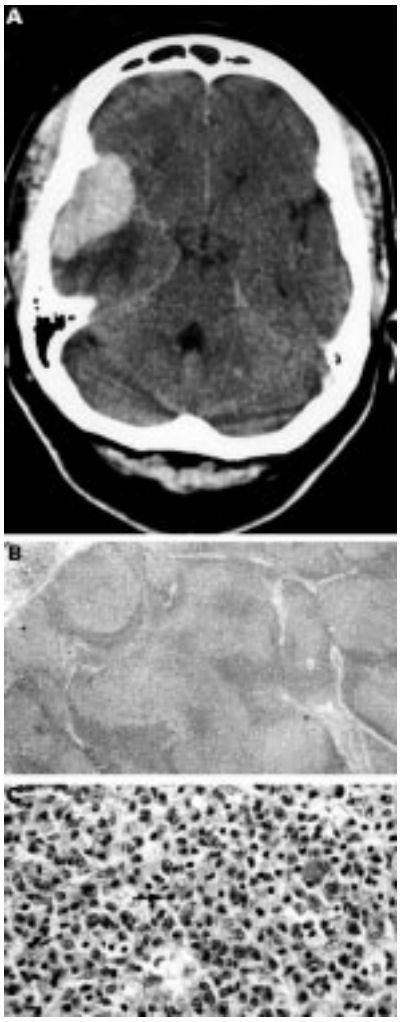

(A) Contrast enhanced CT of the head showing a 6×4×6 cm enhancing mass lesion in the region of the right lesser sphenoid wing. (B, C) Photomicrographs of the surgical specimen. (B) Section through the lesion showing irregular, ill defined lymphoid follicles. Haematoxylin and eosin, original magnification×30. (C) Follicle centre composed of a mixture of centrocytes and centroblasts with mitotic activity (arrow). Haematoxylin and eosin, original magnification×500.

meningioma (figure A). Right pterional craniotomy was performed and a tumour located under and adherent to the overlying dura was identified. It was entirely extracerebral, measuring 6×4×6 cm, with the greyish colour and hard consistency typical of a meningioma. The tumour and the adherent, thickened dura was macroscopically completely removed.

Histologically the lesion consisted of lymphoid tissue with an ill defined follicular architecture (figure B). The follicles varied in size and shape and infiltrated the overlying dura. Follicular centres were composed of a mixture of centrocytes and centroblasts with frequent mitotic figures and apoptotic bodies (figure C). Immunohistochemical staining confirmed that these cells had a B lymphocytic phenotype (CD20 positive) with kappa light chain restriction. Staining for Bcl-2 protein, which is an inhibitor of apoptosis and is expressed in 90% of follicular lymphoma, was found to be positive. The histological appearances and immunohistochemical profile confirmed a follicular lymphoma.

The patient made an uneventful recovery and was referred for staging investigations and consideration of postoperative therapy. An LDH estimation was within normal limits and HIV serology was negative. Whole body CT including repeat CT of the brain did not show any evidence of lymphadenopathy or lymphomatous deposit. Bone marrow examination was declined. Postoperative adjuvant whole brain or localised radiotherapy was discussed with the patient, however, she declined any further intervention. She has been closely reviewed in the follow up clinic and after 6 months there has been no clinical or radiological evidence of relapse.

Primary intracerebral lymphomas represent about 2% of intracranial neoplasms and 2% of all lymphomas. They occur most commonly in the 6th decade of life with a female to male ratio of roughly 2:1.[1] The association between primary intracranial lymphoma and immunodeficiency has long been established, and it is not surprising, therefore, that the incidence has increased 10-fold over the past 3 decades with the onset of transplant surgery and, particularly the AIDS epidemic.[2] In postmortem studies, these neoplasms are found, on average, in 5.5% of AIDS cases, and malignant cerebral lymphoma is the most common diagnosis of a focal intracranial lesion in patients with AIDS.[1 3] Malignant primary lymphoma can occur throughout the CNS and they often have a periventricular distribution. Multifocality seems to be more common in patients with AIDS. The CT scan usually shows hyperdense masses with peritumorous oedema and 92% enhance after administration of contrast medium.[1]

Leptomeningeal lymphoma is usually encountered as a late complication of systemic non-Hodgkin's lymphoma, although primary leptomeningeal lymphoma is occasionally seen. The prognosis for these tumours is poor.[4] Diffuse intracranial lymphomas have been mistaken for more common lesions: solitary primary B cell lymphoma of the cerebellopontine angle mimicking acoustic neurilemoma or meningioma has been reported[5]; Vigushin *et al*[6] reported a patient with a calcified temporoparietal lymphoplasmacytic lymphoma which resembled a meningioma; however, this tumour was entirely extradural. There is only one previous report of a follicular rather than diffuse intracranial lymphoma: Rubinstein[7] described a case of follicular lymphoma metastasis found in the dura of a 61 year old man at necropsy.

We found no report of a primary follicular extracerebral lymphoma. Similar radiological and intraoperative appearances of the tumour in our case to sphenoid wing meningioma suggest that this entity should be considered as a rare differential diagnosis.

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DOMINIC J HODGSON
KAROLY M DAVID
MICHAEL POWELL
Department of Surgical Neurology

JAN L HOLTON
Department of Neuropathology, The National Hospital for Neurology and Neurosurgery

FRANCESCO PEZZELLA
Department of Pathology, University College Hospital, London, UK

Correspondence to: Mr Michael Powell, Department of Surgical Neurology, The National Hospital for Neurology and Neurosurgery, Queen Square, London, WC1N 3BG, United Kingdom. Telephone 0044 171 837 3611; fax 0044 171 209 3875.

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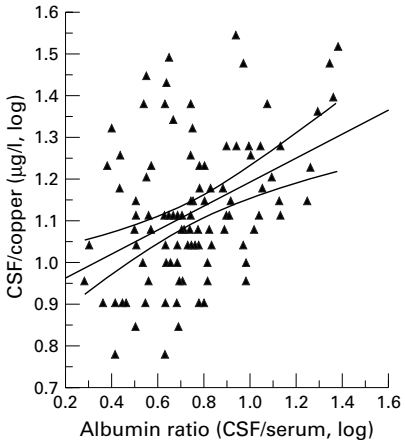
Determinants of the copper concentration in cerebrospinal fluid

The measurement of CSF copper concentration can serve as an indicator of brain copper concentration.[1 2] However, the complex mechanisms by which copper crosses into the CSF, and the factors determining the CSF copper concentration in humans are largely obscure. Copper can pass into and out of the CSF by various mechanisms. For example, active transport through the blood-brain barrier or the blood-CSF barrier, or passive diffusion of the free or the bound fraction (bound to albumin or coeruloplasmin) through the blood-CSF barrier. We studied the factors influencing CSF copper concentration using a stepwise multiple linear regression model. The independent variables were age, plasma coeruloplasmin, CSF/serum albumin ratio, total serum copper concentration, and calculated serum free copper concentration (based on serum coeruloplasmin and total serum copper concentration). The CSF copper concentration was treated as a dependent variable of continuous type. We investigated lumbar CSF samples from 113 patients. These patients had dementia, extrapyramidal, or tremor symptoms; lumbar puncture was performed to exclude Wilson's disease, and none of the patients had the disease. Copper was measured by flameless atomic absorption (Perkin Elmer, HGA 500, Ueberlingen, Germany). Coeruloplasmin was determined nephelometrically (Beckman Array: Beckman Instruments, Brea, CA, USA). The age of the patients was 50.0 (SD15.5) years; 50 were women and 63 were men. Mean serum coeruloplasmin concentrations were 394.3 (SD 11.7) mg/l. Mean serum copper concentrations were 1194 (SD 335) μg/l. Mean calculated free copper concentrations in serum were 78.5 (SD 1285) μg/l. Mean CSF copper concentrations were 14.16 (SD 6.0) μg/l. The mean albumin ratio (AR) was 6.63×10^{-3}. The mean ratio of calculated serum free copper concentration to total serum copper was 6.6%, the ratio of CSF copper to serum copper was 1.2%, and the ratio of free serum copper to CSF copper was 18%. In the



Correlation of blood-CSF barrier (albumin ratio, (AR)) with total CSF copper concentration (on logarithmic axes). R=0.46, p=0.0001; 95% confidence bands for the true mean of the total CSF copper concentration are shown.

stepwise linear regression model (*F* to enter 4.0, *F* to remove: 3.996), significant positive predictors of the CSF copper concentration were found to be AR (p=0.0001) and serum coeruloplasmin (p=0.0057). The other independent variables mentioned above showed no statistically significant relation with CSF copper concentration. The figure shows the simple linear regression between CSF/serum albumin ratio and CSF copper concentration (on logarithmic axes; R=0.46, p=0.0001). The formula for the CSF copper concentration, derived from the multiple linear regression model, is: copper CSF (µg/l)=5.32 µg/l±0.653 × CSF/serum albumin ratio ($\times 10^{-3}$)+0.012×serum coeruloplasmin (mg/l). According to this analysis,CSF/serum albumin ratio and serum coeruloplasmin together determine 25.3% of the variation in CSF copper concentration (adjusted R^2=0.253), implying that other (unknown) factors determine the remaining 74.7% of the variation. We have been able to demonstrate here that the CSF copper concentration is determined in a highly significant manner by disturbances in the blood-CSF barrier and by the serum coeruloplasmin concentration. It can be assumed from this that in the case of normal blood-CSF barrier function and a normal serum coeruloplasmin concentration, 29.7% of the measured CSF copper entered the CSF by passive diffusion bound to coeruloplasmin, and only around 0.09% by passive diffusion bound to albumin. In the case of a markedly raised CSF/serum albumin ratio of 20×10^{-3}, this would mean that 60.6% of the measured CSF copper originated from the blood (bound to coeruloplasmin). A variable fraction of the CSF copper concentration, depending on the degree of damage to the blood-CSF barrier, therefore crosses from the blood into the CSF and can be measured there. Our formula would therefore predict, in patients with Wilson's disease with anintact blood-CSF barrier (assuming a CSF/serum albumin ratio of 6.5×10^{-3}), that the CSF copper concentration is actually reduced by 27.4%, when the serum coeruloplasmin concentration falls from its normal value of 394 mg/l to 68 mg/l. In consequence, CSF copper in patients with Wilson's disease is evidently substantially free, implying that a larger fraction than previously assumed of the raised CSF copper in patients with untreated Wilson's disease originates from the brain; the fraction entering the CSF by passive diffusion (bound to coeruloplasmin) tends towards zero. It can be concluded from this that, when the aim of therapy is considered in terms of the total CSF copper concentration, a region around 30% lower than the upper limit of the normal range should be aimed for. This is supported by the clinical finding that patients report feeling better when the CSF copper concentration is below this value. This analysis also shows that the raised copper concentration in the CSF can only originate from the brain. In particular, it is not associated with free serum copper, but evidently only via storage in the brain. The investigation here also shows that, after determining the CSF copper concentration, the coeruloplasmin-bound fraction originating from the plasma should be subtracted according to the formula we have given, or better, all measured copper concentrations in the CSF should be adjusted using the CSF/serum albumin ratio and serum coeruloplasmin concentration. A statistical relation with a low correlation (p<0.05) between CSF protein content and CSF copper was already shown in 1989 in various neurological diseases[3]; our study shows a much higher significance and, in addition, the effect of serum coeruloplasmin (therefore of bound serum copper). Furthermore, we have been able to determine quantitatively the fraction of CSF copper which enters the CSF across the blood-CSF barrier.

HANS JOERGSTUERENBURG
MATTHIAS OECHSNER
SVEN SCHROEDER
KLAUS KUNZE
Neurological Department, University Hospital Hamburg-Eppendorf, Germany

Correspondence to: Dr Hans Joerg Stuerenburg, Neurological Department, University Hospital Hamburg-Eppendorf, Martinistrasse 52, 20246 Hamburg, Germany. Telephone 0049 40 4717 4832; fax 0049 40 4717 5086.

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Solitary intracranial myofibroma in a child

A rare case of solitary interhemispheric myofibroma with excellent outcome in a 20 month old boy is described. The clinicopathological features of this unusual condition are reviewed with emphasis on the CNS manifestations.

A case of congenital fibrosarcoma was first diagnosed by William and Schrum[1] and was subsequently renamed congenital generalised fibromatosis by Stout in 1954[2] as a distinct form of juvenile fibromatosis characterised by tumour-like nodules involving the skin, soft tissues, bones, and viscera. Based on the ultrastructural and immunohistochemical features of the cell of origin and the occurrence of this condition in infants, as well as congenitally, it was renamed infantile myofibromatosis by Chung and Enzinger in 1981.[3] This disorder is considered to represent a hamartomatous myofibroblastic proliferation, although laboratory evidence suggests that it may arise secondary to oestrogen stimulation in utero. Infantile myofibromatosis represents the most common fibrous tumour of infancy and may present with solitary or multicentric lesions. When visceral involvement is present, the multilesional form is termed "generalised". Cases with familial incidence,[3] spontaneous regression,[4 5] and fatal outcome[3 6] have all been described. Poor outcome has generally been associated with extensive visceral involvement and relates either to mass effect with compression of vital organs and structures, or to pulmonary involvement, when subintimal or submucosal cellular proliferation results in vascular or bronchial obliteration.[2]

Central nervous system involvement is exceptionally rare and has been reported as a finding in the multicentric type of myofibromatosis.[6–9] We describe a solitary interhemispheric myofibroma which presented as an intracranial mass in a 20 month old child. To our knowledge, only one other case of solitary intracranial myofibroma has been reported.[10]

A 20 month old Irish boy, the only son of healthy, unrelated parents, was admitted for investigation of a large head. He had one previous hospital admission at the age of 6 weeks for a respiratory tract infection. Transient muscle hypotonia was noted at that time as was his skull circumference of 43 cm. At 6 months there was no hypotonia, neurological examination was normal, and the head circumference was 49 cm. The father's head circumference was 61 cm and he stated that all of his family had "big heads". By 20 months, the patient's head circumference measured 55.6 cm and was diverging from the 97th centile. Brain CT showed a well circumscribed, contrast enhancing mass in the midline and left frontal lobe, with surrounding oedema. There was evidence of left sided hydrocephalus due to displacement of the right foramen of Munro by tumour. The radiological differential diagnosis included a primary meningeal tumour, glioma, and leukaemic deposit. The patient underwent a left frontal craniotomy and a firm, rounded mass was removed from between the hemispheres. The mass was not attached to the falx, but was firmly adherent to the left pericallosal artery. A fragment (4 mm×2 mm) had to be left attached to the vessel. Postoperatively, he had transient paresis of the right leg, which subsequently resolved completely. Repeat CT 6 months later and at 4 years after the operation showed no evidence of recurrence or mass effect. His head circumference persisted on the 97th centile 4 years after operation. His development and clinical examination otherwise remain normal 6 years after surgery. A younger sibling is normal.

The rounded 3.0 cm mass had a whorled, fibrous, white-yellow cut surface appearance. Microscopically, it consisted of hypercellular fasciculated and storiform areas, alternating with hypocellular, hyalinised regions. Centrally a haemangiopericytoma-like pattern was seen. No mitotic figures were present and there was no evidence of haemorrhage, necrosis, or calcification. The tumour cells appeared to blend with the vessel walls. Immunohistochemical studies showed strong reactivity for vimentin and smooth muscle actin. Scattered cells showed immunoreactivity for desmin. No reactivity was noted for cytokeratin, epithelial membrane antigen, factor VIII, glial fibrillary acidic protein, or