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Radiogenomics and Imaging Phenotypes in Glioblastoma: Novel Observations and Correlation with Molecular Characteristics

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Abstract Radiogenomics is a provocative new area of research based on decades of previous work examining the association between radiological and histological features. Many generalized associations have been established linking anatomical imaging traits with underlying histopathology, including associations between contrast-enhancing tumor and vascular and tumor cell proliferation, hypointensity on pre-contrast T1-weighted images and necrotic tissue, and associations between hyperintensity on T2-weighted images and edema or nonenhancing tumor. Additionally, tumor location, tumor size, composition, and descriptive features tend to show significant associations with molecular and genomic factors, likely related to the cell of origin and growth characteristics. Additionally, physiologic MRI techniques also show interesting correlations with underlying histology and genomic programs, including associations with gene expression signatures and histological subtypes. Future studies extending beyond simple radiology–histology associations are warranted in order to establish radiogenomic analyses as tools for prospectively identifying patient subtypes that may benefit from specific therapies.

Keywords Radiogenomics · Imaging genomics · GBM · Imaging phenotypes

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Introduction

Brain tumors are considered a relatively rare cancer, affecting nearly 21 per 100,000 people in the USA [1]. Despite this relatively low incidence and the application of very aggressive combination therapies, malignant brain tumors are almost uniformly lethal. Glioblastoma multiforme (GBM) is the most common, aggressive, and fatal type of malignant glioma, accounting for 45 % of all malignant primary brain and CNS tumors and carrying a median survival of around 14 months [2] with fewer than 10 % of patients surviving beyond 5 years from initial diagnosis [3]. This dismal prognosis is largely attributed to molecular and genomic heterogeneity [4•], leading to variable treatment responses, as well as infiltrative tumor cells otherwise undetected with current imaging technology. Thus, great effort has been taken to advance the technology in the fields of molecular biology, genetics, and

radiology in order to better characterize individual patient tumor biology and behavior.

The progression of pathological and radiological sciences has largely been advancing in parallel over the decades, with very little formal cross-pollination until relatively recently. Molecular and genomic characterization of GBM has uncovered distinct phenotypes that appear to have differential prognosis and response to therapy. For example, GBM tumors exhibiting hypermethylation of the O^6-methylguanine-DNA-methyltransferase (MGMT) gene have been shown to have improved prognosis due to increased sensitivity to alkylating agents such as temozolomide, carmustine (BCNU), and lomustine (CCNU) [5, 6, 7•]. Additionally, both Verhaak et al. [4•] and Phillips et al. [8•] identified distinct molecular subclasses of high-grade gliomas with significantly different prognoses. Concurrent with these observations, radiologists and imaging scientists have uncovered a variety of radiographic features that provide insight into aggressivity and biology of malignant gliomas. For example, GBM typically contains central areas of necrosis, thickened irregular walls that enhance after administration of exogenous contrast agents, and is surrounded by regions of relatively extensive vasogenic edema. Many investigators have noted that the extent of these features, namely necrosis and the amount of edema, is associated with differences in survival [9–11, 12•, 13••]. Radiogenomics (or imaging genomics), the study of the association between radiographic and pathologic features, represents a new horizon in cancer research that focuses on the intersection of these two diagnostic disciplines. The field of radiogenomics holds great promise of the eventuality of inexpensive, noninvasive phenotyping of tumors for use in individualized patient therapies or treatment strategies by inferring genomic or pathologic characteristics from radiographic information. The current manuscript summarizes the current status of radiogenomics and imaging-based phenotyping in GBM, and then integrates this information to provide predictions and future directions for the field.

Anatomical Imaging Pathology Associations

As the name implies, GBMs are known for their heterogeneity, which extends across multiple scales. In particular, GBMs are heterogeneous in their genetic and epigenetic makeup, levels of protein expression, metabolic or bioenergetic behavior, along with their microenvironment biochemistry and structural composition. The amalgamation of these various changes is manifested as abnormalities observed on both gross histology and radiographic images. This multiscale heterogeneity can vary both across patients as well as spatially throughout a single tumor, reflecting broad genetic alterations in the disease and local adaptations of the disease to microenvironmental cues, respectively. Indeed, early image-guided

proteomic studies have shown that areas of nonenhancing tumor vary dramatically in their protein expression compared with that of contrast-enhancing tumor, suggesting a fundamental biological difference between these radiographically defined regions [14].

Despite this heterogeneity, there are many common characteristics of GBM recognized both radiographically and pathologically [15•]. For example, most GBMs (with certain exceptions discussed later) show enhancement after administration of exogenous contrast either on MRI or computed tomography (CT), which has been shown to be directly due to an increase in vascular permeability often accompanied by neovasculature as a consequence of malignancy [16, 17]. Careful biopsies of areas of contrast enhancement on CT have also been shown to contain the most proliferative areas of the tumor [18], as angiogenesis allows for tumor to proliferate at much higher rates [19]. In addition to enhancement on post-contrast anatomical images, most GBMs commonly exhibit the presence of necrosis, either centrally or diffuse, discernable as low attenuation on unenhanced CT or low signal intensity on pre-contrast T1-weighted MR images due to an increase in both intra- and extracellular mobile water. Additionally, all GBMs have regions of high T2-weighted MRI signal intensity, which reflects increased water mobility in areas of both edema and nonenhancing tumor. Differentiating edema and nonenhancing tumor can be difficult; however, numerous studies have shown that edema tends to be brighter on T2-weighted images compared to that with nonenhancing tumor [12•, 20••], which is directly due to edema having a longer tissue T2 and normal brain tissue having a shorter T2 compared with nonenhancing tumor [21–23]. Together, these attributes have formed the basis for biological justification in the use of CT and MRI as surrogates of tumor burden in GBM for use in therapeutic response assessment [24–27].

Anatomical MRI including T2-weighted images, T2-weighted fluid attenuated inversion recovery (FLAIR) images, along with pre- and post-contrast T1-weighted images are the modalities of choice for brain tumor imaging. MRI is typically chosen over other anatomical imaging techniques such as computed tomography (CT) due to the high contrast within soft tissues and high sensitivity for lesion delineation. Additionally, MRI is attractive because it does not involve ionizing radiation, and it is extremely flexible in that it can provide a variety of image contrasts based on quantum mechanical characteristics unique to the tissue (e.g., T1 and T2 characteristics), microscopic mobility of water molecules (e.g., T2 and diffusion MRI), oxygenation status (e.g., susceptibility and blood oxygenation level detection, or BOLD imaging), mobile metabolite concentration (e.g., MR spectroscopic imaging and chemical shift imaging), and other physiological parameters. Thus, the following radiogenomic discussion will focus almost exclusively on MRI features, as they are the most common encountered clinically.

Tumor Location May Reflect Cell of Origin

There is significant evidence to support the hypothesis that tumor location plays a pivotal role in patient prognosis [28]. This observation is likely reflective of genetic attributes of the tumor cells of origin [29, 30], as region-specific brain tumor cells of origin have been identified for oligodendrogliomas [31], medulloblastomas [32], ependymomas [33], and IDH1 mutant GBM [34]. Recently, we presented a widespread examination of the relationship between tumor location and various phenotypes and clinical variables in a "probabilistic radiographic atlas" of more than 500 GBM patients, noting several interesting and new associations [13••]. For example, younger patients (<55 years old) tend to have more frontal tumors, whereas older tumors tend to be localized more posterior; IDH1 mutant tumors tend to be localized to the frontal lobe and adjacent to cells near the subventricular zone (SVZ) [13••, 34]; and MGMT promoter methylated tumors tend to be more frequent in the left temporal lobe, whereas MGMT unmethylated tumors tend to be right hemispheric [13••, 35]. Interesting interactions were also noted, including a preference for MGMT unmethylated, mesenchymal, and epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR)-amplified tumors to be localized to the right insula, thalamus, and temporal lobe regions extending to the posterior lateral ventricles adjacent to the SVZ (Fig. 1a, b), a region of the brain known to harbor adult stem cells. In fact, tumors growing in regions thought to contain neural stem cells have been shown to predict both invasive and multifocal radiographic phenotypes [36]. These regions were also associated with a high probability of having a short survival (overall survival (OS) <12 months) [13••]. In addition to these observations, there appears to be frontal predominance of younger, IDH1 mutant, chromosome 10 monosomy, and proneural tumors (Fig. 1c, d). Frontal lobe involvement and preference for the proneural subtype have previously been shown to be associated with IDH1 mutant GBMs [34, 37], as these types of tumors are hypothesized to develop from a specific cell of origin [34]. Separate regions in the left temporal pole extending to the left insula were also identified to be commonly associated MGMT methylated, EGFR-amplified, and EGFRvIII mutant GBMs. This region was also associated with a favorable response to radiochemotherapy (progression-free survival (PFS) >6 months) and favorable overall survival (OS >12 months) [13••]. Thus, it appears that radiographic atlases providing associations liking tumor location to various clinical, -omic, and interventional phenotypes may provide a valuable tool for potentially understanding the nature of brain tumor cells of origin and may be an intuitive starting point toward individualized medicine on the basis of radiogenomic phenotyping.

Associations Between Tumor Size and Molecular Characteristics

As alluded to previously, radiologic and pathologic attributes associated with poor prognosis were independently identified such that many broad generalizations of tumor biology can be deduced through the use of standard anatomical MRI. Relatively recently, investigators have begun to explore more complex associations between tumor size measurements and genetic or molecular composition. Our investigations [13••] at initial diagnosis have shown that MGMT unmethylated tumors tend to have higher volumes of both enhancement (T1 + C) and T2/FLAIR hyperintensity compared with methylated tumors (Fig. 2a), IDH1 mutant GBMs have a significantly lower volume of enhancement (Fig. 2b), and EGFR-amplified tumors have a significantly higher volume of both enhancement and T2/FLAIR hyperintensity (Fig. 2e). Interestingly, Diehn et al. [38] also noted that GBMs with overexpression of EGFR tended to have higher contrast-enhancing tumor volume. However, we have also noted no difference in enhancing or T2/FLAIR volumes in patients with chromosome 10 monosomy vs. polysomy (Fig. 2c), intact vs. deficient phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN) (Fig. 2d), or EGFRvIII mutants vs. wild types (Fig. 2f). Similarly, Naeini et al. [39•] demonstrated that volumes of both contrast enhancement and necrosis at the time of initial diagnosis are higher in tumors with the mesenchymal gene expression signature compared with those having proneural or proliferative signatures. This trend was also apparent when excluding IDH1 mutant tumors, which are known to be primarily in the nonmesenchymal molecular subtype. The authors noted that the volume of contrast enhancement plus necrosis could be used to identify the mesenchymal subtype with 76 % sensitivity and 65 % specificity, while the ratio of T2/FLAIR hyperintense volume to the volume of contrast enhancement plus necrosis less than 2.3 had an 82 % sensitivity and 87 % specificity of identifying the mesenchymal subtype.

Zinn et al. [40•] took a fundamentally different approach for examining the relationship between tumor volumetry and pathological features. Instead of examining volume differences between phenotypes with known prognostic or therapeutic phenotypes, investigators used data from The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA), quantified the volume of T2/FLAIR hyperintensity, binned the volumes into high, medium, and low volumes, and then examined which genes were upregulated or downregulated within these groups. Investigators identified an association between high T2/FLAIR volumes, upregulation of periostin (POSTN), and downregulation of miR-219, a microRNA predicted to bind with POSTN.
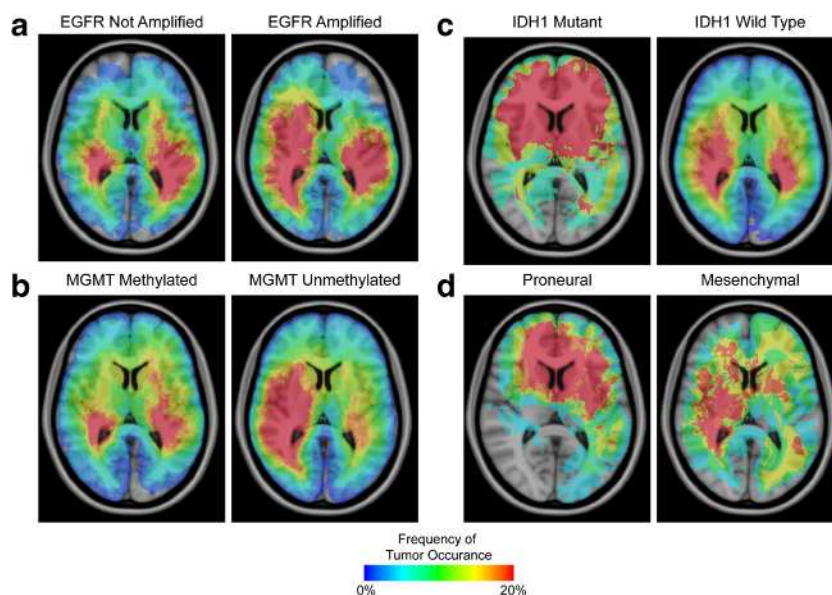
Fig. 1 Anatomical distribution of T2/FLAIR tumor locations for various genomic and molecular phenotypes. **a** EGFR-amplified tumors show a higher frequency of tumor location in the right hemisphere compared to that with tumors not exhibiting EGFR amplification. **b** Similarly, MGMT unmethylated tumors have a higher frequency of occurrence in the right hemisphere compared to that with methylated tumors. **c** GBMs with mutation of IDH1 show frontal lobe predominance compared to that with wild-type IDH1 tumors. **d** Correspondingly, the proneural gene expression subtype also appears to have frontal lobe predominance. Population maps were created from the University of California Cancer Research Coordinating Committee (UC CRCC)-sponsored probabilistic radiographic atlas [13••]

Investigators also noted high levels of POSTN found to be associated with mesenchymal tumors and shortened survival and further concluded that this approach may be valuable for identifying new targets for molecular inhibition or future therapies.

A separate study by Zinn et al. [41] also used data from the TCGA to develop a biomarker consisting of tumor volume–age–Karnofsky performance status (KPS) (VAK) to predict prognosis in GBM. Investigators determined the volume of contrast-enhancing tumor regions, and then categorized the volumes as being large or small using a 30-cm^3 cutoff threshold. The study found that patients with a favorable biomarker signature, consisting of either young patients, patients with a high KPS, or a small tumor volume, was associated with genomic and microRNA signatures consistent with programs involved in p53 activation, whereas an unfavorable biomarker signature was associated with programs involved in p53 inhibition.

In a TCGA study by Gutman et al. [42], investigators used semi-quantitative measurements of tumor size and radiographic composition. Trained radiologists from a range of institutions estimated total lesion size using bidirectional measurements on T2 or FLAIR images, then described the composition of the tumor by assigning percentages to the amount contrast-enhancing tumor, nonenhancing tumor, edema, and necrosis. These percentages were then binned by predefined ranges. Consistent with previous observations [13••, 37, 39•], investigators noted that proneural tumors had significantly lower proportions of contrast-enhancing tumor while mesenchymal tumors had lower levels of nonenhancing tumor.[1] Authors also examined whether there was a link between the radiographic composition of the tumor and mutation status (e.g., EGFR, IDH1, NF1, PIK3CA, PTEN, etc.) or copy number variations but did not find any significant associations.

Descriptive Radiographic Features and Genetic Composition

Although there appears to be associations between tumor location or tumor size and pathological markers, these simple measures fail to capture sophisticated features intuitively used by the neuroradiologist to diagnose and characterize the aggressivity and behavior of the tumor. Such descriptive radiographic features are difficult to quantify but are often invaluable in radiogenomic analyses in other cancers [43, 44]. Pope et al. [12•, 20••] first developed a set of semi-quantitative radiographic descriptive features for use in GBM in order to link these features with both survival and gene expression signatures. These investigators noted that tight junction protein-2 (zonula occluden-2), a protein that acts to maintain the BBB, was upregulated in incomplete enhancing tumor compared with contrast-enhancing tumor. Additionally, they noted that oligodendrocyte lineage transcription factor 2 (OLIG2) and achaete-scute complex-like 1 (ASCL1), which is associated with secondary GBM, were increased in

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[1] Note: the previous work utilized the gene expression classification system by Phillips et al. [8•], whereas the work by Gutman et al. employed the classification system by Verhaak et al. [4•].

Fig. 2 Differences in tumor volume between various genomic and molecular phenotypes. **a** MGMT promoter methylated vs. unmethylated tumors. **b** IDH1 mutant vs. wild type tumors. **c** Chromosome 10 monosomy vs. polysomy. **d** PTEN deficiency vs. PTEN intact. **e** EGFR-amplified vs. not amplified tumors. **f** EGFRvIII mutant vs. wild-type tumors
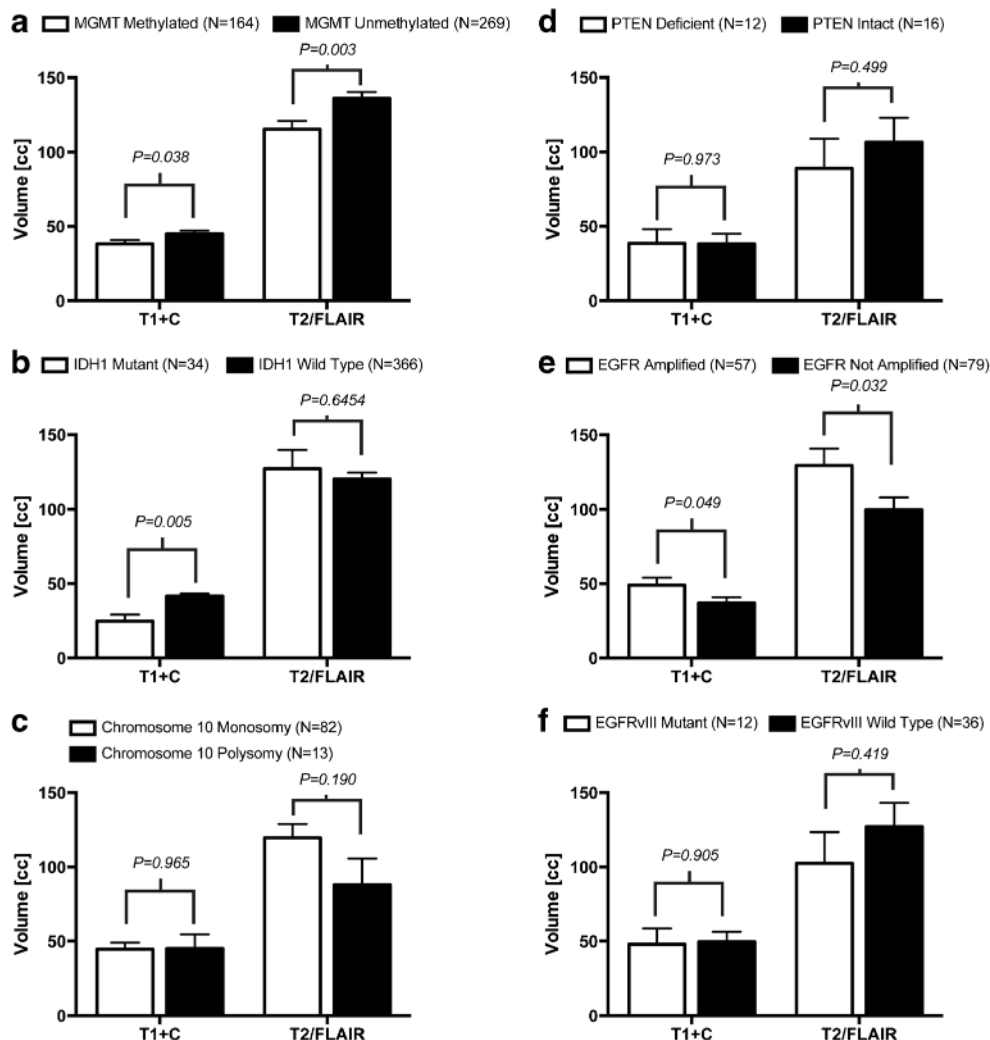
incomplete enhancing tumors, while contrast-enhancing tumors tended to have overexpression of genes associated with the hypoxia–angiogenesis–edema pathway in GBM, notably VEGF [45, 46] as well as matrix metalloproteinase-7 (MMP7), which is thought to be involved in the destruction of the extracellular matrix and tumor cell invasion [47]. Using similar radiographic descriptive features, Diehn et al. [38] confirmed these observations, showing that contrast-enhancing tumors had upregulated activity of the hypoxia module, consisting of VEGF, ADM, PLAUR, SERPINE1, and CA12 [48]. These investigators also noted a strong association between the presence of mass effect and a proliferation gene expression signature involving genes associated with proliferation and cell-cycle progression (TOPA, CDC2, and BUB1B) [49], suggesting that tumors with infiltrative nonenhancing tumor share gene expression programs with glial progenitors or CNS stem cells and genes associated with gliogenesis.

A study by Carrillo et al. [37] utilized the same feature set introduced by Pope et al. [12•] to describe the relationship between radiographic features, IDH1 mutational status, MGMT promoter methylation status, and clinical variables in 202 patients with GBM. Investigators noted that the amount of edema present in MR scans could further stratify survival in patients with MGMT methylated tumors, but this association was not present with unmethylated tumors. Additionally, investigators noted the same associations with IDH1 mutation status and predominance in the frontal lobe, as well as the association between lack of contrast enhancement and IDH1 status.

In an attempt to standardize the methodology relating to radiographic descriptive features for GBM, investigators at The Cancer Imaging Archive (TCIA) created the "VASARI" terminology [50, 51]. Largely drawing from the features presented earlier by Pope et al. [12•], the VASARI feature set consists of 24 radiological elements used to describe the morphology of brain tumors on routine contrast-enhanced T1-weighted images (see https://wiki.cancerimagingarchive.net/display/VASARI+Research+Project). Using the set of VASARI features, Colen et al. [52] found that tumors