bao H, Curtis JP, Al-Khatib SM, Aggarwal S et al. Rates of and factors associated with infection in 200 909 Medicare implantable cardioverter-defibrillator implants: results from the National Cardiovascular Data Registry. *Circulation* 2014;**130**:1037–43.
- Kirkfeldt RE, Johansen JB, Nohr EA, Jørgensen OD, Nielsen JC. Complications after cardiac implantable electronic device implantations: an analysis of a complete, nationwide cohort in Denmark. *Eur Heart J* 2014;**35**:1186–94.
- Yang PS, Jeong J, You SJ, Yu HT, Kim TH, Sung JH et al. The burden and risk factors for infection of transvenous cardiovascular implantable electronic device: a Nationwide Cohort Study. *Korean Circ J* 2019;**49**:742–52.
- Johansen JB, Jørgensen OD, Møller M, Arnsbo P, Mortensen PT, Nielsen JC. Infection after pacemaker implantation: infection rates and risk factors associated with infection in a population-based cohort study of 46299 consecutive patients. *Eur Heart J* 2011;**32**:991–8.
- Uslan DZ, Sohail MR, St SJ, Friedman PA, Hayes DL, Stoner SM et al. Permanent pacemaker and implantable cardioverter defibrillator infection: a population-based study. *Arch Intern Med* 2007;**167**:669–75.
- Rohacek M, Weisser M, Kobza R, Schoenenberger AW, Pfyffer GE, Frei R et al. Bacterial colonization and infection of electrophysiological cardiac devices detected with sonication and swab culture. *Circulation* 2010;**121**:1691–7.
- Mason PK, Dimarco JP, Ferguson JD, Mahapatra S, Mangrum JM, Bilchick KC et al. Sonication of explanted cardiac rhythm management devices for the diagnosis of pocket infections and asymptomatic bacterial colonization. *Pacing Clin Electrophysiol* 2011;**34**:143–9.
- Voigt A, Shalaby A, Saba S. Rising rates of cardiac rhythm management device infections in the United States: 1996 through 2003. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2006;**48**: 590–1.
- Greenspon AJ, Patel JD, Lau E, Ochoa JA, Frisch DR, Ho RT et al. 16-year trends in the infection burden for pacemakers and implantable cardioverter-defibrillators in the United States 1993 to 2008. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2011;**58**: 1001–6.
- Sohail MR, Henrikson CA, Braid-Forbes MJ, Forbes KF, Lerner DJ. Mortality and cost associated with cardiovascular implantable electronic device infections. *Arch Intern Med* 2011;**171**:1821–8.
- Lee DH, Gracely EJ, Aleem SY, Kutalek SP, Vleemeyer O. Differences of mortality rates between pocket and nonpocket cardiovascular implantable electronic device infections. *Pacing Clin Electrophysiol* 2015;**38**:1456–63.
- Greenspon AJ, Eby EL, Petrilla AA, Sohail MR. Treatment patterns, costs, and mortality among Medicare beneficiaries with CIED infection. *Pacing Clin Electrophysiol* 2018;**41**:495–503.
- Wilkoff BL, Boriani G, Mittal S, Poole JE, Kennergren C, Corey GR et al. Impact of cardiac implantable electronic device infection: a clinical and economic analysis of the WRAP-IT Trial. *Circ Arrhythm Electrophysiol* 2020;**13**:e008280.

40. Sridhar AR, Lavu M, Yartagadda V, Reddy M, Gunda S, Afzal R et al. Cardiac implantable electronic device-related infection and extraction trends in the U.S. *Pacing Clin Electrophysiol* 2017;**40**:286–93.
41. Ahmed FZ, Fullwood C, Zaman M, Qamruddin A, Cunningham C, Mamas MA et al. Cardiac implantable electronic device (CIED) infections are expensive and associated with prolonged hospitalisation: UK Retrospective Observational Study. *PLoS One* 2019;**14**:e0206611.
42. Ludwig S, Theis C, Brown B, Witthohn A, Lux W, Goette A. Incidence and costs of cardiac device infections: retrospective analysis using German health claims data. *J Comp Effectiveness Res* 2018;**7**:483–92.
43. Rennert-May E, Chew D, Lu S, Chu A, Kuriachan V, Somayaji R. Epidemiology of cardiac implantable electronic device infections in the United States: a population-based cohort study. *Heart Rhythm* 2020;**17**:1125–31.
44. Gitenay E, Molin F, Blais S, Tremblay V, Gervais P, Plourde B et al. Cardiac implantable electronic device infection: detailed analysis of cost implications. *Can J Cardiol* 2018;**34**:1026–32.
45. Roder C, Gunjaca V, Otome O, Gwini SM, Athan E. Cost and outcomes of implantable cardiac electronic device infections in Victoria, Australia. *Heart Lung Circul* 2020;**29**:e140–6.
46. Sohail MR, Eby EL, Ryan MP, Gunnarsson C, Wright LA, Greenspon AJ. Incidence, treatment intensity, and incremental annual expenditures for patients experiencing a cardiac implantable electronic device infection: evidence from a large US payer database 1-year post implantation. *Circ Arrhythm Electrophysiol* 2016;**9**:e003929.
47. Sohail MR, Uslan DZ, Khan AH, Friedman PA, Hayes DL, Wilson WR et al. Management and outcome of permanent pacemaker and implantable cardioverter-defibrillator infections. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2007;**49**:1851–9.
48. Viola GM, Awan LL, Darouiche RO. Nonstaphylococcal infections of cardiac implantable electronic devices. *Circulation* 2010;**121**:2085–91.
49. Hussein AA, Baghdy Y, Wazni OM, Brunner MP, Kabbach G, Shao M et al. Microbiology of cardiac implantable electronic device infections. *JACC Clin Electrophysiol* 2016;**2**:498–505.
50. Dai M, Cai C, Vaibhav V, Sohail MR, Hayes DL, Hodge DO et al. Trends of cardiovascular implantable electronic device infection in 3 decades: a population-based study. *JACC Clin Electrophysiol* 2019;**5**:1071–80.
51. Esquer Garrigos Z, George MP, Vijayargiya P, Tan EM, Farid S, Abu Saleh OM et al. Clinical presentation, management, and outcomes of cardiovascular implantable electronic device infections due to gram-negative versus gram-positive bacteria. *Mayo Clin Proc* 2019;**94**:1268–77.
52. Oliva A, Nguyen BL, Mascellino MT, D'Abramo A, Iannetta M, Ciccaglioni A et al. Sonication of explanted cardiac implants improves microbial detection in cardiac device infections. *J Clin Microbiol* 2013;**51**:496–502.
53. Madadi S, Kafi M, Kheirkhah J, Azhari A, Kiarsi M, Mehryar A et al. Postoperative antibiotic prophylaxis in the prevention of cardiac implantable electronic device infection. *Pacing Clin Electrophysiol* 2019;**42**:161–5.
54. Margey R, McCann H, Blake G, Keelan E, Galvin J, Lynch M et al. Contemporary management of and outcomes from cardiac device related infections. *Europace* 2010;**12**:64–70.
55. Sohail MR, Uslan DZ, Khan AH, Friedman PA, Hayes DL, Wilson WR et al. Risk factor analysis of permanent pacemaker infection. *Clin Infect Dis* 2007;**45**:166–73.
56. Jansen B, Peters G. Foreign body associated infection. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 1993;**32**:69–75.
57. Lekkerkerker JC, van Nieuwkoop C, Trines SA, van der Bom JG, Bernards A, van de Velde ET et al. Risk factors and time delay associated with cardiac device infections: Leiden device registry. *Heart* 2009;**95**:715–20.
58. Cengiz M, Okutucu S, Ascioğlu S, Şahin A, Aksoy H, Sinan Deveci O et al. Permanent pacemaker and implantable cardioverter defibrillator infections: seven years of diagnostic and therapeutic experience of a single center. *Clin Cardiol* 2010;**33**:406–11.
59. Landolina M, Gasparini M, Lunati M, Iacopino S, Boriani G, Bonanno C et al. Long-term complications related to biventricular defibrillator implantation: rate of surgical revisions and impact on survival: insights from the Italian Clinical Service Database. *Circulation* 2011;**123**:2526–35.
60. Chen HC, Chen MC, Chen YL, Tsai TH, Pan KL, Lin YS. Bundled preparation of skin antiseptic decreases the risk of cardiac implantable electronic device-related infection. *Europace* 2016;**18**:858–67.
61. Trappe HJ, Pftzner P, Klein H, Wenzlaff P. Infections after cardioverter-defibrillator implantation: observations in 335 patients over 10 years. *Br Heart J* 1995;**73**:20–4.
62. Spinler SA, Nawarskas JJ, Foote EF, Sabapathi D, Connors JE, Marchlinski FE. Clinical presentation and analysis of risk factors for infectious complications of implantable cardioverter-defibrillator implantations at a university medical center. *Clin Infect Dis* 1998;**26**:1111–6.
63. Mela T, McGovern BA, Garan H, Vlahakes GJ, Torchiana DF, Ruskin J et al. Long-term infection rates associated with the pectoral versus abdominal approach to cardioverter-defibrillator implants. *Am J Cardiol* 2001;**88**:750–3.
64. Gil P, Fernández Guerrero ML, Bayona JF, Rubio JM, de Górgolas M, Granizo JJ et al. Infections of implantable cardioverter-defibrillators: frequency, predisposing factors and clinical significance. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2006;**12**:533–7.
65. Sohail MR, Hussain S, Le KY, Dib C, Lohse CM, Friedman PA et al. for the Mayo Cardiovascular Infections Study Group. Risk factors associated with early- versus late-onset implantable cardioverter-defibrillator infections. *J Interv Card Electrophysiol* 2011;**31**:171–83.
66. Kubus P, Materna O, Gebauer RA, Matejka T, Gebauer R, Tlaskal T et al. Permanent epicardial pacing in children: long-term results and factors modifying outcome. *Europace* 2012;**14**:509–14.
67. Vos LM, Kammeraad JAE, Freund MW, Blank AC, Breur J. Long-term outcome of transvenous pacemaker implantation in infants: a retrospective cohort study. *Europace* 2017;**19**:581–7.
68. Raad D, Irani J, Akl EG, Choueiri S, Azar E, Abboud J et al. Implantable electrophysiologic cardiac device infections: a risk factor analysis. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 2012;**31**:3015–21.
69. Hercé B, Nazeyrollas P, Lesaffre F, Sandras R, Chabert JP, Martin A et al. Risk factors for infection of implantable cardiac devices: data from a registry of 2496 patients. *Europace* 2013;**15**:66–70.
70. Birnie D, Healey JS, Krahn A, Essebag V, Sivakumaran S, Tang A et al. Bridge or continue Coumadin for device surgery: a randomized controlled trial rationale and design. *Curr Opin Cardiol* 2009;**24**:82–7.
71. Birnie DH, Healey JS, Wells GA, Verma A, Tang AS, Krahn AD et al. Pacemaker or defibrillator surgery without interruption of anticoagulation. *N Engl J Med* 2013;**368**:2084–93.
72. Essebag V, Verma A, Healey JS, Krahn AD, Kalfon E, Couto B et al. Clinically significant pocket hematoma increases long-term risk of device infection: BRUISE CONTROL INFECTION Study. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2016;**67**:1300–8.
73. Mounsey JP, Griffith MJ, Tynan M, Gould FK, MacDermott AF, Gold RG et al. Antibiotic prophylaxis in permanent pacemaker implantation: a prospective randomized trial. *Brit Heart J* 1994;**72**:339–43.
74. de Oliveira JC, Martinelli M, Nishioka SAD, Varejão TNIA, Uipe D, Pedrosa AAA et al. Efficacy of antibiotic prophylaxis before the implantation of pacemakers and cardioverter-defibrillators: results of a large, prospective, randomized, double-blinded, placebo-controlled trial. *Circ Arrhythm Electrophysiol* 2009;**2**:29–34.
75. Connolly SJ, Philippon F, Longtin Y, Casanova A, Birnie DH, Exner DV et al. Randomized cluster crossover trials for reliable, efficient, comparative effectiveness testing: design of the Prevention of Arrhythmia Device Infection Trial (PADIT). *Can J Cardiol* 2013;**29**:652–8.
76. Tarakji KG, Mittal S, Kennergren C, Corey R, Poole J, Stromberg K et al. Worldwide Randomized Antibiotic Envelope Infection Prevention Trial (WRAP-IT). *Am Heart J* 2016;**180**:12–21.
77. Al-Khatib SM, Lucas FL, Jollis JG, Malenka DJ, Wennberg DE. The relation between patients' outcomes and the volume of cardioverter-defibrillator implantation procedures performed by physicians treating Medicare beneficiaries. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2005;**46**:1536–40.
78. Zipes DP, Calkins H, Daubert JP, Ellenbogen KA, Field ME, Fisher JD et al. 2015 ACC/AHA/HRS Advanced Training Statement on Clinical Cardiac Electrophysiology (A Revision of the ACC/AHA 2006 update of the clinical competence statement on invasive electrophysiology studies, catheter ablation, and cardioversion). *Heart Rhythm* 2016;**13**:e3–37.
79. Essebag V, Healey JS, Joza J, Nery PB, Kalfon E, Leiria TLL et al. Effect of direct oral anticoagulants, warfarin, and antiplatelet agents on risk of device pocket hematoma: combined analysis of BRUISE CONTROL 1 and 2. *Circ Arrhythm Electrophysiol* 2019;**12**:e007545.