

# 1 **Neuroimaging of CNS infection in haematological malignancy: Important signs** 2 **and common diagnostic pitfalls**

3

## 4 **Introduction**

5 Haematological malignancies and precursor conditions affect a significant  
6 proportion of the UK population, with an estimated total prevalence rate of 548.8 per  
7 100,000(1). Patients with haematological malignancy are at an increased risk of  
8 infection due to disease related disruption of immune function or treatment related  
9 immunosuppression, such as corticosteroids, chemotherapy, chimeric antigen  
10 receptor T cell (CAR T) therapy, or stem cell transplantation(2). The incidence of  
11 CNS infection following allogenic haematopoietic stem cell transplantation varies  
12 from 9-15% in the literature and is associated with reduced survival, necessitating  
13 early detection and accurate diagnosis(3-5).

14

15 Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) analysis and biopsy remain the gold standard for  
16 the diagnosis of CNS infection(6, 7). However, neuroradiology has a vital role in  
17 patient management, especially in cases of diagnostic uncertainty or when definitive  
18 investigations are unremarkable; unobtainable or obtainable only after delay. Whilst  
19 computed tomography (CT) remains more accessible, magnetic resonance imaging  
20 (MRI) is superior for the direct evaluation of the brain parenchyma, meninges and  
21 the detection of complications of infection(8). MRI also has an established role as a  
22 non-invasive method of monitoring treatment response in these patients.

23

24           The detection and characterisation of infectious processes on MRI can prove  
25 challenging. In the context of immunosuppression, atypical and opportunistic  
26 pathogens are more prevalent than in the general population(3, 9). Whilst some  
27 pathogens are associated with more specific appearances, many share common  
28 imaging findings, and altered immune function can result in atypical or non-specific  
29 features(10). Furthermore, patients with haematological malignancies may develop  
30 other intracranial abnormalities during the course of their disease, such as treatment-  
31 related changes or thrombocytopaenia-related intracranial haemorrhage, which may  
32 confound both the clinical presentation and neuroimaging features(9).

33

34           This pictorial case series illustrates the MRI findings of a range of confirmed  
35 cases of typical and atypical CNS infections encountered over a 10-year period in  
36 adults with haematological malignancy at a large London tertiary haematology  
37 centre, of which the most commonly encountered pathogens were cytomegalovirus  
38 (CMV), toxoplasmosis, viral encephalitis, fungal infection, JC virus and  
39 pseudomonas. Here, we review common neuroimaging findings, identify features to  
40 help differentiate CNS infection from malignant CNS disease, and discuss frequently  
41 encountered diagnostic pitfalls.

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43

#### 44 Bacterial

#### 45 **Meningitis**

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47           The most common bacteria associated with pyogenic meningitis in the  
48 immunocompetent adult population are *Streptococcus pneumoniae* and *Neisseria*

49 *meningitidis*(11), however in the immunosuppressed host there is an increased  
50 incidence of pathogens such as tuberculosis (TB) and *Listeria monocytogenes*(12).  
51 The route of CNS infection is generally haematogenous, although may be secondary  
52 to geographic extension from the paranasal sinuses or orbits in some cases. MRI  
53 appearances can be normal, especially early in the disease course. The convexity or  
54 basal subarachnoid spaces may appear isointense on T1WI and hyperintense on  
55 FLAIR, with restricted diffusion of the exudative contents, and there can be  
56 associated leptomeningeal enhancement(8, 13). Whilst fine, linear enhancement is  
57 suggestive of a pyogenic bacterial aetiology, a nodular component is more indicative  
58 of tuberculous or fungal meningitis. Nodularity is also associated with malignant  
59 leptomeningeal disease, and often more focal in distribution than infective causes  
60 (Figure 1).

61 Complications, such as cerebral oedema and hydrocephalus, are relatively  
62 common(14). Choroid plexitis, ventriculitis, cerebritis, abscess and empyema  
63 formation can occur through direct extension, venous drainage or communication  
64 with perivascular spaces(13). Cerebrovascular complications include venous sinus  
65 thrombosis, venous infarction, vasculitis and arterial infarction (Figure 1). In the  
66 setting of meningitis, vasculitis is classically associated with tuberculous meningitis.  
67 Multifocal regions of vessel stenosis may be observed, particularly in the large  
68 intracranial arteries located within the basal cisterns and sylvian fissures, with or  
69 without evidence of perforator or large territorial infarction(15). Whilst MRI has an  
70 important role in the evaluation of the complications of meningitis, correlation with  
71 CSF is essential to ensure an accurate primary diagnosis(3). Neuroimaging has  
72 limited utility in this setting, and lymphoma, leukaemia and myeloma can manifest as  
73 leptomeningeal or pachymeningeal thickening and enhancement (Figure 1).

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75

[Insert Figure 1]

76

## 77 **Pyogenic abscess**

78

79           Bacterial abscesses are relatively uncommon in the immunosuppressed  
80 patient. Cerebral pyogenic abscesses predominantly occur secondary to  
81 haematogenous spread, for example nocardiosis, or contiguous spread from a local  
82 source, but can also be secondary to head trauma or a neurosurgical procedure(16).  
83 When haematogenous in origin, the corticomedullary junction, particularly within the  
84 middle cerebral artery territory, is the most common location due to vascular flow  
85 dynamics and vessel calibre. The typical imaging features of a pyogenic abscess are  
86 that of a T1-hypointense, T2-hyperintense round or ovoid lesion within the brain  
87 parenchyma. The capsule is characteristically smooth and thin, T2-hypointense, and  
88 often relatively deficient in the segment adjacent to a ventricle (Figure 2)(8).  
89 Peripheral rim enhancement and homogeneous diffusion restriction within the  
90 abscess core is typical, and perilesional vasogenic oedema is variable but generally  
91 present(17). In this population, a lymphomatous deposit may also present as a  
92 discrete parenchymal mass with peripheral enhancement and diffusion restriction,  
93 but the region of diffusion restriction tends to be the enhancing component, rather  
94 than the necrotic core (Figure 2). A dual rim appearance of the capsule, with a low  
95 intensity peripheral and relatively hyperintense inner rim, on GRE T2\* or SWI  
96 sequences, is a useful imaging feature that is relatively specific for a pyogenic  
97 aetiology(18) (Figure 3).

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[Insert Figure 2]

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[Insert New Figure 3]

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102 **Tuberculosis**

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There is an increased incidence of CNS TB in the context of malignancy and

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immunosuppressive medication. Symptoms may be subacute or non-specific, and a

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known history of TB is not always elicited(19). The intracranial manifestations of

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CNS TB include meningitis, with or without vasculopathy (discussed previously),

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tuberculoma and tuberculous abscess. The typical imaging findings of a tuberculoma

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are that of a solitary or multifocal parenchymal lesion, with intermediate to low signal

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intensity on T2WI, rim enhancement and variable perilesional vasogenic

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oedema(20). Lymphoma may demonstrate similar features, although tuberculomas

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are typically small in size. In contradistinction, the rarer tuberculous abscess

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demonstrates central T2WI/FLAIR hyperintensity, central diffusion restriction and is

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indistinguishable from a pyogenic abscess on standard imaging sequences(21). In

115

the setting of suspected intracranial tuberculosis, imaging of the entire neuraxis

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should be considered to assess for evidence of spinal involvement.

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118 **Pseudomonas**

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*Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is an unusual cause of meningitis, is commonly

121

hospital associated and typically related to neurosurgery(22, 23). It can also occur

122

secondary to parameningeal extension from an adjacent structure, such as

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paranasal sinusitis (Figure 4)(24). In the context of sinus, orbital or skull base

124 disease, the cranial nerves, skull foramen and traversing structures should be  
125 interrogated for asymmetry, enlargement and pathological enhancement. Intracranial  
126 imaging appearances may reflect that of a meningitis, cerebral abscess or rarely, an  
127 extra-axial empyema depending on the route of infection. Associated cavernous  
128 sinus thrombophlebitis can present as enlarged, cavernous sinuses with internal  
129 filling defects on post-contrast imaging. In the presence of contiguous extension from  
130 paranasal sinus or orbital disease, other fungal pathogens such as mucormycosis  
131 should be also be considered in the differential diagnosis(25, 26).

132

133 [Insert Figure 4]

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## 135 Parasitic

### 136 **Cerebral toxoplasmosis**

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138 Cerebral toxoplasmosis is the most common parasitic CNS infection in allo-  
139 HSCT patients. Whilst generally occurring secondary to reactivation of latent  
140 *Toxoplasma gondii*, a ubiquitous intracellular parasite, primary infection following  
141 organ transplantation or ingestion of contaminated food may also occur(27). MRI  
142 commonly demonstrates multifocal T1-hypointense mass lesions, with a  
143 hyperintense or laminated appearance on T2WI/FLAIR and variable perilesional  
144 vasogenic oedema (Figure 5). There is a predilection for the basal ganglia and  
145 thalami, followed by the corticomedullary junction and posterior fossa. Rim  
146 enhancement, with an internal eccentric mural nodule -- the 'eccentric target' sign --  
147 has been described(28, 29), although can be absent in the immunosuppressed  
148 state(30). Peripheral diffusion restriction may be observed, in contradistinction to

149 pyogenic abscesses, and evidence of peripheral haemorrhage is occasionally  
150 seen(31). In the immunocompromised, lymphoma can have similar imaging  
151 characteristics(32), although is more commonly subependymal in location, solitary  
152 and is not associated with haemorrhage prior to treatment (Figure 5). In cases of  
153 diagnostic uncertainty, MR perfusion, interval imaging following treatment or PET-CT  
154 can add value in the non-invasive setting.

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156 [Insert Figure 5]

157

158 Viral

159 **Viral encephalitis**

160

161 The human herpes virus family includes herpes simplex virus 1 (HSV-1) and  
162 HSV-2, varicella zoster virus (VZV), Epstein-Barr virus (EBV), cytomegalovirus  
163 (CMV) and human herpes virus (HHV-6, 7 and 8). These viruses are able to  
164 establish latency and reactivate periodically.

165

166 HSV-1 remains the most common cause of viral encephalitis in adults,  
167 although the incidence is relatively low in patients with haematological disorders(33).  
168 MRI features of HSV-1 encephalitis include bilateral, often asymmetric cortical and  
169 subcortical T2WI/FLAIR hyperintensities within the anterior and medial temporal  
170 lobes, inferior frontal lobes, insular cortex and cingulate gyri(13). In the  
171 immunocompromised state, the distribution can be more extensive, with widespread  
172 cortical involvement, brainstem or posterior fossa involvement(34). Patchy  
173 cortical/subcortical diffusion restriction may be seen early in the disease course(35),

174 and gyriform enhancement may occur in the subacute setting. Petechial  
175 haemorrhages are of variable appearance depending on the chronicity of the blood  
176 products, although commonly present as patchy regions of T1-hyperintensity and  
177 GRE T2\*/SWI hypointensity with 'blooming'(13). Curvilinear, gyriform haemorrhage  
178 can also be observed but is associated with the subacute and chronic phases,  
179 alongside local encephalomalacia(36).

180

181 HHV-6 is associated with post-transplant limbic encephalitis, with a median  
182 interval to presentation of 3 weeks(37). The imaging findings in HHV-6 are often  
183 limited to the mesial temporal lobes, with sparing of the parahippocampal gyri  
184 (Figure 6). Diffusion restriction is commonly observed, and enhancement(38) and  
185 haemorrhage are usually absent(39), in contradistinction to HSV encephalitis. EBV  
186 encephalitis is rarely encountered in the adult population, and is associated with non-  
187 specific findings, including mesial temporal lobe and subcortical white matter  
188 T2WI/FLAIR hyperintensities(40, 41). Mesial temporal lobe involvement is not typical  
189 for lymphoma(42) or leukaemia(43) and in this setting is suggestive of infection,  
190 although the various infective causes of encephalitis can be indistinguishable on  
191 MRI(44) (Figure 6). As the range of potential causative viruses is broad and the  
192 neuroimaging findings in encephalitis are often non-specific, correlation with CSF is  
193 required for confirmation of the causative organism.

194

195 [Insert Figure 6]

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197 Cytomegalovirus (CMV) is generally seen in the immunosuppressed adult  
198 following reactivation of latent infection. The most common neurological



199 manifestations of CMV include retinitis, ependymitis and necrotising  
200 meningoencephalitis(45). Ependymitis is the most common intracranial presentation,  
201 and is associated with periventricular T1-hypointensity and T2-hyperintensity, with  
202 nodular thickening, enhancement and diffusion restriction of the affected ependyma  
203 (Figure 7)(46, 47). Hydrocephalus or a periventricular pattern of atrophy may be  
204 observed. Lymphoma is classically subependymal in distribution, and can have  
205 similar findings(48). Uncomplicated CMV retinitis is not resolvable on cross-sectional  
206 imaging and requires ophthalmic examination, although knowledge of its presence  
207 may raise clinical suspicion of associated CNS involvement in the context of subtle  
208 intracranial findings. Rarely, CMV can present as a diffuse encephalitis with  
209 widespread patchy hyperintense lesions on T2WI/FLAIR, or as a rim-enhancing,  
210 space occupying lesion with surrounding vasogenic oedema(49).

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212 [Insert Figure 7]

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### 214 **Progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy**

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216 Progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy (PML) is a form of subacute  
217 encephalitis caused by the John Cunningham (JC) polyomavirus, and is seen almost  
218 exclusively in the setting of severe immunocompromise. PML was first described in  
219 the context of chronic lymphocytic leukaemia, although is most widely associated  
220 with the HIV population(50). The presenting symptoms can be more indolent than  
221 other forms of acute encephalitis, including cognitive decline or altered mental state.  
222 The typical imaging appearances of PML are patchy regions of hyperintensity in the  
223 white matter of the parietal and occipital lobes, frontal subcortical white matter or

224 cerebellar peduncles on T2WI/FLAIR, with corresponding hypointensity on T1W  
225 images (Figure 8)(51). Involvement of the subcortical U-fibres creates a scalloped  
226 appearance. The distribution is typically bilateral and asymmetric, without significant  
227 cerebral atrophy. Contrast enhancement may be present in the context of immune  
228 reconstitution inflammatory syndrome, but is otherwise absent or faint. Diffusion  
229 restriction can be evident in the acute phase and is classically peripheral and with a  
230 leading edge(52), with a trend towards increased diffusivity in chronic lesions.  
231 Differentiation from treatment related changes is intimated by location, mass effect,  
232 diffusion restriction and the presence of enhancement. Whilst imaging plays a pivotal  
233 role in the diagnosis of PML, isolation of JC virus in the CSF is confirmatory.  
234 However, a negative PCR does not exclude the diagnosis.

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236 [Insert Figure 8]

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## 238 Fungal

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240 Fungal infection of the CNS is rare and occurs more commonly in  
241 immunocompromised hosts. As a consequence of an altered immune response, the  
242 neuroimaging findings in fungal CNS infection are often non-specific and require  
243 interpretation in the context of clinical findings and known evidence of a causative  
244 fungus. The predominant invasive mould infection affecting the CNS in this patient  
245 cohort is *Aspergillus spp.*(53). Cerebral aspergillosis may occur due to direct  
246 intracranial extension from the paranasal sinuses, producing focal pachymeningeal  
247 thickening and parenchymal abnormalities in the adjacent frontal lobes. Alternatively,  
248 haematogenous spread from an extrinsic focus such the lungs may occur (Figure 9),

249 with a propensity for the corticomedullary junction and perforating arterial territories.  
250 CSF seeding is possible but less common. The imaging findings are diverse and  
251 include rim enhancing lesions, solid enhancing lesions (aspergilloma) or  
252 haemorrhagic foci(54). Although not always present, the characteristic appearance is  
253 a 'target' pattern of central hyperintensity and peripheral hypo/isointensity on T2WI,  
254 presumably secondary to blood breakdown products or iron products. In the context  
255 of a reduced immune response, there may be relatively little adjacent oedema and  
256 rim enhancement is typically weak or occasionally absent. Heterogenous, central  
257 diffusion restriction can be observed, in contrast to the intense, homogenous central  
258 diffusion restriction classically described in a pyogenic abscess. *Aspergillus* is  
259 angioinvasive and vascular complications such as stroke (both ischaemic and  
260 haemorrhagic) and focal microhaemorrhages may be present(55).

261 Other frequently encountered fungi include *Candida albicans* and  
262 *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *C. albicans* shares many similar imaging features with  
263 *Aspergillus spp*, including a propensity for perivascular dissemination which can  
264 mimic intravascular lymphoma. *C. neoformans* may present as a meningitis,  
265 parenchymal lesion (cryptococcoma), choroid plexitis or gelatinous pseudocysts in  
266 the distribution of the perivascular spaces, typically the basal ganglia(56, 57). When  
267 considering infection, T2-hyperintense pseudocysts are a feature unique to  
268 *C.neoformans*, and must be distinguished from incidental enlarged perivascular  
269 spaces.

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271 [Insert Figure 9]

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273 **Pitfalls**

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*Heterogenous appearances of CNS disease:* The intracranial appearances of haematological malignancies, whether primary, metastatic or recurrent, are remarkably heterogeneous and may present with imaging findings similar to infectious processes. **Correlation with advanced imaging techniques, FDG PET-CT, laboratory investigations and histological analysis are often required for definitive diagnosis(58, 59).**

- *Parenchymal:* CNS lymphoma may appear as a rim enhancing mass lesion similar to pyogenic abscess or toxoplasmosis. Peripheral restricted diffusion can differentiate from pyogenic abscess and absence of haemorrhage in the wall can differentiate from toxoplasmosis.
- *Ependymal:* CNS lymphoma can also involve the ependyma, mimicking CMV ependymitis. Focal involvement, nodularity and the absence of intraventricular haemorrhage can aid distinction.
- *Leptomeningeal/pachymeningeal:* Bing-Neel syndrome, lymphoma, leukaemia and multiple myeloma can all involve the leptomeninges, but focal involvement with solid components and nodularity can aid distinction from bacterial meningitis.
  - *Dural:* Following intracranial biopsy, the development of an overlying extra-axial collection with pachymeningeal thickening and enhancement should raise concern for an empyema. However, pachymeningeal disease recurrence may have overlapping features and should remain in the differential.

299            *Treatment-related effects:* Treatment related neurotoxicity is common and  
300 includes chemotherapy related findings and the spectrum of radiation induced  
301 injuries(60).

302            • *Treatment-induced changes* manifest as bilateral T2WI/FLAIR white  
303 matter hyperintensities(61). Chemotherapy related posterior reversible  
304 encephalopathy syndrome (PRES) may exhibit cortical and subcortical  
305 white matter hyperintensities on T2WI/FLAIR, often with atypical features  
306 such as diffusion restriction and enhancement which can mimic infective  
307 processes such as PML(62). Recognition of involvement of the subcortical  
308 U-fibres is an important distinguishing feature.

309            • *Radiation-induced changes* can be broadly categorised into acute  
310 radiation injury, early delayed injury and long-term sequelae(63). Patients  
311 with delayed radiation injury may present with cognitive impairment and  
312 confluent, periventricular T2WI/FLAIR white matter hyperintensities. Late  
313 delayed radiation necrosis can appear expansile and mass like, with  
314 variable enhancement and central necrosis, mimicking recurrent disease.  
315 Consequently, correlation with the timing and type of treatment is  
316 important in ensuring accurate interpretation of neuroimaging findings.

317

## 318 **Summary**

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320            Patients with haematological malignancy are a unique population who are at  
321 increased risk of CNS infection, including atypical infection. Clinical presentation is  
322 often vague and non-specific, and the underlying disease processes and treatment  
323 can confound image interpretation. Familiarity with the range and appearance of

324 CNS infections that may occur, alongside potential diagnostic pitfalls and relevant  
325 differential diagnoses in this cohort is vital and can have a profound impact on  
326 patient management and clinical outcome.

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