

Feasibility of fluorescence-guided resection of recurrent gliomas using five-aminolevulinic acid: retrospective analysis of surgical and neurological outcome in 58 patients

Anne-Katrin Hickmann · Minou Nadji-Ohl ·
Nikolai J. Hopf

Received: 24 August 2014 / Accepted: 21 December 2014 / Published online: 4 January 2015
© Springer Science+Business Media New York 2015

Abstract Five-aminolevulinic-acid (5-ALA) is known for its benefits in surgery of primary gliomas, but has only been cautiously used in recurrent gliomas dreading over-resection, insufficient or false-positive fluorescence in adjuvantly treated tumors. We evaluated intraoperative fluorescence based on tumor pathology, pretreatment as well as surgical and neurological outcome in patients with recurrent gliomas. Patients who underwent fluorescence-guided surgery for recurrent gliomas between 6/2010 and 2/2014 at our institution were retrospectively selected. Degree of surgical resection, neurological status, pathology results, intraoperative fluorescence and follow up status were analyzed. Patients who underwent repeat surgery without 5-ALA were selected as controls. 58 patients with high grade gliomas (°III and °IV) were included. 10 of 63 tumors (15.9 %) failed to fluoresce intraoperatively of which nine (90 %) had been adjuvantly treated prior to recurrence, as were 46 of the 53 fluorescing tumors (86.8 %). Non-fluorescing tumors were IDH mutated significantly more often ($p = 0.005$). 30 tumors (47.6 %) were located eloquently. 51 (80.9 %) patients showed no new neurologic deficits postoperatively. 13 patients (20.6 %) showed no signs of recurrence at their latest follow up. Eight patients were lost to follow up. Overall survival was significantly longer in the 5-ALA group

($p = 0.025$). Fluorescence-guided surgery in recurrent gliomas is safe and allows for a good surgical and neurological outcome in a difficult surgical environment, especially when used in combination with neuronavigation and intraoperative ultrasound to prevent over-resection. Adjuvant therapy did not significantly influence fluorescing properties.

Keywords Five-aminolevulinic acid · Intraoperative fluorescence · Recurrent glioma · Repeat-surgery · Outcome · Controlled · Retrospective

Introduction

Recurrence is a matter of time when treating gliomas [1–4]. Reoperations may be beneficial for the course of the disease [3, 5–8], despite the increased risk of neurological deterioration [8]. During repeat surgeries, surgeons often have to face a different, sometimes more challenging environment due to scar tissue from previous surgeries and adjuvant treatment, distorted anatomical landmarks and even more diffuse tumor borders.

However, the goal of any surgery should be to remove the tumor completely while ensuring neurological integrity of the patient as this is known to improve survival and quality of life [2, 5, 8–13].

To visualize tumor borders intraoperative imaging such as ultrasound, intraoperative magnetic resonance imaging (iMRI) or computed tomography (iCT) can be of help [14–17]. Results of navigated transcranial magnetic stimulation (nTMS) can be incorporated into navigational systems [18–21] and electrophysiological monitoring should be used during the course of resection [22, 23] to maintain neurological integrity.

A.-K. Hickmann (✉) · M. Nadji-Ohl
Neurochirurgische Klinik, Klinikum Stuttgart,
Katharinenhospital, Kriegsbergstraße 60, 70174 Stuttgart,
Germany
e-mail: a.hickmann@klinikum-stuttgart.de

N. J. Hopf
NeuroChirurgicum, Zentrum für Endoskopische & Minimal
Invasive Neurochirurgie, Maybachstraße 50/Siemensstraße 28,
70469 Stuttgart, Germany

Furthermore five-aminolaevulinic acid (5-ALA) is known to aid in visualization of the tumor and its infiltration zone [24–27]. Even though its advantages for primary surgery have been studied and reported extensively, not much is known about previously treated tumors [28–30]. We therefore evaluated our patient population who underwent repeat glioma surgery using 5-ALA to investigate the safety and feasibility of 5-ALA-guided repeat surgery.

Methods

We retrospectively reviewed our surgical database and selected all patients who underwent repeat glioma surgery using 5-ALA between June 2010 and February 2014 at our institution. Their files were reviewed for pre- and postoperative neurological deficits, 5-ALA side effects, overall survival (OS), progression free survival (PFS), and histopathological grading. Images were analyzed for pre- and postoperative tumor volume (Volumetry, Navigation Software, Brainlab, Feldkirchen, Germany), and contrast enhancement. Surgical reports were reviewed for intraoperative fluorescence properties and extent of resection (EOR) as well as reasons for subtotal resection. Complete resection (CR) was defined according to the RANO-criteria [31]. Accordingly contrast enhancing tissue in enhancing/hyperintense tissue in non-enhancing tumors was measured with individually drawn regions of interest (ROIs) on pre- and postoperative images. The difference was defined as residual tumor. To evaluate the effect of EOR on PFS and OS a cutoff of 98 % was chosen [10]. Patients who underwent repeat glioma surgery without 5-ALA between January 2006 and February 2014 were identified as control group from the hospital's database. Their files were reviewed for OS, PFS and histopathological grading.

Statistical analysis [descriptive, Mann-Whitney-*U*-Test, Kruskal-Wallis-Test, Kaplan–Meier-Analysis (Log Rank, Breslow)] was performed using SPSS 20.0 (IBM Corp, worldwide). $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

This analysis was conducted in accordance with national law, institutional ethical standards and the Helsinki Declaration.

Results

Patients

63 repeat surgeries with 5-ALA were performed in 58 patients for recurrent gliomas between June 2010 and February 2014 (5-ALA group). 65 patients were selected for the control group (repeat surgery without 5-ALA, WHO

°III and °IV). Six patients survived more than 5 years after the index surgery ($n = 4$ WHO °III, $n = 2$ WHO °IV). Patient and tumor characteristics are listed in Table 1.

Intraoperative fluorescence

Positive fluorescence was seen in 53 of the 63 surgeries (84.1 %). Fluorescent tumors were significantly more often contrast-enhancing on MRI and more often Grad IV tumors (Table 2). No significant differences in fluorescent properties were seen when comparing tumors, which were adjuvantly treated after primary surgery versus no adjuvant treatment prior to recurrence and in tumors with secondary malignancy versus primary malignant tumors. Tumor characteristics of non-fluorescent tumors are listed in Table 3. All tumors with positive contrast enhancement on preoperative MRI and negative intraoperative fluorescence showed oligodendroglial differentiation ($n = 5$)/progressed from a tumor with oligodendroglial differentiation ($n = 1$). All, but one non-contrast enhancing, non-fluorescing tumors were oligodendroglial tumors ($n = 3$) (Table 3).

No significant difference in age and gender distribution was seen.

Surgical outcome

Resection of more than 98 % of tumor volume [10] was achieved in 36 surgeries (57.1 %). Tumors infiltrating eloquent areas (basal ganglia, corpus callosum, primary somatosensory cortex, speech-relevant areas) were intended for partial resection only. The overall mean EOR was 91.1 % (range 17.5–100 %). Mean tumor volume preoperatively was 21.8 cm³ (range 0.31–112.4 cm³). Postoperatively, tumor volume ranged from 0 to 56.9 cm³ (mean 3.4 cm³).

In cases with fluorescent tumors surgeons tended to achieve an EOR ≥ 98 % more often (58.5 vs. 50 %, $p = 0.622$) with smaller tumor remnants (Table 4). EOR ≥ 98 % was associated with a trend towards longer PFS and significantly increased OS (mean PFS 11.3 vs. 9.8 months, $p = 0.363$; mean OS 20.3 vs. 13.7 months, $p = 0.015$) as depicted in Fig. 1a, b (Breslow Test: $p = 0.042$). In a subgroup analysis based on tumor grading EOR only significantly improved OS in °IV tumors ($p = 0.019$).

In the group with EOR < 98 %, tumors tended to be eloquently located more often (59.3 vs. 38.9 %, $p = 0.112$).

CR of all fluorescent tissue was achieved in 34 surgeries (64.1 %) and associated with a significantly greater mean EOR (96.8 vs. 85.7 %, $p = 0.014$, range 70.6–100 vs. 17.5–100 %). However, preoperative tumor volume did also differ significantly as depicted in Table 4. Resection

Table 1 Patient and tumor characteristics

| | 5-ALA | | w/o 5-ALA | | |
|--|--------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-------|
| | n/mean | %/range | n/mean | %/range | |
| <i>Demographics</i> | | | | | |
| Patients total | 58 | | 63 | | |
| Surgeries total | 63 | | 65 | | |
| Male | 36 | 62.1 | 44 | 69.8 | |
| Female | 22 | 37.9 | 19 | 30.2 | |
| Age (years) | 50.3 | 26.3–75.3 | 47.8 | 26.3–75.3 | |
| <i>Follow up (FU)</i> | | | | | |
| FU period (months) | 16.2 | 0.7–50.7 | 22.1 | 0.6–93.4 | |
| LFU | 8 | 12.7 | 8 | 12.3 | |
| LFU after recurrence | 7 | 11.1 | 7 | 10.9 | |
| Death w/o FU-MRI | 3 | 4.8 | 4 | 6.2 | |
| No recurrence yet | 13 | 22.4 | 2 | 3.1 | |
| Survival >5 years | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9.2 | |
| <i>Imaging (5-ALA)</i> | | n/mean | %/range | | |
| Contrast-enhancement | | 55 | 84.1 | | |
| Tumor volume preop (cm ³) | | 21.8 | 0.3–112.4 | | |
| Tumor volume postop (cm ³) | | 3.6 | 0–56.9 | | |
| <i>Tumor localisation (5-ALA)</i> | | n | % | | |
| Frontal | | 25 | 39.7 | | |
| Temporal | | 16 | 25.4 | | |
| Parietal | | 13 | 20.6 | | |
| Central | | 6 | 9.5 | | |
| Occipital | | 3 | 4.8 | | |
| Eloquent | | 30 | 47.6 | | |
| <i>Histopathology</i> | | 5-ALA | | w/o 5-ALA | |
| | | n | % | n | % |
| WHO °III | | 38 | 60.3 | 21 | 32.3 |
| WHO °IV | | 25 | 39.7 | 44 | 67.7 |
| Glioblastoma multiforme (°IV) | | 38 | 60.3 | | |
| Oligoastrocytoma (°III) | | 9 | 14.3 | | |
| <i>Anaplastic Oligoastrocytoma</i> | | 8 | 12.7 | | |
| anapl. Oligodendroglioma (°III) | | 4 | 6.3 | | |
| anapl. Astrocytoma (°III) | | 12 | 19.0 | | |
| Secondary malignancy | | 20 | 31.7 | | |
| <i>Adjuvant treatment (5-ALA)</i> | | n | % | n | % |
| Adjuvant treatment before recurrence | | 55 | 87.3 | | |
| Stupp | | 15 | 23.8 | Cleopatra | 1 1.6 |
| Stupp+ ^a | | 11 | 17.5 | Centric | 2 3.2 |
| Radiation + chemotherapy ^b | | 5 | 7.9 | APG-101 | 1 1.6 |
| Temozolomide (TMZ) alone | | 8 | 12.7 | | |
| PCV + TMZ | | 1 | 1.6 | | |
| Radiation alone | | 6 | 9.5 | | |

Table 1 continued

| Adjuvant treatment (5-ALA) | n | % | n | % |
|----------------------------|---|-----|---|---|
| 39 Gy | 1 | 1.6 | | |
| 54 Gy | 5 | 7.9 | | |
| Multiple ^c | 5 | 7.9 | | |

w/o Without, FU follow up, LFU lost to follow up, MRI magnetic resonance imaging

^a Stupp-protocol with prolonged TMZ and/or intensified TMZ (one week on/one week off)

^b Radiation and chemotherapy other than TMZ

^c Multiple adjuvant treatment protocols (Radiation + PCV/ACNU/BCNU/TMZ) in various combinations

Table 2 Fluorescing and non-fluorescing tumors: characteristics based on intraoperative fluorescence

| | Fluorescent tumors | | Non fluorescent tumors | | p value |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|------|------------------------|-----|---------|
| | n | % | n | % | |
| | Contrast-enhancement on MRI | 49 | 92.5 | 6 | |
| No contrast-enhancement on MRI | 4 | 7.5 | 4 | 40 | |
| WHO °III | 17 | 31.1 | 8 | 80 | 0.005 |
| WHO °IV | 36 | 67.9 | 2 | 20 | |
| IDH mutation ^a | 24 | 51.1 | 10 | 100 | 0.005 |
| IDH wild-type ^a | 23 | 48.9 | 0 | 0 | |

^a Missing: n = 6

tended to be more complete in non-eloquently located tumors (eloquent vs. non-eloquent CR: 46.7 vs. 63.6 %, p = 0.179; mean EOR 89.4 vs. 94.2 %, p = 0.143).

CR of all fluorescent tissue was associated with a longer PFS (mean 11.5 vs. 7.8 months, p = 0.529) and OS (mean 19.9 vs. 13.5 months, p = 0.123). In the Kaplan–Meier-Analysis a significant increase in OS was seen for patients with CR of all fluorescent tissue (Log Rank: p = 0.038) (Fig. 1c, d). No significant difference in age and gender distribution was seen.

Neurological outcome

Thirty tumors (47.6 %) were located eloquently. All of these patients were operated on using continuous electrophysiological monitoring (MEP, SSEP), direct cortical stimulation (DCS) and neuronavigation with integrated functional data from preoperative nTMS. Three patients showed neurological improvement after surgery (4.8 %). New focal neurological deficits (nFND) were observed in 12 patients postoperatively (19.1 %). In 8 patients (15.1 %)

Table 3 Fluorescing and non-fluorescing tumors: characteristics of non-fluorescent tumors

| Patient | Sex | Age | Primary diagnosis | Repeat surgery | CE on MRI | Histopathology (primary) | Histopathology (recurrence) | Adjuvant treatment prior to repeat surgery w/5-ALA |
|---------|-----|-----|-------------------|----------------|-----------|--------------------------|---|---|
| P. H. | M | 53 | 1994 | 02/2011 | Yes | Oligoastrocytoma °III | Glioblastoma multiforme °IV | 2002 Radiation (54 Gy) 2009 Temozolomide 5/28 (6 cycles) 2010 Temozolomide 5/28 (7 cycles) 2010 ACNU (2 cycles) |
| G. K. | M | 31 | 2007 | 10/2011 | Yes | Oligodendroglioma °III | Anaplastic oligodendroglioma °III | 2007 PCV (4 cycles) 2010 Temozolomide 5/28 (12 cycles) |
| S. G. | M | 29 | 2010 | 01/2012 | No | Astrocytoma °III | Anaplastic astrocytoma °III | 2010 Temozolomide 5/28 (10 cycles) |
| A. M. | M | 49 | 2002 | 06/2012 | No | Oligoastrocytoma °II | Anaplastic oligoastrocytoma °III | 2002 Radiation (54 Gy) |
| S. D. | F | 32 | 2010 | 11/2012 | No | Astrocytoma °III | Anaplastic astrocytoma °III | 2010 Stupp protocol |
| R. D. | F | 60 | 1999 | 06/2013 | Yes | Astrocytoma °II | Glioblastoma multiforme °IV with oligodendroglial differentiation | 2000 Radiation (54 Gy) 2009 Temozolomide 5/28 (12 cycles) 2011 Stupp Protocol 2012 Temozolomide 5/28 (17 cycles) |
| G. K. | M | 62 | 2012 | 06/2013 | Yes | Oligodendroglioma °III | Anaplastic oligodendroglioma °III | 2012 Temozolomide 5/28 (7 cycles) |
| G. K. | M | 33 | 2007 | 06/2013 | Yes | Oligodendroglioma °III | Anaplastic oligodendroglioma °III | 2007 PCV (4 Cycles) 2010 Temozolomide 5/28 (12 cycles) 2011 Radiation (60 Gy) 2012 Temozolomide 5/28 (12 cycles, reduced dose) |
| C. Z. | M | 42 | 2009 | 10/2013 | No | Oligoastrocytoma °II | Anaplastic oligodendroglioma °III | No |
| P. C. | M | 27 | 2011 | 02/2014 | Yes | Oligoastrocytoma °III | Anaplastic oligoastrocytoma °III | 2011 Temozolomide 5/28 (6 cycles) |

Primary diagnosis ⇒ year of initial diagnosis, repeat surgery ⇒ month/year of index surgery

CE Contrast enhancement, MRI magnetic resonance imaging

Table 4 Surgical outcome

| | Positive fluorescence | Negative fluorescence | p value |
|---|--------------------------|---------------------------|---------|
| EOR ≥98 % [n/%] | 31/58.8 | 5/50 | 0.622 |
| Mean EOR [%] (range) | 92.8 (17.51–100) | 87.1 (32.19–100) | 0.42 |
| Mean tumor volume preop [cm ³] (range) | 22.0 (0.31–112.43) | 20.7 (3.56–81.03) | 0.88 |
| Mean tumor volume postop [cm ³] (range) | 2.9 (0–56.91) | 6.4 (1.2–25.8) | 0.47 |
| | CR of fluorescent tissue | ICR of fluorescent tissue | p value |
| Mean EOR [%] (range) | 96.8 (70.59–100) | 85.7 (17.51–100) | 0.014 |
| Mean tumor volume preop [cm ³] (range) | 16.4 (0.31–58.81) | 32.2 (0.86–112.43) | 0.012 |
| Mean tumor volume postop [cm ³] (range) | 1.1 (0–10.37) | 6.11 (0–56.91) | 0.016 |

EOR Extend of resection, CR complete resection, ICR incomplete resection

the deficits improved over time (n = 5 improvement within 7 days, 7.9 %), which results in only 4 patients (6.3 %) with permanent nFND. In all cases with nFND, the

tumor did fluoresce intraoperatively compared to 80.4 % fluorescing tumors in patients with no nFND (p = 0.097). There was no significant difference in nFND based on

fluorescence ($p = 0.097$). Patients with $^{\circ}$ IV-tumors tended to experience nFND more often (83.3 vs. 54.9 %, $p = 0.072$). With greater EOR nFND tended to occur more often (CR vs. incomplete resection: 20 vs. 17.9 %, $p = 0.831$). Patients with postoperative nFND tended to have lower PFS (mean 4.6 vs. 12.1 months, $p = 0.098$) and OS (mean 11.1 vs. 19 months, $p = 0.064$) as depicted in Fig. 1e, f. No significant difference in age and gender distribution was seen.

Influence of 5-ALA on survival

When excluding long term survivors (>5 years) to adjust for follow up, patients in the 5-ALA group had a similar mean PFS (10.7 vs. 10.6 months, $p = 0.4$) with a trend towards a longer OS (mean 17.6 vs. 14.6 months, $p = 0.26$). The Kaplan–Meier-Analysis (Log Rank) showed a significant influence of the use of 5-ALA during repeat surgery on OS ($p = 0.025$), while PFS was not significantly influenced ($p = 0.267$) (Fig. 1g, h).

Discussion

The value of 5-ALA in glioma surgery is well known and has been studied extensively [25–27, 32]. However, only little is known about its role in recurrent and adjuvantly treated gliomas [28–30].

This retrospective analysis of patients harboring recurrent gliomas showed, that 5-ALA is equally valuable in recurrent gliomas. In concordance with Tykocki et al. and Nabavi et al. we did not observe any negative influence of adjuvant therapies on the capability of 5-ALA in detecting tumor tissue [28, 30]. Tumor tissue could be distinguished well from scar tissue and surrounding edema under blue light in general according to the surgeons' impression, even though in 7 cases false positive fluorescence was observed when comparing intraoperative impression and postoperative MRI. Due to the retrospective character of this analysis and the fact that there were no separate histological samples available from the margins of fluorescing area, determination of the actual sensitivity and specificity in this series was not possible. However, the intraoperative impression was, that in several cases distinguishing tumor from surrounding scar tissue would not have been possible using white light only. In the majority of fluorescent tumors ($n = 30$, 56.6 %) further resection was performed after inspection under white light did not show residual tumor (Fig. 2). Additionally, since the surgeons switched from white to blue light intermittently during all surgeries, positive fluorescence could have assisted in achieving greater EOR throughout. Despite the positive intraoperative impression it has to be noted that there are limitations

as with all adjuncts. Even though only a minority showed no residual fluorescence at the end of white light resection, in 57 % of them tumor was left behind (Fig. 2).

Positive fluorescence improved the extent of resection (mean 92.8 vs. 87.1 %) with a significantly greater EOR in cases with CR of all fluorescent tissue compared to patients with residual fluorescent tissue (mean EOR 96.8 vs. 85.7 %, $p = 0.014$). Resection of all fluorescent tissue was also associated with a trend towards longer PFS and OS in this population (mean PFS 11.46 vs. 7.8 months, $p = 0.529$; mean OS 19.87 vs. 13.5 months, $p = 0.123$), whereby the difference in OS reached statistical significance in the survival analysis ($p = 0.038$) (Fig. 1d).

In accordance with previous studies [10, 12, 33] OS was significantly improved with greater EOR (EOR ≥ 98 vs. EOR < 98 %: 20.3 vs. 14.2 months, $p = 0.015$).

Overall median OS after index surgery (11.5 months) in this cohort of patients was better than that reported by other authors performing repeat surgeries [4–7], which might be due to the effect of 5-ALA on the EOR as well as improved multimodal adjuvant therapies. Furthermore when comparing patients who underwent repeat surgery with 5-ALA ($n = 63$) to historical controls ($n = 65$) at our institution a significant improvement of OS could be seen ($p = 0.025$), underlining the possible positive effect of 5-ALA on OS. But one has to keep in mind that options for adjuvant treatment have also changed over the past decade, which might improve OS as well.

Tumors with positive intraoperative fluorescence were significantly more often contrast-enhancing on preoperative MRI ($p = 0.005$) and more often $^{\circ}$ IV-tumors ($p = 0.005$). But preoperative contrast enhancement and tumor grade is no independent predictor for intraoperative fluorescence. Five contrast-enhancing tumors (50 % of all non fluorescent tumors) did not show any intraoperative fluorescence, as did two glioblastomas. The only similarity amongst all contrast-enhancing, non-fluorescing tumors was their oligodendroglial origin/differentiation (Table 3), which has not been described in that way before, even though others have found non-fluorescing tumor tissue in highly malignant contrast enhancing tumors [34] (necrosis, secondary malignancy). Additionally all non-enhancing tumors showed IDH-1- ($n = 8$) or IDH-2-mutations ($n = 2$), which might be associated with a different pattern of endothelial proliferation interfering with 5-ALA passing the blood–brain-barrier as suggested by Stummer et al. [34]. Further evidence of malignant cells behaving differently under blue light after exposure to 5-ALA was also given by Duffner et al. who were able to show different fluorescence intensity in different glioma stem cell lines in vitro [35].

Interestingly seven tumors with residual intraoperative fluorescence were completely resected based on

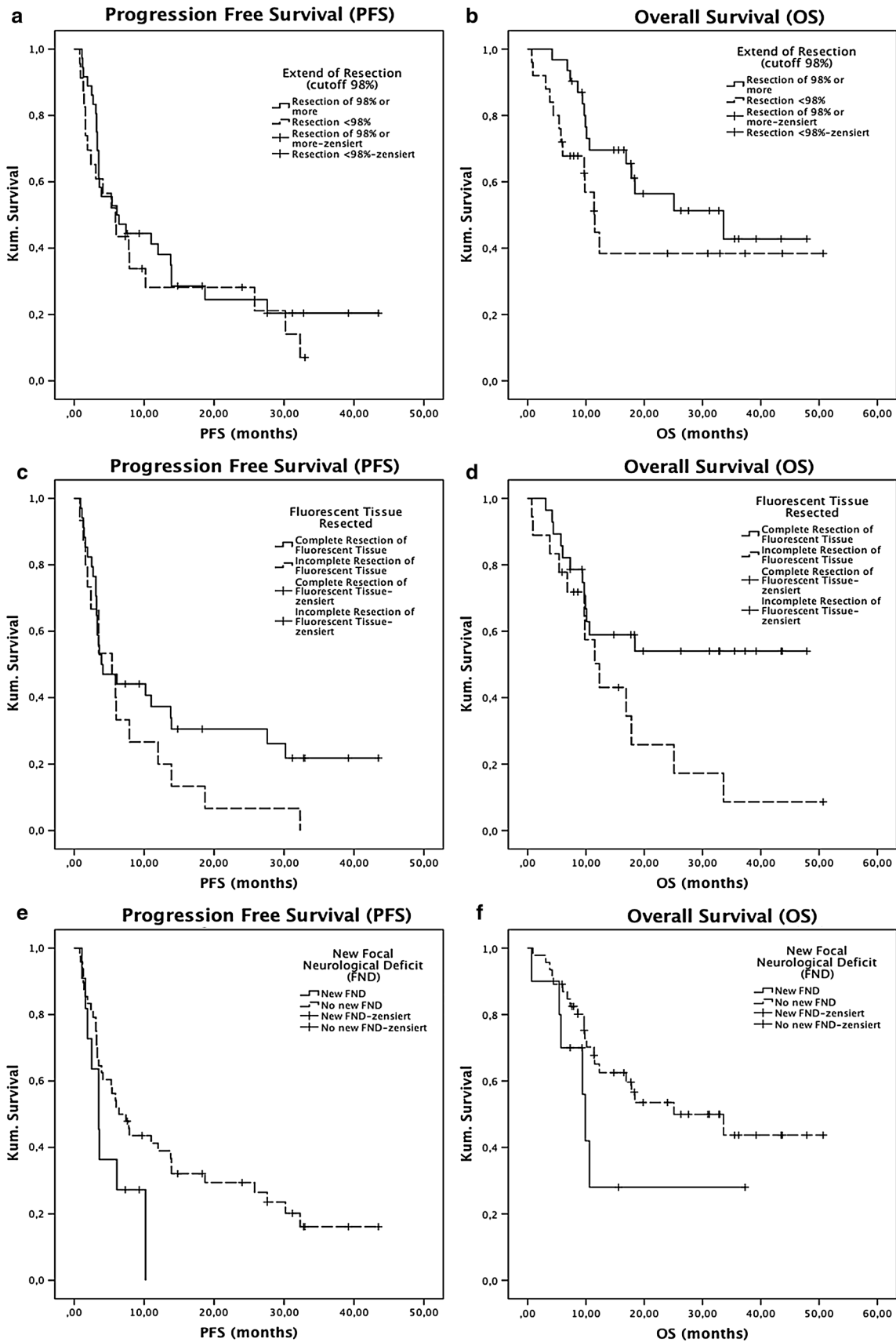
postoperative MRI [31] ($n = 1$ residual fluorescence in scar tissue, $n = 1$ residual fluorescence toward edematous tissue beyond contrast-enhancement on navigation, $n = 2$ residual fluorescence towards basal ganglia/CST, $n = 3$ residual ventricular wall fluorescence). Three of these patients had a longer PFS compared to the mean of the subgroup (patients with residual fluorescence) (mean 7.8 months, patients: 12, 13.9, 18.7 months) and four had a longer OS (mean 13.5 months, patients: 28.3, 25.1, 20.3, 16.9 months). These findings are in contrast to the assumption of possible early recurrence due to infiltrating tumor cells causing residual fluorescence undetected by gadolinium. However, Utsuki et al. and Panciani et al. were able to demonstrate that edema and scar tissue might show weak false positive fluorescence due to inflammation after radiation and leakage of 5-ALA [28, 36, 37]. Furthermore, auto-fluorescence of normal tissue may cause false positive fluorescence in rare cases [37]. The patient in our series survived 16.9 months after repeat surgery supporting the theory of false positive fluorescence. On the other hand adjuvant treatment (APG-101) [38, 39] may have prolonged survival. Without separate histological samples taken from the residual fluorescing area it remains unclear whether the cause was scar tissue or residual cells. Of three patients with residual fluorescence in the ventricular wall, 2 experienced a long PFS and OS (#1: 12, 28; #2: 18.7, 25.1 months) whereas the third patient showed early recurrence (1.6 months) and died quickly (5.9 months). This supports the theory of Tejada et al. who found residual ventricular wall fluorescence not to be an independent predictor for poor outcome, but periventricular tumor location itself [40]. One possible reason for residual ventricular wall fluorescence not being a predictor for fast progression or recurrence may be the presence of neuronal precursor cells in the subventricular zone, which show anti-tumoral activity [41] and may thus inhibit progression of possible residual tumor cell within the ventricular wall. The patient with rapid progression showed leptomeningeal tumor infiltration, which may have caused early recurrence and fast progression, rather than residual cells in the ventricular wall. Patients with residual fluorescence in eloquent areas (basal ganglia/CST) and within edematous appearing tissue showed early recurrence probably due to residual tumor cells undetected by postoperative MRI. Even though fluorescence was weak, it supports the theory of Utsuki et al. who recommend resection of all weakly fluorescing areas in recurrent glioma [36] and Stummer et al. who showed a PPV of 95 % of weakly fluorescing tissue [42].

Intraoperative resection of all fluorescent tissue was found to be associated with a significantly greater EOR (mean 96.8 %). However, it did not always correspond with CR on MRI (range 70.6–100 %). This is not plausible due

Fig. 1 Kaplan-Meier-Curves. **a** Progression free survival EOR ≥ 98 versus EOR < 98 % (Log Rank: $p = 0.411$, Breslow: $p = 0.376$), **b** overall survival EOR ≥ 98 versus EOR < 98 % (Log Rank: $p = 0.146$, Breslow: $p = 0.042$), **c** progression free survival: complete versus incomplete resection of all fluorescent tissue (Log Rank: $p = 0.154$, Breslow: $p = 0.425$), **d** overall survival: complete versus incomplete resection of all fluorescent tissue (Log Rank: $p = 0.038$, Breslow: $p = 0.153$), **e** progression free survival: new focal neurological deficit versus no new focal neurological deficit postoperatively, (Log Rank: $p = 0.097$, Breslow: $p = 0.175$), **f** overall survival: new focal neurological deficit versus no new focal neurological deficit postoperatively (Log Rank: $p = 0.106$, Breslow: $p = 0.097$), **g** progression free survival: surgery with 5-ALA versus surgery w/o 5-ALA (Log Rank: $p = 0.154$, Breslow: $p = 0.425$), **h** overall survival: surgery with 5-ALA versus surgery w/o 5-ALA (Log Rank: $p = 0.038$, Breslow: $p = 0.153$)

to the biological mechanism of 5-ALA, the diffuse infiltrating tumor architecture and is in contrast to the findings by Coburger et al. [43]. It may be caused by hidden fluorescent tissue covered by blood or non-infiltrating, overhanging margins after partial resection and collapse of the surrounding tissue [34, 44, 45]. Furthermore, inadequate illumination with blue light of the resection cavity due to a small corticotomy as routinely performed at our institution may have led to false negative fluorescence [45]. Another reason may be photo bleaching, although not of great relevance in brightly fluorescing tumor tissue [45, 46], it may have been responsible for fading of fluorescence particularly in weakly-fluorescing areas (infiltration zones) as described in early publications by Stummer et al. [34] and Tonn et al. [45]. Since the extent of resected fluorescent tissue was based on the surgeon's impression at the end of the surgery, there may have been a bias concerning CR. When reviewing the surgical reports it was also noted that the surgeons often reported more inhomogeneous fluorescence in recurrent and adjuvantly treated tumors than in primary gliomas [28], which may have led to missing of weakly fluorescing tissue.

In 6.3 % of all cases ($n = 4$) a permanent nFND was noted postoperatively with 47.4 % eloquently located tumors. The overall rate of nFND was 19.1 % ($n = 12$), which is comparable to the neurological complication rates reported by others (8.2–18 %) [8, 47] after repeat glioma surgery. In accordance with others we believe from our results that the advantages of operating with 5-ALA can be used in eloquently located tumors as long as a good functional outcome is a major goal of surgery and attempted by using continuous intraoperative electrophysiological monitoring [48, 49]. Functional borders should be respected even though residual fluorescent tissue may be left behind (Fig. 2). In accordance with others good neurological outcome is relevant for PFS (mean 12.1 vs. 4.6 months, $p = 0.098$) and OS (mean 19 vs. 11.1 months, $p = 0.064$) [8, 11, 12]. Patients with partially resected fluorescent tissue show longer PFS (mean 7.8 vs. 4.6 months) and OS (mean



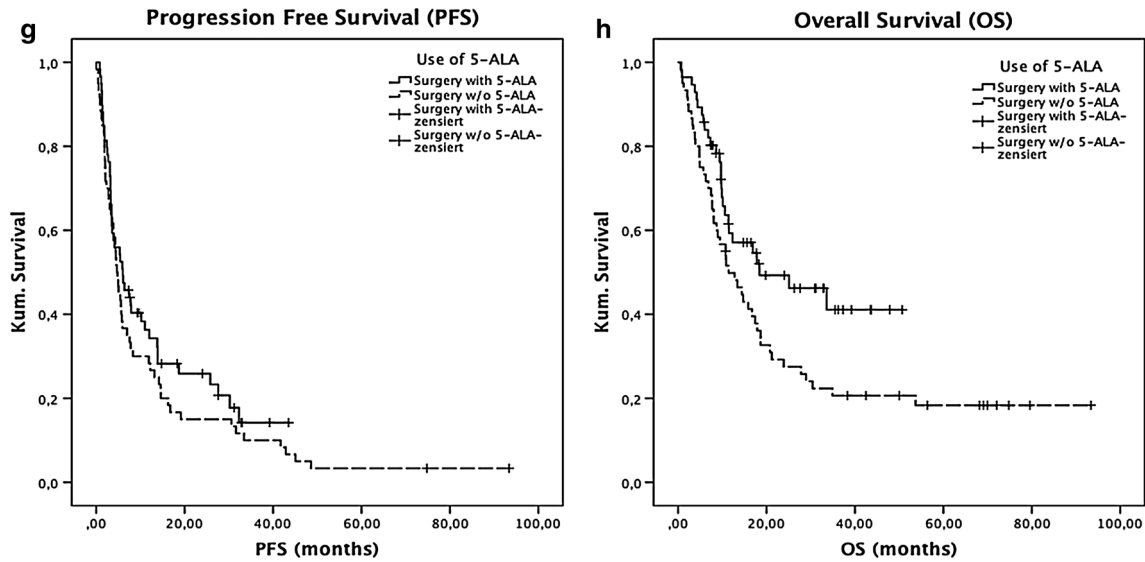


Fig. 1 continued

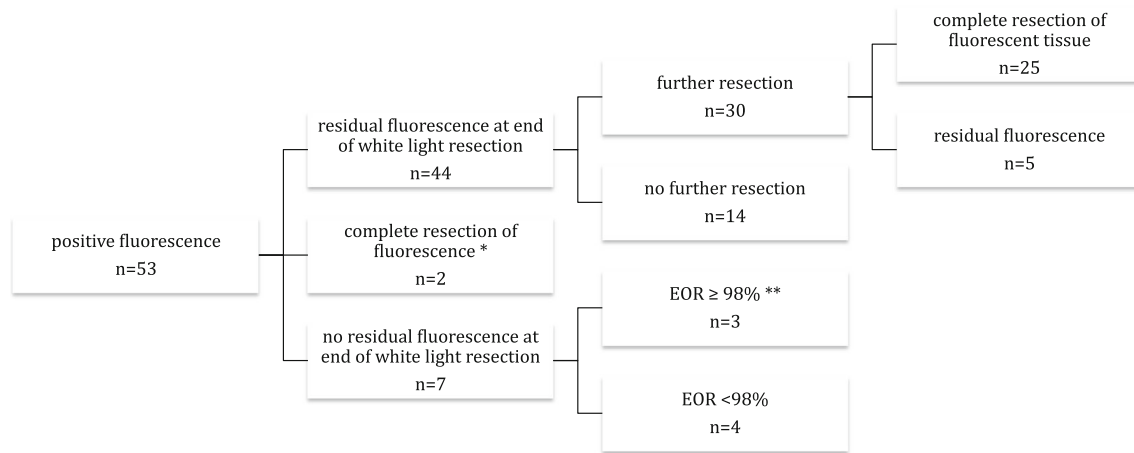


Fig. 2 Influence of Fluorescence on EOR. Asterisk No detailed information available comparing white light EOR and EOR based on fluorescence, according to surgeon 5-ALA of help during resection.

Double asterisk 5-ALA of some help during surgery for more secure distinction of tumor and surrounding tissue

13.5 vs. 11.1 months) than patients with nFND underlining the statement by Hoover et al. that benefits of repeat surgery are lost if neurological complications occur [8]. Furthermore, quality of life is known to be better in patients with good physical and attention performances and should therefore be preserved as long as possible [12, 50]. Patients have to be carefully selected prior to offering repeat surgery based on tumor location and preoperative neurological status. Even partial resection may be beneficial to patients with a large tumor, edema and associated neurological deficits. In this series 3 patients showed neurological improvement due to reduction of tumor volume and decreasing edema.

Even though this is the largest series evaluating the impact of 5-ALA on outcome following surgeries for recurrent gliomas [28–30], the patient sample is probably still too small to

allow for most of our results to be of statistical significance. Furthermore, the retrospective character of this study did not ensure standardized description of intraoperative fluorescence and separate histopathological evaluation of areas with inhomogeneous or residual fluorescence.

Conclusion

The use of 5-ALA in repeat glioma surgery is feasible despite adjuvant treatment (radiation, chemotherapy). It aids in achieving a greater EOR, which prolongs PFS and OS. It aids in differentiating tumor and surrounding tissue altered by adjuvant treatment.

It is safe even in eloquently located tumors if neurologic function is continuously monitored and respected during the resection.

Conflict of interest The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

- Martinez-Carrillo M, Tovar-Martin I, Zurita-Herrera M, Del Moral-Avila R, Guerrero-Tejada R, Saura-Rojas E, Osorio-Ceballos JL, Arrebola-Moreno JP, Exposito-Hernandez J (2014) Salvage radiosurgery for selected patients with recurrent malignant gliomas. *Biomed Res Int* 2014:657953. doi:10.1155/2014/657953
- Wen PY, Kesari S (2008) Malignant gliomas in adults. *N Engl J Med* 359(5):492–507. doi:10.1056/NEJMra0708126
- Hong B, Wiese B, Bremer M, Heissler HE, Heidenreich F, Krauss JK, Nakamura M (2013) Multiple microsurgical resections for repeated recurrence of glioblastoma multiforme. *Am J Clin Oncol* 36(3):261–268. doi:10.1097/COC.0b013e3182467bb1
- Park JK, Hodges T, Arko L, Shen M, Dello Iacono D, McNabb A, Olsen Bailey N, Kreisl TN, Iwamoto FM, Sul J, Auh S, Park GE, Fine HA, Black PM (2010) Scale to predict survival after surgery for recurrent glioblastoma multiforme. *J Clin Oncol* 28(24):3838–3843. doi:10.1200/JCO.2010.30.0582
- Barker FG 2nd, Chang SM, Gutin PH, Malec MK, McDermott MW, Prados MD, Wilson CB (1998) Survival and functional status after resection of recurrent glioblastoma multiforme. *Neurosurgery* 42(4):709–720 discussion 720–703
- Dirks P, Bernstein M, Muller PJ, Tucker WS (1993) The value of reoperation for recurrent glioblastoma. *Can J Surg* 36(3):271–275
- Harsh GR 4th, Levin VA, Gutin PH, Seager M, Silver P, Wilson CB (1987) Reoperation for recurrent glioblastoma and anaplastic astrocytoma. *Neurosurgery* 21(5):615–621
- Hoover JM, Nwojo M, Puffer R, Mandrekar J, Meyer FB, Parney IF (2013) Surgical outcomes in recurrent glioma: clinical article. *J Neurosurg* 118(6):1224–1231. doi:10.3171/2013.2.JNS121731
- Osoba D, Brada M, Prados MD, Yung WK (2000) Effect of disease burden on health-related quality of life in patients with malignant gliomas. *Neuro-Oncology* 2(4):221–228
- Lacroix M, Abi-Said D, Fournay DR, Gokaslan ZL, Shi W, DeMonte F, Lang FF, McCutcheon IE, Hassenbusch SJ, Holland E, Hess K, Michael C, Miller D, Sawaya R (2001) A multivariate analysis of 416 patients with glioblastoma multiforme: prognosis, extent of resection, and survival. *J Neurosurg* 95(2):190–198. doi:10.3171/jns.2001.95.2.0190
- Gulati S, Jakola AS, Nerland US, Weber C, Solheim O (2011) The risk of getting worse: surgically acquired deficits, perioperative complications, and functional outcomes after primary resection of glioblastoma. *World Neurosurg* 76(6):572–579. doi:10.1016/j.wneu.2011.06.014
- Chambless LTC (2013) Innovations in the surgical treatment of gliomas. *Innovative Neurosurg* 1(3–4):137–143. doi:10.1515/ins-2013-0013
- McGirt MJ, Mukherjee D, Chaichana KL, Than KD, Weingart JD, Quinones-Hinojosa A (2009) Association of surgically acquired motor and language deficits on overall survival after resection of glioblastoma multiforme. *Neurosurgery* 65(3):463–469. doi:10.1227/01.NEU.0000349763.42238.E9 discussion 469–470
- Renovanz M, Hickmann AK, Henkel C, Nadji-Ohl M, Hopf NJ (2014) Navigated versus non-navigated intraoperative ultrasound: is there any impact on the extent of resection of high-grade gliomas? A retrospective clinical analysis. *J Neurol Surg A Cent Eur Neurosurg* 75(3):224–230. doi:10.1055/s-0033-1356486
- Ginat DT, Swearingen B, Curry W, Cahill D, Madsen J, Schaefer PW (2014) 3 Tesla intraoperative MRI for brain tumor surgery. *J Magn Reson Imaging* 39(6):1357–1365
- Schulz C, Waldeck S, Mauer UM (2012) Intraoperative image guidance in neurosurgery: development, current indications, and future trends. *Radiol Res Pract* 2012:197364. doi:10.1155/2012/197364
- Grunert P, Muller-Forell W, Darabi K, Reisch R, Busert C, Hopf N, Perneczky A (1998) Basic principles and clinical applications of neuronavigation and intraoperative computed tomography. *Comput Aided Surg* 3(4):166–173. doi:10.1002/(SICI)1097-0150(1998)3:4<166:AID-IGS6>3.0.CO;2-E
- Frey D, Schilt S, Strack V, Zdunczyk A, Rosler J, Niraula B, Vajkoczy P, Picht T (2014) Navigated transcranial magnetic stimulation improves the treatment outcome in patients with brain tumors in motor eloquent locations. *Neuro-Oncol*. doi:10.1093/neuonc/nou110
- Rosler J, Niraula B, Strack V, Zdunczyk A, Schilt S, Savolainen P, Lioumis P, Makela J, Vajkoczy P, Frey D, Picht T (2014) Language mapping in healthy volunteers and brain tumor patients with a novel navigated TMS system: evidence of tumor-induced plasticity. *Clin Neurophysiol* 125(3):526–536. doi:10.1016/j.clinph.2013.08.015
- Coburger J, Musahl C, Henkes H, Horvath-Rizea D, Bittl M, Weissbach C, Hopf N (2013) Comparison of navigated transcranial magnetic stimulation and functional magnetic resonance imaging for preoperative mapping in rolandic tumor surgery. *Neurosurg Rev* 36(1):65–75. doi:10.1007/s10143-012-0413-2 discussion 75–66
- Krieg SM, Sabih J, Bulubasova L, Obermueller T, Negwer C, Janssen I, Shiban E, Meyer B, Ringel F (2014) Preoperative motor mapping by navigated transcranial magnetic brain stimulation improves outcome for motor eloquent lesions. *Neuro-Oncol*. doi:10.1093/neuonc/nou007
- De Witt Hamer PC, Robles SG, Zwinderman AH, Duffau H, Berger MS (2012) Impact of intraoperative stimulation brain mapping on glioma surgery outcome: a meta-analysis. *J Clin Oncol* 30(20):2559–2565. doi:10.1200/JCO.2011.38.4818
- Duffau H (2013) Brain mapping in tumors: intraoperative or extraoperative? *Epilepsia* 54(9):79–83. doi:10.1111/epi.12449
- Stummer W, Nestler U, Stockhammer F, Krex D, Kern BC, Mehdorn HM, Vince GH, Pichlmeier U (2011) Favorable outcome in the elderly cohort treated by concomitant temozolomide radiochemotherapy in a multicentric phase II safety study of 5-ALA. *J Neurooncol* 103(2):361–370. doi:10.1007/s11060-010-0400-9
- Stummer W, Novotny A, Stepp H, Goetz C, Bise K, Reulen HJ (2000) Fluorescence-guided resection of glioblastoma multiforme by using 5-aminolevulinic acid-induced porphyrins: a prospective study in 52 consecutive patients. *J Neurosurg* 93(6):1003–1013. doi:10.3171/jns.2000.93.6.1003
- Stummer W, Reulen HJ, Meinel T, Pichlmeier U, Schumacher W, Tonn JC, Rohde V, Oettel F, Turowski B, Woiciechowsky C, Franz K, Pietsch T, Group AL-GS (2008) Extent of resection and survival in glioblastoma multiforme: identification of and adjustment for bias. *Neurosurgery* 62(3):564–576. doi:10.1227/01.neu.0000317304.31579.17 discussion 564–576
- Stummer W, Pichlmeier U, Meinel T, Wiestler OD, Zanella F, Reulen HJ, Group AL-GS (2006) Fluorescence-guided surgery with 5-aminolevulinic acid for resection of malignant glioma: a randomised controlled multicentre phase III trial. *Lancet Oncol* 7(5):392–401. doi:10.1016/S1470-2045(06)70665-9
- Nabavi A, Thurm H, Zountsas B, Pietsch T, Lanfermann H, Pichlmeier U, Mehdorn M, Group ALARGS (2009) Five-

- aminolevulinic acid for fluorescence-guided resection of recurrent malignant gliomas: a phase ii study. *Neurosurgery* 65(6):1070–1076. doi:[10.1227/01.NEU.0000360128.03597.C7](https://doi.org/10.1227/01.NEU.0000360128.03597.C7) discussion 1076–1077
29. Wachter D, Kallenberg K, Wrede A, Schulz-Schaeffer W, Behm T, Rohde V (2012) Fluorescence-guided operation in recurrent glioblastoma multiforme treated with bevacizumab-fluorescence of the noncontrast enhancing tumor tissue? *J Neurol Surg A Cent Eur Neurosurg* 73(6):401–406. doi:[10.1055/s-0032-1304810](https://doi.org/10.1055/s-0032-1304810)
 30. Tykocki T, Michalik R, Bonicki W, Nauman P (2012) Fluorescence-guided resection of primary and recurrent malignant gliomas with 5-aminolevulinic acid. Preliminary results. *Neurol Neurochir Pol* 46(1):47–51
 31. Vogelbaum MA, Jost S, Aghi MK, Heimberger AB, Sampson JH, Wen PY, Macdonald DR, Van den Bent MJ, Chang SM (2012) Application of novel response/progression measures for surgically delivered therapies for gliomas: Response Assessment in Neuro-Oncology (RANO) Working Group. *Neurosurgery* 70(1):234–243. doi:[10.1227/NEU.0b013e318223f5a7](https://doi.org/10.1227/NEU.0b013e318223f5a7)
 32. Sanai N (2012) Emerging operative strategies in neurosurgical oncology. *Curr Opin Neurol* 25(6):756–766. doi:[10.1097/WCO.0b013e32835a2574](https://doi.org/10.1097/WCO.0b013e32835a2574)
 33. Aldave G, Tejada S, Pay E, Marigil M, Bejarano B, Idoate MA, Diez-Valle R (2013) Prognostic value of residual fluorescent tissue in glioblastoma patients after gross total resection in 5-aminolevulinic acid-guided surgery. *Neurosurgery* 72(6):915–920. doi:[10.1227/NEU.0b013e31828c3974](https://doi.org/10.1227/NEU.0b013e31828c3974) discussion 920–911
 34. Stummer W, Stocker S, Wagner S, Stepp H, Fritsch C, Goetz C, Goetz AE, Kiefmann R, Reulen HJ (1998) Intraoperative detection of malignant gliomas by 5-aminolevulinic acid-induced porphyrin fluorescence. *Neurosurgery* 42(3):518–525 discussion 525–516
 35. Duffner F, Ritz R, Freudenstein D, Weller M, Dietz K, Wessels J (2005) Specific intensity imaging for glioblastoma and neural cell cultures with 5-aminolevulinic acid-derived protoporphyrin IX. *J Neurooncol* 71(2):107–111. doi:[10.1007/s11060-004-9603-2](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11060-004-9603-2)
 36. Utsuki S, Oka H, Sato S, Shimizu S, Suzuki S, Tanizaki Y, Kondo K, Miyajima Y, Fujii K (2007) Histological examination of false positive tissue resection using 5-aminolevulinic acid-induced fluorescence guidance. *Neurol Med Chir* 47(5):210–213 discussion 213–214
 37. Panciani PP, Fontanella M, Garbossa D, Agnoletti A, Ducati A, Lanotte M (2012) 5-aminolevulinic acid and neuronavigation in high-grade glioma surgery: results of a combined approach. *Neurocirugia* 23(1):23–28. doi:[10.1016/j.neucir.2012.04.003](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neucir.2012.04.003)
 38. Health USNIo (2010) APG101 in Glioblastoma. <http://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/results/NCT01071837>
 39. Wick W, Weller M, Weiler M, Batchelor T, Yung AW, Platten M (2011) Pathway inhibition: emerging molecular targets for treating glioblastoma. *Neuro-Oncol* 13(6):566–579. doi:[10.1093/neuonc/nor039](https://doi.org/10.1093/neuonc/nor039)
 40. Tejada-Solis S, Aldave-Orzaiz G, Pay-Valverde E, Marigil-Sanchez M, Idoate-Gastarena MA, Diez-Valle R (2012) Prognostic value of ventricular wall fluorescence during 5-aminolevulinic-guided surgery for glioblastoma. *Acta Neurochir* 154(11):1997–2002. doi:[10.1007/s00701-012-1475-1](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00701-012-1475-1) discussion 2002
 41. Walzlein JH, Synowitz M, Engels B, Markovic DS, Gabrusiewicz K, Nikolaev E, Yoshikawa K, Kaminska B, Kempermann G, Uckert W, Kaczmarek L, Kettenmann H, Glass R (2008) The antitumorigenic response of neural precursors depends on sub-ventricular proliferation and age. *Stem Cells* 26(11):2945–2954. doi:[10.1634/stemcells.2008-0307](https://doi.org/10.1634/stemcells.2008-0307)
 42. Stummer W, Tonn JC, Goetz C, Ullrich W, Stepp H, Bink A, Pietsch T, Pichlmeier U (2014) 5-Aminolevulinic acid-derived tumor fluorescence: the diagnostic accuracy of visible fluorescence qualities as corroborated by spectrometry and histology and postoperative imaging. *Neurosurgery* 74(3):310–319. doi:[10.1227/NEU.0000000000000267](https://doi.org/10.1227/NEU.0000000000000267) discussion 319–320
 43. Coburger J, Engelke J, Scheuerle A, Thal DR, Hlavac M, Wirtz CR, Konig R (2014) Tumor detection with 5-aminolevulinic acid fluorescence and Gd-DTPA-enhanced intraoperative MRI at the border of contrast-enhancing lesions: a prospective study based on histopathological assessment. *Neurosurg Focus* 36(2):E3. doi:[10.3171/2013.11.FOCUS13463](https://doi.org/10.3171/2013.11.FOCUS13463)
 44. Stummer W, Stepp H, Moller G, Ehrhardt A, Leonhard M, Reulen HJ (1998) Technical principles for protoporphyrin-IX-fluorescence guided microsurgical resection of malignant glioma tissue. *Acta Neurochir (Wien)* 140(10):995–1000
 45. Tonn JC, Stummer W (2008) Fluorescence-guided resection of malignant gliomas using 5-aminolevulinic acid: practical use, risks, and pitfalls. *Clin Neurosurg* 55:20–26
 46. Stummer W (2013) The Fear of 5-ALA—Is it warranted? *World Neurosurg*. doi:[10.1016/j.wneu.2013.09.048](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wneu.2013.09.048)
 47. Chang SM, Parney IF, McDermott M, Barker FG 2nd, Schmidt MH, Huang W, Laws ER Jr, Lillehei KO, Bernstein M, Brem H, Sloan AE, Berger M, Glioma Outcomes Investigators (2003) Perioperative complications and neurological outcomes of first and second craniotomies among patients enrolled in the Glioma Outcome Project. *J Neurosurg* 98(6):1175–1181. doi:[10.3171/jns.2003.98.6.1175](https://doi.org/10.3171/jns.2003.98.6.1175)
 48. Feigl GC, Ritz R, Moraes M, Klein J, Ramina K, Gharabaghi A, Krischek B, Danz S, Bornemann A, Liebsch M, Tatagiba MS (2010) Resection of malignant brain tumors in eloquent cortical areas: a new multimodal approach combining 5-aminolevulinic acid and intraoperative monitoring. *J Neurosurg* 113(2):352–357. doi:[10.3171/2009.10.JNS09447](https://doi.org/10.3171/2009.10.JNS09447)
 49. Della Puppa A, De Pellegrin S, d'Avella E, Gioffre G, Rossetto M, Gerardi A, Lombardi G, Manara R, Munari M, Saladini M, Scienza R (2013) 5-aminolevulinic acid (5-ALA) fluorescence guided surgery of high-grade gliomas in eloquent areas assisted by functional mapping. Our experience and review of the literature. *Acta Neurochir* 155(6):965–972. doi:[10.1007/s00701-013-1660-x](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00701-013-1660-x) discussion 972
 50. Giovagnoli AR, Silvani A, Colombo E, Boiardi A (2005) Facets and determinants of quality of life in patients with recurrent high grade glioma. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 76(4):562–568. doi:[10.1136/jnnp.2004.036186](https://doi.org/10.1136/jnnp.2004.036186)