Brain Tumors (GENERAL)

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EPIDEMIOLOGY

- \approx 1.1-2% of all cancers. •
- \approx 13% of all cancer deaths.
- 20% of total yearly cost of cancer treatment in United States is for CNS cancers (primary or • metastatic).
- <u>median age-adjusted INCIDENCE</u> (for primary brain tumors) $\approx 2-19$ cases per 100,000 per year;
 - incidence of brain tumors continues to increase.
 - 6th most common cancer in adults.
- pediatric INCIDENCE (for primary brain tumors) $\approx \frac{1-5}{1-5}$ pediatric cases per 100,000 per year;
 - after leukemia, second most common cancer in children [20% pediatric tumors]!
- two peaks of incidence:

small peak in childhood (predominance of embryonal CNS neoplasms and relative absence of gliomas) \rightarrow drops slightly in adolescence \rightarrow rises steadily \rightarrow much higher peak in 60-80 years (predominance of supratentorial *gliomas*)

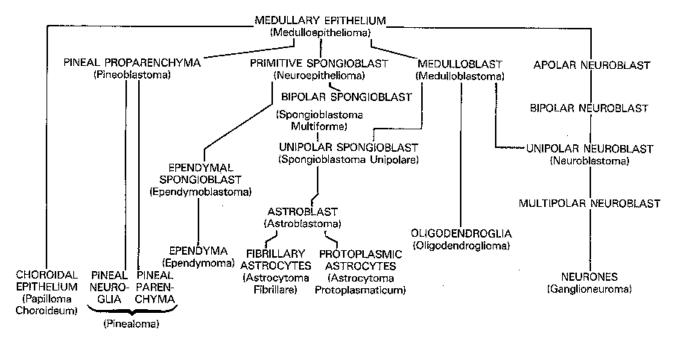
- men \geq women (except meningiomas \leftarrow women : men = 2:1).
 - 4th leading cause of cancer-related deaths in males 35-54 yrs.

CELL OF ORIGIN

Neoplastic transformation can occur in:

- 1) **neuroglia** \rightarrow gliomas most commonly encountered (50-60%) and most feared brain tumors! **astrocyte** \rightarrow astrocytoma (incl. glioblastoma multiforme)
 - $oligodendrocyte \rightarrow oligodendroglioma$
 - **ependymocyte** \rightarrow ependymoma, ependymoblastoma
- 2) **neurons** (almost exclusively postmitotic not at risk for becoming tumor) or **neuroblast** \rightarrow ganglioneuroma, neuroblastoma, retinoblastoma
- 3) **primitive neuroectoderm** \rightarrow medulloblastoma
- 4) **choroid epithelial cell** \rightarrow choroid plexus papilloma / carcinoma
- 5) arachnoidal fibroblasts \rightarrow meningioma
- 6) **endothelial cell** or "**stromal**" cell \rightarrow hemangioblastoma
- 7) **primitive notochord remnants** \rightarrow chordoma
- 8) **pituitary cell** \rightarrow adenoma
- 9) **pineal parenchymal cells** \rightarrow pinealocytoma
- 10) Schwann cell \rightarrow schwannoma (neurinoma)
- 11) primary lymphocytes → CNS lymphoma
 12) primitive germ cells → germinoma, pinealoma, teratoma, cholesteatoma
- 13) melanocyte \rightarrow melanotic carcinoma

BAILEY & CUSHING schema of normal developing cells and neuroepithelial tumors derived from them:



WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION (WHO) CLASSIFICATION

First edition (1979)

Third edition (2000) – in addition to *histological* and *immunohistochemical* criteria is supplemented by *genetic* results (genetic profiling).

N.B. genetic basis represents definitive criterion for tumor classification!

Fourth edition (2007)

Fourth revised edition (2016)

WHO 2016

- CNS tumor diagnoses should consist of a histopathological name followed by the genetic features, with the genetic features following a comma and as adjectives, as in: *Diffuse astrocytoma, IDH-mutant* and *Medulloblastoma, WNT-activated*.
- for those entities with more than one genetic determinant, the multiple necessary molecular features are included in the name: *Oligodendroglioma, IDH-mutant and 1p/19q-codeleted*
- for a tumor lacking a genetic mutation, the term wildtype can be used if an official "wildtype" entity exists: *Glioblastoma, IDH-wildtype*; if formal wildtype diagnosis is not available, a tumor lacking a diagnostic mutation is given an *NOS* designation.

WHO classification of tumours of the central nervous system

Diffuse estregytic and eligedendroaliel tumo	170	Neuronal and mixed neuronal-glial tumours	
Diffuse astrocytic and oligodendroglial tumou Diffuse astrocytoma, IDH-mutant	9400/3	Dysembryoplastic neuroepithelial tumour	9413/0
Gemistocytic astrocytoma, IDH-mutant	9411/3	Gangliocytoma	9492/0
Diffuse astrocytoma, IDH-wildtype	9400/3	Ganglioglioma	9505/1
Diffuse astrocytoma, NOS	9400/3	Anaplastic ganglioglioma	9505/3
Diruse astrocytoma, NOS	9400/0	Dysplastic cerebellar gangliocytoma	3000/0
Anaplastic astrocytoma, IDH-mutant	9401/3	(Lhermitte–Duclos disease)	9493/0
Anaplastic astrocytoma, IDH-wildtype	9401/3	Desmoplastic infantile astrocytoma and	9493/0
Anaplastic astrocytoma, NOS	9401/3 9401/3	ganglioglioma	9412/1
Anaplastic astrocytoma, NOS	9401/3	Papillary glioneuronal tumour	9509/1
Glioblastoma, IDH-wildtype	9440/3	Rosette-forming glioneuronal tumour	9509/1
Giant cell glioblastoma	9440/3 9441/3	Diffuse leptomeningeal glioneuronal tumour	9009/1
Gliosarcoma	9442/3	Central neurocytoma	9506/1
	9442/3	Extraventricular neurocytoma	9506/1
<i>Epithelioid glioblastoma</i> Glioblastoma, IDH-mutant	9440/3 9445/3*		9506/1
		Cerebellar liponeurocytoma	
Glioblastoma, NOS	9440/3	Paraganglioma	8693/1
Diffuse midline glioma, H3 K27M-mutant	9385/3*	Tumours of the pineal region	
		Pineocytoma	9361/1
Oligodendroglioma, IDH-mutant and		Pineal parenchymal tumour of intermediate	
1p/19q-codeleted	9450/3	differentiation	9362/3
Oligodendroglioma, NOS	9450/3	Pineoblastoma	9362/3
		Papillary tumour of the pineal region	9395/3
Anaplastic oligodendroglioma, IDH-mutant			
and 1p/19q-codeleted	9451/3	Embryonal tumours	
Anaplastic oligodendroglioma, NOS	9451/3	Medulloblastomas, genetically defined	
		Medulloblastoma, WNT-activated	9475/3*
Oligoastrocytoma, NOS	9382/3	Medulloblastoma, SHH-activated and	
Anaplastic oligoastrocytoma, NOS	9382/3	TP53-mutant	9476/3*
		Medulloblastoma, SHH-activated and	
Other astrocytic tumours		TP53-wildtype	9471/3
Pilocytic astrocytoma	9421/1	Medulloblastoma, non-WNT/non-SHH	9477/3*
Pilomyxoid astrocytoma	9425/3	Medulloblastoma, group 3	
Subependymal giant cell astrocytoma	9384/1	Medulloblastoma, group 4	
Pleomorphic xanthoastrocytoma	9424/3	Medulloblastomas, histologically defined	
Anaplastic pleomorphic xanthoastrocytoma	9424/3	Medulloblastoma, classic	9470/3
		Medulloblastoma, desmoplastic/nodular	9471/3
Ependymal tumours		Medulloblastoma with extensive nodularity	9471/3
Subependymoma	9383/1	Medulloblastoma, large cell / anaplastic	9474/3
Myxopapillary ependymoma	9394/1	Medulloblastoma, NOS	9470/3
Ependymoma	9391/3		
Papillary ependymoma	9393/3	Embryonal tumour with multilayered rosettes,	
Clear cell ependymoma	9391/3	C19MC-altered	9478/3*
Tanycytic ependymoma	9391/3	Embryonal tumour with multilayered	
Ependymoma, RELA fusion-positive	9396/3*	rosettes, NOS	9478/3
Anaplastic ependymoma	9392/3	Medulloepithelioma	9501/3
		CNS neuroblastoma	9500/3
Other gliomas		CNS ganglioneuroblastoma	9490/3
Chordoid glioma of the third ventricle	9444/1	CNS embryonal tumour, NOS	9473/3
Angiocentric glioma	9431/1	Atypical teratoid/rhabdoid tumour	9508/3
Astroblastoma	9430/3	CNS embryonal tumour with rhabdoid features	9508/3
Choroid plexus tumours		Tumours of the cranial and paraspinal nerves	
Choroid plexus papilloma	9390/0	Schwannoma	9560/0
Atypical choroid plexus papilloma	9390/1	Cellular schwannoma	9560/0
Choroid plexus carcinoma	9390/3	Plexiform schwannoma	9560/0
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VIKTOR'S NOTES

BRAIN TUMORS (GENERAL)

\cap	$\langle \mathbf{n} \rangle$
Unc	(3)
One	(\mathcal{I})

Melanotic schwannoma	9560/1	С
Neurofibroma	9540/0	0
Atypical neurofibroma	9540/0	0
Plexiform neurofibroma		
	9550/0	N
Perineurioma	9571/0	N
Hybrid nerve sheath tumours	05 10 10	N
Malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumour	9540/3	N
Epithelioid MPNST	9540/3	N
MPNST with perineurial differentiation	9540/3	
		Ľ
Meningiomas		D
Meningioma	9530/0	Ir
Meningothelial meningioma	9531/0	
Fibrous meningioma	9532/0	
Transitional meningioma	9537/0	
Psammomatous meningioma	9533/0	Ir
Angiomatous meningioma	9534/0	L
Microcystic meningioma	9530/0	T
Secretory meningioma	9530/0	A
Lymphoplasmacyte-rich meningioma	9530/0	A
	9530/0	N
Metaplastic meningioma		IV
Chordoid meningioma	9538/1	
Clear cell meningioma	9538/1	Н
Atypical meningioma	9539/1	L
Papillary meningioma	9538/3	E
Rhabdoid meningioma	9538/3	R
Anaplastic (malignant) meningioma	9530/3	JI
		Н
Mesenchymal, non-meningothelial tumours		
Solitary fibrous tumour / haemangiopericytoma**		G
Grade 1	8815/0	G
Grade 2	8815/1	E
Grade 3	8815/3	Y
Haemangioblastoma	9161/1	С
Haemangioma	9120/0	T
Epithelioid haemangioendothelioma	9133/3	
Angiosarcoma	9120/3	
Kaposi sarcoma	9140/3	Т
Ewing sarcoma / PNET	9364/3	N
Lipoma	8850/0	
Angiolipoma	8861/0	Т
Hibernoma	8880/0	С
Liposarcoma	8850/3	0
Desmoid-type fibromatosis	8821/1	
Myofibroblastoma	8825/0	G
		P
Inflammatory myofibroblastic tumour	8825/1	100
Benign fibrous histiocytoma	8830/0	S
Fibrosarcoma	8810/3	
Undifferentiated pleomorphic sarcoma /	0000/0	N
malignant fibrous histiocytoma	8802/3	
Leiomyoma	8890/0	Th fo
Leiomyosarcoma	8890/3	/1
Rhabdomyoma	8900/0	sit
Rhabdomyosarcoma	8900/3	Tł
Chondroma	9220/0	in *T
Chondrosarcoma	9220/3	r I Ita
Osteoma	9180/0	W

Osteochondroma Osteosarcoma	9210/0 9180/3
Melanocytic tumours Meningeal melanocytosis Meningeal melanocytoma Meningeal melanoma Meningeal melanomatosis	8728/0 8728/1 8720/3 8728/3
Lymphomas Diffuse large B-cell lymphoma of the CNS Immunodeficiency-associated CNS lymphomas AIDS-related diffuse large B-cell lymphoma	9680/3
EBV-positive diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, N	IOS
Lymphomatoid granulomatosis Intravascular large B-cell lymphoma Low-grade B-cell lymphomas of the CNS	9766/1 9712/3
T-cell and NK/T-cell lymphomas of the CNS Anaplastic large cell lymphoma, ALK-positive	9714/3
Anaplastic large cell lymphoma, ALK-negative MALT lymphoma of the dura	9702/3 9699/3
Histiocytic tumours	
Langerhans cell histiocytosis	9751/3
Erdheim-Chester disease	9750/1
Rosai–Dorfman disease	
Juvenile xanthogranuloma Histiocytic sarcoma	9755/3
Germ cell tumours	
Germinoma	9064/3
Embryonal carcinoma	9070/3
Yolk sac tumour	9071/3
Choriocarcinoma	9100/3
Teratoma	9080/1
Mature teratoma Immature teratoma	9080/0 9080/3
Teratoma with malignant transformation	9080/3
Mixed germ cell tumour	9085/3
Tumours of the sellar region	
Craniopharyngioma	9350/1
Adamantinomatous craniopharyngioma	9351/1
Papillary craniopharyngioma	9352/1
Granular cell tumour of the sellar region	9582/0
Pituicytoma Spindle cell oncocytoma	9432/1 8290/0
	0200,0
Metastatic tumours	
The morphology codes are from the International Classification for Oncology (ICD-O) (742A). Behaviour is coded /0 for benign /1 for upspecified borderline or upspecified bor	tumours;

situ and grade III intraepithelial neoplasia; and /3 for malignant tumours. The classification is modified from the previous WHO classification, taking nto account changes in our understanding of these lesions. These new codes were approved by the IARC/WHO Committee for ICD-O. *talics*: Provisional tumour entities. **Grading according to the 2013 VHO Classification of Tumours of Soft Tissue and Bone

Summary of the major changes in the 2016 CNS WHO

- 1. Formulating concept of how CNS tumor diagnoses are structured in the molecular era
- Major restructuring of diffuse gliomas, with incorporation of genetically defined entities see p. 2. Onc10 >>
- 3. Major restructuring of medulloblastomas, with incorporation of genetically defined entities
- 4. Major restructuring of other embryonal tumors, with incorporation of genetically defined entities and removal of the term "primitive neuroectodermal tumor"*
- 5. Incorporation of a genetically defined ependymoma variant
- Novel approach distinguishing pediatric look-alikes, including designation of novel, genetically 6. defined entity
- 7. Addition of newly recognized entities, variants and patterns:
 - 1) IDH-wildtype and IDH-mutant glioblastoma (entities)
 - 2) Diffuse midline glioma, H3 K27M–mutant (entity)
 - 3) Embryonal tumour with multilayered rosettes, C19MC-altered (entity)

 - 4) Ependymoma, RELA fusion-positive (entity)
 - 5) Diffuse leptomeningeal glioneuronal tumor (entity)
 - 6) Anaplastic PXA (entity)
 - 7) Epithelioid glioblastoma (variant)
 - 8) Glioblastoma with primitive neuronal component (pattern)
 - 9) Multinodular and vacuolated pattern of ganglion cell tumor (pattern)
- 8. Deletion of former entities, variants and terms:
 - 1) Gliomatosis cerebri
 - 2) Protoplasmic and fibrillary astrocytoma variants
 - 3) Cellular ependymoma variant
 - 4) "Primitive neuroectodermal tumor" terminology*
- 9. Addition of brain invasion as a criterion for atypical meningioma
- 10. Restructuring of solitary fibrous tumor and hemangiopericytoma (SFT/HPC) as one entity and adapting a grading system to accommodate this change
- 11. Expansion and clarification of entities included in nerve sheath tumors, with addition of hybrid nerve sheath tumors and separation of melanotic schwannoma from other schwannomas
- 12. Expansion of entities included in hematopoietic/lymphoid tumors of the CNS (lymphomas and histiocytic tumors)

*no more PNET!

WHO GRADES

WHO grades of select CNS tumours Diffuse astrocytic and oligodendroglial tumours Diffuse astrocytoma, IDH-mutant Anaplastic astrocytoma, IDH-mutant Glioblastoma, IDH-wildtype Glioblastoma, IDH-mutant Diffuse midline glioma, H3 K27M-mutant Oligodendroglioma, IDH-mutant and 1p/19q-codeleted Anaplastic oligodendroglioma, IDH-mutant and 1p/19q-codeleted Other astrocytic tumours Pilocytic astrocytoma Subependymal giant cell astrocytoma Pleomorphic xanthoastrocytoma		Papillary tumour of the pineal region II or I Embryonal tumours Medulloblastoma (all subtypes) Embryonal tumour with multilayered rosettes, C19MC-altered II	V II V V
Pleomorphic xanthoastrocytoma Anaplastic pleomorphic xanthoastrocytoma Ependymal tumours Subependymoma Myxopapillary ependymoma Ependymoma Ependymoma, <i>RELA</i> fusion–positive Anaplastic ependymoma Other gliomas Angiocentric glioma	 or 	Medulloepithelioma II CNS embryonal tumour, NOS II Atypical teratoid/rhabdoid tumour II CNS embryonal tumour with rhabdoid features II Tumours of the cranial and paraspinal nerves Schwannoma Neurofibroma Perineurioma Malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumour (MPNST) II, III or II	V V V V I I I
Chordoid glioma of third ventricle Choroid plexus tumours Choroid plexus papilloma Atypical choroid plexus papilloma Choroid plexus carcinoma Neuronal and mixed neuronal-glial tumours Dysembryoplastic neuroepithelial tumour Gangliocytoma Ganglioglioma Anaplastic ganglioglioma Dysplastic gangliocytoma of cerebellum (Lhermitte–Duclos)	-==	, a) production in ground	

<u>Gliomas are not divided sharply into BENIGN and MALIGNANT forms</u>; rather, they represent **gradations** on spectrum from slowly growing to rapidly growing neoplasms. see p. Onc10 >>

• with time, as more aggressive cells replicate themselves to greater extent than do more indolent cells, gliomas may *shift from benign end of spectrum to malignant end* (i.e. propensity to transform into higher-grade glioma).

<u>Quantitative measures of MITOTIC ACTIVITY</u> (correlates with malignant clinical behavior):

- a) **proliferation index** measure of DNA synthesis uptake of bromodeoxyuridine (thymidine analogue): BrdUrd IV prior to surgery → uptake into nuclei of tumor cells → uptake assessed in biopsy specimens (using BrdUrd-specific antibody).
- b) immunohistochemical staining with antibodies to proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA).
- c) immunohistochemical staining with **Ki-67 antibody** (recognizes histone protein expressed in proliferating but not quiescent cells).

Older WHO

NEUROEPITHELIAL tumors

- 1. **ASTROCYTIC** tumors:
 - 1) (juvenile) pilocytic astrocytoma (non-invasive, WHO grade I)
 - a) *hemispheric*
 - b) *diencephalic*
 - c) *optic*
 - d) brain stem
 - e) *cerebellar*
 - 2) subependymal giant cell astrocytoma (non-invasive, WHO grade I)
 - 3) pleomorphic xanthoastrocytoma (non-invasive, WHO grade I)
 - 4) **astrocytoma** (WHO grade II)
 - variants: protoplasmic, gemistocytic, fibrillary, mixed
 - 5) anaplastic (malignant) astrocytoma (WHO grade III)
 - a) *hemispheric*
 - b) diencephalic
 - c) optic
 - d) brain stem
 - e) cerebellar
 - 6) **glioblastoma multiforme** (WHO grade IV) most aggressive and most common of all CNS tumors!!!

variants: giant cell glioblastoma, gliosarcoma

2. **OLIGODENDROGLIAL** tumors:

- 1) **oligodendroglioma** (WHO grade II) $\approx 80\%$
- 2) anaplastic (malignant) **oligodendroglioma** (WHO grade III) $\approx 20\%$

3. **EPENDYMAL CELL tumors**:

- 1) subependymoma (WHO grade I)
- 2) **ependymoma** (WHO grade II) variants: *cellular*, *papillary*, *epithelial*, *clear cell*, *mixed*
- 3) **anaplastic ependymoma** (WHO grade III)
- 4) myxopapillary ependymoma
- 4. **MIXED** gliomas:
 - 1) **mixed oligoastrocytoma** (WHO grade II)
 - 2) anaplastic (malignant) oligoastrocytoma (WHO grade III)
 - 3) others (e.g. ependymoastrocytoma)
- 5. Neuroepithelial tumors of UNCERTAIN ORIGIN:
 - 1) polar spongioblastoma (WHO grade IV)
 - 2) astroblastoma (WHO grade IV)
 - 3) gliomatosis cerebri (WHO grade IV)

6. **Tumors of CHOROID PLEXUS**:

- 1) choroid plexus **papilloma** (66-90%)
- 2) choroid plexus carcinoma (anaplastic choroid plexus papilloma) (10-33%)

7. **NEURONAL** and mixed **NEURONAL-GLIAL** tumors:

- 1) gangliocytoma (s. central ganglioneuroma) neuronal tumor; benign counterpart of neuroblastoma in CNS
- 2) dysplastic gangliocytoma of cerebellum (Lhermitte-Duclos)
- 3) ganglioglioma gangliocytoma with glial component
- 4) anaplastic (malignant) ganglioglioma
- 5) desmoplastic infantile ganglioglioma

variant: desmoplastic infantile astrocytoma

- 6) central neurocytoma tumor of well-differentiated neurons
- 7) **dysembryoplastic neuroepithelial tumor (DNET)** benign mixed glial-neuronal tumor
- 8) **olfactory neuroblastoma (esthesioneuroblastoma)** variant: *olfactory neuroepithelioma*

8. **PINEAL PARENCHYMA tumors**:

- 1) **pineocytoma** (WHO grade I)
- 2) pineoblastoma (WHO grade IV)
- 3) pineal parenchymal tumor of intermediate differentiation (WHO grade II-III)
- 4) papillary tumor of pineal region (WHO grade II-III)
- 9. Tumors with **NEUROBLASTIC** or **GLIOBLASTIC** elements (s. EMBRYONAL TUMORS):
 - 1) medulloepithelioma
 - 2) primitive neuroectodermal tumors with multipotent differentiation:
 - a) medulloblastoma
 - variants: melanocytic, desmoplastic, medullomyoblastoma
 - b) primitive neuroectodermal tumor (PNET)
 - 3) neuroblastoma

benign counterparts: ganglioneuroblastoma, ganglioneuroma (s. ganglioma)

- 4) retinoblastoma
- 5) ependymoblastoma
- 6) atypical teratoid/rhabdoid tumor

OTHER CNS tumors

1. Tumors of SELLAR REGION

- 1) pituitary adenoma
- 2) pituitary carcinoma
- 3) craniopharyngioma

2. **HEMATOPOIETIC** tumors

- 1) primary malignant lymphomas
- 2) plasmacytoma
- 3) granulocytic sarcoma
- 3. **GERM CELL tumors** see Intro (various topics) 2.jpg >>
 - 1) germinoma
 - 2) embryonal cell carcinoma
 - 3) yolk sac tumor (endodermal sinus tumor)
 - 4) choriocarcinoma
 - 5) teratoma
 - 6) **mixed** germ cell tumor

4. Tumors of MENINGES

1) meningioma

- 2) atypical **meningioma**
- 3) anaplastic (malignant) **meningioma**

5. Non-meningothelial tumors of meninges

- 1) benign mesenchymal
 - a) osteocartilaginous tumors
 - b) lipoma
 - c) fibrous histiocytoma
- 2) malignant mesenchymal
 - a) chondrosarcoma
 - b) hemangiopericytoma
 - c) rhabdomyosarcoma
 - d) meningeal sarcomatosis
- 3) primary melanocytic lesions
 - a) diffuse melanosis
 - b) melanocytoma
 - c) malignant melanoma

variant: meningeal melanomatosis

- 4) hemopoietic neoplasms
 - a) malignant lymphoma
 - b) plasmacytoma
 - c) granulocytic sarcoma
 - d) tumors of uncertain histogenesis hemangioblastoma (capillary hemangioblastoma)

6. Tumors of CRANIAL / SPINAL NERVES

- 1) neurofibroma
- 2) schwannoma (neurinoma, neurilemoma)

subtypes: cellular, plexiform, melanotic

3) malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumor

variants: epithelioid, divergent mesenchymal or epithelial differentiation, melanotic

7. CYSTS and TUMOR-LIKE lesions

- 1) Rathke cleft cyst
- 2) epidermoid cyst
- 3) dermoid cyst
- 4) colloid cyst of 3rd ventricle
- 5) enterogenous cyst
- 6) neuroglial cyst
- 7) granular cell tumor (choristoma, pituicytoma)
- 8) hypothalamic neuronal hamartoma
- 9) nasal glial heterotopia
- 10) plasma cell granuloma
- 8. **LOCAL EXTENSIONS** from regional tumors (i.e. secondary intracranial tumors)

variants: meningothelial, fibrous (fibroblastic), transitional (mixed), psammomatous, angiomatous, microcystic, secretory, clear cell, chordoid, lymphoplasmacyte-rich, metaplastic subtypes

- 1) paraganglioma (chemodectoma)
- 2) chordoma
- 3) chondroma
- 4) chondrosarcoma
- 5) carcinoma
- 9. **METASTATIC** tumors (i.e. secondary intracranial tumors as blood-borne metastases)
- 10. UNCLASSIFIED tumors

CONGENITAL NEOPLASMS

- 1) craniopharyngioma
- 2) chordoma
- 3) hemangioblastoma
- 4) colloid cysts
- 5) germ cell tumors (germinoma, teratoma, etc)
- 6) dermoid, epidermoid

FREQUENCY

Metastatic tumors are \approx 5-10 times more common than **primary CNS tumors**!

- increased longevity of patients with cancer in other systems has resulted in higher incidence of metastatic CNS lesions!
- 15% patients with systemic cancer suffer neurological complications (*direct* or *paraneoplastic*).

	Children (< 14 yrs), %	Adults,
INTRA-AXIAL	((12), 10), 10	,,,
Glioblastoma	20	50-60
Astrocytoma	21	10-25
Oligodendroglioma	1	3-5
Ependymoma	5-10	2-5
Medulloblastoma	10-30	1-6
Neuroblastoma	3	-
Primary CNS lymphoma		2.7
EXTRA-AXIAL		
Meningioma	5	15-22
Craniopharyngioma	4-10	1-3
Vestibular schwannoma	1	2-10
Pituitary adenoma	-	4-13
Pinealoma	0,5-2	1
Hemangioma	3	2
Sarcoma	1	0,1-1
Teratoma	2	-
Chordoma		0,1
Others	5	5

Three most common primary CNS tumors in adults:

- 1. Glioblastoma multiforme
- 2. Meningioma
- 3. Astrocytoma

N.B. 60% tumors in adults are astrocytomas! (50% glioblastoma multiforme!!!)

Three most common primary CNS tumors in **children**: 1. Medulloblastoma

- 2. Astrocytoma (esp. cerebellar pilocytic astrocytoma)
- 3. Glioblastoma multiforme

N.B. 1/4 tumors in children are medulloblastomas!

Three most common primary CNS tumors in **children** (< 2 yrs):

- 1. Medulloblastoma
- 2. Ependymoma
- 3. Low-grade gliomas (esp. midline pilocytic astrocytomas)

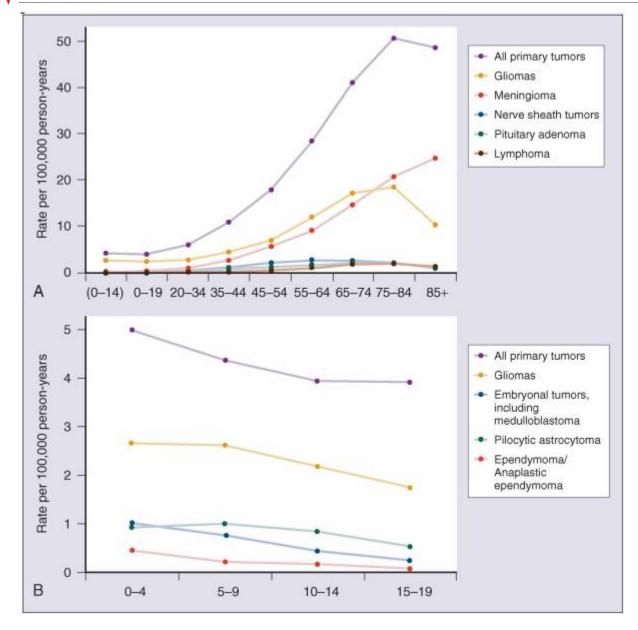
Brain tumors (adults) with percentage incidence by category:

Primary intra-axial	Primary extra-axial*	Metastatic**
Glioblastoma (47)	Meningioma (80)	Lung (37-49)
Anaplastic astrocytoma (24)	Acoustic neuroma (10)	Breast (16-19)
Astrocytoma (15)	Pituitary adenoma (7)	Melanoma (16)
Oligodendroglioma (5)	Other (3)	Colorectum (9)
Lymphoma (2.7)		Kidney (8)
Other (7)		Other (11)

*in *childhood*, craniopharyngioma and pineal region tumors are most common. **in *childhood*, most common metastatic tumors are neuroblastoma (usually epidural) and leukemia (meningeal).

Age-specific incidence of primary CNS tumors by histologic type:

- A. Selected histologic types among all age groups.
- **B**. Selected histologic tumor types in children.



PATHOLOGY

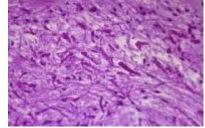
In most neoplasms, three zones may be identified:

- 1) central region of necrosis
- 2) densely cellular ring (area of CT/MRI contrast enhancement)
- 3) **peripheral edema** zone of lesser cellular density ("tumoral infiltration") with fingers extending peripherally from main mass.

Rosenthal fibers are characteristic feature of:

- 1) JUVENILE PILOCYTIC ASTROCYTOMAS
- 2) CRANIOPHARYNGIOMAS
- 3) around EPENDYMOMAS
- 4) ALEXANDER DISEASE (Rosenthal fibers radiate from vessels)

Rosenthal fibers in neuropil:



BENIGN vs. MALIGNANT

 \approx 1/3 brain tumors can be called BENIGN (mainly extra-axial tumors - meningiomas, acoustic

neuromas).

Concept of malignancy in CNS has different meaning from that which applies to systemic cancers;

- term "malignant" has nothing to do with metastasis out of CNS, which is extraordinarily rare.
- term "malignant" describes:
 - 1) histologic features:
 - BENIGN grow slowly, low cellularity, few mitoses, no necrosis, no vascular proliferation.

MALIGNANT – 1) rapid growth (frequent mitotic figures), 2) invasiveness, 3) vascular proliferation (endothelial hyperplasia), 4) necrosis.

- 2) *anatomic location* can have lethal consequences irrespective of histologic classification. e.g. benign meningioma, by compressing medulla, can cause cardiorespiratory arrest
- 3) *possibility of complete surgical removal* unless tumor can be completely excised to last cell, all intracranial neoplasms are potentially malignant in that they may recur, and often do.

e.g. gliomas are rarely curable by surgical excision - fundamentally malignant!

Neuroectodermal tumors are never "benign"

N.B. because cranial vault allows no room for expansion, *even BENIGN tumors can be serious*! - not clearly separable into BENIGN and MALIGNANT forms.

- e.g. histologically benign *PITUITARY ADENOMAS* may invade adjacent dura mater and bone and grow into cavernous or sphenoid sinus.
- e.g. malignant *GLIOBLASTOMA MULTIFORME* invades brain locally but seldom spreads elsewhere.

Distinction between "benign" and "malignant" is less important than for systemic cancers

Tumor LOCATION & TYPES

ADULTS - most commonly (70%) *above tentorium*;

- most common tumors *above tentorium* (intra-axial tumors predominate) gliomas and metastases; meningiomas.
- most common tumors *below tentorium* (extra-axial tumors predominate) neuromas; metastases and hemangioblastomas.

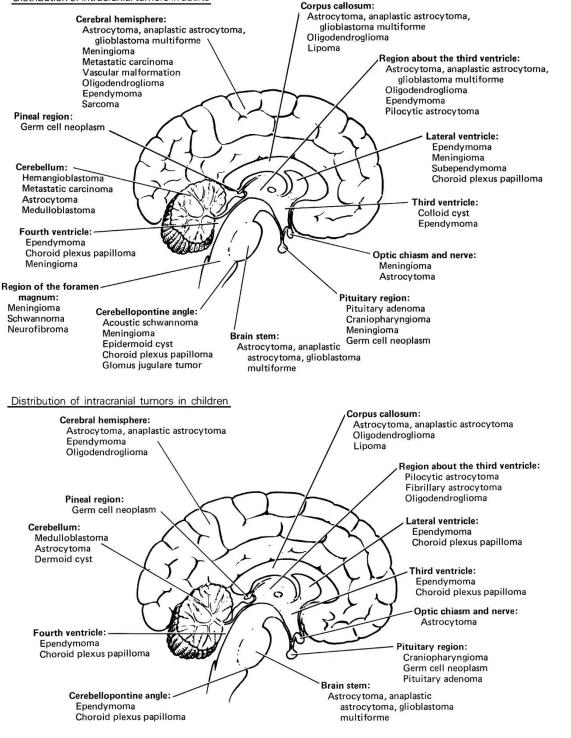
CHILDREN (2-12 yrs) - most commonly (70%) *below tentorium* (posterior cranial fossa, often in midline): medulloblastomas, cerebellar astrocytomas, ependymomas, brain stem or optic nerve gliomas, germinomas, congenital tumors.

ADOLESCENTS (> 12 yrs) and INFANTS (< 2 yrs) - equal frequencies *below tentorium* and *above tentorium*.

• distribution of parenchymal tumors is directly related to mass of lobe or region.

Age	Hemispheres	Diencephalon	Posterior Fossa	Meninges	Spinal Cord
Adulthood	Astrocytoma, oligodendroglioma, metastases, lymphoma	Astrocytoma, colloid cyst, pituitary adenoma	Metastases, hemangioblastoma	Meningioma, CN8 schwannoma, metastases, lymphoma	Meningioma, nerve sheath tumors, astrocytoma, ependymoma
Childhood	Astrocytoma, ependymoma, choroid plexus tumor, primitive neuroectodermal tumor	Germ cell tumors, craniopharyngioma	Medulloblastoma!!!, ependymoma, cerebellar pilocytic astrocytomas, brain stem astrocytoma, choroid plexus tumor	Leukemia, lymphoma	Nerve sheath tumors, astrocytoma

Distribution of intracranial tumors in adults



INTRAVENTRICULAR TUMORS

Typical site	
Foramen of Monro / 3 rd ventricle	
Foramen of Monro	
Trigone of lateral ventricle	
4 th ventricle	
Lateral ventricle (more common in children), 4 th ventricle	
Lateral ventricle, 4 th ventricle	
Lateral ventricles (involving septum pellucidum)	
Lateral ventricles, ependyma and choroid plexus	

*#1 differential of nonenhancing intraventricular mass **most common lateral ventricle tumor in young adults

Differentials:

Neurocysticercosis

Tumor SPREAD

Tumors ordinarily grow focally within one area (but nevertheless they cannot be cured surgically):

- 1) intact BBB
- 2) brain lacks lymphatics
- even slow-growing gliomas can widely infiltrate brain.
 - glioma cells *spread preferentially along white matter tracts* (may cross corpus callosum into contralateral hemisphere) brain function may be long preserved!

Some types may spread via CSF through ventricular / subarachnoid spaces:

HIGH-GRADE GLIOMAS (10-25%) PRIMITIVE NEUROECTODERMAL TUMORS, incl. MEDULLOBLASTOMAS (10-20%) EPENDYMOMAS (11%) CHOROID PLEXUS CARCINOMAS OLIGODENDROGLIOMAS (1%) PINEAL GERMINOMAS (rare).

• spread down ventriculoperitoneal shunt \rightarrow intra-abdominal metastases.

Metastasis **out of cranial cavity / spinal canal** is extraordinarily rare ($\approx 1\%$) even for most malignant gliomas (unless operative procedure has interfered with normal meningeal barriers).

Brain tumors cause death by local growth!

Tumor BURDEN

- tumor mass of 30-60 g ($3-6 \times 10^{10}$ cells) usually produces *neurologic symptoms*.
- brain cancer is *lethal* when tumor and its associated edema reaches **100** g (vs. ≈ 1000 g in systemic cancers).
- immune system per se can suppress and eventually kill only ≈ 0.0001 g, or 1×10^5 glioma cells.

CELLULAR HETEROGENEITY

While tumors are monoclonal in origin (i.e. they originate from single cell), as they grow they progress through *series of genomic changes* that permit evolution to more and more malignant stages.

- parental cell population is genetically unstable \rightarrow tumors are heterogeneous in cellular content:
 - a) genotypic (incl. chromosomal content [ranges from near diploid to hypo- or hypertetraploid] and molecular aberrations).
 - b) phenotypic (cells that are immediately adjacent to one another may have very different histologic appearance).
- *REGIONAL DIFFERENCES* develop when tumor cells begin to invade surrounding normal brain during migration, some cells develop additional abnormalities that confer selective advantage for growth → tumor is seeded with microfoci that are both genotypically and phenotypically different.

TUMOR MARKERS / IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY, STAINS

<u>Alcian blue</u> – stain for mucin (e.g. myxopapillary ependymoma)

<u> α -fetoprotein</u> – embryonal carcinoma, endodermal sinus (yolk sac) tumor.

Anti-Leu 7 antibody – schwannomas.

N.B. uniformly negative in meningiomas

ATRX (alpha-thalassemia/mental retardation syndrome x-linked) gene

- ATRX is present in every cell!
- loss of ATRX = astrocytic lineage (grade II/III astrocytomas and secondary GBM).

Brachyury (protein encoded by the TBXT gene, transcription factor within the T-box family of genes)

- early mutational event in chordoma evolution (discriminates chordoma from chondrosarcoma).
- present in majority of hemangioblastomas (helps to differentiate from clear cell renal cell carcinoma metastases in von Hippel-Lindau syndrome).

<u>CD68</u> (protein highly expressed by cells in the monocyte lineage: microglia, histiocytes) – differentiates histiocytosis from lymphoma.

<u>CD3</u> – T-cell lymphoma.

<u>**Desmin**</u> – tumors containing muscle (rhabdomyosarcoma, teratoma, etc), primitive neuroectodermal tumor.

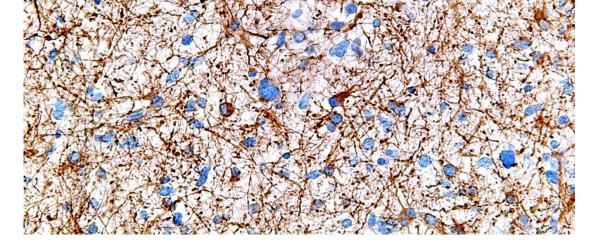
EGFR (epidermal-derived growth factor receptor) – aberrantly expressed (usually amplified*) in many gliomas.

*poor prognostic factor!

EMA (epithelial membrane antigen) – epithelia marker (ependymoma, meningioma, epithelial areas of teratomas, rhabdoid tumor).

N.B. not present in melanoma!

<u>GFAP (glial fibrillary acidic protein)</u> – expressed in astrocytes (it is a type III intermediate filament (IF) protein important for cytoskeleton); marker for glial tumors; e.g. anaplastic astrocytoma:



Human chorionic gonadotropin – germinoma, choriocarcinoma

Luxol fast blue dye - myelin fibers appear blue, neuropil appears pink, and nerve cells appear purple.

<u>Neuron-specific enolase</u> – *questionable utility* - positive in normal and neoplastic cells of neural and non-neural origin.

<u>p35 mutation</u> = astrocytic tumors (vs. oligo*)

Li-Fraumeni syndrome (inherited p53 mutation) – strong predisposition to astrocytomas!

- p53 mutation goes "hand to hand" with IDH mutation.
- *GLIOBLASTOMAS* that show p53 mutation are termed *secondary glioblastomas* (type 1) occur in younger patients whose tumors have progressed from lower grade astrocytoma.

Placental alkaline phosphatase - germ cell tumors

<u>**Retinal S-antigen**</u> – pineal parenchymal tumors, primitive neuroectodermal tumors, retinoblastoma.

<u>S-100</u> – present in cells derived from the neural crest (Schwann cells, and melanocytes) - markers for certain melanomas, schwannomas (100%), neurofibromas (weaker than schwannomas), malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumors (50%, may be weak and/or focal).

SSTR2 (somatostatin receptor type 2)

• most sensitive marker for meningiomas (present in 100%).

<u>STAT6</u> – hemangiopericytoma.

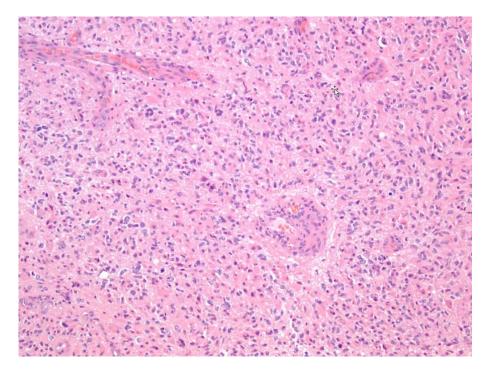
<u>Svnaptophysin</u> –integral membrane protein localized to synaptic vesicles (specific and sensitive marker for synaptic terminals); glioneuronal tumors (primitive neuroectodermal tumor, ganglioglioma, gangliocytoma, central neurocytoma, neuroendocrine tumors)

• diagnostically, it is often used in combination with chromogranin A.[

Vascular proliferation:

a) astrocytic lineage = GBM (grade IV)

b) 1p/19q co-deletion = anaplastic oligo (grade III)



<u>Vimentin</u> – type III intermediate filament (IF) protein, major cytoskeletal component of mesenchymal cells (significant role in supporting and anchoring the position of the organelles in the cytosol); staining may confirm mesenchymal origin (e.g. sarcomas, meningioma, lymphoma, chordoma) but numerous exceptions so *relatively nonspecific*.

ETIOLOGY, RISK FACTORS

SEIZURES

Seizures may herald development of cerebral tumors by several years!

- British study (Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery and Psychiatry, online March 28, 2011):
 risk for any cerebral tumor after first admission for epilepsy is increased 20-fold (risk for malignant tumors is more than twice that for benign tumors).
 - risk is still elevated several years after first admission for epilepsy \rightarrow need for *continued* surveillance of patients with new-onset seizures.

ENVIRONMENTAL EXPOSURE

Numerous epidemiologic studies* suggest statistically significant increased incidence of astrocytomas in people exposed to petrochemicals (e.g. in rubber industry) or electromagnetic radiation.

*equally impressive studies, however, have not confirmed association.

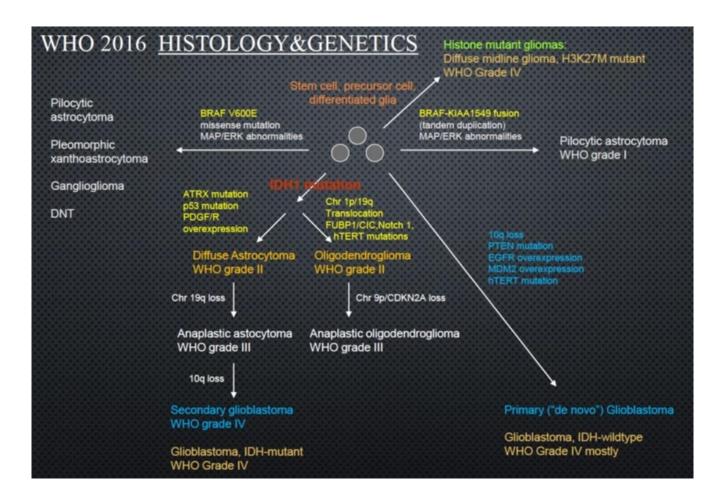
- well-documented environmental risk factor (Israeli study) **ionizing radiation** (e.g. given for treatment of tinea capitis) increases risk for meningiomas almost 10 times and for gliomas 2.5 times.
- insufficient epidemiologic evidence to support or refute claims, that *hand-held cellular telephones* generate electromagnetic radiation and cause brain tumors.
- both RNA and DNA *viruses* can induce animal brain tumors, but few viruses have been found to account for specific human tumor (e.g. *Epstein-Barr virus* evidence in primary CNS lymphoma tissue).
- immunosuppression (*transplant recipients*, *AIDS patients*, Wiskott-Aldrich syndrome, ataxiatelangiectasia) substantially increases risks for primary CNS lymphoma but not gliomas.
- role of *trauma* is unproven.

The only proven environmental risk factor for brain tumor is previous exposure to **high-dose ionizing radiation**

TUMORIGENESIS

- multistep process (probably at least 4-6 separate steps - multiple local mutations and clonal expansion). see p. 3781-3788 >>

<u>Most important genetic markers</u> – see above >>



PROTO-ONCOGENES

Proto-oncogenes mutated / overexpressed in brain tumors:

- 1) *EGFR (erb-B)* encodes *epidermal-derived growth factor receptor*; aberrantly expressed (usually amplified) in many gliomas!
- 2) *c-sis* encodes *platelet-derived* growth factor
- 3) *c-myc*
- 4) *ros1*
- 5) H-ras
- 6) *gli*
- medulloblastomas, 50% glioblastomas have *homogeneously staining regions* and *double minute chromosomes* may contain amplified proto-oncogenes.

GROWTH FACTORS

- have potent growth stimulatory effects on glioma cells in culture:

- 1) *platelet-derived growth factor* (PDGF)
- 2) epidermal-derived growth factor (EGF)
- 3) *transforming growth factor-* α (TGF- α) 50% homology with EGF; secreted by numerous tumors (incl. high-grade malignant gliomas).
- 4) fibroblast growth factor (FGF)
- 5) insulin-like growth factor (IGF).
- many glioma cells produce growth factors and express appropriate growth factor receptor on their surface membranes constantly stimulate own growth and division (AUTOCRINE GROWTH).

N.B. *normal brain cells are kinetically quiescent* (**neurons** are incapable of division after birth; **glial cells** are minimally proliferative in reactive or reparative gliosis)

- cardinal histopathologic features that define malignant glioma *cellular atypia*, *cellularity*, *mitoses*, *endothelial hyperplasia*, *necrosis*;
 - all (with exception of *necrosis* attributed to growth beyond capacity of blood supply) are subject to modulation by growth factors.
- > 60% gliomas have **TELOMERASE activity** (correlates with tumor grading, being lowest in lowgrade tumors). see p. 599-600 >>

TUMOR SUPPRESSOR GENES

Tumor suppressor genes associated with nervous system tumors:

p53 (17p13) – loss predisposes to *astrocytoma* and *neurofibrosarcoma*.

- progression from low-grade astrocytoma to glioblastoma strongly correlates with loss of p53 gene.
- Li-Fraumeni syndrome familial cancer syndrome in young adults (< 45 yrs) breast cancer, soft tissue sarcomas, brain tumor (esp. astrocytoma), osteosarcoma, leukemia, adrenocortical carcinoma.
 - affected people inherit one mutant *p53* allele.
 - sporadic (nonfamilial) forms of cancers associated with Li-Fraumeni syndrome also show *p53* inactivation.

NF1 (17q11.2), **NF2** (22q12) - loss predispose to *neurofibromatosis*.

HEREDITARY SYNDROMES associated with brain tumors

- make only < 5% of all primary CNS tumors cases:

Syndrome	Gene	Nervous Tumor	Other tumors
Neurofibromatosis	NF1 (17q11)	Neurofibroma, malignant peripheral	Iris hamartomas, osseous
type 1		nerve sheath tumor (MPNST),	lesions,
(von Recklinghausen's		meningioma, optic nerve glioma ,	pheochromocytoma,
disease)		(low-grade) astrocytoma	leukemia
Neurofibromatosis	NF2 (22q12)	Bilateral vestibular schwannoma,	Posterior lens opacities,
type 2		peripheral schwannoma,	retinal hamartoma
		meningiomas, astrocytoma,	
		meningioangiomatosis,	
		spinal ependymoma,	
		glial hamartias, cerebral calcification	
von Hippel–Lindau	VHL (3p25)	Hemangioblastoma	Retinal
syndrome			hemangioblastoma,
			renal cell carcinoma,
			pheochromocytoma, visceral cysts
Tuberous sclerosis	TSC1 (9q34),	Subependymal giant cell	Cardiac rhabdomyoma,
Tuberous scierosis	TSC1 ()q34), TSC2	astrocytoma (SEGA), cortical	adenomatous polyps of
	(16p13)	tubers	small intestine, cysts of
	(10)10)		lung and kidney, renal
			angiomyolipoma,
			lymphangioleiomyomatosis,
			cutaneous angiofibroma,
			subungual fibroma
Li-Fraumeni	p53 (17p13)	various malignant gliomas,	Breast carcinoma, bone
syndrome		PNET (medulloblastoma)	and soft tissue sarcoma,
			adrenocortical
Multiple on de onin e	not known	nituitowy odonomog	carcinoma, leukemia
Multiple endocrine neoplasia 1	not known	pituitary adenomas, malignant schwannoma	
Retinoblastoma	Rb (13q14)	retinoblastoma, pinealoblastoma	
Turcot syndrome	APC (5q21),	GBM, medulloblastoma	Colorectal polyps
	hMLH1		Cororow Portes
	(3p21),		
	hPSM2		
	(7p22)		
Werner's syndrome	WRN (8p12)	meningioma	
Cowden disease	PTEN	Dysplastic gangliocytoma of	Hamartomas of skin, GI
(multiple hamartoma	(10q23)*	cerebellum (Lhermitte-Duclos),	tract, gingival
syndrome)		megalencephaly	fibromatosis, multiple
			trichilemmoma, thyroid
			neoplasms, breast carcinoma
GORLIN syndrome	РТСН	Medulloblastoma (in \approx 5% mutation	autosomal dominant -
(nevoid basal cell	(9q31)**	carriers)	nevoid basal cell
carcinoma syndrome)	(1)		carcinoma, jaw
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,			keratocysts, skeletal
			abnormalities, ovarian
			fibromas, ectopic
			calcifications, palmar and plantar pits
MUIR-TORRE	MSH2,	• autosomal dominant - combination	man printer pito
syndrome	MLH1 – DNA	of sebaceous gland tumors + at least	
-	mismatch repair	one visceral cancer.	
	genes (subtype	• malignancies characterized by	
	of Lynch Type II hereditary	microsatellite instability.	
	nonpolyposis		
	colon cancer		
Goldenhar syndrome	(HNPCC))	intracranial dermoids , lipomas of	
(oculoauriculovertebral		corpus callosum	
dysplasia)		r	
Rhabdoid tumor	INI1	AT/RT	Bilateral renal malignant
predisposition	(22q11.2)		rhabdoid tumors
syndrome			

*s. MMAC1 (mutated in multiple advanced cancers 1)

** human analog of "patched" gene of Drosophila

<u>Most common scenario</u> - *patient inherits one mutant (inactive) copy of tumor-suppressor gene* and thus carries so-called germline mutation in every cell, which is unveiled when second copy of tumor-suppressor gene is inactivated (either by mutation or by loss of portion of chromosome).

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

BBB, BLOOD FLOW & BRAIN EDEMA

BBB is *substantially altered* (tight endothelial cell junctions are disrupted, fenestrations appear within endothelium, and pinocytotic vesicles increase), but is not completely broken in brain tumor*.

• water-soluble, ionized molecules, macromolecules can enter tumor.

*entry of some water-soluble chemotherapeutic agents is still impeded

Tumor blood flow is about same as in tumor-free white matter.

Causes of BRAIN EDEMA:

- 1) disrupted BBB
- 2) leaky capillaries (permeability varies over range of 1 to 100 times normal brain values)

Brain edema type in tumors is VASOGENIC

N.B. *brain tumor increases capillary permeability* not only in **tumor itself**, but also in **adjacent** capillaries (probably through action of soluble "vascular permeability factor"*).

- formerly, it was thought that edema in adjacent white matter is result of diffusion of fluid from tumor.

*e.g. vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)

• enormous edema surrounding small neoplasm suggests rapidly growing malignant tumor (exception – MENINGIOMA - benign slow-growing tumor that can produce profound edema and contrast enhancement).

it is not unusual for 20 g tumor to produce 100 ml mass because of associated edema.

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY of CLINICAL FEATURES

Intra-axial tumors produce symptoms by three mechanisms:

- A. Tumor cells infiltrate among nerve cells and along nerve fiber tracts, producing little or no damage to these structures (*low-grade astrocytomas*, *oligodendrogliomas*) first manifestation is often single seizure.
- B. Tumor cells grow as mass, displacing surrounding brain tissue, but not destroying it (*metastatic brain tumors*) → generalized and focal symptoms, which return to normal if tumor can be resected.
- C. Tumor cells infiltrate, grow as mass, *and* destroy surrounding neuropil (*malignant gliomas*) \rightarrow generalized and focal symptoms, which not improve after treatment.

<u>Extra-axial tumors</u> compress adjacent brain - may present only as **mass** (without focal symptoms), or may induce **seizure** focus; tumor resection often restores patient to normal neurologic state.

• as tumor grows, signs of **brain damage** become evident.

How intracranial neoplasms increase ICP:

- 1) tumor mass
- 2) cerebral edema adjacent to neoplasm
- 3) obstruction of CSF pathways (producing hydrocephalus):
 - a. intraventricular (at Monro foramen, aqueduct, 4th ventricle)
 - b. leukemic or carcinomatous involvement of meninges
- 4) obstruction of venous pathways.
- 75% infants < 6 months of age have tumor volumes > 1/3 of their intracranial volume plasticity of cranial vault allows asymptomatic growth.

CLINICAL FEATURES

Characteristic feature of all intracranial neoplasms is that they produce *progressive* symptoms!

Clinical presentation depends primarily on:

1. Age of patient (ability of skull bones to adjust to growing intracranial mass).

N.B. symptoms in young children and infants are nonspecific and are frequently mistaken for non-CNS problems - diagnosis of *pediatric brain tumor* can be extremely difficult to make without very high index of suspicion!

2. Primary histology – determines *rate* of symptom evolution.

e.g. *benign tumors* may achieve considerable size before producing symptoms (grow slowly, cerebral edema occurs infrequently).

- 3. Tumor location
 - e.g. *extra-axial tumors* usually *well circumscribed* with *benign histology* clinical presentation is directly related to CNS structures immediately adjacent to lesion.
 - e.g. *posterior fossa tumors* or *tumors near foramen of Monro* tend to obstruct CSF pathways early.

Symptoms do not differ much by tumor *histology* but rather relate to *area of brain affected*

Asymptomatic cases:

- 1) *silent areas* (tumors may grow large): parietal or frontal association cortices, nondominant temporal lobe.
- 2) *slow growth* (brain can accommodate to slowly growing mass).

Manifestations can be divided (but it may not be possible to differentiate these except in retrospect):

- a) FOCAL SYMPTOMS due to *tumor itself* (direct compression or infiltration)
- b) GENERALIZED SYMPTOMS due to *secondary consequences** (mass effect causing ICP↑) tumor volume, peritumoral edema, hydrocephalus, shift of critical structures.

*these may cause *false-localizing signs*!

Systemic symptoms (malaise, weight loss, anorexia, fever) suggests metastatic rather than primary brain tumor!

KARNOFSKY performance scale - objective measurement of *functional ability* (useful in assessing and following patients with CNS neoplasm):

- 100 Normal (no evidence of disease)
- 90 Minor symptoms (able to carry on normal activity)
- 80 Some symptoms (normal activity with effort)
- 70 Unable to carry on normal activity (cares for self) level of function justifying aggressive therapy!
- 60 Cares for most needs (requires occasional assistance)
- 50 Requires considerable assistance
- 40 Disabled
- 30 Severely disabled

20 - Active supportive treatment needed (very sick)10 - Moribund

WHO performance scale

Grade	Definition		
0	Fully active, able to carry on all pre-disease performance without restriction		
1	Restricted in physically strenuous activity but ambulatory and able to carry out work of a light or sedentary nature e.g. light house work, office work		
2	Ambulatory and capable of all self care, but unable to carry out ay work activities. Up and about more than 50% of waking hours		
3	Capable of only limited self care, confined to bed or chair more than 50% of waking hours		
4	Completely disabled. Cannot carry out any self-care. Totally confined to bed or chair		
5	Dead		

Brain tumors usually present with one of three syndromes:

- a) nonfocal neurologic disorder (due to $ICP\uparrow$).
- b) subacute progression of focal neurologic deficit (rarely stroke-like onset)
- c) seizure

ICP↑

<u>1. Headache</u> – chief complaint in 30% patients (most common in large tumors with midline shift).

- with most brain tumors, headache is <u>relatively late sequela</u>; occurs in:
 - 50-60% primary brain tumors;
 - 35-50% metastatic tumors.
- rare as initial symptom in brainstem tumors, cerebellopontine angle tumors, pituitary tumors, craniopharyngiomas.
- about features of "classic" brain tumor headache \rightarrow see p. S50 >>
- typically *semilocalized* in vicinity of tumor (e.g. worse on side of tumor); posterior fossa tumors may present with pain referred to occipital region.
- with time, plateau waves of increased ICP are replaced with sustained elevated ICP headache *gradually increases in intensity or duration* → becomes so unremitting that patient seeks medical attention.

Significant overlap between brain tumor headache and **migraine** or **tension-type headache**.

No pattern is diagnostic of brain tumor!

In series of 111 patients, headache had characteristics similar to migraine in 9% and to tension-type headache in 77%, while "classic" brain tumor headache occurred in only 17%.

Intense paroxysmal headaches may develop abruptly (within seconds); last only few minutes and terminate as quickly as they come.

- ominous sign of markedly increased ICP (ICP monitoring shows that peak pressure coincides with *plateau waves*).
- during episode, patient may vomit, lose vision, consciousness \, fall.
- possible mechanism acute hydrocephalus (ball-valve obstruction of CSF outflow with tumor in ventricular system).

2. Vomiting

- associated with nausea and headache.
- *direct compression of vomiting center* → *projectile vomiting* highly characteristic of posterior fossa tumors!

N.B. "projectile" is misnomer - nothing pathognomonic about forcefulness of ejection; term "projectile" more appropriately refers to vomiting without antecedent nausea or headache

(precedes appearance of headache by weeks).

<u>3. Deterioration in mental status</u> (psychomotor retardation, sleep / cognitive / social disturbances, confusion, lethargy). see p. S50 >>

- frequent clinical manifestation of intracranial tumor!

• often subtle in presentation and onset and may not attract attention of friends and family members until patient begins to behave unusually.

N.B. it is not unusual for patient to seek psychiatric help (up to 20% of all patients)

4. Cushing reflex signals life-threatening ICP $\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow$. see p. S50 >>

5. Brain mass shifts (may manifest as *false-localizing signs*) - CN6 palsy, CN3 palsy, ipsilateral hemiplegia (compression of opposite cerebral peduncle against Kernohan's notch), ipsilateral visual field defects (compression of opposite PCA), nuchal rigidity & torticollis* (herniation of cerebellar tonsils), etc.

*torticollis also may be due to CN4 palsy

<u>6. Enlarging head</u> (tense fontanelle, 'sun set' eyes, dilated scalp veins) in young children.

SYMPTOMS due to TUMOR ITSELF (FOCAL BRAIN DYSFUNCTION)

- may be absent in tumors growing in silent areas.

- result from compression of *neurons* and *white matter tracts* by expanding tumor and accompanying edema.
- *vascular* compression may produce focal brain ischemia.

<u>1. Seizures</u> - occur in 20-71% patients (as presenting symptom in 18-50% cases);

- focal or generalized.
- most common with *SLOWLY GROWING* tumors affecting *cortex* (esp. meningiomas, oligodendrogliomas, low-grade gliomas).

Even small meningiomas that compress adjacent cerebral cortex may present with seizures! Epilepsy rates range 60-100% in low-grade gliomas and 25-60% in high-grade gliomas

• suggestive features: status epilepticus at onset, prolonged postictal paralysis*, resistance to medical control, focal symptoms.

*brain tumor patients have higher incidence of postictal neurologic deficit!

<u>2. Negative signs</u> - hemiparesis, sensory loss, aphasia, cranial nerve palsies, visual deficits, hearing impairment, anosmia, personality changes, etc.

- *multiple metastases* or *diffuse brain infiltration* (by glioma or lymphoma) may present as dementia or decline in level of alertness.
- hand preference in child < 3-5 yrs may signify hemiparesis.

3. Hyperactive function:

- pituitary / pineal tumors \rightarrow hormone overproduction.
- choroid plexus papilloma \rightarrow CSF overproduction.

REGIONAL FEATURES

SUPRATENTORIAL TUMORS

• progressive **focal neurologic signs** and **seizures** predominate:

Frontal lobe

- 1. Seizures may precede other symptoms by months or years.
- 2. Intellectual impairment (esp. with bilateral tumors, e.g. butterfly glioma)
- 3. Impairment of initiative and spontaneity: abulia \rightarrow akinetic mutism.
- 4. Personality changes: see also p. Psy5 >>
 - a) dorsolateral prefrontal lesions \rightarrow apathetic & indifferent (pseudodepressed)
 - b) orbital prefrontal lesions \rightarrow loss of inhibition & euphoric (pseudopsychopathic).
- 5. Motor disturbances hemiparesis, precipitate urination (tumor of medial surfaces of frontal lobe).
- 6. Motor aphasia.
- 7. Anosmia (e.g. meningioma of olfactory groove).

Temporal lobe

- 1. Personality change (bizarre thinking, trance-like states, mood symptoms, immature emotional behavior; bilateral amygdaloid lesions → Klüver-Bucy syndrome).
- 2. Sensory aphasia, anomia.
- 3. Seizures complex partial (psychomotor).
- 4. Contralateral hemianopia (or superior quadrantanopia).
- 5. Impairment of recent memory (bilateral hippocampal lesions \rightarrow Korsakoff amnesia)

N.B. temporal tumors (esp. in nondominant hemisphere) are often relatively "silent"!

Parietal lobe

- 1. Seizures generalized or sensory focal seizures.
- 2. Impaired contralateral cortical sensory modalities (position sense, two-point discrimination, stereognosis)
- 3. Contralateral homonymous hemianopia (or inferior quadrantanopia).
- 4. Mixed expressive-receptive aphasia, anosognosia.
- 5. Dominant hemisphere Gerstmann's syndrome (agraphia, acalculia, finger agnosia).
- 6. Nondominant hemisphere apraxia, contralateral hemineglect.

Occipital lobe

- contralateral quadrantanopia or hemianopia with sparing of macula; visual misperceptions & hallucinations; bilateral lesions – cortical blindness.

Thalamus

- 1. Hydrocephalus.
- 2. Contralateral sensory abnormality, neuropathic pain, intermittent paresthesias.
- 3. Involvement of *basal ganglia* \rightarrow contralateral intention tremor, hemiballistic movement.
- 4. Involvement of *hypothalamus* \rightarrow eating disorders, precocious puberty.

POSTERIOR FOSSA

- <u>more devastating</u> than supraventricular tumors (limited space + vital brain stem nuclei)

- 1) early CSF flow obstruction \rightarrow hydrocephalus (rapidly worsening mental status)
- 2) projectile vomiting
- 3) common symptoms cranial nerve dysfunction (CN6, CN7), nystagmus, ataxia, long tract signs.
- commonest tumor of brain stem is astrocytoma.

DIAGNOSIS



Primary* brain tumors typically <u>do not produce blood abnormalities</u> (anemia, ESR[↑] or tumor-specific antigens).

*vs. CNS metastases, depending on primary tumor, may be associated with systemic features of malignancy.

• polycythemia associated with cerebellar tumor - presumptive evidence of *HEMANGIOBLASTOMA*.

<u>Tumor Markers</u> – see above >>

With MRI ability to image tumors clearly, role of tumor markers is more limited than in other parts of body!

URINE TESTS

Two **markers in urine** can be effective, noninvasive way of detecting presence / recurrence of brain tumors:

- 1) matrix metalloproteinase-2 (MMP-2)
- 2) vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)
- both are secreted by tumor tissue (have role in tumor angiogenesis).

Ophthalmoscopy

- 1. **Papilledema** <u>most reliable sign</u> of ICP \uparrow (but present in only \approx 20% patients) see p. Eye62 >>
 - more common with *tumors that occlude CSF ways* infratentorial, pineal, thalamic, 3rd ventricle tumors.
- 2. Other signs of ICP \uparrow see p. S50 >>
- thorough ophthalmologic examination (incl. visual field testing) is important in pre- and postoperative evaluation of tumors adjacent to visual / oculomotor pathways.

SKULL X-RAY

- only rare <u>indications</u>:

- 1) screening skull for *metastatic disease*
- 2) assessing integrity of various *shunts*
- may show *signs of raised ICP*. see p. S50 >>
- tumor *calcification*.
- *MENINGIOMAS*: hyperostotic bone reaction, enlargement of middle meningeal artery grooves.
- DERMOID CYSTS, SCHWANNOMAS: bone thinning → enlargement of middle cranial fossa or internal auditory meatus.

PNEUMOENCEPHALOGRAPHY

- historical method for diagnosing brain tumors.

CSF

LP should not be performed if intracranial mass is suspected!!!

- does not provide significant diagnostic information: raised opening pressure, protein[↑], mild lymphocytic pleocytosis.
 - *ASTROCYTOMAS* that extend to ventricular surface, or *EPIDERMOID CYST* rupture, can produce intense CSF inflammation simulating infectious meningitis.
- positive CSF cytology postoperatively is common, but seeding and new growth may not occur.

Indications - diagnosing:

- 1) *neoplastic meningitis* (malignant cells in CSF) LP indicated only if:
 - a) symptoms suggest meningeal involvement.
 - b) parenchymal tumor has propensity to seed (e.g. *MEDULLOBLASTOMA*, *EPENDYMOMA*, *CHOROID PLEXUS CARCINOMA*, some *EMBRYONAL PINEAL* and *SUPRASELLAR TUMORS*) – combine with spinal MRI (CSF is negative in $\approx 50\%$ MRI-positive cases!)

N.B. routine CSF examination in all patients with tumors, searching for malignant cells, is discouraged.

2) benign intracranial hypertension (pseudotumor cerebri)

N.B. both conditions are not emergency - wait until tumor (if present) has been brought under control by surgical decompression, corticosteroids, radiation, or chemotherapy.

e.g. LP is safe about 10-21 days after intracranial decompression.

EEG

- no role in diagnosis of brain tumors, does not assist in choice of anticonvulsant drugs.

- *seizure focus* or *slow wave focus* over hemisphere tumor.
- generalized slowing suggests either involvement of deep midline centers or metabolic problems.
- unresponsive patient often requires EEG to rule out *subclinical seizures*.

OTOLOGIC EXAM

(audiometry, auditory evoked potential testing, electronystagmography) - for tumors of cerebellopontine angle or posterior skull base.

NEUROIMAGING

- indispensable component of modern diagnosis - confirms presence, but not type, of brain tumor! One type of tumor can look like another or even resemble non-neoplastic mass lesion, such as brain abscess, fungal infection, parasitic invasion, demyelinating disease, or stroke.

• because human brain possesses remarkable capacity to make room for growing tumor, patient usually appears better clinically than might be expected from degree of abnormality seen on imaging!

CT WITH CONTRAST

- most common screening examination (but MRI is test of choice!)

CT without contrast enhancement is of little value in diagnosis of brain tumors or other mass lesions!

although hemorrhage, calcifications, hydrocephalus, shifts can be well seen on noncontrast CT, underlying causative structural abnormality can be missed.

- better definition (than MRI) of *calcification* suggests more indolent growth; tumors that <u>tend to calcify</u>: oligodendrogliomas (90%), meningiomas, craniopharyngioma, teratoma, choroid plexus tumors, ependymoma, central neurocytoma.
- CT preferable (over MRI) for evaluating *bones*, intratumoral *hemorrhage*.
- **CT-guided localization** (in stereotactic biopsies) is more precise than MRI (because of "MRI distortion").
- <u>on enhanced CT</u> most commonly as *ring-like hyperdense region* around central radiolucent area.
 - enhancement is stronger with more malignant tumors.
 - enhanced CT may be completely normal (± subtle mass effect).
- <u>on nonenhanced CT</u>:
 - **tumors** can be hypo-, iso- or hyperdense (depends on histological tumor type and presence of calcification or necrosis) relative to surrounding structures.
 - associated vasogenic edema (low attenuation in white matter).
- <u>contrast enhancement</u> is sign of malignancy / high-grade! (exceptions exist)

Tumors that **enhanced strongly**: meningiomas, neuromas, pilocytic astrocytoma, malignant tumors (high-grade gliomas, metastases, CNS lymphoma)

Pituitary adenomas always enhance less than normal pituitary gland!

Tumors that show **no enhancement**: low-grade gliomas (astro, oligo), epidermoids

• in presence of leaky tumor vessels there is some *risk of precipitating seizure* by iodinated contrast material used for CT scanning;

H: pretreatment with 10 mg IV **DIAZEPAM** or 4 mg **LORAZEPAM** 10 min before contrast administration.



Figure 29-23. Large tumor in cerebral hemisphere showing ring enhancement with contrast material and pronounced peritumor edema.

MRI WITH CONTRAST

- most sensitive test of choice for detection of brain tumor (MRI reveals greater extent of tumor than does CT!!!; MRI may detect additional tumors not suspected with CT), esp.:
 - 1) *posterior fossa tumors* no bony artefacts as in CT.
 - 2) *low-grade gliomas* MRI shows extensive brain infiltration when CT fails to produce any image abnormality.
- most protocols include T1, proton density, and T2 images.

Many brain tumors will not be seen unless contrast medium is used (small lesions that lack mass effect and edema may only be detectable on contrast-enhanced MRI)

- delineates tumor in all three planes without requiring patient to change position.
- important application use of sagittal MRI image in planning radiation treatment.
- MRI has supplanted CT as *preferred test of choice in follow-up* of patients undergoing active therapy.

Features of tumors:

- 1) *signal alteration* depends on MRI type. *see below*
 - irregular tumor borders suggest invasiveness (histologic malignancy).

Feature that most affects MRI appearance is increased water content

2) *mass effect* (volume of neoplastic tissue + surrounding vasogenic edema*)

*malignant tumors are associated with considerable edema

- MRI is more accurate (than CT) in defining extent of infiltrating tumor.
- features of extra-axial mass (differentiation from intra-axial mass):
 - 'buckling' and medial displacement of grey-white matter interface;
 - CSF cleft separating base of mass from adjacent brain.
- 3) *contrast enhancement* (reflects BBB breakdown in neovascular structures)
 - N.B. volume of enhancement represent major tumor mass, but tumor cells typically extend beyond this boundary (important in planning therapy for *MALIGNANT GLIOMAS*).
 - contrast enhancement is sign of malignancy! (exceptions exist). see above >>
 - *degree of enhancement homogeneity* varies more benign lesions tend to be more homogeneous.
 - border between tumor and edema may not be clear (important when planning biopsy); neoplastic infiltration frequently extends some distance into zone of edema.
 - *corticosteroid use* can significantly diminish contrast enhancement!!!
 - postoperative enhancement and radionecrosis may be difficult to distinguish from residual or recurrent tumor; consider TRAM protocol see p. Rx11 >>

4) *necrotic* core

- *how to distinguish from cystic tumor* DWI (diffusion restriction in necrosis), GRE (old hemorrhagic cavity).
- 5) peritumor *edema* more pronounced in metastases, less in primary CNS tumors.

T1 - well-demarcated area of *low density*.

T1 with gadolinium - most precise way to image brain tumor!

• patients can be followed up during and after treatment with T1 alone.

T2 - bright whiteness in more extensive region (signal of surrounding brain edema);

FLAIR - most precise way to spot brain tumor!

- better contrast between normal and abnormal tissue than in T1.
- T2 may miss some brain metastases!!!
- <u>tumors that are *hypointense* on T2</u>:

METASTATIC MELANOMA (paramagnetic properties of melanin) *DERMOID* (due to fat) *COLLOID CYSTS*

INTRATUMORAL HEMORRHAGE

• T2 also delineates *demyelinating effects* of radiation (FLAIR, variant of T2, is even better for this).

MENINGIOMAS are usually *isointense* on all image sequences!!!

Tumor type	T1 with gadolinium	Contrast CT	
GLIOBLASTOMA	ring configuration		
ANAPLASTIC	solidly bright or patchy or do not enhance.		
ASTROCYTOMAS			
LOW-GRADE	do not enhance (except pilocytic	cept pilocytic invisible (or vague low	
ASTROCYTOMAS	astrocytoma)	density)	
OLIGODENDROGLIOMAS	do not enhance (unless anaplastic)	invisible (unless calcified)	
PITUITARY ADENOMAS	always enhance less than normal pituitary	CT is inferior in every way	
	gland.		
METASTASES	variable: some enhance brightly and solidly,	many are invisible	
	others are in ring configuration (central		
	necrosis & cavitation)		
ACOUSTIC NEUROMAS,	intensely contrasted (\approx homogeneously)	contrasted	
Meningiomas			
PRIMARY CNS	smoothly rounded homogeneous	hyperdense even without	
LYMPHOMA	enhancement; periventricular location is	contrast (due to	
	common; multiple in 25% cases (easily	hypercellularity)	
	mistaken for metastases)		

N.B. for tumors with *propensity for leptomeningeal spread* (*MEDULLOBLASTOMAS*, *EPENDYMOMAS*, *CHOROID PLEXUS CARCINOMAS*, malignant *PINEAL REGION TUMORS*), spinal MRI must be done!

Any child found to have **posterior fossa tumor** (that is not obviously benign) \rightarrow contrast MRI of entire spinal axis; vice versa - detection of **extramedullary**, **intradural spinal tumor** \rightarrow immediate brain MRI.

<u>Cyst + mural nodule</u>:

- 1) pilocytic astrocytoma
- 2) pleomorphic xanthoastrocytoma (PXA)
- 3) hemangioblastoma
- 4) ganglioglioma, esp. desmoplastic infantile ganglioglioma / astrocytoma (DIG/DIA)
- 5) metastasis
- 6) neurocysticercosis

PERFUSION-WEIGHTED MRI (PW-MRI)

markedly increased rCBV - excess vascularization (growth of high-grade tumors); increased rCBV - low-grade tumors; decreased rCBV - vasogenic edema or radiation necrosis.

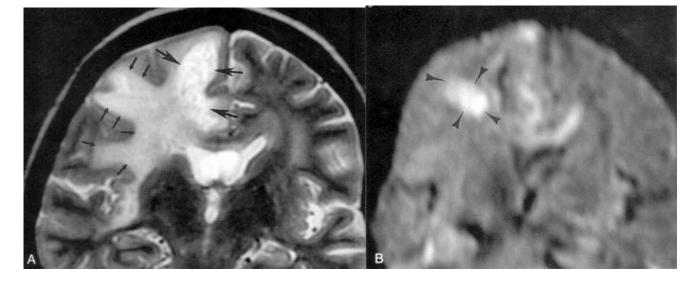
DIFFUSION-WEIGHTED MRI (DW-MRI)

Tumors show diffusion restriction! (due to hypercellularity and proteinaceous stroma)

Glioblastoma multiforme:

A. T2-MRI shows only necrotic part of tumor (*large arrows*) and peritumoral edema (*small arrows*).

B. Diffusion-weighted MRI - solid parts of tumor (arrowheads) are well demonstrated:



DIFFUSION TENSOR IMAGING (DTI) MRI

- shows tracts in peritumoral area - guides safer tumor resection.

GENERALIZED Q-SAMPLING IMAGING

- can visualize tracts in peritumoral edema even better than DTI.

fMRI

- presurgical evaluation of eloquent cortex. see also p. D66 >>

Alternative - intraoperative electrical cortical mapping.

MRS

- noninvasive in vivo method of analyzing tissue chemical spectrogram. see p. D53 >>

• <u>commonest abnormalities in *gliomas*</u> (vs. necrosis)

increased:

choline (membrane metabolism) / *N*-acetyl aspartate (living neurologic tissue) choline / creatine (cellular bioenergetics). lactate

decreased - NAA/creatine.

Tumor – lots of MEMBRANES (choline↑), no normal neurons (NAA↓), metabolism ANAEROBIC (lactate↑ and creatine↓)

<u>commonest abnormalities in *radiation necrosis*:
</u>

increased – lipid/lactate (large peak) decreased - choline, *N*-acetyl aspartate, creatine.

Necrosis – only LIPIDS;

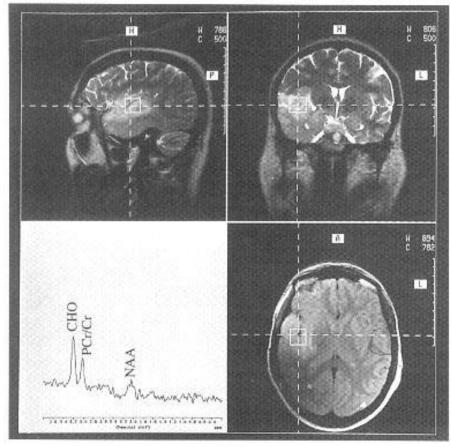
no normal neurons (NAA \downarrow), no normal membranes (choline \downarrow), no metabolism (creatine \downarrow , lactate \downarrow)

<u>As comparison – *infarction (stroke)* region:</u> lactate↑ N-acetylaspartate (NAA)↓, creatine↓, choline↓*

*choline is only difference from tumor

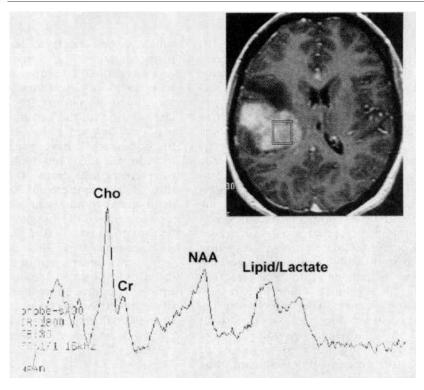
Tumor – lots of membranes (choline) and anaerobic metabolism (lactate) **Stroke** – everything is down except anaerobic metabolism (lactate)↑ **Necrosis** – everything is down except dead lipids↑

Characteristic spectroscopic appearance of glioma - elevated choline (CHO) peak (3.22 p.p.m.), low creatine (PCr/Cr) peak (3.03 p.p.m.), nearly undetectable *N*-acetyl aspartate (NAA) peak (2.01 p.p.m.):

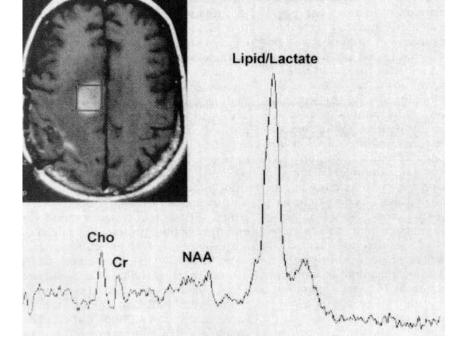


Glioblastoma multiforme - elevated choline/creatine (Cho/Cr), persistent N-acetylaspartate (NAA) and lipid/lactate peaks:





Radiation necrosis - large lipid/lactate peak with absent choline, creatine, and NAA:



PET

IKTOR'S NOTES

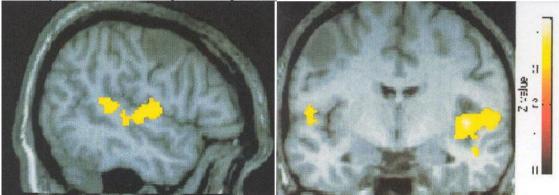
- <u>tumor localization & specification</u>:
 - characteristic of rapidly growing tumor is <u>increased anaerobic glycolysis</u> (FDG PET high glucose utilization but low oxygen extraction).
 - tumor metabolic activity correlates with biologic aggressiveness *HIGH-GRADE GLIOMAS* show more glycolytic activity than *LOW-GRADE GLIOMAS*.
- <u>preoperative PET localization of eloquent cortex</u> activation studies with $H_2^{15}O$.
- tumors that respond to therapy become hypometabolic (before they shrink in size on MRI).
- recurrent symptoms after radiation therapy:
 - a) recurrent / residual tumor (glycolytic activity[†])
 - b) radiation necrosis (glycolytic activity↓)
 - often appear identical on MRI / CT (contrast enhancement, mass effect, edema).

PET has great value in distinguishing **tumor recurrence** from **radiation necrosis**.

- *false-positives*: inflammatory cells in areas of radiation necrosis may show increased metabolic activity.
- o *false-negatives*: tumor cells also may be present in areas of low glucose activity.

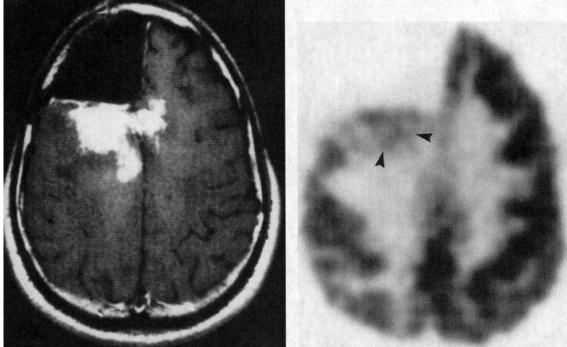
 $H_2^{15}O$ PET activation study (before neurosurgical resection) during language task - language activation is seen

bilaterally and is distant from right frontal glioma:



Recurrent malignant glioma (after surgical resection, radiation therapy, and chemotherapy):

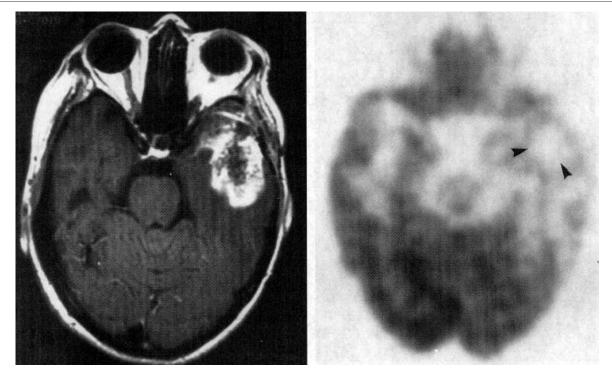
- A) gadolinium-enhanced MRI area of contrast enhancement.
- B) PET with 18 F-deoxyglucose region (corresponding to MRI enhancement) has *increased* metabolism compared with white matter (*arrows*).



Radiation necrosis (after surgical resection, radiation therapy, and chemotherapy):

A) gadolinium-enhanced MRI - area of contrast enhancement.

B) PET with 18 F-deoxyglucose - region (corresponding to MRI enhancement) has *reduced* metabolism compared with white matter (*arrows*).



SPECT

Principal value - distinguishing *tumor recurrence* from *radiation necrosis*.

- ²⁰¹Tl chloride SPECT can distinguish between *HIGH-GRADE GLIOMAS* (show increased uptake compared with normal brain parenchyma) and LOW-GRADE GLIOMAS (no increased uptake); can also distinguish CNS lymphoma (increased activity) from toxoplasmosis (decreased activity) in immunocompromised patients
- ¹²³I α -methyl tyrosine SPECT shows uptake at sites of increased protein synthesis used to distinguish LOW-GRADE GLIOMAS from benign lesions.

ANGIOGRAPHY

- historical method for diagnosing brain tumors (for many cases MRA suffices).

Current indications:

- 1. Preoperative assessment of **tumour vascularity**, **mapping of major vessels** before biopsy:
 - a) tumors that may *encircle critical vessels* (e.g. basal *MENINGIOMAS*)
 - b) tumors that can be *extremely vascular* (e.g. *HEMANGIOBLASTOMAS*, *MENINGIOMAS*, GLOMUS tumors).
- 2. Embolization to reduce intraoperative bleeding (e.g. bulky highly vascular MENINGIOMAS) done in temporal proximity (24-96 hours) to planned surgery.
- 3. **Differentiation** of *intra-axial* and *extra-axial* tumors (if cross-sectional imaging is equivocal).

Angiographic abnormalities:

- 1. Increased vascularity:
 - 1) increased number of *normal vessels* (or accentuated capillary blush)
 - 2) actual tumor vessels irregular and tortuous (bizarre), may bear microaneurysms or show AV shunting; may be seen as *blush* (diffuse stain) during late arterial or capillary phase.

Most hypervascular tumors - CHOROID PLEXUS PAPILLOMAS, HEMANGIOBLASTOMAS

- 2. Avascular areas necrosis or cyst formation.
- 3. Vascular displacement;
 - may indicate *tumor position relative to neuraxis*: superficial brain mass will compress vessels against cranial vault or falx cerebri, whereas one outside brain will separate them from these structures; mass within temporal lobe elevates MCA (MCA draped over expanded lobe).
 - may indicate *herniation*. see p. S54 >>
- *feeding vessels are clue to tumour origin*: cerebral tumors are fed by cerebral vessels, choroid plexus tumors - by choroidal vessels, extracerebral tumors - by meningeal vessels. Exceptions:

MENINGIOMAS - not infrequently acquire pial supply;

GLIOMAS and, particularly, METASTASES - dural supply is well documented.

Туре	Increased vascularity	Tumor vessels	Blush	Venous filling	Meningeal supply		
INTRA-AXIAL							
Glioma (low grade)	rare	(+)	(+)	normal	v. rare		
Glioblastoma	increased (50%)	++	+	early	rare		
Metastases	increased (50%)	+++	++	early	(+)		
Lymphoma	normal	(+)	rare	normal	rare		
Hemangioblastoma	++	++ to +++	++	rapid	(+)		
INTRA-VENTRICULAR							
Choroid pl. papilloma	increased	+	+	early	no		
Meningioma	increased	+	+ to ++	early	no		
Colloid cyst	no	no	no	normal	no		
EXTRA-AXIAL							
Meningioma	increased (75%)	+ (angioblastic)	++	early/normal	typical		
Neuromas	normal/increased	(+)	(+)	can be early	+		
Pituitary adenoma	can be increased	no	(+)	normal	from ICA		
Craniopharyngioma	normal	no	no	normal	no		
Chemodectoma	+++	+++	++	rapid	++		
Chordoma	normal/increased	+ to ++	+ to ++	early	+		

BIOPSY

- definitive tissue diagnosis necessary for adequate treatment planning. see p. D34 >>
- most primary brain tumors are verified histologically (either resection surgery or biopsy for ٠ unresectable cases), but 80% metastatic tumors are diagnosed & treated empirically (if biopsy is available from extra-CNS locations)
- biopsy is not indicated in CHIASMAL GLIOMAS and DIFFUSE BRAIN STEM GLIOMAS* characteristic MRI features and uniform histology - biopsy rarely influences treatment (prognosis is dismal in diffuse brain stem tumors regardless of biopsy results + biopsy is hazardous).

*unless brain stem glioma has exophytic component (which may be biopsied)

Open biopsies (without tumor removal) are not justifiable! - if skull and dura are to be opened, surgeon should do gross total resection; however, if tumor is unresectable (due to eloquent infiltration) but close to cortex, open biopsy gives more material!!! (Dr. Cohen-Gadol)



any tumor causing mass effect or neurologic symptoms in relatively noneloquent area of brain should be removed (so biopsy is part of surgical resection)

All brain regions may be approached by MR-guided stereotactic biopsy!

• stereotactic biopsy usually provides enough tissue to *make diagnosis* of glioma but may not provide enough to *grade tumor* (most informative specimen is one taken from *area of contrast enhancement*).

Gliomas are of heterogeneous nature - areas of low-grade histology are commonly noted in many high-grade tumors!

• stereotactic biopsy is reserved for poor-surgical risk patients* (but if tumor has *prominent blood vessels* or *hemorrhage within tumor*, open biopsy is preferable).

*open excision may result in unacceptable functional impairment without positive influence on survival

There is no indication for craniotomy when purpose is merely to biopsy (and not resect) tumor

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

- 1. Hematomas (may be mistaken for acute bleeding into tumor)
- 2. Abscesses*
- 3. Granulomas*
- 4. Parasitic infections (such as cysticercosis)
- 5. Vascular malformations (esp. without AV shunts)
- 6. Solitary large MS plaque, concentric sclerosis of Balo (but T₂-MRI usually reveals additional asymptomatic lesions)
- 7. Progressive strokes (rare)

*usually cannot be distinguished from tumors by CT or MRI alone - reliable management may demand biopsy

N.B. immunosuppressed patients are at risk for both *primary CNS lymphomas* and *CNS infections* (such as *toxoplasmosis* or *cryptococcosis*) - patients treated empirically with antibiotics should undergo prompt biopsy of lesions that are not responding to therapy.

COMPLICATIONS

HYDROCEPHALUS

- A. <u>Obstructive hydrocephalus</u> obstruction at ventricular atrium \rightarrow foramen of Monro \rightarrow aqueduct $\rightarrow 4^{\text{th}}$ ventricle.
 - tumor can act as valve (e.g. tumor in region of foramen of Monro) \rightarrow sudden potentially life-threatening hydrocephalus.

B. Communicating hydrocephalus

- a) tumor seeding to meninges
- b) reaction to previous therapy
- if depressed consciousness persists despite steroid administration, CSF diversion procedure should be strongly considered.

N.B. **posterior fossa tumors** can cause *reverse herniation* after ventricular shunt insertion (therefore, drain EVD at 15 cmH₂O)

• hydrocephalus requiring permanent shunt develops in 25-33% patients after posterior fossa tumor removal.

INTRATUMOR HEMORRHAGE

- <u>tumors that most often cause hemorrhage</u> (stroke-like onset of focal neurologic deficit):
 - 1) oligodendrogliomas, high-grade astrocytomas
 - 2) some metastatic tumors (melanoma!!!, renal cell carcinoma, choriocarcinoma*, testicular carcinomas).

3) WNT among medulloblastomas

- may be provoked by *iatrogenic thrombocytopenia* (associated with chemotherapy).
- <u>clinically</u>: insignificant ÷ dramatic.
- <u>treatment</u> osmotic agents and glucocorticoids \pm surgical decompression.

<u>BIBLIOGRAPHY</u> for ch. "Neuro-Oncology" \rightarrow follow this LINK >>

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