

The increasing indications of FDG-PET/CT in the staging and management of Invasive Bladder Cancer

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1 **Abstract**

2

3 **Context:**

4 The management of locally advanced Muscle Invasive Bladder Cancer (MIBC) often
5 necessitates neo-adjuvant chemotherapy (NAC) to eliminate any micro-metastatic disease prior
6 to definitive radical cystectomy (RC) and pelvic lymph node dissection (PLND). The use of new
7 imaging techniques, such as FDG-PET/CT, enables more accurate initial staging of bladder
8 cancer. In addition, it appears to be better at assessing cancer response to NAC, compared to the
9 more traditional CT and MRI imaging, which is crucial for definitive peri-operative surgical
10 planning.

11

12 **Objective:** Review the evolving indications of functional F-fluoro-2-deoxy-D-glucose positron
13 emission tomography/computed tomography (FDG-PET/CT) imaging in MIBC.

14

15 **Conclusion:** FDG-PET/CT is being increasingly utilised in local nodal staging and detection of
16 metastatic disease in MIBC. Furthermore, it appears more accurate than conventional imaging
17 modalities (CT/MRI) in assessing tumour response to NAC. This enables the earlier detection of
18 tumour response and/or residual disease, impacting factors such as the duration of chemotherapy,
19 with its associated adverse effects, and the timing of surgical intervention.

20 **Introduction**

21

22 Bladder cancer is the second most common urogenital malignancy, preceded by prostate
23 cancer. It is the sixth most common cancer in men and the seventeenth most common cancer
24 in women. Cigarette smoking is the most significant modifiable risk factor whereas age and
25 family history comprise the most significant non-modifiable counterparts. About 90% of
26 bladder cancer in developed countries have a urothelial origin (transitional cell carcinoma),
27 while squamous cell carcinoma is more prevalent in developing nations.

28

29 Management strategies and prognosis of bladder cancer depends on the extent of the
30 locoregional disease and categorisation into non-muscle invasive disease ($\leq T1$ stage) and
31 muscle invasive disease ($\geq T2$ stage), which account for 75% and 25% of cases respectively. ¹
32 Annually, 275,000 people are diagnosed with this disease and 108,000 die from it. Non-
33 muscle invasive disease is managed surgically with transurethral resection of the tumour with
34 or without photodynamic chemotherapeutic adjuvants.²

35

36 The standard of care for muscle-invasive disease which is amenable to surgical treatment
37 (cT2-T4aN0M0) is radical cystectomy (RC). It is recommended in patients with a longer life
38 expectancy without concomitant disease and a higher performance score (PS). Among
39 neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NAC) options, platinum-based options such as cisplatin
40 combinations are preferred, if eligible. If ineligible, immunotherapy can be offered, on a trial
41 setting. Radiotherapy (RT) is not recommended. ^{3,4}

42

43 If refractory to NAC, patients with organ-confined disease (cT2-T4aN0M0), are more likely
44 to benefit from direct radical cystectomy rather than NAC. Assessing NAC response is

45 therefore essential to the peri-operative management of these patients. For this reason, non-
46 invasive imaging techniques such as ^{18}F -fluoro-2-deoxy-D-glucose positron emission
47 tomography/computed tomography (^{18}F -FDG PET/CT) have been developed. Initially, its use
48 was limited due to the high urinary excretion activity of the ureters and bladder. However,
49 recent studies suggest that this technique can aid the detection of both lymph node metastases
50 as well as distant metastases. ⁵

51

52 Finally, in patients with lymph node metastases (cT2-T4aN1-2M0), chemotherapy-induced
53 downstaging of the primary tumour can be offered, which has been shown to confer a strong
54 survival benefit. ⁶ However, persistence of lymph node metastases, post-induction
55 chemotherapy, is associated with poor prognosis, with radical cystectomy often being
56 performed with palliative rather than curative intent. ⁷

57

58 Therefore, the main objectives of our review paper is to assess the usefulness of ^{18}F -FDG
59 PET/CT in the pre-clinical and post-treatment staging of bladder cancer, with a focus on its
60 ability to evaluate response to NAC. We will also review established techniques for accurate
61 sentinel lymph node mapping and their use in pelvic lymph node dissection.

62 **Cystectomy**

63

64 According to the European Association of Urology (EAU) and American Urological
65 Association (AUA) guidelines, in developed countries, radical cystectomy is the standard
66 treatment of care for localised muscle-invasive bladder cancer (MIBC; T2-T4a, cN0-Nx, M0)
67 and should be performed within 3 months of initial resection.^{4,8-10} Other indications include
68 recurrent high-risk, non-muscle invasive bladder cancer (NMIBC), BCG-relapsing and BCG-
69 unresponsive NMIBC, in addition to extensive papillary disease that cannot be managed with
70 trans-urethral resection and intravesical therapy alone.¹¹ Salvage cystectomy is preserved for
71 non-responders to conservative therapy, non-urothelial carcinomas, recurrence after bladder-
72 sparing treatment, or for palliative purposes.

73

74 The typical procedure performed is a cystoprostatectomy in men and a cystectomy, with or
75 without a hysterectomy, in women. This is followed by the formation of a continent or
76 incontinent urinary diversion, depending on patient preference and contra-indications. Where
77 possible, sexual function preserving procedures should be discussed with patients who meet
78 the requirements of organ-confined disease lacking any bladder neck, urethra or prostate
79 involvement.¹ Options include prostate, capsule, seminal and nerve-sparing techniques in
80 men, although, there is a paucity of data regarding pelvic organ preservation in females.

81

82 An important component of RC, that facilitates pathological staging and may have a
83 therapeutic role, is a simultaneous standard or extensive bilateral regional pelvic lymph node
84 dissection (PLND). However, the extent of dissection, number of nodes required, and the
85 anatomical boundaries remain controversial. Currently, there is limited evidence that
86 extended PLND significantly improves recurrence-free or overall survival, with the LEA trial

87 failing to show a statistically significant improvement in recurrence-free survival (RFS),
88 cancer-specific survival (CSS) and overall survival (OS).¹² A larger prospective randomized-
89 controlled trial undertaken by the Southwest Oncology Group comparing standard with
90 extended pelvic lymphadenopathy should provide further insight once completed in August
91 2022.^{13,14}

92
93 This brings up an interesting statistical phenomenon known as the Will Rogers which
94 introduces significant bias in the analysis of even the most contemporary studies assessing
95 the beneficial role of extended PLND in bladder cancer. This phenomenon refers to the
96 reclassification of patients to different disease stages because of newer diagnostic techniques
97 (limited vs extended PLND) which ultimately leads to stage migration and misinterpretation
98 of the resulting survival statistics as patients are re-classified from less to more severe
99 metastatic disease. As a result, this can yield a significant improvement in stage-specific
100 prognosis, even though there is no change in the outcome of the individual patients.¹⁵

101
102 Traditionally, radical cystectomy has been performed via an open approach, but, more
103 recently minimally invasive techniques have gained popularity, including both laparoscopic
104 and robotic-assisted approaches. Recent evidence suggests that these minimally invasive
105 techniques are a feasible and safe alternative to open radical cystectomy (ORC), when
106 performed by high volume experienced surgeons in selected patients.¹³ In particular, the
107 RAZOR randomised trial confirmed that the robotic approach is non-inferior to the open
108 approach, in terms of 2-year progression-free survival.¹⁶ This was further confirmed by the
109 Cochrane review which identified similar outcomes for robotic cystectomies, compared to the
110 open approach, in terms of time to recurrence, major complication rates, quality of life and
111 positive margin rates.¹⁷

112

113 Chemotherapy

114

115 MIBC (T2-4a, N0, M0) treated with RC only confers a 50% 5-year survival. Since the 1980s,
116 platinum-based NAC has been used to enhance outcomes (8% improvement at 5 years).^{18,19}

117 Two common regimens currently used for urothelial carcinomas are methotrexate,

118 vinblastine, doxorubicin, cisplatin (MVAC) and gemcitabine, cisplatin (GC).

119

120 MVAC was the first recognised option for patients with locally advanced or metastatic

121 urothelial cancer, administered with a 4-week cycle. This was later modified to a dose-dense

122 regimen, administered in 2-week cycles. This led to fewer dose delays and a more favourable

123 toxicity profile associated with a significant improvement in overall survival.²⁰ GC is a newer

124 regimen which is currently being considered as some studies have shown that it has a more

125 favourable toxicity profile. However, it is unclear whether it enhances complete pathologic

126 response and progression free survival.^{18,21,22}

127

128 Pre-clinical bladder cancer staging and the role of Positron Emission Tomography**129 (PET)**

130

131 The prognosis and treatment strategies offered to patients with bladder cancer is dependent

132 on the tumour stage and grade.²³ Carcinomas can be defined as low or high grade based on

133 their histology whilst staging is based on the Tumour, Node, Metastasis (TNM)

134 Classification. Knowledge of vascular or lymphatic invasion also aids in the decision making

135 as it is an independent prognostic indicator.²⁴

136

137 At diagnosis, 10-15% of patients with urothelial carcinomas were found to have distant
138 metastatic disease at the point of diagnosis and 50% of those with true localised disease
139 eventually developed metastatic lesions within two years, despite aggressive therapy.²⁵ The
140 most common techniques traditionally used to aid staging are computerised tomography (CT)
141 and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) of the abdomen and pelvis. They are routinely used
142 prior to transurethral resection of the bladder tumour to establish the extent of local invasion
143 as well as progression to lymph nodes, upper urinary tract, or distant organs.²⁶ However,
144 despite their effectiveness in detecting primary bladder disease, both have a low sensitivity
145 for nodal staging, thereby rendering them impractical to use in this setting.^{25,27,28}

146

147 A possible solution to the above is ¹⁸F-fluoro-2-deoxy-D-glucose (¹⁸F-FDG) positron
148 emission tomography (PET)/CT which confers whole-body imaging. This modality exploits
149 the increased utilisation of glucose by malignant cells and by extent, their high glucose
150 uptake and enables clinicians to identify regional and distant metastases as well as cancer
151 recurrences before they become evident by conventional imaging modalities. Despite these
152 benefits, widespread adoption of this radiotracer-guided imaging has remained slow. Initial
153 concerns around the high urinary excretion of ¹⁸F-FDG in the bladder and ureters (which can
154 mask bladder lesions and regional metastatic lymph nodes), and substantial overlap of the
155 standardized uptake values (SUVs) from the active inflammatory process and the malignant
156 lesion has limited its use. This is exemplified by small sample studies which have suggested
157 that FDG/PET CT does not confer the appropriate diagnostic accuracy required for the
158 identification of regional lymph node metastasis.^{29,30}

159

160 To overcome these limitations, simple, non-invasive protocols have been proposed. For
161 example, oral rehydration with forced diuresis enhances the elimination of the ¹⁸F-FDG

162 radiotracer without interfering with its uptake by the vesical tumour.^{31,32} Moreover, to
163 improve the diagnostic accuracy of the PET/CT itself, radiological protocols such as the
164 combination of the axial-based lymph node (LN) size and SUV_{max} criteria were incorporated.

165 ³³ Over time there has been an increasing amount of evidence to suggest that ¹⁸F-FDG
166 PET/CT provides a high sensitivity and specificity in the pre-operative detection of bladder
167 cancer as well as lymph node metastases, pelvic lesions and distant metastases.³³⁻³⁵

168

169 Further large, randomised controlled trials are required to verify these findings, but, for now
170 ¹⁸F-FDG PET/CT has been shown to influence the management of patients and is an
171 important prognostic indicator for progression-free survival (PFS) and overall survival (OS).

172 ^{36,37} Its significance is further exemplified by a recent consensus statement by the European
173 Association of Urology (EAU) and the European Society for Medical Oncology (ESMO)
174 which stated that ¹⁸F-FDG PET/CT should be included in oligometastatic disease staging to
175 minimise the risk of overtreatment, when radical treatment options are being considered.

176 ²⁵ Thus, molecular imaging is essential to accurately stage and evaluate response to treatment,
177 avoid unnecessary aggressive interventions and maximise quality of life.

178

179 **Restaging bladder cancer and the role of Positron Emission Tomography (PET)**

180

181 Patients with newly diagnosed MIBC (T2–T4aNXM0) are routinely offered NAC as it has
182 been shown to improve survival through tumour down-staging as well as increasing the
183 likelihood of a pathological complete response (pCR; i.e. pT0).³⁸ Even if LN metastases are
184 present at initial staging, pCR following NAC is associated with a 5-year cancer specific
185 survival of up to 64%.⁶ However, if LN metastases persist despite NAC, patients have a
186 bleak prognosis and cystectomy is not always the most appropriate management option.⁹ As

187 a result, chemotherapy-induced downstaging might be a potential surrogate marker for
 188 chemosensitivity and overall survival.³⁹

189

190 Despite its benefits, NAC is associated with significant risks, like every treatment, which
 191 include chemotoxicity and more importantly a delay in the radical treatment of chemo-
 192 resistant tumours, chiefly through direct radical cystectomy. Bhindi et al found that patients
 193 with residual tumour post-NAC and cystectomy have worse overall survival (OS) and cancer-
 194 specific survival (CSS) compared to matched controls of similar disease stage with nil NAC.

195 ⁴⁰ To date, there is no consensus recommendation regarding restaging imaging during NAC to
 196 identify chemo sensitive tumours. In fact, the EAU guidelines go one step further by stating
 197 that there is no evidence for the use of CT in the assessment of NAC-responsiveness in
 198 patients with MIBC.^{4,27,28} Identification of techniques with a high sensitivity to NAC-
 199 response as well as recurrence detection is therefore warranted to enhance patient survival,
 200 limit chemotherapy-related side-effects and improve quality of life.⁴¹

201

202 Currently, traditional techniques used for follow-up and restaging include a combination of
 203 cystoscopy, urine cytology, routine blood tests and imaging such as CT or MRI scans. Whilst
 204 the CT evaluates the intravesical recurrence, the MRI assesses the presence of nodal or
 205 distant metastases. ¹⁸F-FDG-PET/CT is a relatively new technique that reliably monitors
 206 response to chemotherapy in various cancer types and is more accurate than conventional
 207 imaging (Table 1). It allows early visualisation of metabolism alternations, which occur
 208 before morphological changes become visible.⁴²

209

Diagnosis	Allows better assessment of a patient's response to NAC
	Used in detection of both Lymph node metastases and distant

	<p>F-FDG is used for whole-body imaging, and utilises the increased use of glucose by malignant cells – which clinicians can use to identify local/distant metastases before they are signalled by conventional imaging modalities</p>
	<p>Improved diagnostic accuracy of PET/CT, and F-FDG PET/CT by combinations of axial based LN size and SUV_{max} criteria allowed high sensitivity as well as specificity in pre-operative detection of bladder cancers, lymph node metastases, pelvic lesions, and distant metastases</p>
	<p>Imaging here allows early visualisation of metabolism alternations</p>
	<p>It has an 83% sensitivity with a 94% specificity for the detection of chemo-sensitive tumours</p>
Follow up	<p>F-FDG-PET/CT proven to reliably monitor response to chemotherapy in various cancers</p>
	<p>High efficacy in bladder cancer, with a 92% sensitivity of F-FDG-PET/CT in detecting residual invasive bladder cancer, and a 95.2% accuracy in detecting post-treatment recurrence outside the urinary tract, especially for bone lesions</p>
	<p>FDG-PET/CT has a sensitivity and specificity of 78.5% and 95.6% respectively in identifying complete pathologic response</p>
Treatment	<p>F-FDG-PET/CT shown to influence patient management and is a prognostic indicator of PFS and OS</p>
	<p>F-FDG-PET/CT should be included in oligometastatic disease staging to minimise the risk of overtreatment, when radical treatment options are being considered</p>
	<p>Currently recommended by the American College of Radiology for patients with MBIC (from skull-base to mid-thighs)</p>

Table 1. The evolving indications of FDG-PET/CT in muscle-invasive bladder cancer based on the current recommendations of the European Association of Urology, European Society for Medical Oncology and American College of Radiology Appropriateness Criteria. ^{14, 26, 49}

210

211 A recent meta-analysis by Xue et al. identifies FDG-PET/CT as an effective method to detect
212 both residual and recurrent disease. ⁴³ Higashiyama et. al confirmed a 92% sensitivity of ¹⁸F-
213 FDG-PET/CT in detecting residual invasive bladder cancer. ⁴⁴ When compared to the
214 conventional re-staging technique i.e. contrast-enhanced CT, FDG-PET/CT maintained its
215 superior accuracy in detecting post-treatment recurrence outside the urinary tract, primarily
216 bone lesions, with an accuracy of 95.2%. ⁴⁵

217

218 When used to assess response to induction chemotherapy, FDG-PET/CT was found to have a
219 sensitivity and specificity of 78.5% and 95.6% respectively in identifying complete
220 pathologic response and 83% and 94% respectively for the detection of chemo-sensitive
221 tumours. ⁴⁶ Abrahamsson et al. further investigated the usefulness of this technique in patients
222 with LN-positive MIBC by identifying an association between pCR and increased PFS and
223 CSS. ⁴⁷

224

225 Furthermore, the updated 2021 American College of Radiology Appropriateness Criteria
226 recommend the use of FDG-PET/CT from the skull-base to mid-thigh in patients with MIBC
227 as it has been shown to have prognostic significance. ⁴⁸ Further large-cohort randomised trials
228 would ideally be required to confirm its usefulness and routine usage as small-cohort studies
229 provide conflicting evidence regarding its accuracy in detecting LN metastasis post-NAC. ⁴⁹

230

231 **Pelvic Lymph Node Dissection**

232

233 Pelvic lymph node dissection (PLND) enables appropriate staging of bladder cancer along
234 with prognostic information. LN metastases are identified in 20-25% of patients at the time of
235 RC, hence conferring poor oncologic outcomes and triggering administration of adjuvant
236 cisplatin-based chemotherapy, if NAC was not given.^{1,8,9} Appropriate clearance of these
237 metastatic nodes is therefore essential to improve CSS and OS. Yet the optimal extend of
238 PLND has not been established to date.¹⁵

239

240 A contributing factor is that many studies use a template system consisting of limited,
241 standard, extended and super-extended resection. Whilst these phrases are commonly used,
242 they do not consistently refer to the same anatomical boundaries. Limited PLND classically
243 refers to a dissection restricted to the obturator fossa bilaterally. Standard PNLND includes
244 removal of nodal tissue cranially up to the common iliac bifurcation, with the ureter being the
245 medial border. It also includes removal of the internal iliac, presacral, obturator fossa and
246 external iliac nodes. Extended PLND includes all areas previously mentioned and all LNs in
247 the region of the aortic bifurcation as well as the presacral and common iliac vessels, medial
248 to the crossing ureters. The genitofemoral nerves form the lateral borders whilst the
249 circumflex iliac vein, lacunar ligament and LN of Cloquet form the caudal extension. Super-
250 extended PLND extends the dissected area caudally to the level of the inferior mesenteric
251 artery.^{50,51}

252

253 Li et al.'s meta-analysis identified a statistically significant survival advantage for bladder
254 cancer patients following RC in patients with a greater number of dissected lymph nodes.⁵²

255 The number of LNs dissected could therefore be an independent prognostic indicator in

256 bladder cancer and would validate the theory of enhanced outcomes with extended PLND.

257 This is supported by Alveus et. al's multicentre analysis which identified a higher average

258 number of tumour-draining sentinel lymph nodes in patients treated with NAC who belonged

259 to the Complete Response rather than the Progressive Disease cohort, thereby implying that

260 the number of positive LNs is directly proportional to the strength of the immune system.⁵³

261 Conversely, whilst submission of separate nodal packets instead of *en-block* has shown a

262 significant increase in total LN yield, this was not associated with an increased number of

263 positive LNs, making LN density an inaccurate prognostic indicator.⁵⁴

264

265 Approximately 41% of metastatic lymph nodes are outside the confines of the standard

266 PLND template, implying that an extended or super-extended PLND would yield superior

267 oncological outcomes.⁵¹ Wang et al. supported this hypothesis with a favourable long-term

268 prognosis identified in patients undergoing extended PLND.⁵⁵ However, when the super-

269 extended approach was compared to the extended PLND template, no oncological benefit

270 was noted, which may be because metastatic spread beyond the anatomical pelvis increases

271 the risk of visceral and nodal deposits beyond the super-extended template.⁵¹

272

273 The LEA trial, a recent prospective phase III randomised controlled trial (RCT) assessing

274 extended versus limited LND, failed to identify a significant improvement of recurrence-free

275 survival (RFS; aimed to show an absolute improvement of 15% for the 5-year RFS), CSS and

276 OS in patients with extended LND.¹² The disparity of "extended" and "limited" PLND

277 definitions between studies, combined with the multimodal approaches to treatment with neo-

278 adjuvant and adjuvant chemotherapy and specifics on how studies were powered complicate

279 these results. Results from a prospective RCT performed by the Southwest Oncology Group

280 (SWOG), which is fully accrued but not yet reported, may shed further light as to the
281 therapeutic role of extended PLND.¹⁴

282

283 **Lymph Node Mapping**

284

285 Bladder lymphatic flow and cancer spread to LNs is difficult to predict and innovative
286 techniques are required to enhance the existing techniques and improve surgical outcomes.
287 Sentinel LN (SLN) mapping can aid the resection of selected, invaded LNs, thus easing
288 histopathological examination, instead of performing a “blind” template LN resection in the
289 form of limited, standard, extended or super-extended PLND. SLN biopsy (SLNB) has been
290 successfully incorporated in clinical practise for the treatment of breast and skin cancer and
291 has contributed to a reduction in the extent of lymphadenectomy, improved oncologic
292 outcomes and limited surgical complications.

293

294 Unfortunately, the lymphatic drainage pattern of the pelvis is complicated, and the bladder
295 sentinel drainage is highly variable, with nodes often being identified unilaterally or
296 bilaterally. This bilateral distribution of SLNs can happen independent of the tumour position
297 and is named the Crossover phenomenon. It may be due to simultaneous SLNs arising from
298 different tumour parts and anatomically different lymphatic routes in patients. Hence accurate
299 lymph node mapping is essential.

300

301 Currently, the most common dyes used for SLN mapping are technetium-labelled
302 radiocolloids (Tc-RadCol), blue dye and indocyanine green (ICG). The standard technique to
303 detect LNs using these methods is to use a gamma probe for Tc-RadCol, a near-infrared
304 fluorescent (NIRF) camera for ICG and direct visualisation for the blue dye.⁵⁸

305

306 Zarifmahmoudi et al. identified a high detection rate and sensitivity for SLNB in MIBC and
307 showed that low pT stage bladder cancers with clinically negative LNs, are the most
308 appropriate group for SLN mapping.⁵⁶ A comparative study assessing the usefulness of Tc-
309 RadCol and ICG in the evaluation of LNs in bladder cancer identified that both techniques
310 are useful, with the ICG fluorescent technique allowing a safe, live view of the results, at no
311 additional cost.⁵⁷

312

313 How et al. further confirmed these findings through a comparative study for all 3 agents – Tc-
314 RadCol, ICG and blue dye – in endometrial cancer. ICG was found to be superior to blue dye
315 and comparable to Tc-RadCol. It also showed that a combination of ICG and Tc-RadCol
316 enables a high detection rate of SLN, with the blue dye not being essential for SLN detection.
317⁵⁸ A hybrid tracer utilising the radioactivity of technetium and the fluorescence of ICG may
318 be ideal moving forward.

319

320 There is evidence to suggest that combining FDG-PET/CT with traditional SLN techniques
321 can be a promising diagnostic approach, capable of enhancing the pre-operative LN
322 assessment by identifying safe candidates for SLNB. A recent national multicentre study
323 performed by Jakobsen et al. in Denmark has shown a reduction in the false-negative rate in
324 penile cancer patients from 11.8% to 5.6% when SLNB was used in conjunction with FDG-
325 PET/CT. However, there is a lack of large-cohort studies assessing the safety, viability and
326 effectiveness of this technique in bladder cancer LN mapping.^{59,60}

327 **Conclusion**

328

329 The management of muscle invasive bladder cancer requires a co-ordinated multi-
330 disciplinary approach. The use of FDG-PET/CT imaging allows for improved nodal staging
331 and detection of metastatic disease, thus enabling earlier identification of patient response to
332 NAC when compared to the traditional imaging modalities (CT, MRI). The risks associated
333 with potential overtreatment and chemotherapeutic side effects may be mitigated and
334 definitive radical treatment can be undertaken in a timely fashion. The evolving indications of
335 FDG-PET/CT, both initially at diagnosis as well as during and post treatment with NAC, is
336 exciting, although further studies, including randomised controlled trials, are required to
337 reliably assess its impact on both overall and disease-free survival.

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