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Monitoring photodynamic therapy of solid tumors online by BOLD-contrast MRI

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Antivascular photodynamic therapy (PDT) of tumors with palladium-bacteriopheophorbide (TOOKAD) relies on in situ photosensitization of the circulating drug by local generation of cytotoxic reactive oxygen species, which leads to rapid vascular occlusion, stasis, necrosis and tumor eradication. Intravascular production of reactive oxygen species is associated with photoconsumption of O₂ and consequent evolution of paramagnetic deoxyhemoglobin. In this study we evaluate the use of blood oxygenation level-dependent (BOLD) contrast magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) for real-time monitoring of PDT efficacy. Using a solid tumor model, we show that TOOKAD-PDT generates appreciable attenuation (25–40%) of the magnetic resonance signal, solely at the illuminated tumor site. This phenomenon is independent of, though augmented by, ensuing changes in blood flow. These results were validated by immunohistochemistry and intravital microscopy. The concept of photosensitized BOLD-contrast MRI may have intraoperative applications in interactive guidance and monitoring of antivascular cancer therapy, PDT treatment of macular degeneration, interventional cardiology and possibly other biomedical disciplines.

PDT relies on photoexcitation of an inactive photosensitizing drug in the tissue of interest at a wavelength matched to photosensitizer absorption. The excited photosensitizer reacts *in situ* with molecular oxygen to produce cytotoxic reactive oxygen species, resulting in necrosis of the treated tissue. Photogeneration of reactive oxygen species during the course of PDT is manifested by local photoconsumption of oxygen^{1,2} and hemodynamic insults that include capillary occlusion, hemorrhage and stasis^{3,4}. These vascular effects are crucial for development of necrosis and tumor eradication^{3,4}. PDT represents a relatively new approach to the treatment of various tumors⁵ and nonmalignant, hyperproliferative diseases⁶ such as ophthalmic age-related macular degeneration, for which PDT is already in wide clinical use⁶.

We recently synthesized a new family of photosensitizing agents derived from the photosynthetic pigment bacteriochlorophyll $a^{1,3,7-12}$. The lead compound, TOOKAD, was developed by us in collaboration with Steba Biotech (Toussus Le-Noble, France) and

has photochemical and pharmacological characteristics that are superior to those of photosensitizing agents in clinical use. These characteristics include a high molar extinction coefficient (ε_0) at near-infrared (ε_0 of ~10⁵ at 763 nm, enabling active treatment depth up to 2 cm)^{7,8,10,11} and rapid clearance from the circulation (half-life of 3 min; unpublished data). Vascular targeting is achieved by simultaneous intravenous administration of TOOKAD and illumination of the treatment site, enabling a shorter treatment protocol and intraoperative application^{7,8,10,12}. In July 2002, Steba Biotech started clinical trials of TOOKAD-PDT for the treatment of prostate cancer.

We previously reported that antivascular PDT with bacteriochlorophyll derivatives induces appreciable response and cure rates for melanoma, glioma, sarcoma and human prostate xenograft models in mice^{3,8,11}, rats⁹ and normal dog prostate¹⁰.

Precise light delivery is essential for safe PDT. Although opticfiber insertion into internal organs can be assisted by standard techniques (optical, X ray or ultrasonography), real-time imaging of the light impact and tissue response to PDT is presently unavailable. This may be crucial in cases where the target tumor is internal or located near vital organs, nerve bundles or major blood vessels that must be spared (for example, in multifiber light delivery for treatment of prostate cancer). In such cases, online guidance of the photodynamic process is desirable.

BOLD-contrast MRI was first shown *in vivo* and in deoxygenated human blood *ex vivo* by Ogawa *et al.*¹³. BOLD-contrast MRI of susceptibility-weighted (T_2^*) or transverse relaxation--weighted (T_2) images is derived from the inherent paramagnetic properties of deoxyhemoglobin. Detection and imaging *in vivo* rely on spatial and temporal changes in blood oxygenation, flow and volume¹⁴. BOLD-contrast MRI has been applied in cancer research for monitoring tumor response to vasomodulators¹⁵, analysis of tumor vessel functionality and maturation, and angiogenesis^{15–18}.

We therefore examined whether photoconsumption of oxygen and the consequent hemodynamic effects inherent to antivascular PDT could generate detectable BOLD contrast, thus enabling functional MRI of a photochemical process. We tested this concept by evaluating changes in magnetic resonance contrast during TOOKAD-PDT, using the solid M2R mouse melanoma model. We

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show here the generation of considerable BOLD contrast at the tumor site upon TOOKAD-PDT.

Figure 1 TOOKAD-PDT of M2R mouse melanoma. (a) Tumor response in a mouse treated with TOOKAD and immediately illuminated. Complete healing and cure were defined as tumor-free states at 50-60 d and 90 d, respectively, after PDT. (b) Immunostaining for PDT-induced vascular lipid peroxidation. Left and middle, positive staining of HNE-protein adducts (brown; indicative of lipid peroxidation). PDT-induced HNE staining is confined to blood vessel wall (left), mainly coinciding with the large vessels (BV) at the viable tumor rim (VTR; middle). HNE staining is also observed in the spontaneous necrotic core (NEC) of the tumor (PDT-independent; middle). Right, negative staining in light-control animals. Histological sections were prepared from three PDT-treated, two light-control and two dark-control (data not shown) mice. Representative specimens are shown. (c) Tumor perfusion, as determined by red blood cell (RBC) flux in PDT-treated (n = 6) and light-control (n = 5) mice, was monitored by video microscopy in animals administered red blood cells prestained with ~1% 4-Di-10-ASP and dextran-TRITC as a blood-pool marker.

e perfusion rate, reaching stasis in 3–4 min, whereas illumination alone had no significant effect (Fig. 1c).

RESULTS TOOKAD-PDT of solid M2R melanoma

Solid subcutaneous tumors derived from the M2R melanoma cell line were treated with TOOKAD-PDT. A single PDT treatment induced hemorrhagic necrosis (11 of 11 mice within 3 d), followed by tissue healing (21–40 d) and cure (\leq 54 d; Fig. 1a). The cumulative cure rate was 64% (followed up to 90 d). Tumors in untreated (n = 3), light (n = 4) and dark (n = 3) controls continued to grow; mice were killed when the tumor reached \geq 10% of body volume.

Photochemical generation of reactive oxygen species during the course of TOOKAD-PDT was confined mainly to the tumor blood vessels, as shown immunohistochemically by the anatomical distribution of the lipid peroxidation product 4-hydroxynonenal (HNE)¹⁹, early after PDT (Fig. 1b). The strongest HNE staining was seen in large blood vessels located at the tumor rim (Fig. 1b). In light (Fig. 1b) and dark controls (data not shown), HNE staining was negative and seen only in the necrotic tumor core (spontaneous; PDT-independent).

It has been reported by us³ and by others⁴ that during the course of antivascular PDT, rapid and intense hemodynamic alterations and stasis are observed at the treated tumor site. We therefore assessed changes in tumor perfusion before, during and after PDT, using fluorescence intravital microscopy. TOOKAD administration and immediate tumor illumination initiated a rapid decrease in

Figure 2 Photochemical reduction in sPO₂, recorded in human blood using TOOKAD and light. (a) Spectroscopy, with or without TOOKAD. To allow spectroscopic sPO₂ measurements, light was fractionated 10× (1 min light, 40 s dark) to enable eight repetitive 5-s readings each. (b) T₂-weighted MRI. Blood was photosensitized for 1 min (P₁, duplicate) or 5 min (P₅, duplicate); duplicates were positioned separately to minimize the influence of field inhomogeneity. NT, untreated blood; LC, light control (5 min); DC, dark control (duplicate); N₂, blood deoxygenated by N₂ equilibration. (c), MRSI changes with blood oxygenation (mean MRSI ± s.e.m). Experiments in **a**–**c** were repeated three times. **a** and **b** show representative experiments; **c** shows MRSI average ± s.e.m.

Hemoglobin saturation in photosensitized blood

It was expected that photosensitization of circulating TOOKAD would lead to production of reactive oxygen species with concomitant oxygen depletion. We therefore examined acute changes in blood oxygenation, as manifested by changes in hemoglobin saturation levels (sPO₂), using two independent methods.

For the spectroscopic study, fresh human blood was subjected to spectral analysis of sPO_2 during PDT *in vitro*. Initial sPO_2 (in the dark) was ~65% (≤ 3 min; Fig. 2a). A rapid decline in sPO_2 was observed upon illumination, reaching a plateau at ~25% (≥ 2 min of illumination). In the absence of TOOKAD, illumination had no







effect. These results indicate that photosensitization with TOOKAD in blood leads to a reduction in sPO₂.

We next determined the effect of PDT on sPO₂ in isolated human blood, as manifested in T_2 -weighted magnetic resonance signal intensity (MRSI) under similar conditions. MRSI declined by 38.1% and 74.4% after 1 and 5 min of illumination, respectively, reaching a basal level equivalent to that of deoxygenated blood equilibrated with N₂ (Fig. 2b,c). MRSI of dark and light controls was essentially identical to that of untreated blood, which was defined as 100%. Thus, photosensitization of TOOKAD in blood reduces sPO₂, as reflected by a significant decrease in MRSI of T_2 -weighted magnetic resonance images in the absence of flow and volume changes.

BOLD-contrast MRI during solid tumor PDT

Having shown that photosensitization of TOOKAD induces changes in blood oxygen levels, we next attempted to detect such

Figure 4 Kinetics of changes in BOLD-contrast MRI during TOOKAD-PDT. (**a**–**c**) Normalized MRSI (% of baseline at $t_0 \pm$ s.e.m.) was calculated from tumors and unilluminated control muscle (**Fig. 3**, T and M, respectively), in PDT-treated (**a**; n = 6), light-control (**b**; n = 4) and dark-control (**c**; n = 4) mice. (**d**) Δ R2* reflects changes in blood oxygenation and is independent of flow effects. R2* maps were derived by weighted linear regression of ln(MRSI) from data acquired using MEGE. (**e**) The rapid increase in Δ R2* upon drug administration and illumination (**d**) correlates with reduction in MRSI in the tumor (n = 4). No significant changes in MRSI or Δ R2* were observed in the light-control mice (n = 4). **d** and **e** show representative data from the same mouse.

Figure 3 TOOKAD-PDT of M2R melanoma: online BOLD-contrast MRI. (a) Experimental setup used for remote intravenous TOOKAD administration and illumination inside the magnet. (**b**,**d**) Anatomical images (pre-PDT, gradient echo) of PDT-treated (**b**) and light-control (**d**) mice, showing tumor location (T), unilluminated muscle (M) and direction of sensitizing light beam (yellow arrows). (**c**,**e**) BOLD-contrast MR signal intensity maps of PDT-treated (**c**) and light-control (**e**) mice, superimposed on the corresponding anatomical images (**b** and **d**, respectively) at the indicated time points (-2, +4 and +6 min), relative to onset of illumination. Color-coded maps represent the logarithmic ratio of signal intensity over baseline. The reduction in signal intensity upon illumination of the TOOKAD-treated mouse (**c**; +4 and +6 min) is solely confined to the illuminated zone, whereas no contrast is generated in the absence of TOOKAD (**e**) or light (M). Representative experiments are shown (*n* = 6 for PDT and *n* = 4 for light control).

changes during PDT of a solid tumor in vivo, using MRI. BOLDcontrast MRI was applied before, during and after PDT of a solid subcutaneous melanoma tumor (Fig. 3; see Fig. 3a for experimental setup and Fig. 4 for quantitative analysis). TOOKAD administration with illumination induced a profound decrease in MRSI (25-40%) solely within the illuminated tumor area (Figs. 3c and 4a). The strongest decrease in MRSI was observed at the tumor rim (Fig. 3c), in agreement with the spatial pattern of PDTinduced lipid peroxidation (Fig. 1b). No detectable change in MRSI was observed in unilluminated muscle (Figs. 3b,c and 4a) or in the light (Figs. 3d,e and 4b) and dark tumor controls (Fig. 4c). Attenuation of MRSI developed during the first 6-7 min of illumination and remained low throughout the experiment. These results suggest that rapid (≤2 min), local, photosensitized magnetic resonance BOLD contrast is generated during PDT. It also seems that the decline in perfusion rate and the changes in MRSI follow a similar kinetic pattern (Figs. 4a and 1c), suggesting that vascular shutdown is a major factor contributing to the lightdependent changes in magnetic resonance contrast.

Multiecho gradient echo (MEGE) is a method for distinguishing between changes in blood oxygenation and flow effects¹⁸. MEGE revealed a rapid increase in $\Delta R2^*$ (defined as $R2^*_{illumination} R2^*_{preil$ $lumination}$)upon photosensitizer administration and illumination (Fig. 4d). This result implies that the decrease in MRSI (Fig. 4e) may be attributed, at least in part, to a reduction in blood oxygenation. The different recovery dynamics for R2* and MRSI may



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reflect changes in the coupling between reduced blood flow (culminating in stasis), volume (evolving vasoconstriction, >2-3 min after onset of illumination) and photochemical and metabolic oxygenation after the termination of illumination.

DISCUSSION

The results of our study show that intravascular photosensitization of TOOKAD generates a change in BOLD contrast that is detectable by MRI. TOOKAD-PDT of mouse melanomas led to a 25-40% decline in MRSI (Fig. 4a,e), solely confined to the illuminated tumor zone (Fig. 3c). We suggest that this phenomenon results mainly from two processes that act in concert. First, rapid photochemical oxygen consumption leads to a rapid decline in sPO₂ (~75% within the first minute of illumination; Fig. 2a), as shown by spectral analysis and by the reduction MRSI in T₂weighted MRI of blood without changes in flow or volume (74.4% at 5 min of illumination; Fig. 2b,c). This deoxygenation of hemoglobin was also expected to significantly contribute to changes in bulk magnetic susceptibility, consistent with the changes in T₂*weighted BOLD contrast observed in vivo (Figs. 3c and 4d,e). These results were consistent with our previous report in which tissue oxygenation during PDT was directly measured in the same tumor model using an optical oxygen sensor¹. Second, a rapid hemodynamic effect, manifested by local vascular occlusion and stasis, was revealed by intravital microscopy (Fig. 1c). This process prevents local reoxygenation, thereby resulting in enhancement of the photochemically generated magnetic resonance contrast¹⁴. Reduced blood flow may further attenuate MRSI by reducing inflow effects (T₁ contrast). Consequently, our results suggest that the observed changes in BOLD contrast are the result of contributions by both photochemical and hemodynamic effects exclusively reporting from within the bloodstream, where photosensitization takes place. The kinetics of the two processes are similar (Figs. 1c and 2a,c) but their relative contribution to the overall decline in MRSI (Fig. 4a) has yet to be established. It seems that these two processes are closely related in time and space, as judged by independent criteria (BOLD-contrast MRI, lipid peroxidation immunohistochemistry and intravital microscopy).

These results describe, for the first time, functional imaging of solid tumor treatment using BOLD-sensitive parameters that could be applied to the online monitoring of clinical PDT. New intraoperative applications might be suggested for PDT of internal tumors (such as prostate, lung and brain). Photosensitized BOLD-contrast MRI could provide accurate three-dimensional monitoring of tumor vascular insult, the hallmark of antivascular PDT. In addition, careful calibration of the early photochemically induced changes in BOLD contrast (at various photosensitizer and light doses) could yield a correlative index for predicting the extent of photodynamic damage. This could permit interactive adjustment of treatment intensity for optimizing treatment outcome.

In the case of internal tumors, where light is interstitially delivered, avoiding damage to neighboring organs or major blood vessels requires precise delivery of light. Thus, the concept of photosensitized functional MRI could be applied to guided-light delivery, which would permit interactive adjustment to the direction and intensity of the light beam. Because of the appreciable depth of TOOKAD photosensitization *in vivo*^{10,11}, functional guidance might be effective for a few centimeters around the interstitial optic fiber. Consequently, future development of this imaging technology should be aimed at obtaining detectable changes in BOLD contrast in the presence of subdestructive delivery of attenuated photosensitizer and light doses.

This seems feasible, as photochemical oxygen depletion is almost instantaneous¹ (Fig. 2a) and photosensitized magnetic resonance BOLD contrast is of an extremely high magnitude (Figs. 3c and 4a), being about tenfold higher than reported for physiological activation of brain function $(\sim 5\%)^{20}$ and comparable to vasoactively induced stimuli affecting BOLD contrast in tumors^{16,17}.

In BOLD-contrast neuroimaging, outflow of deoxygenated blood from the activated area gives rise to 'false-positive' BOLD signals extending beyond the activated region (downstream dilution effect)²¹. Indeed, in the case of PDT, the current MRI protocol might also suffer from this effect. To minimize this undesired effect, we suggest that future development of this technology should be aimed at delivery of pulsed light, gated with rapid MRI sequences. In a typical setup, each illumination pulse would be terminated at the end of acquisition of each phase-encoding step, so light would be delivered only during time to echo (TE), consisting of only a fraction of the repetition time. Such a setup could ensure that light would be mostly 'off' during MRI data acquisition, minimizing vascular damage and the potential contribution of downstream spread of deoxygenated blood to the magnetic resonance readout.

In light of the fact that intraoperative open-magnet MRI is being widely used for controlling complex surgical procedures (reviewed in ref. 22), our results suggest that with some further development and careful calibration, photosensitized MRI could provide the means for real-time guidance and assessment of PDT.

METHODS

Animals, tumor model and PDT. Protocols of animal experiments were reviewed and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the Weizmann Institute of Science. Male CD1-nude mice $(30 \pm 2 \text{ g})$ were implanted subcutaneously with M2R melanoma xenografts³. PDT was done on 7- to 9-mm tumors as previously described^{3,8}, with the following changes: intravenous administration of TOOKAD (5 mg/kg in vehicle; Steba Biotech) was immediately followed by fiber-optic guided tumor illumination (light spot $\phi = 1 \text{ cm}^2$, 763 nm, 102 J/cm² for 10 min, using a 1-W diode laser; CeramOptec). Under these conditions, skin or tumor temperatures (by thermocouple) did not increase by more than 1 °C.

PDT was done in three modes. For tumor therapy, intravenous TOOKAD administration was immediately followed by transcutaneous illumination. For MRI, TOOKAD administration (by remotely activated intravenous catheterization) and transcutaneous illumination were done inside the magnet (Fig. 3a). For intravital microscopy, TOOKAD administration and illumination of the pre-exposed subcutaneous tumor from the inner face of the skin (skin-flap model²³) were conducted on the microscope stage. We used light controls (illuminated tumors in mice treated with vehicle alone) and dark controls (TOOKAD administered without illumination). Mice were killed with CO₂ when tumors reached $\geq 10\%$ of body volume.

MRI experiments. Gradient echo and MEGE magnetic resonance images were acquired on a horizontal 4.7-T Bruker BioSpec spectrometer as previously described¹⁷ (TE 10 ms for gradient echo and TE 10, 21.24 and 32.48 ms for MEGE, repetition time 230 ms, flip angle 40°, 256 × 256 pixels).

For animal studies, a whole-body excitation coil and a radiofrequencydecoupled 1.5-cm surface coil were used to improve signal-to-noise ratio (field of view 4 cm, slice thickness 0.8 mm). Mice were anesthetized, catheterized and restrained by adhesive tape (supine/lateral) to position the tumor above the center of the MRI surface coil; the laser optic fiber was fixed in place to illuminate the tumor area (Fig. 3a). After acquisition of four sequential images, mice were intravenously injected with TOOKAD, followed by illumination (10 min) while 11 more images were acquired. Room temperature was maintained at 28 °C.

For *ex vivo* measurements, freshly collected human blood in sodium citrate was spun down and resuspended in autologous plasma to 0.6–0.7 hematocrit, to minimize red blood cell sedimentation during MRI experiments. Blood

samples (500 µl) were placed in 6 × 50 mm glass tubes (Kimble) sealed under N₂, and each was placed in a 3.5-ml optical plastic cuvette containing 2 ml of PBS. A proton-volume coil was used (field of view 7 cm, slice thickness 2 mm, data zero filled to 512 × 512). Data were analyzed as the mean MRSI of the blood sample relative to the surrounding PBS.

Data analysis. MRI data was analyzed using MATLAB (MathWorks), Orisis (version 4.0.9; University Hospital of Geneva) and Paravision 2.1.1 (Bruker). R2* maps were derived by noise-weighted linear regression of log(MRSI) for each pixel. Only pixels with a fit of $R^2 \ge 0.36$ were analyzed.

Immunohistochemistry. Immunohistochemistry of PDT-induced lipid peroxidation was based on immunodetection of HNE, an aldehydic peroxidation product of polyunsaturated fatty acids that forms covalent adducts with proteins by reductive amination and Michael-type addition¹⁹. Immunohistochemistry was done using rabbit antiserum to HNE (1:400; Calbiochem)¹⁹, horseradish peroxidase–conjugated goat secondary antibody to rabbit IgG (Jackson) and 3-amino-9-ethylcarbazole (Sigma) as a chromogenic substrate.

Measurement of sPO₂ of photosensitized blood using optical spectroscopy. Fresh human blood collected in sodium citrate was steered at 37 °C in a sealed optical cuvette under N₂, without or with TOOKAD (100 µg/ml). Online spectroscopic sPO₂ determination was done with a LESA reflectance spectrometer (BioSpec)²⁴. Recording was initiated 2 min before illumination. Ten illumination cycles (1 min each, 170 mW/cm²) were carried out, with spectral measurements (8 × 5 s) in the intervening periods when the light was turned off.

Intravital microscopy. Fluorescence intravital microscopy was done with an upright microscope (Nikon Optiphot-2) equipped with a thermoregulated stage (37 °C), a CCD camera (50 frames per second; Applitech) and a VCR (JVC model HR-J437MS) for video recording. Red blood cell flux was monitored in M2R tumors exposed on the inner skin face (wetted with saline) using the skin-flap model²³. Red blood cells from a donor mouse were labeled *ex vivo* with 4-(4-(didecylamino)styryl)-*N*-methylpyridinium iodide (4-Di-10-ASP; 7.5 µg/ml; Molecular Probes)^{24,25}. Labeled red blood cells mixed with TRITC-dextran (256 kDa, 0.5 mg/mouse as blood-pool marker; Sigma) were intravenously administered to the tumor-bearing mice (labeled cells comprised 1.17 ± 0.08% of host red blood cells, as verified on blood smears) and allowed to circulate for 10 min before TOOKAD administration and illumination and ended 5 min after the light was turned off. Mice were killed using CO₂ at the end of the experiment.

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COMPETING INTERESTS STATEMENT

The authors declare competing financial interests (see the *Nature Medicine* website for details).

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