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# Evaluation of response to treatment using DCE-MRI: the relationship between initial area under the gadolinium curve (IAUGC) and quantitative pharmacokinetic analysis

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#### Abstract

The initial area under the gadolinium curve (IAUGC) is often used in addition to or as an alternative to parameters derived from pharmacokinetic modelling of  $T_1$ -weighted dynamic contrast-enhanced (DCE) MRI data in the assessment of response to treatment of cancer. However, the physiological meaning of the IAUGC has not been rigorously defined with respect to model-based parameters. Here, simulations of DCE-MRI data were used to investigate the relationship between IAUGC and the parameters  $K^{\text{trans}}$  (transfer constant),  $v_e$  (fractional extravascular extracellular volume) and  $v_p$  (fractional plasma volume), using two vascular input functions. It is shown that IAUGC is a mixed parameter that can display correlation with  $K^{\text{trans}}$ ,  $v_e$  and  $v_p$  and ultimately has an intractable relationship with all three. Furthermore, it is demonstrated that the range over which IAUGC is taken and the nature of the vascular input function do not significantly affect this relationship.

#### Introduction

A recent workshop report (Leach *et al* 2003) made recommendations on the use of MRI methods to assess anti-angiogenic and anti-vascular drugs to treat cancer. An emphasis was placed on the use of dynamic contrast-enhanced (DCE) MRI measurements, which included advice on the use of 'quantitative' and 'semi-quantitative' parameters. The former includes parameters such as the vascular transfer constant ( $K^{\text{trans}}$ ) and extra-vascular extra-cellular space ( $v_e$ ), whereas examples of the latter include the initial area under the gadolinium curve (IAUGC), peak enhancement and initial wash-in gradient. The terms 'semi-quantitative' and 'quantitative' can be misleading, as 'semi-quantitative' parameters can be fully quantitative, in that they can be measured objectively and reproducibly. The distinction between parameters

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such as IAUGC and model-based parameters tends to be the latent dependency of nonmodel-based parameters on physiological processes. Yet this division can also be blurred if a physiological basis for these measures were to be deduced. For these reasons, the terms 'model-based' and 'non-model-based' shall be employed in place of 'quantitative' and 'semiquantitative'. Furthermore, the term 'pharmacokinetic analysis' will refer to the iterative fitting of a model function with parameters based on known physiological processes.

Therapeutic response due to anti-cancer drugs is usually assessed using sequential measurements. One or more baseline measurements are acquired followed by post-treatment measurements. A number of studies have investigated the correlation between the magnitude of change of model-based parameters following therapy and clinical response criteria or drug retention (Su et al 2002, Baba et al 1997, Padhani et al 2001, Morgan et al 2003, Jayson et al 2002), VEGF expression in osteosarcoma (Hoang et al 2004) and prostate tumour stage (Padhani et al 2000). However, in order to avoid some of the challenges associated with pharmacokinetic modelling (such as computational expense, post-processing inaccuracies, fit failures, etc), non-model-based parameters are often used in addition to or in place of modelbased parameters (Hawighorst et al 1999, Galbraith et al 2002, Leach et al 2005, Evelhoch 1999). Changes in IAUGC and other non-model-based measures (such as peak enhancement, wash-in gradient, etc) have been shown to correlate with tumour regression rate in cervical carcinoma during radiotherapy (Gong et al 1999) and both the staging (Padhani et al 2000) and the discrimination of prostate cancer from normal tissue (Engelbrecht et al 2003). However, the biological relevance of many commonly used non-model-based parameters has not been defined, thereby limiting the interpretation of their absolute values or relative variations in terms of the underlying physiology. Evelhoch et al suggested that IAUGC relates to blood flow, vascular permeability and the fraction of interstitial space, but did not qualify the nature of this relationship. Parker and Buckley (2005) state that IAUGC is a 'measure of the amount of contrast agent delivered to and retained within the tumour within the stated time period', which amounts to the definition. Furthermore, studies in vivo have suggested a strong correlation between IAUGC and fraction of interstitial space (Walker et al 2003). With the widespread clinical use of IAUGC in mind, it is clear that the relationship between IAUGC and the physiological mechanisms of contrast enhancement must be more clearly defined.

The current study therefore aimed to characterize the relationship between IAUGC and model-based parameters. As no gold standard *in vivo* measurement of the model-based parameters in question exists, this analysis was performed numerically using simulated DCE-MRI data. There is much debate regarding the suitability of various estimates of the plasma Gd-DTPA concentration used in pharmacokinetic analysis (Harrer *et al* 2004), so two different vascular input functions (VIFs) were used in the analysis. Furthermore, a range of temporal periods over which the IAUGC should be calculated have been reported (Leach *et al* 2003). Three temporal ranges were therefore evaluated in this study.

### **Theoretical background**

Dynamic contrast-enhanced (DCE) MRI is frequently used in a clinical setting to monitor the passage of a bolus of a contrast agent such as Gd-DTPA through the body. The presence of contrast agent *in vivo* induces an increase in the longitudinal relaxation rate  $(R_1 = 1/T_1)$  of water in proportion to the concentration of the contrast agent, resulting in an increase in the signal intensity measured using a suitably weighted acquisition sequence. Gd-DTPA is able to traverse the vascular endothelium and enter the extracellular extravascular space (EES), but is unable to cross the cellular membrane, so provides a mechanism by which the dynamics of exchange between the capillary bed and the EES can be evaluated.

The pharmacokinetics of Gd-DTPA *in vivo* are usually modelled as a two-compartment system, consisting of the vascular space and the EES. Tissue contrast agent concentration,  $C_t$ , as a function of time, *t*, is modelled using the modified Kety equation (Tofts *et al* 1999):

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}C_t(t)}{\mathrm{d}t} = K^{\mathrm{trans}}C_\mathrm{p}(t) - k_\mathrm{ep}C_t(t). \tag{1}$$

This characterizes exchange from the vasculature into the EES and back from the EES in to the vasculature with the rate constants  $K^{\text{trans}}$  and  $k_{\text{ep}}$ , respectively. It requires an estimate of the blood plasma contrast agent concentration,  $C_{\text{p}}$ , which is often referred to as the vascular input function (VIF). The most general definition of K<sup>trans</sup> is

$$K^{\text{trans}} = (1 - e^{-PS/F(1 - \text{Hct})})F\rho(1 - \text{Hct}),$$
(2)

where *PS* is the permeability surface area product per unit mass of tissue (ml min<sup>-1</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>), *F* is the flow of blood per unit mass of tissue (ml min<sup>-1</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>), Hct is the haematocrit fraction and  $\rho$  is the tissue density (g ml<sup>-1</sup>).

Most models used to analyse DCE-MRI data are derived from the modified Kety equation. One of the most widely used is the Tofts and Kermode model, which assumes that  $C_p$  can be characterized by a bi-exponential decay of the form

$$C_{\rm p}(t) = D(a_1 \,\mathrm{e}^{-m_1 t} + a_2 \,\mathrm{e}^{-m_2 t}),\tag{3}$$

where  $a_1$  and  $m_1$  relate to exchange between blood plasma and the EES throughout the whole body and  $a_2$  and  $m_2$  relate to the slower extraction rate by the kidneys (Tofts and Kermode 1991). A standard set of  $a_i$  and  $m_i$  is usually used in the Tofts and Kermode model, which were derived from studies of Gd-DTPA *in vivo* (Tofts and Kermode 1991, Weinmann *et al* 1984).

If equation (3) is substituted into equation (1), the following solution can be derived (Tofts and Kermode 1991), which constitutes the Tofts and Kermode model:

$$C_t(t) = DK^{\text{trans}} \sum_{i=0}^2 a_i \frac{(e^{-k_{\text{ep}}t} - e^{-m_1 t})}{m_i - k_{\text{ep}}}.$$
(4)

The fractional size of the EES,  $v_e$ , can be calculated from parameters in the Tofts and Kermode model by the simple relationship  $v_e = K^{\text{trans}}/k_{ep}$ . A criticism of the Tofts and Kermode model is its assumption of negligible blood plasma fraction,  $v_p$ . An extra term can be added to equation (4) to take this into account, resulting in the extended Tofts and Kermode model (Tofts 1997):

$$C_t(t) = DK^{\text{trans}} \sum_{i=0}^2 a_i \frac{(e^{-k_{\text{ep}}t} - e^{-m_1 t})}{m_i - k_{\text{ep}}} + v_p C_p(t).$$
(5)

## Methods and materials

The integral of equation (4) with respect to time is a complicated function with no obvious, simple approximation for its dependence on  $K^{\text{trans}}$  or  $v_e$ , so the relationships between IAUGC and each model-based parameter were evaluated numerically. Approximately 4000 contrast agent uptake curves were simulated using the extended Tofts and Kermode model (equation (5)) using two estimates for the VIF.



**Figure 1.** Graphs of the bi-exponential VIFs as functions of time used in the Tofts and Kermode model. The dashed line corresponds to VIF1, which was derived from the data of Weinmann *et al* (1984) and the solid line corresponds to VIF2, derived from data acquired by both Weinmann *et al* and Fritz-Hansen *et al* (1996). To derive VIF2, the average aorta Gd-DTPA plasma concentration was taken from six measurements published by Fritz-Hansen *et al*, with measurements by Weinmann *et al* concatenated at t > 3 min. The peak concentration value was identified and data following it were fitted with a bi-exponential function.

#### Vascular input functions

The first VIF (VIF1) was composed of the bi-exponential curve fitted by Tofts and Kermode (1991), of the from of equation (3), to Gd-DTPA extraction data measured by (Weinmann *et al* 1984) ( $a_1 = 3.99 \text{ kg } \text{l}^{-1}$ ,  $m_1 = 0.144 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ,  $a_2 = 4.78 \text{ kg } \text{l}^{-1}$ ,  $m_2 = 0.011 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ). Administration of a single dose ( $D = 0.1 \text{ mmol kg}^{-1}$ ) of Gd-DTPA was simulated. This VIF is commonly used in pharmacokinetic modelling, but does not characterize the first pass of contrast agent observed in high temporal resolution studies (<20 s) prior to mixing or equilibration of the bolus in the plasma compartment.

The second VIF (VIF2) was derived from data published by Fritz-Hansen et al (1996), in which the whole-blood concentration of Gd-DTPA in the aorta was measured for a duration of approximately 120 s, at high temporal resolution. During the current study, the aortic concentration-time curves from all patients featured in the Fritz-Hansen et al study were input to a computer using a digital scanner and software was developed to identify the data points in each. Each curve was interpolated using a cubic spline and the onset times of each curve were identified and aligned. The mean concentration value at each time point was calculated to produce an averaged uptake curve. To convert from whole-blood to blood plasma concentration, this averaged curve was scaled by 1/(1 - Hct), where Hct is the haematocrit fraction, taken as 0.45. In order to characterize Gd-DTPA concentration for time points greater than 120 s, VIF1 was reconstructed with a temporal resolution of 60 s and appended to the data. A bi-exponential function of the form given by equation (3) was fitted to these aggregate data following peak concentration (see figure 1). Whilst this VIF approximates the aorta concentration as bi-exponential in form (and can therefore be incorporated into the Tofts and Kermode model), it describes the first pass of contrast agent more accurately than VIF1 and is therefore more suited to high temporal resolution measurements.



**Figure 2.** Simulated contrast agent uptake curves plotted as functions of time, positioned relative to their  $K^{\text{trans}}$  and  $v_e$  values. The total duration of the curves is 800 s, with onset at 60 s. Curves simulated using VIF1 and VIF2 are shown with solid and dashed lines, respectively.

## Simulation parameters

Each simulated curve was assigned a unique value of  $K^{\text{trans}}$  and  $v_e$ , which were varied uniformly in the range 0–1 min<sup>-1</sup> and 0–1, respectively.  $v_e$  can only vary between 0 and 1 as it represents the fractional extracellular extravascular space, but  $K^{\text{trans}}$  could, in theory, take a value of greater than 1.0 min<sup>-1</sup>. However, this would require unrealistically large vascular flow values. The temporal resolution of the data sampling for the simulation of the curves was set to 5 s and total duration 500 s, which are typical of data acquired *in vivo*. All simulations were programmed in IDL (RSI, Boulder, CO). IAUGC was calculated for each curve within the limits 0–60 s, 0–90 s and 0–180 s (denoted IAUGC60, IAUGC90 and IAUGC180, respectively) using a five-point Newton–Cotes integration formula (Press *et al* 1988). Note that 0 s corresponds to the onset time of contrast agent.

## Results

Figure 1 shows VIF1 and VIF2 as functions of time. This graph clearly shows the first pass of contrast agent in VIF2 that is not found in VIF1 and their equivalence following the first pass. The fitting of a bi-exponential function to the combined initial and long-term concentration data resulted in the following parameters:  $a_1 = 36 \pm 1 \text{ kg } 1^{-1}$ ,  $m_1 = 4.9 \pm 0.1 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ,  $a_2 = 13 \pm 1 \text{ kg } 1^{-1}$ ,  $m_2 = 0.23 \pm 0.08 \text{ min}^{-1}$ .

Figure 2 shows examples of the simulated concentration–time curves, positioned with respect to their  $K^{\text{trans}}$  and  $v_e$  values, for both VIFs. For these simulations,  $v_p$  was kept constant



**Figure 3.** Contour plots of IAUGC from curves simulated using VIF1 (a), (c) and (e) and VIF2 (b), (d) and (f), as functions of  $K^{\text{trans}}$  and  $v_e$  for three ranges: IAUGC60 (a) and (b), IAUGC90 (c) and (d) and IAUGC180 (e) and (f). The value of  $v_p$  was set at 0.01 in all plots. Contour labels denote the value of IAUGC in mmol min  $1^{-1}$ . Note that the spacing between contours varies between plots.

at 0.01, as this is a typical value found *in vivo* (Weissleder *et al* 1998, Wang *et al* 1998). Visual inspection of the curves suggests that  $v_e$  has the main influence on the level of enhancement of the curves, yet this effect decreases with increasing  $K^{\text{trans}}$ . Furthermore, increasing  $K^{\text{trans}}$  causes the first-pass effect in VIF2 to become more evident in the uptake curves, thereby increasing the initial peak enhancement for a given value of  $v_e$ .

Figure 3 shows contour plots of IAUGC, for each VIF, as functions of  $K^{\text{trans}}$  and  $v_e$ . Again,  $v_p$  was kept constant at 0.01. All IAUGC distributions show the same trend: they are low in magnitude for small  $v_e$  (bottom of the graph) and small  $K^{\text{trans}}$  (left-hand side)



**Figure 4.** Contour plot of IAUGC90 as a function of  $K^{\text{trans}}$  and  $v_e$  for VIF1 (solid line) and VIF2 (dotted line).

and large in magnitude for large  $K^{\text{trans}}$  and  $v_e$  (top right-hand corner). The orientation of the contours suggests that for 'large'  $K^{\text{trans}}$  and 'small'  $v_e$ , IAUGC is proportional to  $v_e$ (horizontal contours) and for 'small'  $K^{\text{trans}}$  and 'large'  $v_e$ , IAUGC is proportional to  $K^{\text{trans}}$ (vertical contours). How large or small each parameter has to be in order to correlate with IAUGC depends on the range over which IAUGC is taken. For example, IAUGC180 tends towards correlation with  $v_e$  (horizontal contours in figure 3(e)) over a larger range of  $K^{\text{trans}}$ compared with IAUGC60. Generally, figure 3 indicates that the larger the range of IAUGC, the more likely it is to correlate with  $v_e$  for the given range of  $K^{\text{trans}}$ .

Figure 3 also shows that IAUGC values derived using VIF1 and VIF2 display the same qualitative relationship with  $v_e$  and  $K^{\text{trans}}$ . The main difference is simply that VIF2 gives larger values of IAUGC. The dependence of IAUGC90 on  $K^{\text{trans}}$  and  $v_e$  for both VIFs is shown in figure 4, which illustrates the slight differences in the regions over which IAUGC is proportional to either  $K^{\text{trans}}$  or  $v_e$ .

The introduction of a blood volume term in the extended Tofts and Kermode model introduces an offset into the distribution of IAUGC, the value of which depends solely on  $v_p$  and  $C_p(t)$ . Figure 5 shows surface plots of the variation of IAUGC with  $K^{\text{trans}}$  and  $v_e$  for four values of  $v_p$ . The shape of the surface for each value of  $v_p$  does not change—they are simply offset by a value proportional to  $v_p \int_0^{\tau} C_p(\tau) d\tau$  where  $\tau$  is the top limit of the IAUGC range.

#### **Discussion and conclusions**

In this study, we numerically evaluated the relationship between IAUGC and the model parameters  $K^{\text{trans}}$ ,  $v_e$  and  $v_p$ , using two different VIFs. IAUGC is often used clinically in addition to or in preference to physiological parameters due to its robustness, lack of assumptions and ease of implementation. However, the physiological relevance of IAUGC has not previously been clearly defined and the physiological meaning of a change in such a parameter (such as might be found following treatment for cancer) is unknown.

The simulations performed during this study showed that IAUGC is a mixed parameter in terms of  $K^{\text{trans}}$  and  $v_e$  and that IAUGC can be directly correlated with either  $K^{\text{trans}}$  or  $v_e$ , in restricted regions of a contour plot such as those shown in figure 3. Furthermore, the addition of a  $v_p$  term adds (see figure 5) further complexity to the relationship, even though its effect



**Figure 5.** Surface plots showing the dependence of IAUGC on  $K^{\text{trans}}$  and  $v_e$  for four values of  $v_p$ : 0.0, 0.01, 0.02 and 0.05.

is simply to add a positive offset to the IAUGC. As shown by comparing figures 3(a), (c) and (e), the range over which IAUGC is taken affects its magnitude (IAUGC180 for a given curve is greater than IAUGC90 for example), but has little bearing on its relationship with  $K^{\text{trans}}$  and  $v_e$ . No additional insights into tissue physiology are gained by investigating IAUGC over different ranges. However, a larger range of IAUGC has a greater signal-to-noise advantage as the number of time points that are averaged increases. It can therefore be reasoned that the range that IAUGC is taken over is unimportant as long as it is long enough to ensure good signal-to-noise and is used consistently in order to acquire IAUGC values with comparable magnitudes between studies. IAUGC90 is commonly calculated *in vivo* and could therefore be recommended as a standardized parameter.

Two bi-exponential VIFs were used in this study: VIF1 described the plasma contrast agent kinetics once the bolus has become well mixed, whereas VIF2 included a first-pass phase (figure 1). The differences evident in the contour plots of IAUGC in figure 3 for VIF1 and VIF2 (for example figures 3(a) and (b)) are minimal in terms of the relationship of IAUGC with  $K^{\text{trans}}$  and  $v_e$ ; the main difference is that the magnitude of IAUGC is greater for VIF2. However, this does not mean that IAUGC is independent of VIF used, rather that the relationship with  $K^{\text{trans}}$  and  $v_e$ , for the two VIFs studied here, is independent of  $a_i$  and  $m_i$  in equation (3). As VIF1 and VIF2 are representative of the Gd-DTPA plasma distribution *in vivo*, this suggests that the relationship between IAUGC and  $K^{\text{trans}}$  and  $v_e$  defined here can be assumed to apply to most *in vivo* measurements using a bolus administration of Gd-DTPA. It should be noted, however, that these relationships may not hold for significantly different contrast agent delivery protocols (such as an infusion).

It is clear from figure 3 that a number of biological properties can account for a particular IAUGC value. For example, the IAUGC90 = 0.10 mmol min  $1^{-1}$  contour in figure 3(c) could be associated with a  $K^{\text{trans}}$  value anywhere from 0.15 to at least 1.0 min<sup>-1</sup> and  $v_e$  from 0.1 to 1.0. Clearly, IAUGC cannot be used as a surrogate measure of either  $K^{\text{trans}}$  or  $v_e$ . Reversing this argument requires that a measured change in IAUGC following therapy could correspond to a variety of physiological changes. Furthermore, in practical terms, a general change in

tissue physiology could be understated by IAUGC if it were to occur approximately along an IAUGC contour or overstated if orthogonal to a contour.

The findings discussed here imply that IAUGC can only be interpreted according to the description provided by Parker and Buckley (2005): IAUGC is a measure of the amount of contrast agent delivered to and retained by the tumour in the given time period. This is a simple and fundamental measure, but only summarizes what is already known: the concentration of contrast agent as a function of time. It has the advantage of good signal-to-noise characteristics, but the disadvantage that the physiological mechanisms mediating contrast agent concentration are intractable.

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