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Cerebral Necrosis After Radiotherapy and/or Intraarterial Chemotherapy for Brain Tumors: PET and Neuropathologic Studies

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Cerebral necrosis after radiotherapy for brain tumors is being recognized as a problem more common than previously estimated. Distinction between this iatrogenic complication and tumor recurrence cannot be made by either CT or MR imaging. By using positron emission tomography (PET) with ¹⁸F-deoxyglucose (FDG) we were able to reach a diagnosis of radiation necrosis, later verified, in 10 of 95 patients referred for the purpose of differentiating tumor recurrence from necrosis. The critical PET-FDG feature was focal hypometabolism in the area of necrosis, which contrasted with the hypermetabolism associated with the residual/recurrent tumor.

In addition, four cases of cerebral necrosis after supraophthalmic, intraarterial chemotherapy (BCNU) were studied with the PET-FDG method. The area of chemotherapy damage was also characterized by marked hypometabolism. Histology revealed both similarities and differences between radio- and chemonecrosis.

Radiotherapy and, to a lesser degree, chemotherapy are useful, or relatively useful, treatment tools for malignant primary brain tumors [1]. In both therapeutic methods, selective, high-dosage delivery to the tumoral tissue is the obvious strategy for enhancing their efficacy. However, attempts at improving the survival results by "selectivity-enhancing" variations and adjunctions to the conventional radiotherapy and by superselective intracarotid chemotherapy have not been successful [2, 3]. The main limitation is damage to the normal cerebral tissue, a complication still poorly understood despite extensive research efforts reflected in an enormous, almost unmanageable literature. Unresolved remain critical issues such as dosimetry threshold and chronologic development of this iatrogenic lesion, as well as the additive or potentiating effects of radio- and chemotherapy on each other [4, 5].

A fundamental hindrance to a better knowledge of the brain lesions that may follow radio- and/or chemotherapy is the lack of a readily available method to diagnose and follow these complications. For instance, CT [6] and MR imaging [7] have proved essentially useless for differentiating between radiation necrosis and recurrent or residual brain tumor. Even neuropathologic examinations of biopsy material may be inconclusive, with limited sampling being the main diagnostic difficulty. In addition, neuropathology provides only static information and is not suitable for sequential assessment. Only positron emission tomography (PET) with ¹⁸F-deoxyglucose (FDG) offers reliable pathophysiologic and diagnostic data in this area [8-11]. Such PET-FDG technology is not, however, available to most practitioners, or even to many investigators involved in the management of patients with brain tumors. In this report we present our results with PET-FDG in cases of cerebral necrosis after radiation and/or intraarterial chemotherapy. It is hoped that the proffered evidence will convince more investigators to adopt and use this valuable research and diagnostic technique. Wider use of PET-FDG is imperative if we wish to reach a more complete understanding of the serious complications related to our therapeutic efforts.

Materials and Methods

The PET studies were carried out with the Neuro-PET [12], a scanner with a full width at half maximum resolution of 6.5 mm (slice thickness, 1.1 cm; pixel size, 2 mm). The patient data are summarized in Tables 1 and 2. The studies include 10 cases of radiation-induced cerebral necrosis (cases 1–10, Table 1), with eight patients treated

by conventional radiotherapy and two with a combination of conventional and interstitial radiotherapy. No chemotherapy was used before the PET-FDG study in five of these cases, whereas various types of adjunctive chemotherapy with both IV and intrathecal drug administration were given to the other five patients. In five of the 10 patients, the tumor diagnosis was glioma, while in three cases the neoplasm was metastatic (thyroid carcinoma, Ewing sarcoma, malignant mela-

TABLE 1: Summary of Patients with Postradiation Necrosis

Case No.	Age	Gender	Original Diagnosis/ Original Surgery	Radiation Therapy (Gy)	IV/Intrathecal (IT) Chemotherapy	CT	MR	Time from RT to PET (months)	Survival (months)
1	M	43	Bifrontal glioblastoma multi- forme/yes	E: 63	IV: spiromustine, AZQ	+	+	48	After RT: 72 ^a After PET: 24
2	M	35	R frontal astrocytoma anaplas- tic features	E: 57.6	IV: vincristine	+	NP	30	Lost to follow-up
3	M	39	R frontal atypical oligodendro- glioma/yes	E: 57.6	Not administered	+	NP	67	After RT: 78 After PET: 11
4	M	70	L temporoparietal glioblastoma multiforme/yes	E: 45 I: 120	Not administered	+	NP	10	After RT: 11 After PET: 1
5	F	40	R frontoparietal astrocytoma anaplastic features/yes	E: 40 I: 200	Not administered	+	NP	14	After RT: 26 After PET: 12
6	F	3	R parietal metastases/yes	E: 61.2	Not administered	+	NP	12	After RT: 60 ^a After PET: 48
7	F	20	R frontal and temporoparietal metastases/yes	E: 58	IV: vincristine, adriamycin, cytoxan; IT: methotrexate, ArA C	+	+	12	After RT: 57 After PET: 45
8	M	68	L frontal, R parietal metas- tases/no	E: 45	IV: CCNU	+	NP	48	After RT: 108
9	M	47	Bifrontal presumptive glioma/ no	E: 60	IV: CCNU	+	NP	48	After RT: 84 After PET: 36
10	F	10	Diffuse central nervous system leukemia/no	E: 48	IT: methotrexate IV: ArA C	+	+	72	After RT: 73 After PET: 1

Note.—In all patients, PET findings were cold, and the post-PET pathologic diagnosis was necrosis. RT = radiation therapy; PET = positron emission tomography; R = right; L = left; E = external beam; I = intrathecal; + = positive; NP = not performed.

^a This patient died.

TABLE 2: Summary of Patients with Postchemotherapy Necrosis

Case No.	Age	Gender	Original Diagnosis/ Original Surgery	Radiation Therapy (Gy)	Intraarterial BCNU (No. of Courses)	Other Chemo- therapy	CT	MR	PET Appearance	Time from BCNU to PET (months)	Post-PET Pathologic Diagnosis	Survival (months)
11	44	F	L temporoparietal glioblastoma multiforme/yes	No	220–325 mg (two)	No	+	NP	Cold	2	Necrosis	After BCNU: 5 ^a
12	16	M	L temporoparietal glioblastoma multiforme/yes	No	80 mg (two)	IV CCNU	+	+	Mixed	2.5	Necrosis + glio- blastoma multi- forme	After PET: 3 After BCNU: 15 ^a
13	34	F	R parietal glio- blastoma multi- forme/yes	50	220 mg (four)	No	+	+	Cold	23	Necrosis	After PET: 12.5 After BCNU: 42
14	17	F	L temporoparietal glioblastoma multiforme/yes	60	402 mg (four)	No	+	+	Mixed	6	Necrosis, pre- sumed residual glioma	After PET: 19 After BCNU: 44 After PET: 38

Note.—PET = positron emission tomography; BCNU = 1,3-bis 2-chloroethyl-1-nitrosourea; L = left; R = right; + = positive; NP = not performed.

^a This patient died.

noma). In one patient, glioma had been suspected and had been treated without histologic confirmation, and in one case radiation and intrathecal chemotherapy had been instituted for CNS leukemia.

Of some interest is the fact that the 10 cases of postradiation necrosis were recognized in a population of 95 patients referred for a PET-FDG study to differentiate tumor recurrence from necrosis. In the remaining 85 cases, PET-FDG supported the diagnosis of tumor (hypermetabolic focus) and was later verified at surgery and/or autopsy.

Table 2 includes four patients (cases 11–14, all gliomas) studied by PET-FDG after treatment by supraorbital, intracarotid infusion of BCNU (1, 3-bis 2-chloroethyl-1-nitrosourea) alone (two cases), or BCNU before (one case) or after (one case) radiotherapy. While no residual or recurrent tumor was encountered in the 10 cases of postradiation necrosis listed in Table 1, two of the four cases of necrosis after intraarterial chemotherapy showed residual tumor (Table 2). In these two patients, the location of the tumor was quite distinct from the areas of necrosis, perhaps reflecting the selectivity of BCNU delivery caused by drug streaming [13, 14]. CT with IV administration of contrast medium was carried out in all of the 14 cases, and MR imaging was performed in six patients. The MR studies did not include administration of Gd-DTPA or other enhancing media. Post-PET neuropathologic verification of necrosis was obtained in all 14 patients, by biopsy in 12 cases and by autopsy in two. In the two cases with residual tumor (Table 2), biopsy verification of the neoplasm was obtained in one.

Finally, in two patients who are not included in Tables 1 and 2, both extensive radiation necrosis and residual and/or recurrent glioma were present. These two patients, in whom tumor as well as necrosis were verified at surgery, are discussed to demonstrate how PET-FDG allows us to recognize discrete tumoral foci within vast areas of necrosis.

All available pathologic material was reviewed by a neuropathologist. The malignant glial tumors were classified according to the scheme described by Burger and Vogel [15], as opposed to the Kernohan system.

Results

In PET-FDG studies, regions of cerebral necrosis are characterized by a reduced glucose utilization rate (Fig. 1). The metabolic values (mg glucose/100 g/min) of the necrotic areas are expressed in FDG activity ratios, comparing uptake in the suspected necrotic areas with activity in an adjacent region and in a corresponding region in the opposite hemisphere when no bilateral extension is evident (Table 3).

The FDG activity ratios of the necrotic areas were consistently low (Table 3), with mean ratios of 0.54 (postradiation) and 0.34 (postchemotherapy), and individual ratios as low as 0.28 (postradiation) and zero (postchemotherapy). In contrast,

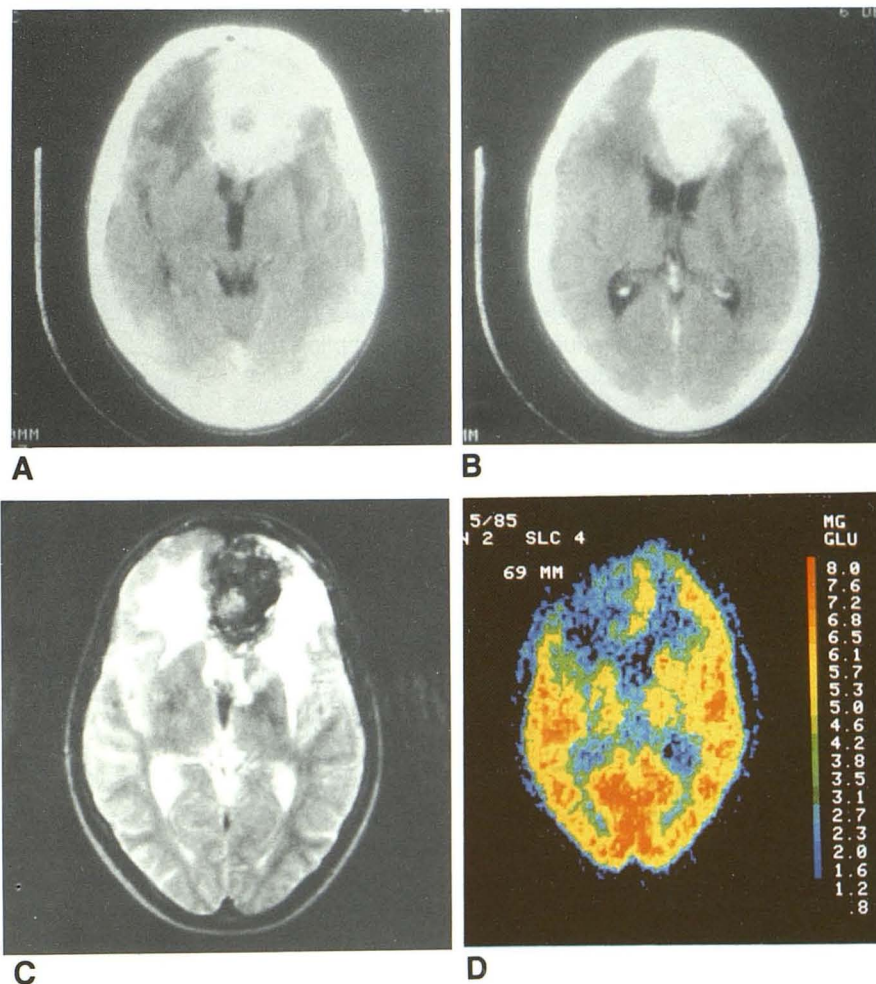


Fig. 1.—Case 1: radiation necrosis.

A and B, Postcontrast axial CT scans show marked, bifrontal enhancement surrounded by hypodense halo. Lesion is larger on left.

C, MR image (TR = 2500 msec, TE = 120 msec). Mixed-intensity signal from area corresponding to CT enhancement and high-intensity signal from surrounding edema.

D, PET-FDG image at corresponding level. Marked hypometabolism in both prefrontal areas, larger on left. Note selective sparing of interhemispheric gray matter, which is displaced toward right. Color scale indicates range of metabolic values (in mg glucose/100 g/min). (On PET scan only, right side of patient is on right side of image.)

TABLE 3: ^{18}F -Deoxyglucose Positron Emission Tomographic Metabolic Values in Postradiation and Postchemotherapy Necrotic Lesions

Group: Case No.	Ratio of Lesion to:	
	Adjacent Brain	Corresponding, Contralateral Region
Postradiation necrosis:		
1	0.47	0.78
2	0.70	0.68
3	0.50	0.67
4	0.64	0.62
5	0.28	0.18
6	0.64	0.65
7	0.42	0.40
8	0.66	0.53
9	0.54	0.50
10	0.52	0.49
Mean value	0.54	0.55
Postchemotherapy necrosis:		
11	0.61	0.52
12	0 ^a	0
13	0.50	0.34
14	0.26 ^a	0.19
Mean value	0.34	0.26

^a The low values in the necrotic areas contrast with the high ratios (tumor/nontumoral areas) of the residual recurrent neoplasms (ratio of 2.50 for case 12 and 2.84 for case 14).

the ratios of the two residual, recurrent tumors (cases 12 and 14) compared with nontumoral (but not necrotic or obviously edematous) areas were high, 2.50 and 2.84, respectively.

As indicated, in some necrotic areas the metabolic activity was reduced to zero (Fig. 2), reflecting total tissue destruction. In some cases, hypometabolism in necrotic areas could not be differentiated from reduced glucose consumption connected with edematous infiltration, although it appeared that metabolism was somewhat higher in edematous than in necrotic brain. On PET-FDG scans of the postradiation cases, the necrosis was mostly confined to the white matter with sparing of the gray matter (Fig. 1). This pattern, characteristic of radiation necrosis [2, 6, 16], was confirmed at autopsy. Deep gray matter was involved, however, in cases of postintraarterial chemotherapy necrosis. This may have been caused by streaming of the BCNU from the middle cerebral into the lenticulostriate arteries, leading to a selective chemoconcentration and consequent selective damage to the basal ganglia.

In two of our cases with brain injury after selective intraarterial chemotherapy, the limits of the total necrosis are clearly outlined in a background of hemispheric hypometabolism. The area most profoundly affected obviously corresponds to the distribution territory of known perforating arteries (Fig. 2). In other cases, only the diffuse hypometabolic changes involving the entire BCNU-injected hemisphere are demonstrated, without evidence of focality. To explain the diffuse hemispheric hypometabolism, one might invoke, as a causative factor, drug streaming in the distal arterial tree causing

widely distributed, discrete areas of tissue damage [14]. These multifocal, scattered areas of injury will appear on the relatively low-resolution PET images as confluent, homogeneous regions of hypometabolism. Another explanation for the widespread hypometabolism of the affected hemisphere may be deafferentation. This phenomenon, which is related to damage of deep structures connected by centrifugal pathways with the cortex [17], may also explain the so-called crossed cerebellar diaschisis (Fig. 3). This is characterized by marked hypometabolism in the cerebellar hemisphere contralateral to the cerebral hemisphere where the primary lesion is located, and may be related either to the original tumor or to the posttherapeutic necrotic lesion [18]. Bilateral, postradiation lesions are often asymmetric (Fig. 4), reflecting the radiation field distribution.

Again and again, in these patients, CT was inadequate to differentiate tumoral from necrotic areas (Figs. 1, 2, and 4). In this respect, we found the MR studies even less informative than CT (Figs. 1 and 2).

Our cases of postradiation necrosis were recognized 10–72 months (mean, 33.1) after the termination of the irradiation. This is in agreement with many previous reports [2, 6, 19, 20]. On the other hand, cerebral necrosis after intraarterial chemotherapy occurred much earlier, at 2–23 months (mean, 8.4 months). This may be because of the concentrated manner of chemotherapeutic administration, which contrasts with the usually fractionated delivery of irradiation over time.

Histopathologically, chemotherapy-induced necrosis resembles the more familiar postradiation tissue damage, with white-matter demyelination, focal coagulation necrosis, reactive gliosis, petechial hemorrhages, and prominent vasculopathic changes. The latter involve particularly small arteries and arterioles and include thickened walls, endothelial proliferation, fibrinoid necrosis, and occlusion alternating with irregular dilatation of the vascular lumen [21]. Notably absent, however, in the postchemotherapy vasculopathy are media and adventitial hyalinization and thin-walled teleangiectasias, two changes rather characteristic of the postradiation pathologic syndrome. In the absence of clinical information, these angiopathic differences are the only features that may assist the neuropathologist in the difficult differential diagnosis between chemotherapy and radiation damage. Finally, the gray matter is affected more often in the chemotherapy lesions than in the radiation damage. This gray matter involvement, however, is partly factitious, related to the selective distribution of the chemotherapeutic compound. In Figures 5 and 6, representative histopathologic patterns of postradiation and postchemotherapy necrosis are illustrated.

Discussion

Suppressed glucose utilization is one of the metabolic alterations that occur after radiation [22, 23]. In a previous study [24], we used the ^{14}C -deoxyglucose autoradiographic method to learn whether radiation administered to rat brain, in a dose below that known to result in any histologic change, may nevertheless affect the brain's local rates of glucose utilization. Measurements were made 4 days and 4 weeks

Fig. 2.—Case 12: glioblastoma plus chemotherapy-induced necrosis.

A, Postcontrast axial CT scan shows enhancing, superficial, left parietal glioblastoma.

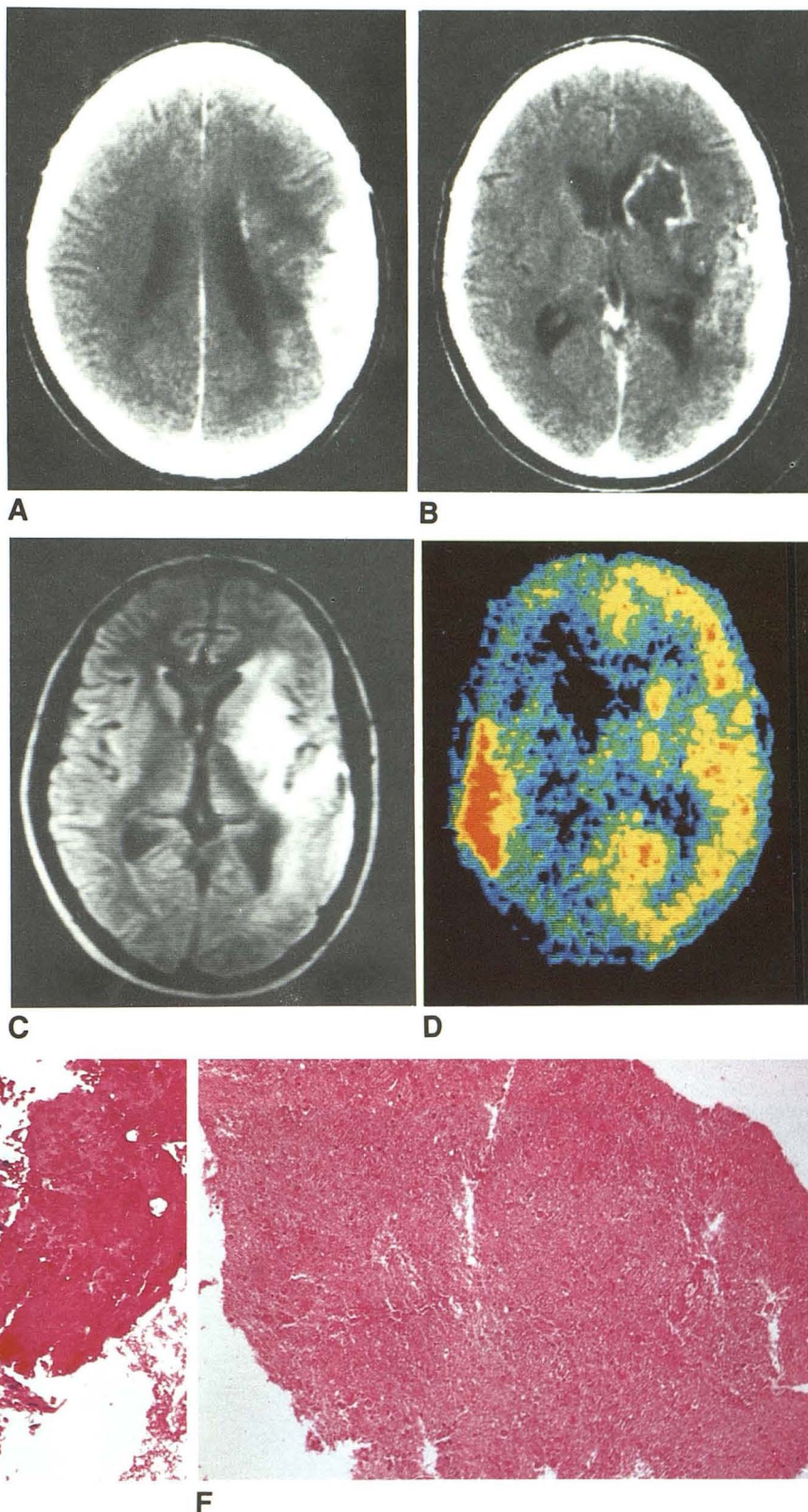
B, Lower level. Markedly hypodense area, sharply outlined by enhancing rim, is seen in left caudate and lenticular nuclei region. This area corresponds to total necrosis caused by intraarterial chemotherapy.

C, 0.5-T MR scan (TR = 2000 msec, TE = 40 msec) through approximate level of B shows intense signal in tumoral as well as necrotic areas.

D, PET-FDG scan at approximate level of B and C. Tumor is markedly hypermetabolic (red, yellow) contrasting with ametabolic necrotic center (black) and hypometabolic hemispheric background (green, blue). (On PET scan only, right side of patient is on right side of image.)

E, Histology of tumor obtained by stereotactic biopsy reveals glioblastoma.

F, Histology of stereotactic biopsy specimen shows necrotic white matter.



after exposure of groups of rats to 15 Gy. Rates of glucose utilization in gray- and white-matter structures in both groups were compared with rates in sham-irradiated controls. Statistically significant, lower rates were found in 16 structures 4 days after radiation and in 25 structures 4 weeks after radiation exposure.

A weighted average rate for the brain as a whole was 15% below that of the controls for both irradiated groups. In Figure 7, representative ^{14}C -deoxyglucose autoradiographic sections of a control brain and of 4-day and 4-week-postradiation rat brains are illustrated.

Early on in our PET-FDG study of brain tumors we realized that radiation was associated with depressed glucose utilization of the cerebrum as well as of the tumors. We learned to avoid obtaining PET-FDG scans during and soon after radiotherapy in order not to be misled by spuriously low values in the tumoral areas. We also demonstrated that PET-FDG could be used to advantage to differentiate between tumor recurrence from radiation necrosis [8–10]. These findings have been confirmed by other investigators [11]. This report includes our more recent experience with PET-FDG in postradiation necrosis as well as our studies in postintraarterial

chemotherapy necrosis. We emphasize that CT and MR scans are essentially useless in the differentiation of tumor vs necrosis. Also, we stress that we have not yet been confronted with a false-positive or a false-negative PET-FDG diagnosis of radiation necrosis. For instance, even when the necrotic changes are overwhelmingly extensive, as in two patients in our series, if a tumoral focus is present, the PET-FDG method will recognize it (Fig. 8). Obviously, diffuse cellular infiltration (paucicellular tumoral spread) may well be beyond the resolving capability of the PET-FDG method.

The dual evidence that radiation affects glucose metabolism and that PET-FDG measures the cerebral glucose metabolic rates and its variations makes this method ideally suited to detect, study, and follow up cerebral radiation damage. In fact, considering the essentially unanimous consensus that neither CT nor MR allows us to reach a diagnosis of radiation necrosis, it is obvious that PET-FDG is one of the few research/diagnostic tools for advancing our knowledge of this iatrogenic complication. Although the amount of information on postchemotherapy necrosis is scanty, we may argue in favor of adopting the PET-FDG technique also for evaluation of this other treatment-related lesion. The similarities between postradiation and postchemotherapy necrosis are probably not surprising [21, 25]. Necrosis, after all, represents a final and common stage for a variety of pathologic processes. The differences in the damage by the two treatment methods perhaps depend on the usually different chronology of the therapeutic regimens, intraarterial therapy being delivered in a shorter time span than radiation is.

In conclusion, PET-FDG is the best diagnostic test currently available for the recognition of cerebral necrosis after radiation and/or chemotherapy and for differentiating necrosis from residual/recurrent tumor. The heuristic importance of the PET-FDG method cannot be overemphasized. The possibility of frequent follow-up studies may allow us to reach a better understanding of the threshold for permanent damage, as well as to sequentially assess the development of necrosis.

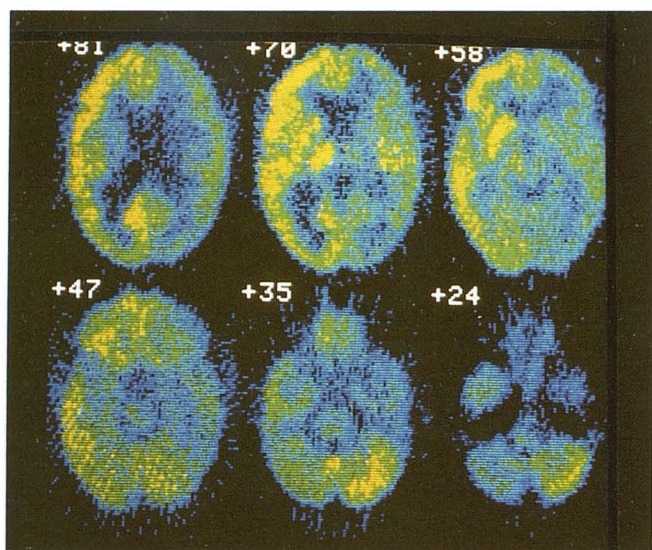


Fig. 3.—Case 13: chemotherapy-induced necrosis. PET-FDG scans show diffuse hypometabolism of entire right cerebral hemisphere (green, blue). Note that cortex of right cerebellar hemisphere is normometabolic (yellow), while left cerebellum is hypometabolic (scans 35 and 24); this phenomenon is referred to as “crossed cerebellar diaschisis.” (Right side of patient is on right side of image.)

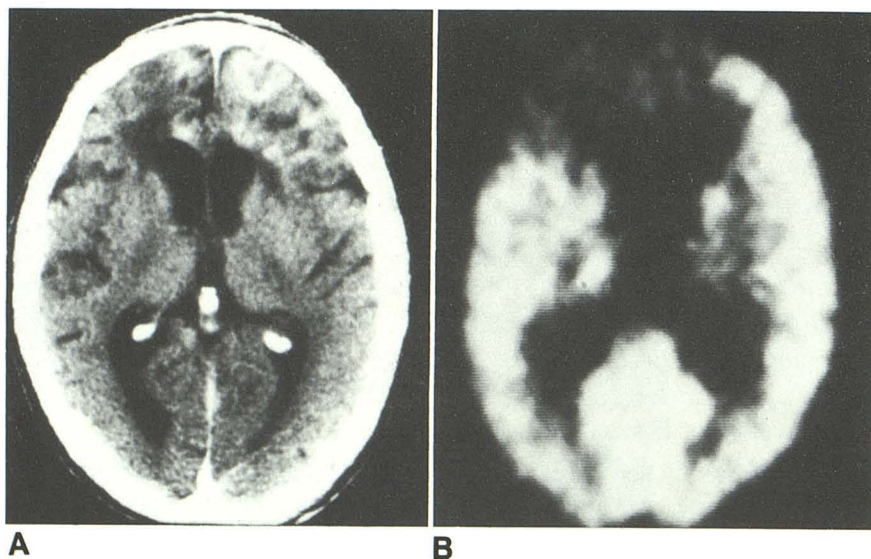


Fig. 4.—Case 8: radiation necrosis.
A, Postcontrast axial CT scan shows diffuse changes in both prefrontal areas.
B, PET-FDG scan. Profound hypometabolism in areas corresponding to CT enhancement. Necrotic lesion is larger on left, reflecting radiation field distribution.

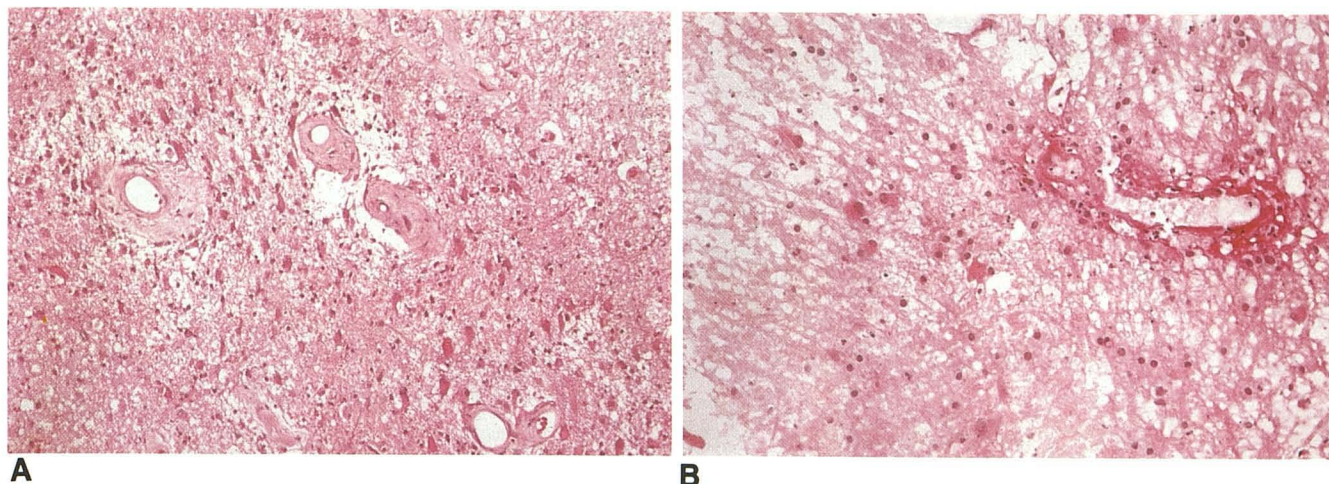


Fig. 5.—Case 7: radiation necrosis.

A, Thick-walled blood vessels and prominent reactive astrocytes.
B, Fibrinoid necrosis of vessel walls (frozen section).
C, Hyalinized blood vessels adjacent to area of necrosis.

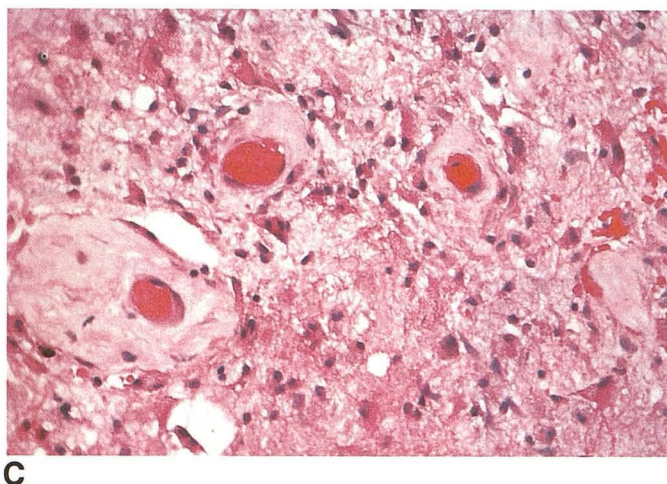


Fig. 6.—Case 14: Chemotherapy necrosis. Note necrotizing vasculitis with transmural inflammation and thrombosis.

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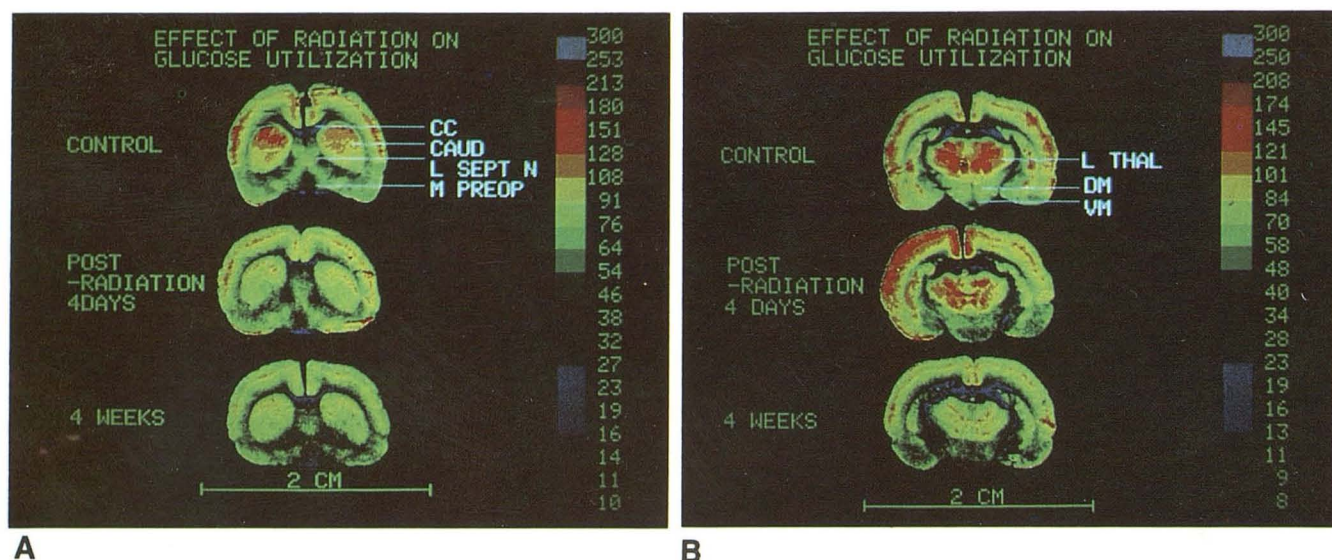


Fig. 7.— ^{14}C -deoxyglucose autoradiographs from rat brains (control and 4 days and 4 weeks after irradiation). Bar at right indicates range of rates of glucose utilization ($\mu\text{mol}/100\text{ g}/\text{min}$) spanned by each color. Each of the autoradiographs shows three structures displaying rates significantly reduced after irradiation, as compared with those structures in controls. CC = corpus callosum; CAUD = caudate nucleus; L SEPT N = lateral septal

nucleus; M PREOP = medial preoptic area; L THAL = lateral thalamic nucleus; DM = dorsomedial nucleus; VM = ventromedial nucleus. Even visually, cerebral metabolic rates in irradiated rats is reduced compared with controls, particularly at 4 weeks after radiation (less red and light yellow, more greenish hue). (Right side of rat is on right side of image.)

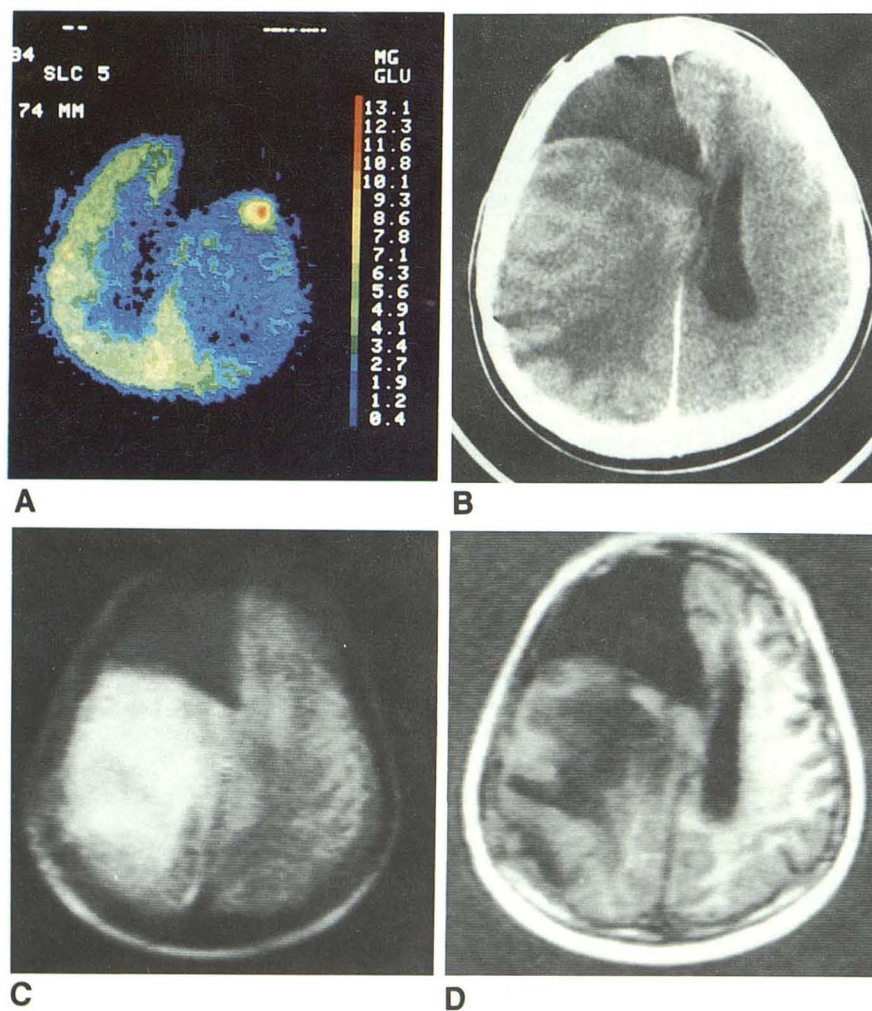


Fig. 8.—Recurrent glioblastoma plus necrosis and edema.

A, PET-FDG scan. Note discrete focus of intense hypermetabolism in right frontal region, behind wedge-like defect caused by previous surgery. Vast areas of hypometabolism (blue) are seen in ipsilateral as well as contralateral hemispheres. These changes are from radiation plus IV chemotherapy injury. Color scale indicates range of metabolic values in mg glucose/100 g/min. (On PET scan only, right side of patient is on right side of image.) Tumor recurrence was not identified on either postcontrast CT scan (B) or spin-echo (C) or inversion-recovery (D) MR images.

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