Review Articles

Current Concepts

TOXIC LEUKOENCEPHALOPATHY

Christopher M. Filley, M.D., and B.K. Kleinschmidt-DeMasters, M.D.

EUKOENCEPHALOPATHY is a structural alteration of cerebral white matter in which myelin suffers the most damage. Toxic leukoencephalopathy may be caused by exposure to a wide variety of agents, including cranial irradiation, therapeutic agents, drugs of abuse, and environmental toxins.¹ Toxic leukoencephalopathy particularly involves white-matter tracts devoted to higher cerebral function, causing clinical features that range from inattention, forgetfulness, and changes in personality to dementia, coma, and death. This review focuses on white-matter damage caused by toxins as distinguished from that caused by disorders such as multiple sclerosis, cerebrovascular disease, and metabolic disturbances.²

Although the prevalence of toxic leukoencephalopathy is unknown, the syndrome is increasingly being recognized among patients in whom neurobehavioral disturbances develop after exposure to toxins. The use of magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) has led to a greater appreciation of the damage that leukotoxic agents can inflict on white matter. The increasing success of antineoplastic drugs has produced a larger cohort of long-term survivors of cancer who have iatrogenic white-matter damage. Clarification of the neurologic effects of toluene, ethanol, cocaine, hallucinogenic drugs, and heroin has increased awareness that leukoencephalopathy can be a complication of substance abuse. Finally, the use of toluene and other organic solvents in the workplace has raised the possibility of toxic leukoencephalopathy as an occupational health hazard.

CLINICAL PRESENTATION

White matter makes up approximately half the cerebrum³ and is composed of multiple interhemispheric and intrahemispheric tracts connecting cortical and subcortical structures of gray matter.⁴ Although the role of white matter in movement, sensation, and vision is well known, cognition and emotion also depend on the integrity of white matter, because the majority of cerebral fibers are found in association with tracts and commissural tracts.^{4,5} Leukotoxic agents disrupt or abolish neural transmission in widespread neurobehavioral pathways, and thus, the most distinctive clinical manifestations of leukoencephalopathy are changes in mental status.^{1,4,5}

Toxic leukoencephalopathy should be part of the differential diagnosis in the case of any patient who presents with acute or chronic neurobehavioral deficits (Table 1) and who has a potential or known exposure to agents that are toxic to the cerebral white matter (Table 2). The clinical spectrum of toxic leukoencephalopathy generally parallels the severity of white-matter damage as well as its distribution, which is usually diffuse (Table 1). Mild cases are typified by a chronic confusional state with inattention, memory loss, and emotional dysfunction that may suggest a psychiatric disorder. Additional testing is usually necessary to distinguish a mild case of toxic leukoencephalopathy from psychiatric disease. More severe cases produce major neurologic sequelae such as dementia, abulia, stupor, and coma. In contrast to disorders of cortical gray matter such as Alzheimer's disease, toxic leukoencephalopathy does not primarily affect language, praxis, or perception.^{1,4,5} The fact that language is usually preserved is especially important, because it may mask the presence of other neurobehavioral deficits.⁴ Neurologic signs such as hemiparesis, sensory deficits, and visual loss are less prominent than changes in mental status unless focal necrosis of white matter also occurs.1

DIAGNOSIS

Toxic leukoencephalopathy can occur in any age group and any patient care setting, including outpatient clinics, inpatient wards, and critical care units. The diagnosis requires that the clinician have a high index of suspicion and that there be documented exposure to a toxin, neurobehavioral deficits, and neuroradiologic abnormalities in the patient. In cases of suspected toxic leukoencephalopathy, specific details of exposure to potentially leukotoxic agents should be sought, including exposure to cranial irradiation and current and past use of medications, alcohol, illicit drugs, over-the-counter preparations including herbs, and environmental and occupational toxins (Table 2). Exposure to organic solvents is common among those who are involved in the manufacture of paint, lacquer, varnish, rubber, and dyes and among those who work

From the Departments of Neurology (C.M.F., B.K.K.-D.), Pathology, (B.K.K.-D.), and Psychiatry (C.M.F.), University of Colorado School of Medicine, and the Denver Veterans Affairs Medical Center (C.M.F.) — both in Denver. Address reprint requests to Dr. Filley at the Behavioral Neurology Section, UCHSC B-183, 4200 E. Ninth Ave., Denver, CO 80262, or at christopher.filley@uchsc.edu.

VARIABLE	MILD DISEASE	Moderate Disease	Severe Disease
Neurobehavioral manifestations	Confusion Inattention Forgetfulness Change in personality	Somnolence Apathy Memory impairment Dementia	Abulia Akinetic mutism Stupor Coma Death
Findings on neuropsycho- logical evaluation	Sustained attention and memory- retrieval deficits Language normal Depression and anxiety often present	Marked deficits in attention, memory, visuospatial skills, and executive function Language relatively normal	Severe global impairment*
Findings on computed tomographic scanning	Usually normal	Possible mild hypodensity of white matter	Diffuse hypodensity of white matter Necrotic areas
Findings on MRI	Hyperintensity of periventricular white matter	Diffuse hyperintensity of white matter	Severe hyperintensity of white matter Necrotic areas
Neuropathological findings	Patchy intramyelinic edema with preservation of myelin	Widespread edema Demyelination with preserva- tion of axons	Destruction of oligodendrocytes Axonal loss Necrosis

TABLE 1. SPECTRUM OF TOXIC LEUKOENCEPHALOPATHY.

*In some cases, the patient is too impaired to be tested.

TABLE 2. CAUSES OF LEUKOENCEPHALOPATHY.* CAUSE AGENT OR CONDITION Antineoplastic agents (cranial irradiation, methotrexate, carmustine, cisplatin, Toxin cytarabine, fluorouracil, levamisole, fludarabine, thiotepa, interleukin-2, interferon alfa), immunosuppressive drugs (cyclosporine, tacrolimus), antimicrobial agents (amphotericin B, hexachlorophene), drugs of abuse (toluene, ethanol, cocaine, 3,4-methylenedioxymethamphetamine, intravenous heroin, inhaled "heroin" pyrolysate, psilocybin), environmental toxins (carbon monoxide, arsenic, carbon tetrachloride) Leukodystrophies (e.g., metachromatic leukodystrophy, Krabbe's disease, adre-Genetic noleukodystrophy, Pelizaeus-Merzbacher disease), aminoacidurias (e.g., phenylketonuria, maple syrup urine disease) Demvelinating Multiple sclerosis, acute disseminated encephalomyelitis, acute hemorrhagic endisease cephalomyelitis, Schilder's disease, Marburg disease, Baló's disease (concentric sclerosis) Infection Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome dementia complex, progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy, subacute sclerosing panencephalitis, progressive rubella panencephalitis, varicella-zoster encephalitis, cytomegalovirus encephalitis, Lyme encephalopathy Cobalamin deficiency, folate deficiency, hypoxia, hypertensive encephalopathy, Metabolic disorder eclampsia, high-altitude cerebral edema Vascular disorder Binswanger's disease, cerebral autosomal dominant arteriopathy with subcortical infarcts and leukoencephalopathy, cerebral amyloid angiopathy Trauma Diffuse axonal injury secondary to traumatic brain injury Hydrocephalus Early hydrocephalus, normal-pressure hydrocephalus

*This table emphasizes disorders in which the white matter is the primary target of damage on the basis of both neuroradiologic and neuropathological studies. However, clinically significant whitematter changes can be seen on MRI in some genetic diseases (e.g., neurofibromatosis, Hurler's syndrome, and myotonic dystrophy) and inflammatory diseases (e.g., systemic lupus erythematosus, Behçet's syndrome, Sjögren's syndrome, Wegener's granulomatosis, polyarteritis nodosa, scleroderma, isolated angiitis of the central nervous system, and sarcoidosis) in which the most prominent neuropathological abnormalities are in the gray matter. Tumors with the potential to infiltrate the white matter (gliomatosis cerebri, diffuse gliomas, and primary central nervous system lymphoma) may also cause dramatic changes in white matter that are evident on MRI.

in the dry-cleaning, paint-stripping, and degreasing industries. A careful psychiatric history should be obtained, since it might elicit information on a suicide attempt involving a leukotoxic agent such as carbon monoxide. Features supporting the occurrence of clinically significant intoxication include a well-documented exposure, the onset of symptoms after exposure, and a plausible dose–response relation.⁶

Physical examination typically reveals neurologic findings referable to the cerebrum, although cerebellar, peripheral-nerve, hepatic, cardiac, or hematologic injury may also be present. Documentation of chang-

es in mental status is essential for the diagnosis of toxic leukoencephalopathy. A pattern of deficits in attention, memory, visuospatial skills, executive function, and emotional status in the absence of aphasia suggests the occurrence of white-matter damage.⁴ Useful tests include the Digit Span and Serial Sevens tests to detect inattention, the Three-Word Delayed Recall test to identify deficits of recent memory, clock drawing to assess visuospatial dysfunction, and alternating motor sequences to assess executive function.7 Standardized tests of mental status such as the Mini-Mental State Examination⁸ rely heavily on language and are thus relatively insensitive for the diagnosis of white-matter disorders.⁴ Personality and emotional disturbances, reflected by apathy, depression, and anxiety, are common.1,4

When the initial results of the examination of mental status are equivocal, the patient should be referred for neuropsychological testing, since the results of this procedure can improve both the sensitivity and the specificity of the evaluation. Formal testing can detect subtle dysfunction in a patient's attention span, memory-retrieval ability, and executive function.⁴ If none of these deficits are found, the patient can be reassured that no detectable brain damage has occurred.

Neuroimaging of the brain is indicated only if deficits are detected on mental-status examination or neuropsychological testing. Computed tomography is less expensive than MRI, but it often reveals only the most severe degree of toxic leukoencephalopathy, such as marked demyelination or necrosis (Table 1). T₂-weighted MRI is the procedure of choice because of its superior ability to display white matter.9 Some patients with toxic leukoencephalopathy, particularly that due to ethanol exposure, may have normal results on conventional MRI, but the use of newer techniques of MRI, such as fluid-attenuated inversion recovery, diffusion, and magnetization transfer, may improve the detection of white-matter abnormalities in such patients.10 These advances may prove particularly useful in distinguishing early or subtle toxic leukoencephalopathy from the psychiatric disorders with which it is confused.

Toxic leukoencephalopathy should not be diagnosed in the absence of corroborating neuroradiologic evidence. A normal finding on conventional MRI in a patient with definite neuropsychological deficits is more consistent with the presence of systemic disorders such as hypothyroidism, hepatic encephalopathy, or uremia. Neuroimaging may also be useful in identifying a mass lesion with subtle symptoms and signs such as a stroke, neoplasm, or abscess.

Leukoencephalopathy may be caused by toxins, but there is also a broad differential diagnosis of genetic, demyelinating, infectious, metabolic, vascular, traumatic, and hydrocephalic disorders² (Table 2). Although a detailed discussion of these leukoencephalopathies is beyond the scope of this review, clinical features (e.g., the patient's age, the presence or absence of a family history, and systemic disease manifestations) and MRI findings (e.g., the distribution of the lesions and the appearance of the ventricles) most often suggest the correct diagnosis. If these other causes can be ruled out, toxic leukoencephalopathy is likely. In our experience, which grows out of a hospital-based practice with patients with predominantly iatrogenic toxic leukoencephalopathy and a consulting service for those with occupational exposure, the specific toxins can be identified in most cases. In other settings, such as outpatient clinics that treat large numbers of patients with substance-abuse problems or critical care units that treat comatose patients who have had acute exposure to toxins, it may be difficult to establish a single or specific cause.

Laboratory testing has limited usefulness in chronic cases because the exposure often occurred years earlier or because no test exists to identify the suspected toxin. Toxicologic screening detects alcohol and cocaine if the exposure is recent. Testing for toluene toxicity is not widely available, but in some centers, a history of acute intoxication can be ascertained by the analysis of a specially collected and transported blood sample and a history of chronic exposure can be ascertained by the analysis of a 24-hour urine collection. The extent of exposure to carbon monoxide is quantitated by spectrophotometric testing for carboxyhemoglobin. Screening of urine for heavy metals detects cases of chronic arsenic poisoning, as well as toxicity from lead and mercury, both of which can produce white-matter edema or can secondarily damage the white matter.

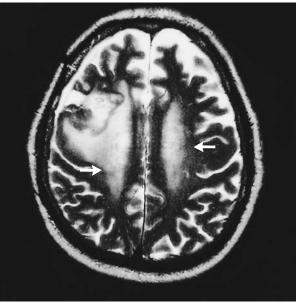
WHITE-MATTER TOXINS

Neuroradiologic and neuropathological studies have been the primary means of identifying toxins that target cerebral white matter.¹ These reports provide evidence of the causes of toxic leukoencephalopathy but do not provide information on the prevalence of the disorder among persons who are exposed. However, given the continued introduction of new therapeutic agents, especially for cancer, and the continuing use by the public of recreational drugs, the number of leukotoxins is likely to grow.

Therapeutic Agents

Cranial irradiation and anticancer chemotherapy are well-established causes of toxic leukoencephalopathy (Fig. 1A). The degree of neurotoxicity resulting from cranial irradiation correlates with the total dose received, time-dose-fractionation schemes, and the volume of tissue irradiated,¹¹ but according to at least one estimate, some degree of neurobehavioral dysfunction develops in up to 28 percent of patients who receive cranial irradiation.^{1,12} Radiation produces three stages of leukoencephalopathy: an acute reaction involving patchy, reversible edema of the white matter,

N Engl J Med, Vol. 345, No. 6 · August 9, 2001 · www.nejm.org · 427



А

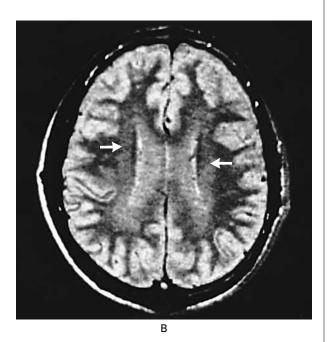


Figure 1. MRI Features of Toxic Leukoencephalopathy.

A T₂-weighted MRI scan in a man with a right frontal glioblastoma multiforme after radiation and chemotherapy with carmustine shows symmetric hyperintensity of the cerebral white matter (arrows in Panel A). Somnolence developed in parallel with the white-matter changes. A T₂-weighted MRI scan in a man with dementia and long-term toluene abuse shows symmetric hyperintensity of cerebral white matter with ventricular enlargement (arrows in Panel B). a more sustained delayed reaction involving widespread edema and demyelination, and a severe delayed reaction involving the loss of myelin and axons as a result of vascular necrosis and thrombosis.¹¹ Toxic leukoencephalopathy is most likely to result from radiation delivered to the whole brain rather than localfield radiotherapy¹³ and is increasingly recognized in those who survive cancer treatment for more than one year.¹³

Methotrexate and carmustine are the most commonly implicated anticancer drugs. Cisplatin, cytarabine, fluorouracil, levamisole, fludarabine, thiotepa, interleukin-2, and interferon alfa are also responsible in some cases.¹ The incidence of neurotoxicity depends on the route of delivery, the dose, and the drug used.¹ For example, leukoencephalopathy may occur in less than 10 percent of those who are treated intravenously with methotrexate,14 but in up to 40 percent of those who are treated by the intrathecal route.¹⁵ The effects of chemotherapeutic agents are similar to those of cranial irradiation, and combined therapy may be particularly injurious.1 A reduction in normal whitematter volume correlates strongly with neurocognitive deficits in children with brain tumors who have received cranial radiation and chemotherapy.¹⁶

Toxic leukoencephalopathy has also been associated with various other agents. The immunosuppressive drugs cyclosporine and tacrolimus, used in organ transplantation, may produce white-matter changes on MRI that resolve once treatment is discontinued.¹ Rare causes include amphotericin B and hexachlorophene.¹ A report of two patients with a syndrome resembling acute disseminated encephalomyelitis after parenteral therapy with herbal extracts¹⁷ suggests the potential for leukotoxicity from preparations of this kind.

Drugs of Abuse

Toxic leukoencephalopathy is a recognized risk of the excessive use of many different substances of abuse. Although the increasing prevalence of abuse is acknowledged, the incidence of toxic leukoencephalopathy among the users of these drugs is unknown. However, if white-matter damage occurs in even a small percentage of these persons, the problem may be clinically significant because of the large number of people who are exposed.

Study of those who abuse toluene has clearly established that this organic solvent can produce severe neurologic disability related to selective white-matter damage.¹⁸⁻²¹ Exposure to toxic levels of toluene results from the intentional inhalation of volatile fumes from spray paints and glues.¹⁸ The prevalence of toluene abuse is unknown, but 10 to 15 percent of young people in the United States are estimated to have used inhalants.²² Prolonged inhalation of this highly lipophilic white-matter toxin results in dementia, ataxia, brain-stem dysfunction, and corticospinal deficits.¹⁸ Widespread hyperintensity of white matter is evident on MRI scans of affected patients (Fig. 1B), and the extent of the changes in white matter correlates with the severity of dementia.²¹ Findings at autopsy include diffuse pallor of the cerebral and cerebellar white matter, with clusters of trilaminar inclusions within the cytoplasm of mononuclear cells and increased numbers of very-long-chain fatty acids, as are found in patients with adrenoleukodystrophy.^{19,20} These findings suggest that the mechanisms of myelin degradation are similar in toluene leukoencephalopathy and adrenoleukodystrophy and confirm that myelin is the target of toluene.^{19,20}

Evidence of the leukotoxicity of ethanol has also appeared. Alcoholism affects nearly 10 percent of the U.S. population,²³ and 50 to 70 percent of former chronic alcoholics who are sober and whose condition is medically stable have neuropsychological impairment.24 Although some of this cognitive loss can be attributed to Korsakoff's amnesia resulting from damage to the dorsal medial thalamic nuclei and mammillary bodies induced by a thiamine deficiency,25 white-matter damage also contributes to alcoholic dementia.1 As compared with persons who are not alcoholic, persons with chronic alcoholism have a disproportionate loss of cerebral white matter,²⁶ and dogs exposed to alcohol have similar changes in white matter.27 Persons with alcoholism may have an excessive number of hyperintense areas of white matter on MRI,²⁸ and disruption of the microstructure of white matter has been found on diffusion MRI studies of persons with alcoholism.29 With abstinence, cerebral atrophy^{30,31} and cognitive impairment³² are partially reversible, and a decrease in atrophy correlates with a selective increase in white-matter volume.³³ The frontal white matter is preferentially affected in persons with chronic alcoholism,^{34,35} which is consistent with studies documenting deficits in working memory,³⁴ attention,³⁵ and executive function³⁶ in these patients. The fetal alcohol syndrome includes among its potential features delayed myelination of the brain and agenesis of the corpus callosum.37 Marchiafava-Bignami disease is a rare dementia of persons with chronic alcoholism that is characterized by atrophy and necrosis of white-matter tracts including the corpus callosum.³⁸ Persons with alcoholism may also have atrophy of the corpus callosum in the absence of necrosis and Marchiafava-Bignami disease.39

Several other illicit drugs have also been associated with leukoencephalopathy. In 1999, cocaine, 3,4-methylenedioxymethamphetamine (MDMA, or "ecstasy"), and heroin were used by an estimated 9.8 percent, 8.0 percent, and 2.0 percent, respectively, of high-school seniors in the United States.⁴⁰⁻⁴² Asymptomatic cocaine-dependent subjects have significantly more white-matter lesions on MRI than control subjects, suggesting that those who abuse cocaine are at increased risk for vasospasm-induced ischemia and

infarction of white matter.⁴³ MDMA has been reported as a cause of toxic leukoencephalopathy,⁴⁴ putatively related to serotonergic axonal injury and secondary myelin damage from oxidative stress.⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶ Intravenous heroin causes hypoxic–ischemic leukoencephalopathy,⁴⁷ and the inhalation of "heroin" pyrolysate, which is generated by heating the drug on aluminum foil, produces evidence of toxic leukoencephalopathy on MRI that correlates with neuropathological evidence of spongiform changes in white matter and the degeneration of multivacuolar oligodendrocytes.¹ The hallucinogen psilocybin has been tentatively linked with multifocal cerebral demyelination.⁴⁸

Environmental Toxins

Carbon monoxide poisoning may occur as a result of accidental exposure or a suicide attempt. After an initial period of recovery,¹ cerebral demyelination can develop days to weeks after carbon monoxide intoxication. Although the delay in the appearance of leukoencephalopathy after carbon monoxide poisoning is unexplained, prolonged depression of oxygenation and circulation may be responsible.¹ Toxic leukoencephalopathy has also been described in persons who were exposed to arsenic and carbon tetrachloride.¹

Occupational Exposure to Solvents

The possibility of brain damage from long-term exposure to low levels of toluene and other organic solvents is a health concern for many workers.⁴⁹ Some 50 million tons of organic solvents are produced annually in the United States, potentially exposing about 10 million workers,⁵⁰ mainly to mixtures of solvents including toluene, methanol, benzene, xylene, styrene, trichloroethylene, perchloroethylene, methylene chloride, and carbon disulfide. In the 1970s, the "chronic painters' syndrome," or "psycho-organic syndrome," was described in workers with occupational exposure to solvents who had symptoms of neurobehavioral impairment.⁵¹ This syndrome has variously been viewed with support⁵² or skepticism.⁵³ Debate continues because studies are hampered by the lack of documentation of the degree and duration of exposure, lack of adjustment for exposure to multiple solvents and coexistent alcohol and drug abuse and psychological abnormalities, ill-defined dose-response relations, the use of nonstandardized neuropsychological tests, and litigation issues.49

At permissible industrial levels, solvents are not an established cause of toxic leukoencephalopathy,^{53,54} but a pattern of deficits in attention, memory, psychomotor speed, and visuospatial ability in persons with occupational exposure⁵² suggests that these agents have subtle effects on cerebral white matter.⁴ In workers who have been exposed to solvents, mild changes in white matter have been identified on MRI⁵⁵; such changes were less severe than those with prolonged toluene abuse.²¹ Toluene and other solvents may af-

fect white matter in a dose-dependent manner, so that toxic leukoencephalopathy only appears above a certain threshold of exposure. Prospective, controlled studies of workers at risk are needed that involve careful monitoring of exposures and the use of standardized neuropsychological measures and advanced neuroimaging techniques.

PREVENTION AND TREATMENT

Prevention of iatrogenic and illicit exposure to leukotoxins is critical, because treatment options are limited. Less toxic therapeutic regimens for cancer, improved drug-counseling programs for adolescents and young adults, and more effective education to reduce exposure to environmental toxins are all needed. In occupational settings, further efforts are needed to determine and maintain safe levels of exposure to organic solvents.

There is no uniform therapeutic approach to toxic leukoencephalopathy. Available therapies include corticosteroids, anticoagulation, and ventriculoperitoneal shunting for leukotoxicity from cranial irradiation, leucovorin for methotrexate-induced toxicity, and chelation for arsenic poisoning.¹ The development of specific therapies requires the identification of the site or sites damaged by individual leukotoxins, such as myelin, axons, oligodendrocytes, astrocytes, and the whitematter vasculature (Fig. 2). Future nonspecific therapies might include inducing intact oligodendrocytes to remyelinate demyelinated axons⁵⁹ or transplanting embryonic stem cells, which would subsequently differentiate into functional, myelinating oligodendrocytes.⁶⁰

CONCLUSIONS

Toxic leukoencephalopathy is a disorder related primarily to the use of leukotoxic therapeutic agents, illicit-drug use, and occupational exposure to toxins. Whereas the percentage of exposed persons in whom leukoencephalopathy develops is unknown in the case of many of these agents, patients typically present with neurobehavioral dysfunction reflecting diffuse involvement of the cerebral white matter, which is best seen on T_2 -weighted MRI scans. The differential diagnosis includes a broad range of nontoxic leukoencephalopathies. Physicians can help prevent or minimize

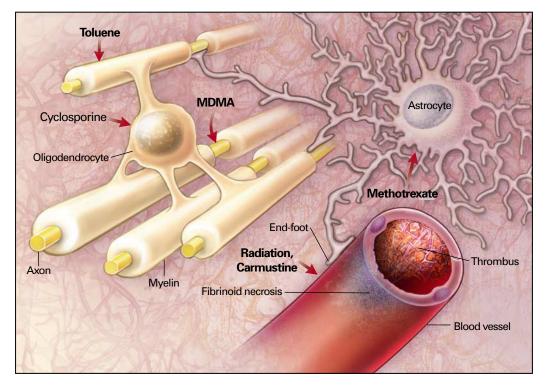


Figure 2. Targets of Toxins in Cerebral White Matter.

The cellular and tissue components of cerebral white matter include myelin, which is necessary for the conduction of neural impulses; oligodendrocytes, which are responsible for the formation of myelin; axons ensheathed by myelin; astrocytes, which regulate the metabolic environment and are the principal scar formers; and blood vessels. Examples of toxins that target each cellular or tissue component are shown, highlighting the diversity of pathophysiological mechanisms responsible for toxic leukoencephalopathy.^{11,19,20,44-46,56-58} MDMA denotes 3,4-methylenedioxymethamphetamine.

430 • N Engl J Med, Vol. 345, No. 6 • August 9, 2001 • www.nejm.org

toxicity, but therapeutic advances for established disease will require the identification of specific pathophysiological mechanisms. The occurrence of toxic leukoencephalopathy highlights the vulnerability of white matter to injury from toxins and underscores the important role of white matter in neurobehavioral function.

We are indebted to Donald H. Gilden, M.D., and Stuart A. Schneck, M.D., for their helpful review of the manuscript; and to Geza Bodor, M.D., for his comments on the clinical pathology aspects of the article.

REFERENCES

1. Filley CM. Toxic leukoencephalopathy. Clin Neuropharmacol 1999;22: 249-60

2. Idem. Neurobehavioral aspects of cerebral white matter disorders. In: Fogel BS, Schiffer RB, Rao SM, eds. Neuropsychiatry. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins, 1996:913-33.

3. Miller AKH, Alston RL, Corsellis JAN. Variations with age in the volumes of grey and white matter in the cerebral hemispheres of man: measurements with an image analyser. Neuropathol Appl Neurobiol 1980;6: 119-32.

4. Filley CM. The behavioral neurology of cerebral white matter. Neurology 1998;50:1535-40.

5. Filley CM, Franklin GM, Heaton RK, Rosenberg NL. White matter dementia: clinical disorders and implications. Neuropsychiatry Neuropsychol Behav Neurol 1988;1:239-54.

6. Schaumburg HH, Spencer PS. Recognizing neurotoxic disease. Neurology 1987;37:276-8.

7. Filley CM. Neurobehavioral anatomy. Niwot: University Press of Colorado, 1995.

8. Folstein MF, Folstein SE, McHugh PR. "Mini-Mental State": a practical method for grading the cognitive state of patients for the clinician. J Psychiatr Res 1975;12:189-98

9. Council on Scientific Affairs. Magnetic resonance imaging of the central nervous system: report of the Panel on Magnetic Resonance Imaging, JAMA 1988;259:1211-22.

10. Grossman RI. Brain imaging. AJNR Am J Neuroradiol 2000;21:9-18. 11. Sheline GE, Wara WM, Smith V. Therapeutic irradiation and brain injury. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys 1980;6:1215-28.

12. Crossen JR, Garwood D, Glatstein E, Neuwelt EA. Neurobehavioral sequelae of cranial irradiation in adults: a review of radiation-induced encephalopathy. J Clin Oncol 1994;12:627-42.

13. Vick NA, Paleologos NA. External beam radiotherapy: hard facts and painful realities. J Neurooncol 1995;24:93-5.

14. Mahoney DH, Shuster JJ, Nitschke R, et al. Acute neurotoxicity in children with B-precursor acute lymphoid leukemia: an association with intermediate-dose intravenous methotrexate and intrathecal triple therapy a Pediatric Oncology Group study. J Clin Oncol 1998;16:1712-22.

15. Asato R, Akiyama Y, Ito M, et al. Nuclear magnetic resonance abnormalities of the cerebral white matter in children with acute lymphoblastic leukemia and malignant lymphoma during and after central nervous system prophylactic treatment with intrathecal methotrexate. Cancer 1992;70: 1997-2004

16. Mulhern RK, Reddick WE, Palmer SL, et al. Neurocognitive deficits in medulloblastoma survivors and white matter loss. Ann Neurol 1999;46: 834-41.

17. Schwarz S, Knauth M, Schwab S, Walter-Sack I, Bonmann E, Storch-Hagenlocher B. Acute disseminated encephalomyelitis after parenteral therapy with herbal extracts: a report of two cases. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 2000;69:516-8.

18. Hormes JT, Filley CM, Rosenberg NL. Neurologic sequelae of chronic solvent vapor abuse. Neurology 1986;36:698-702.

19. Rosenberg NL, Kleinschmidt-DeMasters BK, Davis KA, Dreisbach JN, Hormes JT, Filley CM. Toluene abuse causes diffuse central nervous system white matter changes. Ann Neurol 1988;23:611-4.

20. Kornfeld M, Moser AB, Moser HW, Kleinschmidt-DeMasters BK, Nolte K, Phelps A. Solvent vapor abuse leukoencephalopathy: comparison to adrenoleukodystrophy. J Neuropathol Exp Neurol 1994;53:389-98. 21. Filley CM, Heaton RK, Rosenberg NL. White matter dementia in chronic toluene abuse. Neurology 1990;40:532-4.

22. Dinwiddie SH. Abuse of inhalants: a review. Addiction 1994;89:925-39

23. Swift RM. Drug therapy for alcohol dependence. N Engl J Med 1999; 340:1482-90

24. Charness ME, Simon RP, Greenberg DA. Ethanol and the nervous system. N Engl J Med 1989;321:442-54.

25. Victor M. Persistent altered mentation due to ethanol. Neurol Clin 1993;11:639-61.

26. de la Monte SM. Disproportionate atrophy of cerebral white matter in chronic alcoholics. Arch Neurol 1988;45:990-2

27. Hansen LA, Natelson BH, Lemere C, et al. Alcohol-induced brain changes in dogs. Arch Neurol 1991;48:939-42.

28. Gallucci M, Amicarelli I, Rossi A, et al. MR imaging of white matter lesions in uncomplicated chronic alcoholism. J Comput Assist Tomogr 1989;13:395-8.

29. Pfefferbaum A, Sullivan EV, Hedehus M, Adalsteinsson E, Lim KO, Moseley M. In vivo detection and functional correlates of white matter microstructural disruption in chronic alcoholism. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 2000; 24:1214-21.

30. Carlen PL, Wortzman G, Holgate RC, Wilkinson DA, Rankin JC. Reversible cerebral atrophy in recently abstinent chronic alcoholics measured by computed tomography scans. Science 1978;200:1076-8.

31. Schroth G, Naegele T, Klose U, Mann K, Petersen D. Reversible brain shrinkage in abstinent alcoholics, measured by MRI. Neuroradiology 1988; 30:385-9.

32. Carlen PL, Wilkinson DA, Wortzman G, Holgate R. Partially reversible cerebral atrophy and functional improvement in recently abstinent alcoholics. Can J Neurol Sci 1984;11:441-6.

33. Shear PK, Jernigan TL, Butters N. Volumetric magnetic resonance imaging quantification of longitudinal brain changes in abstinent alcoholics. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 1994;18:172-6. [Erratum, Alcohol Clin Exp Res 1994:18:766.]

34. Kril JJ, Halliday GM, Svoboda MD, Cartwright H. The cerebral cortex is damaged in chronic alcoholics. Neuroscience 1997;79:983-98.

35. Ratti MT, Soragna D, Sibilla L, et al. Cognitive impairment and cerebral atrophy in "heavy drinkers." Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry 1999;23:243-58.

36. Ihara H, Berrios GE, London M. Group and case study of the dysexecutive syndrome in alcoholism without amnesia. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 2000;68:731-7.

37. Lancaster FE. Alcohol and white matter development - a review. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 1994;18:644-7.

38. Kohler CG, Ances BM, Coleman AR, Ragland JD, Lazarev M, Gur RC. Marchiafava-Bignami disease: literature review and case report. Neuropsychiatry Neuropsychol Behav Neurol 2000;13:67-76.

39. Estruch R, Nicolas JM, Salamero M, et al. Atrophy of the corpus callosum in chronic alcoholism. J Neurol Sci 1997;146:145-51.

40. Crack and cocaine. NIDA infofax. Rockville, Md.: National Institute on Drug Abuse, January 22, 2001.

41. Ecstasy. NIDA infofax. Rockville, Md.: National Institute on Drug Abuse, January 22, 2001.

42. Heroin. NIDA infofax. Rockville, Md.: National Institute on Drug Abuse, January 22, 2001.

43. Bartzokis G, Goldstein IB, Hance DB, et al. The incidence of T2weighted MR imaging signal abnormalities in the brain of cocaine-dependent patients is age-related and region-specific. AJNR Am J Neuroradiol 1999;20:1628-35.

44. Bertram M, Egelhoff T, Schwarz S, Schwab S. Toxic leukoencephalop-

athy following "cestasy" ingestion. J Neurol 1999;246:617-8. **45.** Ricaurte GA, Forno LS, Wilson MA, et al. (+/-)3,4-Methylene-

dioxymethamphetamine selectively damages central serotonergic neurons in nonhuman primates. JAMA 1988;260:51-5. 46. Sprague JE, Everman SL, Nichols DE. An integrated hypothesis for

the serotonergic axonal loss induced by 3,4-methylenedioxymethamphetamine. Neurotoxicology 1998;19:427-41.

47. Ginsberg MD, Hedley-Whyte ET, Richardson EP Jr. Hypoxic-ischemic leukoencephalopathy in man. Arch Neurol 1976;33:5-14.

48. Spengos K, Schwartz A, Hennerici M. Multifocal cerebral demyelination after magic mushroom abuse. J Neurol 2000;247:224-5.

49. Rosenberg NL. Neurotoxicity of organic solvents. In: Rosenberg NL, ed. Occupational and environmental neurology. Boston: Butterworth-Heinemann, 1995:71-113.

50. Organic solvents in the workplace. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep 1987;36:282-3.

51. Arlien-Soborg P, Bruhn P, Gyldensted C, Melgaard B. Chronic painters' syndrome: chronic toxic encephalopathy in house painters. Acta Neurol Scand 1979;60:149-56.

52. Baker EL. A review of recent research on health effects of human occupational exposure to organic solvents: a critical review. J Occup Med 1994;36:1079-92.

53. Lees-Haley PR, Williams CW. Neurotoxicity of chronic low-dose exposure to organic solvents: a skeptical review. J Clin Psychol 1997;53:699-712. **54.** Gamble JF. Low-level hydrocarbon solvent exposure and neurobehavioural effects. Occup Med (Lond) 2000;50:81-102.

55. Thuomas K-Å, Möller C, Ödkvist LM, Flodin U, Dige N. MR imag-ing in solvent-induced chronic toxic encephalopathy. Acta Radiol 1996;37: 177-9.

56. Gregorios JB, Soucy D. Effects of methotrexate on astrocytes in primary culture: light and electron microscopic studies. Brain Res 1990;516: 20 - 30.

57. Kleinschmidt-DeMasters BK, Geier JM. Pathology of high-dose intraarterial BCNU. Surg Neurol 1989;31:435-43. 58. McDonald JW, Goldberg MP, Gwag BJ, Chi S-I, Choi DW. Cyclo-

sporine induces neuronal apoptosis and selective oligodendrocyte death in cortical cultures. Ann Neurol 1996;40:750-8. 59. Ghatak NR, Leshner RT, Price AC, Felton WL III. Remyelination in

the human central nervous system. J Neuropathol Exp Neurol 1989;48: 507-18.

60. Brüstle O, Jones KN, Learish RD, et al. Embryonic stem cell-derived glial precursors: a source of myelinating transplants. Science 1999;285: 754-6.

Copyright © 2001 Massachusetts Medical Society.