



Original Research Article

Cervical body composition on radiotherapy planning computed tomography scans predicts overall survival in glioblastoma patients



Fabian M. Troschel^{a,1,*}, Benjamin O. Troschel^{a,1}, Maren Kloss^b, Amelie S. Troschel^c, Niklas B. Pepper^a, Rainer G. Wiewrodt^{d,e}, Walter Stummer^b, Dorothee Wiewrodt^b, Hans Theodor Eich^a

^a Department of Radiation Oncology, Münster University Hospital, Albert-Schweitzer-Campus 1, 48149 Münster, Germany

^b Department of Neurosurgery, Münster University Hospital, Albert-Schweitzer-Campus 1, 48149 Münster, Germany

^c Department of Medicine II, Klinikum Wolfsburg, Sauerbruchstraße 7, 38440 Wolfsburg, Germany

^d Pulmonary Research Division, Münster University, Albert-Schweitzer-Campus 1, 48149 Münster, Germany

^e Department of Pulmonary Medicine, Mathias Foundation, Hospitals Rheine and Ibbenbueren, Frankenburgsstrasse 31, 48431 Rheine, Germany

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Body composition
Glioblastoma
Overall survival
Sarcopenia
Computed tomography
Prognostic biomarker
Cervical muscle

ABSTRACT

Background and purpose: Glioblastoma (GBM) patients face a strongly unfavorable prognosis despite multimodal therapy regimens. However, individualized mortality prediction remains imprecise. Harnessing routine radiation planning cranial computed tomography (CT) scans, we assessed cervical body composition measures as novel biomarkers for overall survival (OS) in GBM patients.

Materials and methods: We performed threshold-based semi-automated quantification of muscle and subcutaneous fat cross-sectional area (CSA) at the levels of the first and second cervical vertebral body. First, we tested this method's validity by correlating cervical measures to established abdominal body composition in an open-source whole-body CT cohort. We then identified consecutive patients undergoing radiation planning for recent GBM diagnosis at our institution from 2010 to 2020 and quantified cervical body composition on radiation planning CT scans. Finally, we performed univariable and multivariable time-to-event analyses, adjusting for age, sex, body mass index, comorbidities, performance status, extent of surgical resection, extent of tumor at diagnosis, and MGMT methylation.

Results: Cervical body composition measurements were well-correlated with established abdominal markers (Spearman's rho greater than 0.68 in all cases). Subsequently, we included 324 GBM patients in our study cohort (median age 63 years, 60.8% male). 293 (90.4%) patients died during follow-up. Median survival time was 13 months. Patients with below-average muscle CSA or above-average fat CSA demonstrated shorter survival. In multivariable analyses, continuous cervical muscle measurements remained independently associated with OS.

Conclusion: This exploratory study establishes novel cervical body composition measures routinely available on cranial radiation planning CT scans and confirms their association with OS in patients diagnosed with GBM.

Introduction

Despite considerable scientific advances, diagnosis of a glioblastoma (GBM) remains associated with high mortality, resulting in a median survival of less than two years [1,2]. Over time, prognostic risk factors have been established, most importantly isocitrate dehydrogenase-1 (IDH-1) mutation [3]. Given the outsized influence of this marker, only IDH-wildtype tumors remain classified as GBM in the most recent

re-definition of World Health Organization (WHO) guidelines [4]. Other prognostic factors including O⁶-Methylguanine-DNA Methyltransferase (MGMT) methylation status [5], body mass index (BMI) [6], age [7], performance status [8], and extent of tumor resection [9] have also been explored. However, mortality risk prediction remains in need of improvement [10,11].

Body composition measurements have recently been introduced into risk prediction algorithms for cancer patients in a diverse set of tumors

* Corresponding author at: Universitätsklinikum Münster, Albert-Schweitzer-Campus 1, 48149 Münster, Germany.

E-mail address: fabian.troschel@uni-muenster.de (F.M. Troschel).

¹ Contributed equally as co-first authors.

including in gastrointestinal [12], lung [13,14], renal [15] and hematologic [16] malignancies. Most studies rely on measurements based on computed tomography (CT) scans at the level of the third lumbar vertebra (L3) which have been defined as the gold standard [17] and have been found to represent total body muscle mass [18]. However, investigations try to increasingly use different vertebral levels in an effort to harness routinely available local CT imaging [19,20].

In GBM, associations between CT-based body composition and prognosis have not been previously investigated. Meanwhile, numerous recent studies suggest a relationship between GBM outcome and temporal muscle thickness (TMT), a one-dimensional measure derived from diagnostic magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) [21–24]. Fat measurements or two-dimensional body composition quantifications have not been attempted.

We developed this cohort study to assess the prognostic potential of CT-derived two-dimensional muscle and fat measurements using routinely available data from radiation planning CT scans in GBM patients. We first assessed the validity of our measurements by comparing these newly quantified cervical markers with standardized measures at the L3 level in a cohort of whole-body CT scans. We then performed measurements in a cohort of GBM patients, hypothesizing that radiation planning CT-based body composition measures may be associated with overall survival (OS) in this patient group.

Materials and methods

This retrospective study was approved by the ethics committee of the Medical Association of Westphalia-Lippe (2021-685-f-S).

Validation cohort

Pre-therapeutic positron-emission tomography (PET)-CT scans from the ACRIN 6668 NSCLC FDG PET study [25] accessible through the Cancer Imaging Archive (TCIA) [26] were downloaded. We then used the CT scan series to perform body composition measurements. The open-source 3D Slicer Software (version 4.13.0) was used for segmentation.

First, after uploading the CT scans into the workstation, images were

reformatted to standardize patient positioning: Head tilt along the frontal axis was corrected by orienting the nasal septum in a vertical plain. Head tilt along the sagittal axis was corrected by similarly orienting the dens axis in a vertical plain.

We chose to quantify cervical muscle at the levels closest to the cranium, i.e., at the levels of the first (C1) and second cervical vertebral body (C2). At each level, a single axial image visualizing the vertebral arch was selected. As oropharyngeal mucosa proves difficult to accurately differentiate from muscle given similar levels of radiodensity on non-contrast scans we decided to perform segmentations in the retro-cervical region, largely similar to previous studies at the C3 level [27]. Thus, all muscle and fat compartments located dorsally of the vertebral arch were included. Previously reported cutoff values were used for measurement of muscle (-29 to + 150 Hounsfield units) and fat tissue (-190 to -30 Hounsfield units). Segmentations are visualized in Fig. 1. In sum, the following muscle groups were included: the trapezoid, sternocleidomastoid, levator scapulae and the autochthonous muscles (M. longissimus capitis, splenius capitis, splenius cervicis, semispinalis capitis) also encompassing the short neck musculature (M. rectus capitis posterior major, obliquus capitis superior et inferior). Fat tissue located dorsally of the parotid glands and outside of the muscle fascia – i.e., between muscles and skin – was defined as subcutaneous fat tissue. Measurements were not attempted if scans were visually deemed unsuitable by the readers and the supervisors. All measurements were performed by a trained analyst (B.O.T.) while its reproducibility was independently analyzed by a second trained analyst (A.S.T.) using a control sample of 38 scans. Interreader agreement was determined similar to previous studies [28].

Additionally, standardized measurements at the L3 level on the same scan were performed similar to previous studies [16] resulting in fat or muscle cross-sectional areas (in cm²).

Glioblastoma cohort

Consecutive adult patients undergoing radiotherapy planning for pathologically confirmed GBM at our institution, a large tertiary care brain tumor center, between January 1st, 2010, and December 31st, 2020, were included. Only patients without previous irradiation to the

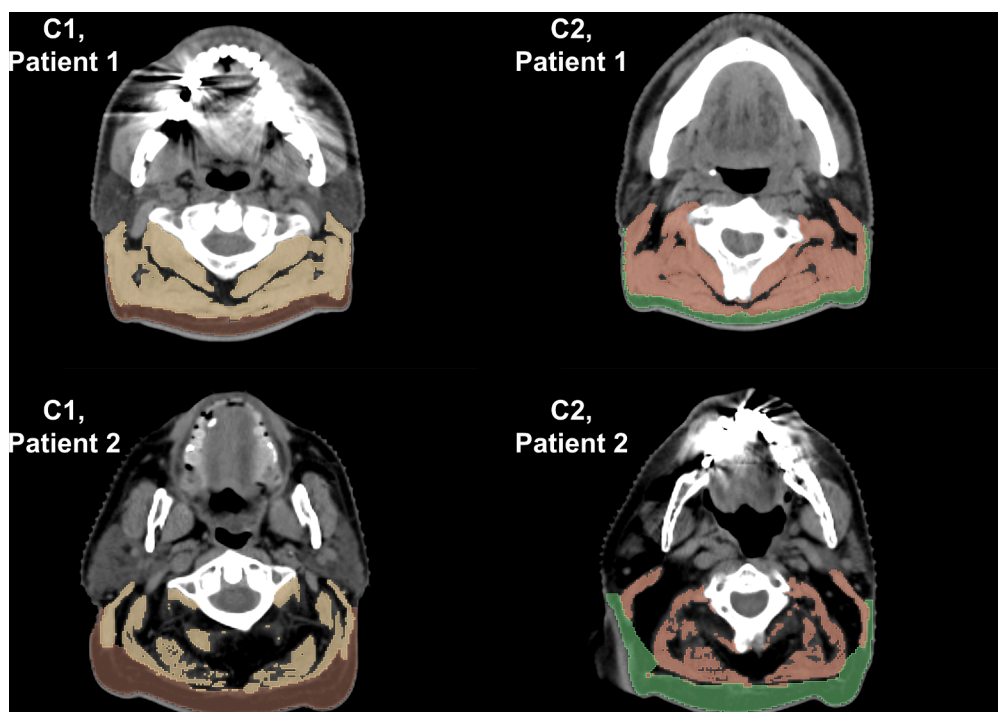


Fig. 1. Cervical body composition measurements. Quantified skeletal muscle area was located dorsally of the C1 and C2 vertebrae. Additionally, subcutaneous adipose tissue area was computed. Here, representative measurements are demonstrated for levels C1 and C2 for two male patients. 56-year-old Patient 1 demonstrates high-muscle area while measurements in 63-year-old patient 2 are reduced. Patient 1 survived for another 20 months. Patient 2 passed away after only 3 months. Note that the metal artifacts did not preclude analyses in these cases.

cranium were considered. Similarly, only IDH-1 negative tumors qualified for screening, reflecting recent modifications in GBM definition. Patients were included irrespective of prior surgical procedure. We only included patients with a primary GBM diagnosis whereas patients with recurring GBM were excluded.

Patient data (demographics, co-morbidities, tumor, and treatment details) and outcomes were abstracted from an intra-institutional neurosurgical database as well as the cancer registry of the Western German Cancer Center (Westdeutsches Tumorzentrum, WTZ), a prospectively maintained resource. OS was defined as the primary outcome with survival time in months calculated from radiation planning CT to date of last contact or death as of June 2nd, 2022. Macroscopic tumor volume in cm^3 was measured based on preoperative contrast-enhanced T1-weighted MRI images. Extent of resection was determined based on postoperative MRI images and abstracted from the radiological report or, if not explicitly stated, assessed by radiation oncologists (H.T.E., F.M.T.). Cases with removal of more than 95% of the contrast-enhancing lesion were deemed “gross total resections” (GTR) while all other resections were considered “subtotal resections” (STR), similar to previous definitions [29–31].

Patient CT scans were downloaded from the ARIA Oncology Information System (Varian Medical Systems, Inc., Palo Alto, CA, USA). Cervical measurements were performed as described above. The analyst (B.O.T.) was blinded to outcomes during measurements. Again, fat or muscle cross-sectional areas in cm^2 were obtained. These parameters were then directly used for analyses. For group definition, we defined a low-muscle or low-fat group comprised of males or females with below-median muscle or fat measurements relative to their sex (“low-muscle/low-fat group”). This group was compared to the remaining patients with above-median muscle or fat measurements relative to their sex (“high-muscle/high-fat group”) [20].

Finally, TMT (in mm) was measured on pre-operative MRI scans, as described previously [21–24].

Statistical analysis

We used descriptive statistics for patient characteristics. We analyzed correlations between body composition measurements at different levels using spearman correlations. Intraclass correlation coefficients were utilized to evaluate inter-reader agreement.

Univariable relationships between parameters and OS were estimated using the Kaplan-Meier method and assessed for statistical significance with the log-rank test. Cox proportional hazard models were developed for multivariable analyses including pre-defined variables previously associated with survival in GBM patients: Sex [32], BMI [6], extent of resection (biopsy vs. subtotal vs. total resections) [9], comorbidities and age (using the Charlson Comorbidity Index [CCI]) [33], postoperative performance status [8], tumor size at time of diagnosis [34], number of lesions at time of diagnosis (one vs. multiple) [35], bilateral glioblastoma (vs. unilateral) [36], and MGMT methylation status [5]. Analyses were performed using body composition measures at each level as continuous variables (in cm^2) as well as group definitions (“low-muscle group” vs. “high-muscle group”).

All analyses were conducted using STATA (version 13.0, StataCorp, College Station, TX). A type-1 error rate of 5% was assumed for all confidence intervals and hypothesis tests.

Results

Measurement validation

A total of 193 patients (123 males, 70 females) qualified for analysis in the validation cohort. Exclusions are detailed in [Supplementary Figure 1](#). Correlations between L3 and C1/C2 measurements were rated good for muscle (C1: spearman’s $\rho = 0.78$, $p < 0.001$; C2: $\rho = 0.82$, $p < 0.001$) and fat tissue (C1: $\rho = 0.68$, $p < 0.001$; C2: $\rho = 0.69$, $p < 0.001$).

< 0.001). Correlations between C1 and C2 levels were excellent (muscle: $\rho = 0.91$, $p < 0.001$; fat tissue: $\rho = 0.94$, $p < 0.001$). Scatter plots are shown in [Fig. 2](#).

Inter-reader agreements were excellent for measurements at both levels (intraclass correlation coefficients greater than 0.965, [Supplementary Table 1](#)).

Patient characteristics in the GBM cohort

We included 324 of 331 (97.9%) consecutively screened patients. Three patients were excluded due to previously received radiation therapy for a different primary brain tumor. Two patients were excluded for missing data on the extent of the resection. One patient was excluded for dental implant-related metal artifacts precluding accurate measurements at both levels. In one patient, C1 and C2 levels were not visualized on planning CT. In one case for C1 and eleven cases for C2, artifacts or limited field of view precluded measurement of one but not the other level and we decided to keep these patients included in the study. [Fig. 3](#) summarizes inclusion and exclusion criteria.

The majority of patients (60.8%) were male and had previously undergone a resection (46.0% total, 38.6% subtotal resection) vs. a biopsy (15.4%). 53.4% of tumors demonstrated MGMT methylation. Patient, tumor, and treatment characteristics are detailed in [Table 1](#).

After the radiation planning CT scan, most patients (84.3%) underwent standardized treatment with 60 Gy of irradiation in 2 Gy fractions. Some patients received different treatment regimens including hypofractionation due to deteriorating clinical status ($n = 15$), a higher total dose (66 Gy) to compensate for a pause in the radiation treatment following post-surgical complications ($n = 1$) or a premature termination of radiation treatment due to worsening of symptoms and/or the patient’s preference ($n = 26$). 2 patients (0.6%) died before radiation treatment was commenced.

Overall mortality amounted to 90.4% (293 of 324 patients) over a median follow-up of 13 months. Median survival time was 13.1 months (95% confidence interval 11.3–14.8 months).

Body composition measurements

[Supplementary Fig. 2](#) demonstrates histograms of continuous body composition measurements. Median muscle CSA was higher at C2 compared to C1 while median fat CSA was higher at C1 compared to C2. Both measures were also higher in male compared to female patients ($p < 0.001$ for all). Median fat CSA for males and females was 15.4 cm^2 and 12.3 cm^2 at the C1 and 14.3 cm^2 and 10.8 cm^2 at the C2 level. Median muscle CSA for males and females were 31.4 cm^2 and 21.7 cm^2 at the C1 and 35.6 cm^2 and 23.4 cm^2 at the C2 level, respectively. These cutoffs served to categorize patients into low-muscle and high-muscle or -fat groups. Patient characteristics in [Table 1](#) are also demonstrated by stratified low-muscle and high-muscle groups based on C1 level measurements. Patients in the low-muscle group were more likely to be of older age and had a higher CCI, a higher ECOG score (all $p < 0.001$) and a higher weight ($p = 0.022$) and BMI ($p = 0.005$).

Univariable analyses for body composition measurements and survival

In univariable log-rank calculations, shorter survival was found in the low-muscle group compared to the high-muscle group for both C1 and C2 ([Fig. 4](#)). Median OS was 10.4 months in the low-muscle and 15.1 months in the high-muscle group ($p = 0.014$) for C1 and 10.2 vs. 15.1 months ($p = 0.012$) for C2. Conversely, the low-fat group survived longer compared to the high-fat group at both levels. Median OS was 14.8 months in the low-fat and 11.0 months in the high-fat group ($p = 0.012$) for C1 and 14.7 vs. 11.3 months ($p = 0.066$) for C2.

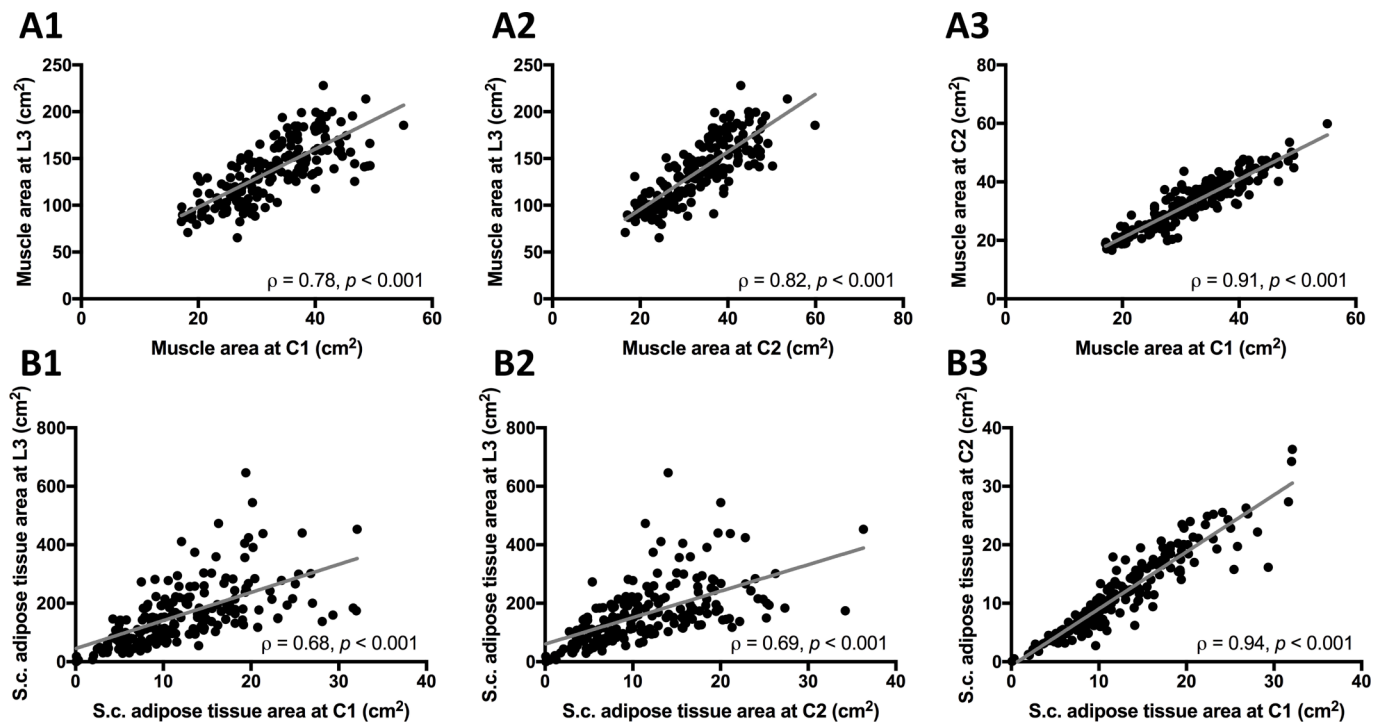


Fig. 2. Correlation between measurements at the level of the first cervical (C1), second cervical (C2) and third lumbar vertebra (L3). Spearman correlation coefficients and respective *p* values are presented. Muscle (panels A1-3) and fat (panels B1-3) measurements were correlated.

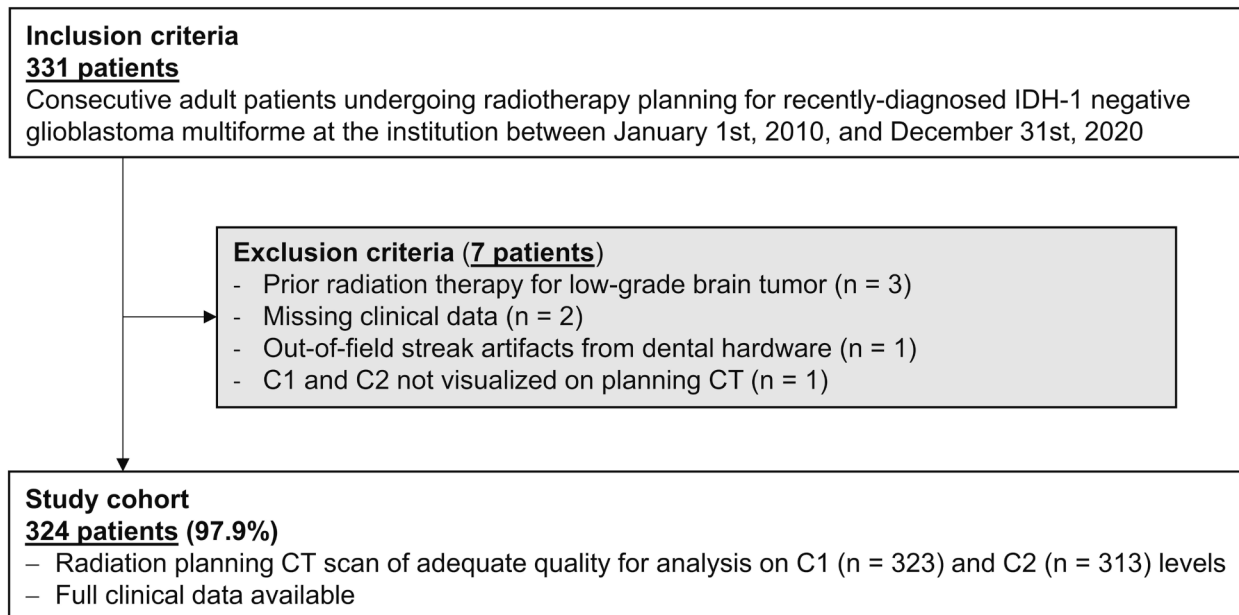


Fig. 3. Glioblastoma cohort inclusion and exclusion criteria. IDH-1: isocitrate dehydrogenase 1. C1: first cervical vertebra. C2: second cervical vertebra. CT: computed tomography.

Multivariable analyses including novel body composition measurements

We then performed multivariable Cox proportional hazard regressions, adjusting for parameters known to be associated with survival. Here, both muscle groups and continuous muscle measurements were independently associated with OS (Table 2). Low muscle measurements were associated with reduced survival. Conversely, associations were lost for subcutaneous fat tissue in a multivariable setting for group and continuous measurements (Table 2).

Associations with ECOG score

We subsequently assessed associations between muscle and fat measurements and performance status, as reflected in the ECOG score (Supplementary Fig. 3). Muscle and fat measurements did not show strong relationships with ECOG scores. We only found weak to moderate negative associations between muscle and ECOG score in males and weak positive associations between fat and ECOG score in females.

Table 1

Patient characteristics. Median and interquartile range, mean and standard deviation or number and percentage are given, as appropriate. Data are presented for all included patients (n = 324) and for patients with below-average (n = 162) and above-average (n = 161) muscle measurements at the first cervical vertebra (C1; measurements were not available in n = 1 patient).

	All (n = 324)	C1 low muscle group (n = 162)	C1 high muscle group (n = 161)	p value
General patient characteristics				
Age, years, median (range)	63 (21–89)	67 (25–89)	60 (21–85)	<0.001
Body mass index, kg/m ² , median (range)	26.0 (13.7–58.8)	25.4 (13.7–42.0)	26.6 (17.8–58.8)	0.005
Height, cm, median (range)	174 (148–198)	174 (150–198)	174 (148–195)	0.72
Weight, kg, median (range)	80 (43–188)	79 (43–130)	81 (48–188)	0.022
Male, n (%)	197 (60.8)	98 (60.5)	98 (60.9)	0.95
Patient comorbidities				
Charlson Comorbidity Index, median (range)	4 (2–12)	5 (2–12)	4 (2–11)	<0.001
Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group (EGOG) Score, n (%)				
ECOG 0–1	235 (72.5)	120 (63.0)	132 (82.0)	
ECOG 2–4	89 (27.5)	60 (37.0)	29 (18.0)	
Tumor characteristics & treatment details				
MGMT methylation status, n (%)				
Un-methylated	151 (46.6)	73 (45.1)	77 (47.8)	0.62
Methylated	173 (53.4)	89 (54.9)	84 (52.2)	
Extent of resection, n (%)				
Gross total resection (GTR)	149 (46.0)	71 (42.8)	77 (47.8)	0.32
Subtotal resection (STR)	125 (38.6)	69 (42.6)	56 (34.8)	
Biopsy	50 (15.4)	22 (13.6)	28 (17.4)	
Radiation dose, Gy	60 (0–66)	60 (0–60)	60 (0–66)	0.37
Standard dose (60 Gy) applied, n (%)	273 (84.3)	135 (83.3)	137 (85.1)	0.67
Tumor size at time of diagnosis, cm ³	30.6 (0.3–170.9)	32.9 (1.7–170.9)	28.9 (0.3–140.6)	0.11
Bilateral tumor manifestation, n (%)	45 (13.9)	20 (12.3)	25 (15.5)	0.41
Number of lesions at time of diagnosis¹, n (%)				
Single lesion	246 (75.9)	129 (79.6)	116 (72.1)	0.11
Multiple lesions	78 (24.1)	33 (20.4)	45 (28.0)	

¹ Contrast-enhancing lesions on T1-weighted preoperative magnetic resonance imaging scans.

Comparison with temporal muscle thickness

Finally, we performed correlation analyses between TMT and cervical muscle measurements. Preoperative MRI imaging allowed for successful TMT measurements in 307 of 324 patients (94.7%). The median time difference between preoperative MRI and postoperative radiation planning CT added up to 22 days (range 7–81 days). Correlations were only moderately strong between TMT and C1 (Spearman's $\rho = 0.40$, $p < 0.001$) and C2 ($\rho = 0.44$, $p < 0.001$, [Supplementary Fig. 4](#)). Upon inclusion of both measures into the multivariable model, both TMT and cervical muscle measurements were significantly associated with OS ([Supplementary Table 3](#)).

Discussion

In our study, we implemented and validated cervical body composition measures obtained from routine radiation planning CTs as novel biomarkers associated with OS in GBM patients. Patients with low muscle or high fat measurements experienced shorter OS compared to those with high muscle or low fat measurements. Muscle measurements at levels C1 and C2 were independently associated with OS in multivariable models. These findings indicate that body composition parameters obtained from routine cranial radiation planning CT scans may help to improve the prediction of death in GBM patients.

Our study introduces the concept of body composition into the context of brain tumor radiation planning CT imaging. As radiation treatment is routinely recommended in GBM patients, radiation planning imaging is widely available in this cohort. Radiation planning scans have recently been used to evaluate non-cancerous features in lung [37] and head and neck cancer [38]. This novel approach takes advantage of routine imaging generated as part of clinical radiation therapy preparation, underlining the value of radiotherapy-related data for prognostication.

Here, we proceeded to implement novel measurements at the C1 and C2 levels in outcome prediction for GBM patients, consistently demonstrating that muscle measurements are novel risk predictors associated with OS. Fat parameters showed univariable associations with OS, but relationship was lost in multivariable modelling, indicating that cervical fat measurements do not improve existing risk stratification, contrary to muscle measurements. Measurements were investigated in a group-based setting based on cutoffs to demonstrate that these measurements may help identify specific groups at risk for shorter survival. However, multivariable testing also involved continuous body composition measurements, leveraging the availability of more granular data. Ultimately, the continuous nature of the measurements may allow for a more individualized approach in prognostication.

Body composition measures have been extensively investigated in abdominal malignancies based on the availability of standardized L3 measurements [19]. More recently, thoracic imaging has similarly been utilized to demonstrate associations between body composition and mortality in cancer patients [39]. Cervical imaging has not been investigated to a similar degree, resulting in a lack of understanding and standardization. Some studies noted reproducibility of muscle measurements at the level of the third [40] and fifth [41] cervical vertebra and introduced measurements to head and neck cancer patients [27,42,43]. Here, we provide data to show that body composition measurements at the level of C1 and C2 are feasible, reproducible and are correlated with standardized measurements from L3. Correlations between muscle measurements at C1/2 and L3 was strong and on par with correlations in the thorax [44]. Meanwhile, fat tissue measurements differed somewhat more strongly, possibly due to the old age of non-contrast CT scans used. Modern, high-quality CT scans will likely enable more accurate measurements and may result in stronger correlations.

During patient screening, exclusion rates were minimal. Metal dental hardware may limit analyses in individual cases due to streak artifacts, but this phenomenon only precluded measurements in a single patient.

Our pre-specified model considered the most relevant established risk factors for mortality in our patient cohort, including sex, BMI, performance status, multilesional tumors vs. single lesions, comorbidities and age (combined in the CCI), tumor size, extent of resection, bilateral tumor extent, and MGMT methylation. In accordance with previous findings [5,6,8,29,32,33,35,36], most of these parameters were associated with survival. Interestingly, tumor size and number of lesions held no prognostic relevance in a multivariable setting, potentially due to the inclusion of “postoperative resection status” and “bilateral tumor extent” as related and more relevant risk factors.

Multiple studies have shown the value of TMT in GBM patients [21–24] while only a single small-scale study disagreed [45]. Notably,

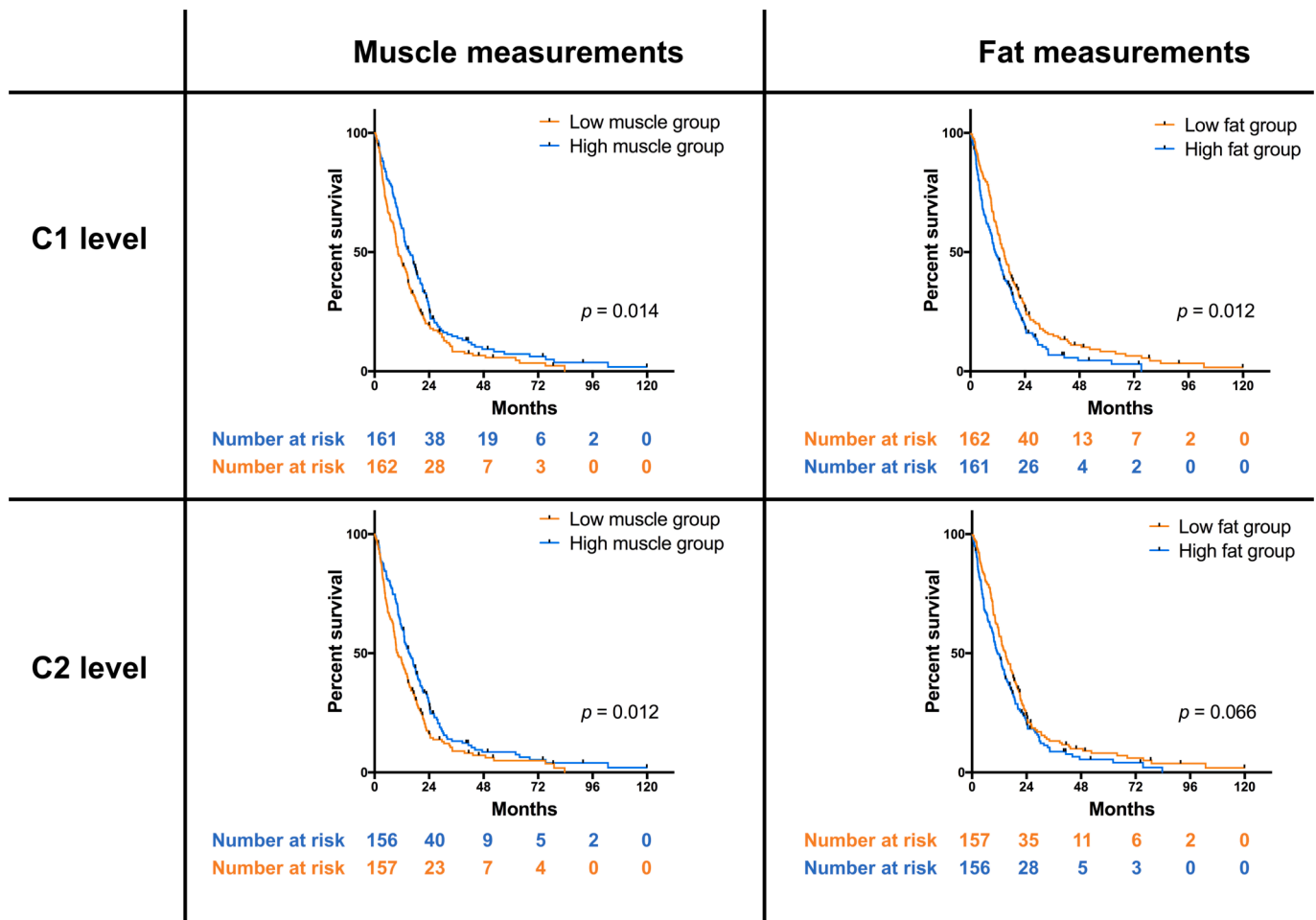


Fig. 4. Kaplan Meier plots demonstrate relationship between overall survival and low-muscle or fat area group (orange) and high-muscle or fat area group (blue), according to C1 measurements (upper row) and C2 measurements (lower row). Low-muscle group patients experienced significantly shorter survival compared to high-muscle group patients ($p = 0.014$ for C1, median survival 10.4 vs. 15.1 months; $p = 0.012$ for C2, median survival 10.2 vs. 15.1 months), while low-fat group patients experienced longer survival ($p = 0.012$ for C1, median survival 14.8 vs. 11.0 months; $p = 0.066$ for C2, median survival 14.7 vs. 11.3 months).

our study shows that cervical muscle measurements and TMT may reflect different body composition characteristics given only limited correlation. In our combined model, both measures significantly contributed to GBM risk prognostication independently of each other. Combining multiple different non-cancerous imaging features is increasingly given consideration in efforts to improve risk prognostication [37]. In this setting, we propose the combination of TMT and cervical muscle measurements for prediction of survival in GBM patients. We hypothesize that future research in other imaging features may identify additional prognostic factors to further improve the existing model.

Improving cervical muscle measurements themselves may also offer intriguing future potential. Our two-dimensional measures can easily be expanded to include three dimensions, e.g., by encompassing the entire C1-C2 segment. CT-based 3D body composition has previously been established via convolutional networks [46]. Given the capacity for population-scale body composition analysis using deep learning algorithms [47], there is substantial potential to both expand and simplify measurement acquisition. Fully automated algorithms eliminate measurement time and may facilitate implementation of measurements in clinical practice.

Radiation planning CT scans are generally performed post-surgery. However, up-front surgery remains the gold standard in GBM patients, so we do not believe that pre-operative availability of parameters would impact clinical decision-making. This was reflected in our model as the extent of resection remained a key prognostic factor. We believe the

immediate clinical value of our findings lies in a better understanding of individualized prognosis for patients and caregivers. Enhanced prognostic capabilities may allow for well-timed intensification of palliative support in end-of-life settings, potentially improving patient quality of life in this critical period. Here, measurements may support the clinician’s qualitative “eyeball test” with quantitative data. They may also enhance patient decision-making by providing a better prognostic understanding to caregivers and patients.

Interestingly, there was only limited association between physical status, as reflected in the ECOG score, and muscle and fat measurements. This indicates that body composition measurements are not a close surrogate for performance status but may include additional information. Numerous other parameters have previously been identified that influence body composition markers, including nutrition [48], hormonal status [49], inflammatory status [50], stress [51], sleep [52], socioeconomic status [53], and genetics [54]. Thus, in our view, these body composition measures reflect a multitude of individual factors which in their sum show the potential to enhance GBM prognostication.

Whether muscle or fat are modifiable variables, e.g., by exercise, remains unclear and warrants investigation. Exercise interventions are becoming more common in GBM patients [55–57] and prospective studies are currently underway to assess whether structured exercise programs may prolong survival. Additionally, diet, general physical activity and inflammatory status may also be modifiable variables [48,58,59]. In this setting, our retrospective study underscores the potential relevance of investigating these interventions in this patient

Table 2

Multivariable Cox proportional hazard regression of overall survival in glioblastoma patients including novel muscle measures. Tumor size was calculated from preoperative contrast enhanced T1 magnetic resonance imaging. Extent of resection was calculated as biopsy, subtotal resection (STR; more than 5% of contrast-enhancing mass remaining on post-op MRI) and gross total resection (GTR; <5% of contrast-enhancing mass remaining on post-op MRI). ECOG: Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group. MGMT: O⁶-Methylguanine-DNA Methyltransferase.

	C1 high muscle group (vs. low-muscle group [reference]) n = 323		C2 high muscle group (vs. low-muscle group [reference]) n = 313		C1 muscle area (in cm ²) n = 323		C2 muscle area (in cm ²) n = 313	
	HR (CI)	p	HR (CI)	p	HR (CI)	p	HR (CI)	p
Muscle measurement								
Body mass index, kg/m ²	1.03 (1.01–1.06)	0.005	1.03 (1.01–1.06)	0.005	1.04 (1.02–1.06)	0.001	1.04 (1.02–1.06)	0.001
Sex								
Female	Ref. 1.00		Ref. 1.00		Ref. 1.00		Ref. 1.00	
Male	1.11 (0.87–1.43)	0.391	1.14 (0.88–1.47)	0.311	1.54 (1.1–2.17)	0.013	1.73 (1.18–2.52)	0.005
Charlson Comorbidity Index, points	1.12 (1.05–1.2)	0.001	1.12 (1.04–1.2)	0.002	1.11 (1.03–1.19)	0.004	1.1 (1.03–1.18)	0.008
ECOG Score								
0–1	Ref. 1.00		Ref. 1.00		Ref. 1.00		Ref. 1.00	
≥2	1.55 (1.17–2.04)	0.002	1.55 (1.17–2.04)	0.002	1.52 (1.15–2.01)	0.003	1.52 (1.15–2)	0.004
Tumor size at time of diagnosis, cm³	1 (0.99–1)	0.594	1 (1–1)	0.788	1 (0.99–1)	0.524	1 (0.99–1)	0.607
Number of lesions at time of diagnosis¹								
1	Ref. 1.00		Ref. 1.00		Ref. 1.00		Ref. 1.00	
2 or more	1.28 (0.93–1.75)	0.127	1.21 (0.88–1.66)	0.234	1.23 (0.9–1.68)	0.188	1.22 (0.89–1.68)	0.211
Tumor extent								
Unilateral	Ref. 1.00		Ref. 1.00		Ref. 1.00		Ref. 1.00	
Bilateral	1.44 (1.19–1.73)	<0.001	1.42 (1.17–1.71)	<0.001	1.43 (1.18–1.72)	<0.001	1.42 (1.17–1.71)	<0.001
MGMT methylation status								
Un-methylated	Ref. 1.00		Ref. 1.00		Ref. 1.00		Ref. 1.00	
Methylated	0.61 (0.48–0.78)	<0.001	0.61 (0.48–0.77)	<0.001	0.61 (0.48–0.78)	<0.001	0.6 (0.47–0.77)	<0.001
Extent of resection								
GTR	Ref. 1.00		Ref. 1.00		Ref. 1.00		Ref. 1.00	
STR	1.18 (0.9–1.56)	0.221	1.21 (0.92–1.6)	0.165	1.18 (0.9–1.55)	0.225	1.23 (0.93–1.61)	0.145
Biopsy	2.47 (1.69–3.61)	<0.001	2.53 (1.72–3.72)	<0.001	2.53 (1.73–3.68)	<0.001	2.59 (1.77–3.8)	<0.001

¹ Contrast-enhancing lesions on T1-weighted preoperative MRI scans.

cohort. However, notably, interventions need to be supervised by dedicated professionals and individualized according to patient preferences, disease status, treatment and symptoms, thus conforming to the “adapted physical therapy” concept [60].

There are some notable limitations to this study. First, the retrospective design did not allow for assessment of muscle strength and function or for analysis of exercise levels relative to imaging measures. Second, a single-center design may carry inherent biases, especially in a retrospective setting. However, a significant number of GBM patients was included in our analysis and patient characteristics were in line with previous studies. Third, for validation and C1/2-L3 correlation analyses, we relied on cancer patient data from lung cancer patients as whole-body CT scans of healthy participants are not routinely available. However, we chose pre-therapeutic scans of non-metastatic lung cancer, a tumor entity unlikely to affect body composition on C1/C2 or L3 levels disproportionately. Finally, this implementation study only assessed and established muscle measurements at a single timepoint. Future studies may allow for longitudinal assessments in patients undergoing re-irradiation. However, only selected patients typically undergo re-irradiation [61].

In conclusion, in this exploratory study, we implement cervical body composition parameters including muscle and subcutaneous fat tissue cross-sectional area at levels C1 and C2 and demonstrate validity and reproducibility of measurements. We proceed to demonstrate that muscle measurements are independent prognostic parameters for overall survival in glioblastoma patients. As these parameters are readily available from radiation planning CT scans, muscle parameters could be harnessed to improve prognostication in this patient cohort.

Funding statement

We acknowledge support from the Open Access Publication Fund of the University of Muenster.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability statement:

All data generated and analyzed during this study are included in this published article (and its [supplementary information](#) files).

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ctro.2023.100621>.

References

- [1] Shieh LT, Ho CH, Guo HR, Huang CC, Ho YC, Ho SY. Epidemiologic features, survival, and prognostic factors among patients with different histologic variants of glioblastoma: analysis of a nationwide database. *Front Neurol* 2021;12(November): 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fneur.2021.659921>.
- [2] Miller KD, Ostrom QT, Kruchko C, et al. Brain and other central nervous system tumor statistics, 2021. *CA Cancer J Clin* 2021;71(5):381–406. <https://doi.org/10.3322/caac.21693>.
- [3] Christians A, Adel-Horowski A, Banan R, et al. The prognostic role of IDH mutations in homogeneously treated patients with anaplastic astrocytomas and glioblastomas. *Acta Neuropathol Commun* 2019;7(1):1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40478-019-0817-0>.
- [4] Louis DN, Perry A, Wesseling P, et al. The 2021 WHO classification of tumors of the central nervous system: A summary. *Neuro Oncol* 2021;23(8):1231–51. <https://doi.org/10.1093/neuonc/noab106>.
- [5] Binabaj MM, Bahrami A, ShahidSales S, et al. The prognostic value of MGMT promoter methylation in glioblastoma: A meta-analysis of clinical trials. *J Cell Physiol* 2018;233(1):378–86. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jcp.25896>.
- [6] Potharaju M, Mangaleswaran B, Mathavan A, et al. Body Mass Index as a Prognostic Marker in Glioblastoma Multiforme: A Clinical Outcome. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2018;102(1):204–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijrobp.2018.05.024>.

- [7] Lin Z, Yang R, Li K, et al. Establishment of age group classification for risk stratification in glioma patients. *BMC Neurol* 2020;20(1):1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12883-020-01888-w>.
- [8] Barz M, Bette S, Janssen I, et al. Age-adjusted Charlson comorbidity index in recurrent glioblastoma: a new prognostic factor? *BMC Neurol* 2022;22(1):4–11. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12883-021-02532-x>.
- [9] Brown TJ, Brennan MC, Li M, et al. Association of the Extent of Resection With Survival in Glioblastoma. *JAMA Oncol* 2016;2(11):1460. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaoncol.2016.1373>.
- [10] Tewarie IA, Senders JT, Kremer S, et al. Survival prediction of glioblastoma patients—are we there yet? A systematic review of prognostic modeling for glioblastoma and its clinical potential. *Neurosurg Rev* 2021;44(4):2047–57. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10143-020-01430-z>.
- [11] Sharma A, Graber JJ. Overview of prognostic factors in adult gliomas. *Ann Palliat Med* 2021;10(1):863–74. <https://doi.org/10.21037/apm-20-640>.
- [12] Bundred J, Kamarajah SK, Roberts KJ. Body composition assessment and sarcopenia in patients with pancreatic cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *HPB* 2019;21(12):1603–12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hpb.2019.05.018>.
- [13] Best TD, Mercaldo SF, Bryan DS, et al. Multilevel Body Composition Analysis on Chest Computed Tomography Predicts Hospital Length of Stay and Complications After Lobectomy for Lung Cancer. *Ann Surg*. 2020; Publish Ahead of Print. 10.1097/sla.0000000000004040.
- [14] Troschel FM, Jin Q, Eichhorn F, et al. Sarcopenia on preoperative chest computed tomography predicts cancer-specific and all-cause mortality following pneumonectomy for lung cancer: A multicenter analysis. *Cancer Med* 2021;10(19):6677–86. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cam4.4207>.
- [15] Martini DJ, Olsen TA, Goyal S, et al. Body composition variables as radiographic biomarkers of clinical outcomes in metastatic renal cell carcinoma patients receiving immune checkpoint inhibitors. *Front Oncol* 2021;11(July):1–9. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fonc.2021.707050>.
- [16] DeFilipp Z, Troschel FM, Qualls DA, et al. Evolution of body composition following autologous and allogeneic hematopoietic cell transplantation: incidence of sarcopenia and association with clinical outcomes. *Biol Blood Marrow Transplant* 2018;24(8):1741–7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbmt.2018.02.016>.
- [17] Derstine BA, Holcombe SA, Ross BE, Wang NC, Su GL, Wang SC. Skeletal muscle cutoff values for sarcopenia diagnosis using T10 to L5 measurements in a healthy US population. *Sci Rep* 2018;8(1):1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-29825-5>.
- [18] Shen W, Punyanitya M, Wang ZM, et al. Total body skeletal muscle and adipose tissue volumes: Estimation from a single abdominal cross-sectional image. *J Appl Physiol* 2004;97(6):2333–8. <https://doi.org/10.1152/jappphysiol.00744.2004>.
- [19] Vangelov B, Bauer J, Kotevski D, Smeel RI. The use of alternate vertebral levels to L3 in computed tomography scans for skeletal muscle mass evaluation and sarcopenia assessment in patients with cancer: A systematic review. *Br J Nutr* 2022;127(5):722–35. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114521001446>.
- [20] Fintelmann FJ, Troschel FM, Mario J, et al. Thoracic Skeletal Muscle Is Associated With Adverse Outcomes After Lobectomy for Lung Cancer. *Ann Thorac Surg* 2018;105(5):1507–15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.athoracsur.2018.01.013>.
- [21] Furtner J, Genbrugge E, Gorlia T, et al. Temporal muscle thickness is an independent prognostic marker in patients with progressive glioblastoma: Translational imaging analysis of the EORTC 26101 trial. *Neuro Oncol* 2019;21(12):1587–94. <https://doi.org/10.1093/neuonc/noz131>.
- [22] Liu F, Xing D, Zha Y, et al. Predictive Value of Temporal Muscle Thickness Measurements on Cranial Magnetic Resonance Images in the Prognosis of Patients With Primary Glioblastoma. *Front Neurol* 2020;11(November):1–6. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fneur.2020.523292>.
- [23] An G, Ahn S, Park JS, Jeun SS, Hong YK. Association between temporal muscle thickness and clinical outcomes in patients with newly diagnosed glioblastoma. *J Cancer Res Clin Oncol* 2021;147(3):901–9. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00432-020-03386-5>.
- [24] Morshed RA, Young JS, Casey M, et al. Sarcopenia diagnosed using masseter muscle diameter as a survival correlate in elderly patients with glioblastoma. *World Neurosurg* 2022;161:e448–63. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wneu.2022.02.038>.
- [25] Machtay M, Duan F, Siegel BA, et al. Prediction of survival by [18F] fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography in patients with locally advanced non-small-cell lung cancer undergoing definitive chemoradiation therapy: Results of the ACRIN 6668/RTOG 0235 trial. *J Clin Oncol* 2013;31(30):3823–30. <https://doi.org/10.1200/JCO.2012.47.5947>.
- [26] Clark K, Vendt B, Smith K, et al. The cancer imaging archive (TCIA): Maintaining and operating a public information repository. *J Digit Imaging* 2013;26(6):1045–57. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10278-013-9622-7>.
- [27] Brill SI, Pezier TF, Tjink BM, Janssen LM, Braunius WW, de Bree R. Preoperative low skeletal muscle mass as a risk factor for pharyngocutaneous fistula and decreased overall survival in patients undergoing total laryngectomy. *Head Neck* 2019;41(6):1745–55. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hed.25638>.
- [28] Madariaga MLL, Troschel FM, Best TD, Knoll SJ, Gaissert HA, Fintelmann FJ. Low Thoracic Skeletal Muscle Area Predicts Morbidity After Pneumonectomy for Lung Cancer. *Ann Thorac Surg* 2020;109(3):907–13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.athoracsur.2019.10.041>.
- [29] Bloch O, Han SJ, Cha S, et al. Impact of extent of resection for recurrent glioblastoma on overall survival. *J Neurosurg* 2012;117(6):1032–8. <https://doi.org/10.3171/2012.9.JNS12504>.
- [30] Franco P, Delev D, Cipriani D, et al. Surgery for IDH1/2 wild-type glioma invading the corpus callosum. *Acta Neurochir (Wien)* 2021;163(4):937–45. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00701-020-04623-z>.
- [31] Ahmadipour Y, Rauschenbach L, Gembruch O, et al. To resect or not to resect? Risks and benefits of surgery in older patients with glioblastoma. *J Geriatr Oncol* 2020;11(4):688–93. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jgo.2019.10.013>.
- [32] Gittleman H, Ostrom QT, Stetson LC, et al. Sex is an important prognostic factor for glioblastoma but not for nonglioblastoma. *Neuro-Oncology Pract* 2019;6(6):451–62. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nop/npz019>.
- [33] Ening G, Osterheld F, Capper D, Schmieder K, Brenke C. Charlson comorbidity index: an additional prognostic parameter for preoperative glioblastoma patient stratification. *J Cancer Res Clin Oncol* 2015;141(6):1131–7. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00432-014-1907-9>.
- [34] Palpan Flores A, Vivancos Sanchez C, Roda JM, et al. Assessment of Pre-operative Measurements of Tumor Size by MRI Methods as Survival Predictors in Wild Type IDH Glioblastoma. *Front Oncol* 2020;10(September):1–12. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fonc.2020.01662>.
- [35] Shieh LT, Guo HR, Chang YK, Lu NM, Ho SY. Clinical implications of multiple glioblastomas: An analysis of prognostic factors and survival to distinguish from their single counterparts. *J Formos Med Assoc* 2020;119(3):728–34. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fjma.2019.08.024>.
- [36] Bjorland LS, Dæhli Kurz K, Fluge Ø, et al. Butterfly glioblastoma: Clinical characteristics, treatment strategies and outcomes in a population-based cohort. *Neuro-oncology Adv* 2022;4(1). <https://doi.org/10.1093/naojnl/vdac102>.
- [37] Tahir I, Marquardt JP, Mercaldo ND, et al. Utility of noncancerous chest CT features for predicting overall survival and noncancer death in patients with stage I lung cancer treated with stereotactic body radiotherapy. *Am J Roentgenol* Published online 2022. <https://doi.org/10.2214/ajr.22.27484>.
- [38] Grossberg AJ, Mohamed ASR, El Halawani H, et al. Data descriptor: Imaging and clinical data archive for head and neck squamous cell carcinoma patients treated with radiotherapy. *Sci Data* 2018;5:1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1038/sdata.2018.173>.
- [39] Troschel AS, Troschel FM, Best TD, et al. Computed tomography-based body composition analysis and its role in lung cancer care. *J Thorac Imaging* Published online 2019;31268959. <https://doi.org/10.1097/RTI.0000000000000428>.
- [40] Swartz JE, Pothen AJ, Wegner I, et al. Feasibility of using head and neck CT imaging to assess skeletal muscle mass in head and neck cancer patients. *Oral Oncol* 2016;62:28–33. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oraloncology.2016.09.006>.
- [41] Zopf D, Pinto dos Santos D, Kottlors J, et al. Two-dimensional CT measurements enable assessment of body composition on head and neck CT. *Eur Radiol* Published online 2022. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00330-022-08773-9>.
- [42] Ganju RG, Morse R, Hoover A, TenNapel M, Lominska CE. The impact of sarcopenia on tolerance of radiation and outcome in patients with head and neck cancer receiving chemoradiation. *Radiother Oncol* 2019;137(August):117–24. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.radonc.2019.04.023>.
- [43] Jung AR, Roh JL, Kim JS, Choi SH, Nam SY, Kim SY. Efficacy of head and neck computed tomography for skeletal muscle mass estimation in patients with head and neck cancer. *Oral Oncol* 2019;95(August):95–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oraloncology.2019.06.009>.
- [44] Troschel AS, Troschel FM, Muniappan A, Gaissert HA, Fintelmann FJ. Role of skeletal muscle on chest computed tomography for risk stratification of lung cancer patients. *J Thorac Dis* 2019;11(S3):S483–4. <https://doi.org/10.21037/jtd.2019.01.73>.
- [45] Muglia R, Simonelli M, Pessina F, et al. Prognostic relevance of temporal muscle thickness as a marker of sarcopenia in patients with glioblastoma at diagnosis. *Eur Radiol* 2021;31(6):4079–86. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00330-020-07471-8>.
- [46] Koitka S, Kroll L, Malamutmann E, Oezcelik A, Nensa F. Fully automated body composition analysis in routine CT imaging using 3D semantic segmentation convolutional neural networks. *Eur Radiol* 2021;31(4):1795–804. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00330-020-07147-3>.
- [47] Magudia K, Bridge CP, Bay CP, et al. Population-Scale CT-based Body Composition Analysis of a Large Outpatient Population Using Deep Learning to Derive Age-, Sex-, and Race-specific Reference Curves. *Radiology* 2021;298(2):319–29. <https://doi.org/10.1148/RADIOLOGY.2020201640>.
- [48] Prado CM, Purcell SA, Laviano A. Nutrition interventions to treat low muscle mass in cancer. *J Cachexia Sarcopenia Muscle* 2020;11(2):366–80. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jcsm.12525>.
- [49] Armellini F, Zamboni M, Bosello O. Hormones and body composition in humans: Clinical studies. *Int J Obes* 2000;24:S18–21. <https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.ijo.0801270>.
- [50] Fleming CA, O'Connell EP, Kavanagh RG, et al. Body composition, inflammation, and 5-year outcomes in colon cancer. *JAMA Netw Open* 2021;4(8):1–15. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2021.15274>.
- [51] Stefanaki C, Pervanidou P, Boschiero D, Chrousos GP. Chronic stress and body composition disorders: implications for health and disease. *Hormones* 2018;17(1):33–43. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42000-018-0023-7>.
- [52] Jurado-Fasoli L, Amaro-Gahete FJ, De-La-o A, Dote-Montero M, Gutiérrez Á, Castillo MJ. Association between sleep quality and body composition in sedentary middle-aged adults. *Med* 2018;54(5). <https://doi.org/10.3390/medicina54050091>.
- [53] Bann D, Cooper R, Wills AK, Adams J, Kuh D. Socioeconomic position across life and body composition in early old age: Findings from a british birth cohort study. *J Epidemiol Community Health* 2014;68(6):516–23. <https://doi.org/10.1136/jech-2013-203373>.
- [54] Owen JB. Genetic aspects of body composition. *Nutrition* 1999;15(7–8):609–13. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0899-9007\(99\)00097-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0899-9007(99)00097-0).
- [55] Troschel FM, Ramroth C, Lemcke L, et al. Feasibility, safety and effects of a one-week, ski-based exercise intervention in brain tumor patients and their relatives: A pilot study. *J Clin Med* 2020;9(4):1006. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm9041006>.

- [56] Troschel FM, Brandt R, Wiewrodt R, Stummer W, Wiewrodt D. High-intensity physical exercise in a glioblastoma patient under multimodal treatment. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2019;51(12):2429–33. <https://doi.org/10.1249/MSS.0000000000002067>.
- [57] Cormie P, Nowak AK, Chambers SK, Galvão DA, Newton RU. The potential role of exercise in neuro-oncology. *Front Oncol* 2015;5(April):1–6. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fonc.2015.00085>.
- [58] Palma S, Hasenoehrl T, Jordakieva G, Ramazanov D, Crevenna R. High-intensity interval training in the prehabilitation of cancer patients—a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Support Care Cancer* 2021;29(4):1781–94. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00520-020-05834-x>.
- [59] Keats MR, Grandy SA, Blanchard C, et al. The impact of resistance exercise on muscle mass in glioblastoma in survivors (RESIST): protocol for a randomized controlled trial. *JMIR Res Protoc* 2022;11(5):1–12. <https://doi.org/10.2196/37709>.
- [60] Torregrosa C, Chorin F, Beltran EEM, Neuzillet C, Cardot-Ruffino V. Physical activity as the best supportive care in cancer: the clinician's and the researcher's perspectives. *Cancers (Basel)* 2022;14(21). <https://doi.org/10.3390/cancers14215402>.
- [61] Minniti G, Niyazi M, Alongi F, Navarria P, Belka C. Current status and recent advances in reirradiation of glioblastoma. *Radiat Oncol* 2021;16(1):1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13014-021-01767-9>.