The selection of low-risk patients with febrile neutropenia is very important. A multinational trial demonstrated that predictive factors for low risk complications included a burden of illness indicating the absence of symptoms or the presence of mild symptoms [weight, 5; odds ratio (OR), 8.21] or moderate symptoms (weight 3; OR, 3.70); the absence of hypotension (weight, 5; OR, 7.62); the absence of chromic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) (weight, 4; OR, 5.35); the presence of a solid tumor or the absence of previous fungal infection in patients with hematologic malignancies (weight, 4; OR, 5.07); an outpatient status (weight, 3; OR, 3.51); the absence of dehydration (weight, 3; OR, 3.81); and an age <60 years (weight, 2; OR, 2.45). A risk-index score ≥21 was considered to indicate a low-risk (10). In our trial, all of the enrolled patients had solid tumors (lung cancer) without hypotension or dehydration and no or mild symptoms. All but one patient had no COPD, producing a risk score of 21 or greater.

PUO was observed in 63% of the low-risk febrile neutropenic patients. The PUO percentage was identical to that reported in previous trials. All patients with PUO were successfully treated with oral or intravenous antibiotic therapy in our trial. Oral ciplofloxacin plus amoxicillin-clavulanate was effective for the treatment of PUO. Documented infections were successfully treated with an oral regimen in four out of six episodes and with an intravenous regimen in five out of nine episodes. Six patients needed to modify their regimen to an intravenous regimen containing cephalosporin or carbapenem. Oral ciplofloxacin plus amoxicillin-clavulanate was also effective in selected low-risk patients with documented infections.

Oral antibiotics produced a successful outcome in 91% of the patients, although 86% of the patients also received G-CSF support. Whether G-CSF support is needed in low-risk patients remains uncertain. The clinical practice guidelines of the American Society of Clinical Oncology recommend that G-CSF should not be routinely used as adjunct therapy for the treatment of uncomplicated fever and neutropenia (11). Uncomplicated fever and neutropenia are defined as follows: fever of ≤10 days in duration; no evidence of pneumonia, cellulites, abscess, sinusitis or hypotension; and no uncontrolled malignancies. Oral antibiotics with ciplofloxacin plus amoxicillin-clavulanate are probably effective even if G-CSF support is not performed and can be easily administered to febrile neutropenic outpatients. In a randomized trial, oral antibiotics (ciplofloxacin plus amoxicillin-clavulanate) with early hospital discharge was compared with inpatient intravenous antibiotics (gentamicin plus tazocin) for the treatment of low-risk febrile neutropenic patients with cancer (12). This study suggested that oral antibiotics with early discharge was feasible and an alternative to conventional intravenous antibiotic regimens.

In conclusion, our trial suggested that oral antibiotic therapy with ciplofloxacin plus amoxicillin-clavulanate is effective for the treatment of low-risk febrile neutropenic patients, although the trial was prematurely terminated because of slow enrolment.

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ANTI-TUMOUR TREATMENT

Treatment of small cell lung cancer in the elderly based on a critical literature review of clinical trials

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KEYWORDS
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Summary At diagnosis, 25–40% of patients with small cell lung cancer (SCLC) are 70 years of age or older, and many of them have been undertreated because of fear of excessive toxicity associated with chemotherapy. Papers retrieved by a Medline search using the key words "elderly or older" and "small cell lung cancer" and by a manual search were classified into the three types: (1) case-series studies, (2) subgroup analyses of phase II and phase III trials by age, and (3) prospective clinical trials in the elderly. Treatment regimens, delivery, toxicity, antitumor activity, and patient survival were reviewed in elderly patients with good and poor general condition. The standard chemotherapy regimens for the general population could be applied to elderly patients in good general condition (performance status of 0–1, normal organ function, and no comorbidity), but etoposide and carboplatin regimen with dose modification was frequently used for unselected elderly patients. A combination of full-dose thoracic radiotherapy and chemotherapy was the treatment of choice for limited SCLC in the elderly. Full cycles of chemotherapy were tolerable by 80% of the elderly patients with good general condition, but two cycles may be optimal for unselected elderly patients. Although the evidence levels based on clinical trials available today are low, these results are helpful for clinical practice and future clinical trials for elderly patients with SCLC.
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Introduction

Lung cancer is currently the most common cancer in the world, and it is the leading cause of cancer death in many countries.[1,2] Small cell lung cancer (SCLC) accounts for 15–25% of all lung tumors. For treatment purposes, it is considered separately from other histological types, which are known as non-small cell lung cancer, because by the initial diagnosis SCLC has already metastastized to distant organs in 60–70% of patients, and it is highly sensitive to chemotherapy and radiotherapy. The prognosis of the disease is extremely poor. The 5-year survival rate of patients with limited disease (LD), which is a disease confined to one hemithorax that can be encompassed in a tolerable radiation field, is less than 15–25%, and most patients with extensive disease (ED), which has spread

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beyond the range of LD, die within two years after diagnosis.[3]

At diagnosis, 25–40% of patients with SCLC are 70 years old or older, and the number of patients is expected to increase, because the geriatric population is growing.[3–5] There has been a general tendency among physicians to consider aged people to always have poor tolerance for chemotherapy, and as a result many elderly cancer patients have been undertreated because of fear of excessive toxicity.[5] Thus, it is one of the immediate tasks for medical oncologists to establish treatment of SCLC in the elderly based on evidence obtained in clinical trials.

The decreases in lean body mass, hepatic blood flow, and renal function that accompany aging affect drug distribution, metabolism, and excretion. The clearance of anticancer agents commonly used for the treatment of SCLC, including cisplatin, doxorubicin, etoposide, and ifosfamide, has been shown to be decreased in the elderly.[6] Myelotoxicity is also sometimes severer in this population than in younger populations, because the absolute amount of hematopoietic marrow decreases with age. The incidence of doxorubicin-induced cardiotoxicity is also increased in the elderly, although the mechanism is unknown.[6] These age-related changes in pharmacokinetics and phamacodynamics, however, have not been fully evaluated in the treatment for SCLC in the elderly.

Studies on the treatment of SCLC in the elderly can be classified into the following three types: (1) case-series studies, (2) subgroup analyses of phase II and phase III trials by age, and (3) prospective clinical trials in the elderly. The first type of studies retrospectively analyzes all the elderly cases of SCLC diagnosed at an institution in a given period. They may provide information on the general aspects of elderly patients with SCLC, including performance, comorbidity, and percentages of patients treated with chemotherapy or supportive care alone. The results for outcome of treatment, however, are thought to be highly biased, because the patient populations in these studies are heterogeneous in terms of various prognostic factors. In the second type of studies, treatment outcome is retrospectively compared between an elderly group and a younger group. The patients in these studies are highly selected, because only those who meet strict eligibility criteria are included in clinical trials. Thus, the results of the analyses are understandable, but they are only applicable to the limited population of elderly patients. The most reliable and clinically useful results are obtained in the third type of studies, because the subjects can be freely defined and biases are controlled. Thus far, however, only a limited number of prospective studies on elderly patients with SCLC have been available.

The interpatient variability in activities of daily living, performance status, and comorbidity in elderly patients is so large that it is difficult to establish a standard treatment applicable to all patients. In this review, treatments for patients with good and poor general condition were summarized separately. We believe these summaries are helpful for clinical practice and future clinical trials for elderly patients with SCLC.

Methods

We retrieved papers published during the period from 1981 to 2000 by means of a Medline search using the key words "elderly or older" and "small cell lung cancer" in the Medical Subject Headings and a manual search. The papers were then classified into the three types: (1) case-series studies, (2) subgroup analyses of phase II and phase III trials by age, and (3) prospective clinical trials in the elderly. Among the retrospective studies in the first two categories, only those in which "elderly" was defined as 70 years or older were selected for the analysis. Prospective trials of infirm as well as elderly patients, however, were included in the analysis, because both populations were frequently included in the same trial. Patient characteristics, treatment regimens, treatment delivery, toxicity, antitumor activity, and patient survival were reviewed. The general clinical characteristics of the elderly SCLC patients are summarized on the basis of the results of the first type of studies. In principle, our summary of treatment for elderly patients with good performance status and no comorbidity is based on the results of the second type of studies, and our summary for unselected elderly patients is based on the third type of studies. Evidence levels are provided according to the previously described scale (Table 1).[7]

General clinical characteristics of elderly patients with SCLC

Elderly patients 70 years of age or older accounted for 26–38% (average, 31%) of all of the patients (Table 2). The percentage of limited disease ranged from 36% to 50% in both age groups. The general condition of the elderly patients was worse than in the younger patients; patients with PS 0 or 1 accounted for only 52–69% of the elderly patients, and comorbidity was noted in 63–78%. Optimal treatment, defined as four or more treatment

Table 1 Levels of evidence

I	Evidence obtained from meta-analysis of multiple, well-designed, controlled studies. Randomized trials with low false-positive and low false-negative errors (high power)
II	Evidence obtained from at least one well-designed experimental study. Randomized trials with high false-positive and/or low false-negative errors (low power)
III	Evidence obtained from well-designed, quasi-experimental studies such as non-randomized, controlled single-arm, pre-post, cohort, time, or matched case-control series
IV	Evidence from well-designed, non-experimental studies such as comparative and correlational descriptive and case studies
V	Evidence from case reports and clinical examples

Table 2 Case-series studies on small cell lung cancer in the elderly

Authors (year)	Age	Number of patients (%)	Limited disease (%)	PS 0–1 (%)	Comorbidity (%)	Optimal treatment (%)[a]	TRD (%)	MST (month)
Nou (1996)[8]	<70	235 (68)	50	NA	NA	NA	7	11
	≤70	110 (32)	48	NA	NA	NA	8	7
Dajczman et al. (1996)[9]	<70	231 (74)	40	80	56	44	5	9
	≤70	81 (26)	43	52	75	23	5	6
Tebbutt et al. (1997)[10]	<70	102 (67)	46	60	NA	83	NA	No difference
	≤70	51 (33)	49	55	63	47	4	No difference
Jara et al. (1999)[11]	<70	59 (62)	42	71	58	59	NA	8
	≤70	36 (38)	36	69	78	39	NA	5

MST, median survival time; NA, not available; PS, performance status; TRD, treatment-related death.
[a]Optimal treatment was defined as four or more treatment cycles, relative total dose of 85% or higher, or no definition described.

cycles, relative total does of 85% or higher, or no definition available, was delivered to 23–47% of the elderly patients compared with 44–83% of the younger patients. The incidence of treatment-related death and patient survival, however, did not differ between the two age groups.

Chemotherapy for elderly patients in good general condition

Among elderly lung cancer patients, 10–30% are in good general condition without comorbidity,[9–13] and the standard chemotherapy for the general population, including cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin and vincristine (CAV), cisplatin and etoposide (PE), and CAV alternating with PE regimens, can be given to this population (Evidence level, IV). Subgroup analyses of phase II and phase III trials of SCLC by age showed that myelosuppression and doxorubicin-induced cardiotoxicity were severer in the elderly patients than in the younger patients, and that their incidence of treatment-related death tended to be higher. About 80% of elderly patients, however, received optimal treatment, and their survival was comparable to that of younger patients (Table 3).[14–16] Thus, the standard chemotherapy should be tried in these patients, although a reduction in treatment cycles and chemotherapy dose, or prolongation of treatment intervals may be needed more often than in younger patients.

Chemotherapy for unselected elderly patients

The standard chemotherapy for younger patients is not indicated for 70–90% of elderly patients because of poor performance status or the presence of complications. Oral etoposide and teniposide has been tried in these patients, but randomized trials showed that it was more toxic and had no survival benefit over the standard chemotherapy (Table 4).[17,18] A randomized trial of two-drug

Table 3 Subgroup analyses of phase III trials of small cell lung cancer by age

Authors (year)	Treatment	Age	Number of patients	Limited disease (%)	PS 0–1 (%)	Optimal treatment (%)[a]	Grade 3–4 toxicity (%)	TRD (%)	MST (month)
Paccagnella et al. (1996)[14]	CAV–PE (±TRT)	<70	254	58	ND	RDI 78	NA	3	12
		⩽70	32	56	ND	RDI 67	NA	9	12
Siu et al. (1996)[15]	CAV–PE (±TRT)	<70	520	100	88	92	Neutropenia[b] (60) Thrombocytopenia (10) Cardiac (0.2)	2	15
		⩽70	88	100	84	82	Neutropenia[b](64) Thrombocytopenia[15] Cardiac (3)	5	13
Yuen et al. (2000)[16]	PE+TRT	<70	331	100	96	90	Neutropenia[b](58) Thrombocytopenia (21) Infection (6)	1	22
		⩽70	50	100	90	78	Neutropenia[b](82) Thrombocytopenia (36) Infection (10)	10	14

CAV, cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin and vincristine; MST, median survival time; NA, not available; ND, no difference; PE, cisplatin and etoposide; PS, performance status; RDI, relative dose intensity; TRD, treatment-related death; TRT, thoracic radiotherapy.

[a] Optimal treatment was defined as four or more treatment cycles.

[b] Grade 4 only.

Table 4 Phase III studies comparing standard and low intensive chemotherapy in elderly or poor risk patients with small cell lung cancer

Authors (year)	Chemotherapy regimen	Number of patients	Age ⩾70 (%)	PS ⩾2 (%)	RR (%)	Grade 3–4 toxicty (%)	TRD (%)	MST (month)
Girling (1996)[17]	Oral E (50 mg) bid days 1–10	171	Median 67	100	61	Neutropenia[a](14), Infection (4)	14	4.3[b]
	Standard EV or CAV	168	Median 68	100	73	Neutropenia[a] (12), Infection (7)	10	6.1[b]
Souhami et al. (1997)[18]	Oral E (100 mg) bid days 1–5	75	52	48	33	Neutropenia (3), Infection (5)	2	4.8[b]
	Standard CAV/PE	80	44	56	46	Neutropenia (3), Infection (6)	1	5.9[b]
MRC (1996)[19]	EV	156	25	54	55	Leukopenia[a] (4)[b], Stomatitis[c] (34)[b]	1	4.6
	EVMC	154	27	52	54	Leukopenia[a] (16)[b], Stomatitis[c] (54)[b]	7	4.7
James et al. (1996)[20]	Half dose CAV/PE, q11 days	78	Median 63	63	59	Leukopenia (23)[b], Infection (5)	0	6.4
	Standard CAV/PE, q3w	89	Median 63	67	45	Leukopenia (7)[b], Infection (5)	1	5.8
Earl et al. (1991)[21]	Planned CEV	155	Median 65	31	NA	NA	NA	8.2
	Required CEV	145	Median 66	35	NA	NA	NA	6.8

CAV, cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin and vincristine; CEV, cyclophosphamide, etoposide and vincristine; E, etoposide; EV, etoposide and vincristine; EVMC, etoposide, vincristine, methotrexate and cyclophosphamide; MST, median survival time; NA, not available; PE, cisplatin and etoposide; PS, performance status; RR, response rate; TRD, treatment-related death.

[a] Including grade 2–4 toxicity.

[b] Statistically significant.

[c] Including grade 1–4 toxicity.

versus four-drug combinations showed severer toxicity in the four-drug arm with no improvement in survival.[19] A regimen of cisplatin and etoposide (PE) alternating with cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin, and vincristine (CAV) every 10–11 days at half the standard dose failed to reduce toxicity or improve survival compared with the standard PE alternating CAV regimen in a randomized trial.[20] Another randomized trial of cyclophosphamide, etoposide, and vincristine (CEV) given as needed to palliate symptoms, versus CEV given at fixed 3- to 4-week treatment intervals showed that patients randomized to receive chemotherapy as needed had a median interval between cycles of 5 weeks and received only 50% as much total chemotherapy as the patients randomized to the fixed schedule. Although the median survival times were equivalent between both arms, better symptomatic control was achieved with the fixed interval treatment.[21] Thus, these less intensive treatments than the standard treatment are not less toxic or useful for palliation.

The combination of carboplatin and etoposide has been one of the most frequently evaluated regimens in elderly patients with SCLC, and has yielded a response rate of 70–90% and a median survival of 8–10 months for ED and 12–15 months for LD with acceptable toxicity in phase II trials (Table 5).[22,23,25] Modification of the carboplatin dose based on creatinine clearance levels can be especially useful in elderly patients, because many of them have impaired renal function. As a result, this two-drug combination periodically repeated every 3- to 4-weeks has become standard treatment in this patient population (Evidence level, II).

Treatment of elderly patients with limited disease who are in good general condition

A retrospective review of 1208 patients (including 398 SCLC patients, 107 patients more than 70 years of age, 114 patients with PS 2 or higher, and 352 patients with body weight loss greater than 5%) in six EORTC clinical trials (including three for NSCLC, one for SCLC, and two for esophageal cancer) showed that age did not influence the frequency or severity of acute and delayed toxicity of thoracic radiotherapy.[27] Retrospective subset analysis of patients with limited SCLC who were treated with concurrent chemoradiotherapy in phase III trials showed that 80% of the patients 70 years of age or older completed the planned treatment, although hematological toxicity was severer in the elderly group than the younger group (Table 3).[15,16] Only patients with good general condition were included in these trials; 90% had PS 0–1 and 82% had less than 5% body weight loss in the one study,[16] and 84% had PS 0–1 in the other.[15] Thus, the standard chemoradiotherapy can be given to elderly patients in good general condition with PS 0–1, normal organ function and no comorbidity (Evidence level, IV).

Treatment for unselected elderly patients with limited disease

There are three phase II trials of concurrent chemoradiotherapy in this patient population. Although the chemotherapy cycles in these trials were reduced compared with the standard 4–6 cycles, the 5-year survival rates reached to 13–25% with manageable toxicity (Table 6).[28–30] Thus, a combination of full-dose thoracic radiotherapy and two cycles of chemotherapy may be the optimal treatment in unselected elderly patients with limited disease (Evidence level, III).

Discussion

It has been thought to be difficult to establish standard treatments for elderly patients with SCLC, because they form a heterogeneous population in terms of general condition and treatment outcome varies from report to report. However, by classifying studies on the treatment of this population into three types and characterizing subjects included in the studies, relatively consistent results were obtained. To select the optimal treatment for elderly patients, two groups needed to be considered separately: elderly patients in good general condition and all others. The former can be treated with the same strategy as younger patients with minor modifications, if any.

Among elderly patients, 30–50% have PS 2 or higher, and 60–80% have complications in major organs including the kidney, heart, and lung.[6,9–11] They have been treated with oral etoposide or combination chemotherapy at decreased doses or longer intervals. These less intensive treatments than the standard treatment, however, were not less toxic or useful for palliation in the elderly with decreased activity. By contrast, two-drug combination chemotherapy, including a combination of etoposide and carboplatin, produced response rates (RRs) and median survival times (MSTs) comparable to those of younger patients with

Table 5 Phase II trials for elderly or poor risk patients with small cell lung cancer

Authors (year)	Chemotherapy regimen (mg/m^2)	Number of patients	Age $\geqslant 70$ (%)	PS $\geqslant 2$ (%)	RR (%)	Grade 3–4 toxicty (%)	TRD (%)	MST (month)
Evans et al. (1995)[22]	Oral E (100 mg) days 1–7 Carbo (150) day 1	47	Median 69	30	71	Neutropenia (84) Thrombocytopenia (21) Stomatitis (2)	18	LD 14 ED 11
Matsui et al. (1998)[23]	Oral E (40) days 1–14 Carbo[a] day 1	38	100	34	81	Neutropenia (53) Thrombocytopenia (53) Infection (8)	5	LD 15 ED 9
Westeel et al. (1998)[24]	P (30) A (40) V (1) day 1 E (100) days 1, 3, 5	41	100	66	88	Infection (6) Emesis (9)	0	ED 11
Okamoto et al. (1999)[25]	E (100) days 1–3 Carbo[a] day 1	36	100	25	75	Neutropenia (86) Thrombocytopenia (50) Infection (5)	3	LD 12 ED 10
Samantas et al. (1999)[26]	Oral E (100 mg) days 1–12 Carbo (80) weekly	60	Median 66	59	32	Neutropenia (6) Thrombocytopenia (2) Infection (3)	3	5.5

Carbo, carboplatin; E, etoposide; ED, extensive disease; LD, limited disease; MST, median survival time; PAVE, cisplatin, doxorubicin, vincristine and etoposide; PS, performance status; RR, response rate; TRD, treatment-related death.

[a] Dose adjusted for creatinine clearance.

Table 6 Phase II trials of chemoradiotherapy for elderly or poor risk patients with limited small cell lung cancer

Authors (year)	Chemotherapy radiotherapy (Gy/fraction)	Number of patients	Age ⩾70 (%)	PS ⩾2 (%)	RR (%)	Grade 3–4 toxicty (%)	TRD (%)	MST (month)	5-YS (%)
Westeel et al. (1998)[28]	PAVE×3, PE×1 20/5, 30/10, 40/15	25	Median 72	28	92	Thrombocytopenia[a](9) Infection (18) Esophagitis[a](9)	3	16	24
Murray et al. (1998)[29]	CAV×1, PE×1 20/5, 30/10	55	67	45	89	Infection(4)	5	13	18
Jeremic et al. (1998)[30]	Carbo+oral E×2 45/30 (twice daily)	72	100	17	75	Leukopenia (8) Thrombocytopenia (12) Infection (3) Esophagitis (3)	NA	15	13

CAV, cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin and vincristine; Carbo, carboplatin; E, etoposide; MST, median survival time; NA, not available; PAVE, cisplatin, doxorubicin, vincristine and etoposide; PE, cisplatin and etoposide; PS, performance status; RR, response rate; TRD, treatment-related death; 5-YS, five-year survival rate.

[a] Grade 4 only.

acceptable toxicity in elderly patients. Carboplatin is especially useful for the elderly, because it requires only minimum hydration, its non-hematological toxicity is mild, and the dose can be adjusted according to patient's creatinine clearance. Japanese Clinical Oncology Group (JCOG) evaluated toxicity and efficacy of this method in a phase II study (JCOG9409), and showed that grade 4 neutropenia and thrombocytopenia were noted in 44% and 12% of patients, respectively, and that CR and PR were obtained in 6% and 69%, respectively.[25] We started a large phase III trial in 1997, comparing etoposide (80 mg/m^2 days 1–3) and carboplatin (AUC = 5) with etoposide (the same dose) and cisplatin (25 mg/m^2 days 1–3) in elderly patients with SCLC (JCOG 9702). Up to the present, more than 200 patients were registered in this study.

A recent phase III trial showed that a combination of cisplatin and irinotecan was superior to a combination of cisplatin and etoposide in patients with extensive SCLC, but only patients 70 years of age or younger were included in this study.[31] In addition, there is no clinical trial of irinotecan in elderly patients with SCLC. Another anticancer agent promising in the treatment of SCLC is amrubicin, which yielded a response rate of 79% and median survival time of 11 months in patients with extensive SCLC.[32] Further studies are necessary to evaluate these new agents in the treatment of elderly patients with SCLC.

The chemoradiotherapy used in younger patients may be too intensive for most elderly patients with limited SCLC. One approach that avoids excessive toxicity is to reduce the dose of the chemotherapy or radiotherapy. A recent meta-analysis of chemotherapy alone versus chemotherapy plus radiotherapy in patients with limited SCLC demonstrated survival benefit of radiotherapy added to chemotherapy in patients less than 70 years of age, but the benefit disappeared in the older patients.[33] This finding indicates that the standard treatment in this setting might be chemotherapy alone. The currently available phase II studies of treatment of limited SCLC in the elderly, however, showed that two cycles of chemotherapy plus full-dose radiotherapy produced long-term survivors with acceptable toxicity.[28–30] Thus, which modality should be modified remains controversial, but reduced cycles of chemotherapy combined with full-dose radiotherapy appears to be the treatment of choice at present.

The criteria for the classification of elderly patients into two groups in this review were based on PS, function of major organs, and comorbidity. However, they may be inadequate to evaluate this heterogeneous elderly population. In future clinical trials, it will be important to evaluate the influence of cancer treatment on the functional status of the elderly. A comprehensive geriatric assessment designed to improve the health care of elderly people consists mainly of instruments for evaluating activities of daily living, physical function, cognitive function, and emotional status.[34, 35] It has been used as a diagnostic tool to screen for problems and to determine the needs of the geriatric population for in-home assistance, home-health service, or hospital care, but it may be also useful for our purpose.

In conclusion, although the evidence levels based on clinical trials currently available are low, it is possible to select the optimal treatment for elderly patients with SCLC by dividing them into patients in good and poor general condition.

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Risk factors for interstitial lung disease and predictive factors for tumor response in patients with advanced non-small cell lung cancer treated with gefitinib

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Summary A high incidence of interstitial lung disease (ILD) has been reported in patients with non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) treated with gefitinib in Japan. We retrospectively analyzed 112 patients with advanced NSCLC who received gefitinib monotherapy. Univariate and multivariate analyses were used to identify risk factors for gefitinib-related ILD and predictive factors for tumor response to gefitinib. The incidence of ILD was 5.4%, and it was higher in the patients with pre-existing pulmonary fibrosis (33% versus 2%; $P < 0.001$). The results of a multivariate analysis showed that pulmonary fibrosis was a significant risk factor for ILD (odds ratio: 177, 95% confidence interval: 4.53–6927, $P = 0.006$). The response rate was 33% in the 98 evaluable patients and higher in women (53% versus 23%; $P = 0.003$), patients with adenocarcinoma (38% versus 6%; $P = 0.010$), never-smokers (63% versus 18%; $P < 0.001$), and the patients with no history of thoracic radiotherapy (39% versus 13%; $P = 0.015$). The results of a multivariate analysis showed that the predictors of tumor response were "no history of smoking" and "no history of thoracic radiotherapy". Never-smokers had a significantly longer survival time than smokers ($P = 0.007$). Although gefitinib therapy confers a clinical benefit on patients with advanced NSCLC, especially on women, patients with adenocarcinoma, never-smokers, and patients with no history of thoracic radiotherapy, it also poses a high risk of ILD, especially to patients with pulmonary fibrosis. The risk-benefit ratio must be carefully considered.
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1. Introduction

Gefitinib (Iressa®; AstraZeneca, Osaka, Japan) is an orally available, selective epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) tyrosine kinase inhibitor that displays antitumor activity in patients with previously treated advanced non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC). The safety and tolerability of gefitinib was established in four open-labeled, multicenter, phase I dose-escalation studies [1–4]. Although diarrhea, skin rash/acne, and nausea were common adverse effects, most of them were mild. Two large-scale, multicenter, randomized phase II studies (IDEAL 1 and 2; Iressa® Dose Evaluation in Advanced Lung Cancer) have demonstrated clinically significant antitumor activity of gefitinib monotherapy in patients with advanced NSCLC who had previously received platinum-based chemotherapy [5,6]. The response rate for gefitinib 250 mg per day in the IDEAL 1 and 2 trials was 18.4 and 11.8%, respectively. These studies also showed that gefitinib monotherapy significantly improved disease-related symptoms and quality of life.

Based on the results of the IDEAL trials, gefitinib was approved in Japan for the treatment of inoperable or recurrent NSCLC on 5 July 2002, and an estimated 28,300 patients had been treated with gefitinib as of April 2003. During the first few months after its approval, many patients demanded to be treated with gefitinib as a "magic bullet" cure; however, when the incidence of interstitial lung disease (ILD) came to light in October 2002, the media reported it in a sensational manner, and as a result patients have become confused by excessive expectations and fear of ILD. The Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of Japan reported that the number of gefitinib-related cases of ILD had reached 616 as of 22 April 2003 and that 246 of the patients had died of it. The incidence of ILD and mortality rate from it has been calculated at 2.2 and 0.87%, respectively. Some case reports also suggested a high incidence of gefitinib-related ILD in Japan [7]. In view of this situation, an evidence-based assessment of the risk-benefit of gefitinib for the treatment of NSCLC was urgently needed. However, many questions regarding gefitinib administration remained unanswered, particularly in regard to the risk factors associated with ILD complications. We therefore analyzed a series of cases treated with gefitinib at the National Cancer Center Hospital (NCCH) in Tokyo.

2. Patients and methods

Between July and December 2002, 115 NSCLC patients at the NCCH began taking gefitinib and the 112 of these patients who were followed at the NCCH were retrospectively analyzed in this study. The other three patients were excluded from the analysis because they were followed-up at other hospitals after the first prescription of gefitinib. All the 112 patients had histologically or cytologically confirmed NSCLC. Their disease was locally advanced, recurrent, and/or metastatic. They all received gefitinib monotherapy at a dose of 250 mg per day.

Two independent board-certified diagnostic radiologists (M.K. and U.T.) diagnosed pre-existing pulmonary fibrosis (PF) on the basis of the findings on chest X-rays taken within 1 week of the start of gefitinib therapy. The radiologists had no knowledge of the patients' outcome. The diagnostic criteria for PF were a diffuse linear or honey-comb pattern on chest X-rays that was predominant in the lower zone of the lung.

If a patient had measurable disease, the World Health Organization criteria were used to assess the tumor response. The response rate was calculated as the total percentage of patients with a complete or partial response. Drug-related adverse events were evaluated using the National Cancer Institute-Common Toxicity Criteria (Version 2.0). Chest X-rays were performed periodically to evaluate response and detect pulmonary toxicity, and computed tomography scans of the chest were performed as needed to confirm the response or diagnose ILD. The extent of patients' smoking history was evaluated by using pack-years, which are defined as the average number of cigarettes smoked per day multiplied by the total duration of smoking in years divided by 20. Patients who had smoked for 0, 1–39, and ≥40 pack-years were categorized as "never-smokers", "moderate smokers", and "heavy smokers", respectively.

Univariate and multivariate analyses were performed to identify risk factors for ILD and predictive factors for tumor response to gefitinib. The patient characteristics tested as potential risk factors for ILD and predictive factors for tumor response were age (<70 versus ≥70 years in the univariate analysis and as a continuous variable in the multivariate analysis), sex (female versus male), histological diagnosis (adenocarcinoma versus non-adenocarcinoma), smoking history (never-smokers versus moderate/heavy smokers), performance status (PS 0–1 versus PS 2–3), prior surgery (yes versus no), prior chemotherapy (yes versus no), prior thoracic radiotherapy (yes versus no), and PF (yes versus no). These factors were compared by using a chi-square test in the univariate analysis. Logistic regression analyses were also performed to adjust for each factor. Differences

in time to treatment failure (TTF) and overall survival (OS) among the subgroups were compared by using Kaplan–Meier curves and log-rank tests. TTF was defined as the interval between the start of gefitinib administration and discontinuation of treatment for any reason, confirmed disease progression, or death. All analyses were performed using SPSS statistical package (SPSS version 11.0 for Windows, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

3. Results

3.1. Patient characteristics

The patient characteristics are listed in Table 1. All patients were Japanese. Twenty-eight patients (25%) received gefitinib as a first-line treatment; 19 were considered unfit for platinum-based chemotherapy because of poor PS (10 patients) or advanced age (9 patients), and 9 refused platinum-based chemotherapy. The diagnosis of pre-existing PF was almost the same between two radiologists. Although discordance occurred in three cases, 12 patients were finally diagnosed as PF by consensus. All of the 12 patients had computed tomography findings consistent with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis/usual interstitial pneumonia.

3.2. Interstitial lung disease (ILD) and other toxicities

Among the 112 patients reviewed, ILD developed in 6 (5.4%) during the course of gefitinib therapy, and 4 patients (3.6%) died from ILD. The characteristics of the six patients with ILD are listed in Table 2. All of them had acute onset or exacerbation of respiratory symptoms. In five patients, chest computed tomography scanning revealed new diffuse interstitial changes in both lungs with ground-glass appearances. Because bronchoalveolar lavage or lung biopsy was not performed, we cannot completely exclude lymphangiosis carcinomatosa or other diseases, but the clinical courses and imaging appearances were consistent with drug-induced ILD. Although the other patient (patient 3) died before imaging diagnosis, the autopsy revealed diffuse alveolar damage, and we concluded she died from gefitinib-related ILD.

The results of univariate and multivariate analyses on risk factors for ILD are shown in Table 3. The incidence of ILD was 33% (4/12) among patients with PF and 2.0% (2/100) among the other patients. PF was the only significant risk factor for ILD in the univariate analysis (odds ratio [OR]: 16.7, 95% confidence interval [95% CI]: 3.40–83.3, $P < 0.001$), and this finding was supported by the results of the multivariate analysis (OR: 177, 95% CI: 4.53–6927, $P = 0.006$). Since all of the patients with ILD were smokers, pack-years were analyzed as a continuous variable in the multivariate analysis, and the results of it suggested the association between increased pack-years and a higher risk of ILD ($P = 0.062$). Since all of the ILD cases had a PS score of 1 and had never undergone thoracic radiotherapy, it was impossible to assess the association between poor PS or prior thoracic radiotherapy and ILD in the multivariate analysis.

Table 1 Patient characteristics

	Patients ($n = 112$)	
	No.	%
Age		
Median (range) (years)	63 (29–83)	
<70 years	80	71
≥70 years	32	29
Sex		
Female	35	31
Male	77	69
Histological diagnosis		
Adenocarcinoma	93	83
Squamous cell carcinoma	12	11
Non-small cell carcinoma (not specified)	6	5
Large cell neuroendocrine carcinoma	1	1
Smoking history (pack-years)		
Never-smokers (0)	34	30
Moderate smokers (1–39)	30	27
Heavy smokers (≥40)	48	43
ECOG performance status		
0–1	92	82
2–3	20	18
Stage		
IIIA/IIIB	21	19
IV	58	52
Recurrence after surgery	33	29
Prior chemotherapy		
Yes	84	75
No	28	25
Prior thoracic radiotherapy		
Yes	26	23
No	86	77
Pre-existing pulmonary fibrosis		
Yes	12	11
No	100	89

Table 2 Characteristics of patients who developed interstitial lung disease

	Age (years)	Sex	Histological diagnosis	PS	PY	Stage	Prior chemotherapy		Thoracic radiotherapy	Pre-existing lung disease	Length of treatment (days)	Survival (days)
							First	Second				
1	66	M	Ad	1	44	IIIB	CDDP+VNR	DTX	No	PF	10	22[a]
2	69	M	Ad	1	28	IV	CBDCA+PTX	–	No	PF	32	67[a]
3	52	F	Ad	1	48	IV	CDDP+GEM	–	No	None	42	42[a]
4	71	M	Ad	1	51	IIIB	UFT	–	No	PF	47	123[a]
5	64	M	Sq	1	129	IV	CBDCA+PTX	DTX	No	None	18	237[b]
6	74	M	Ad	1	64	Rec	CBDCA+PTX	–	No	PF	39	400[b]

Ad: adenocarcinoma, Sq: squamous cell carcinoma, PS: performance status, PY: pack-years smoked, Rec: recurrence after surgery, CDDP: cisplatin, CBDCA: carboplatin, VNR: vinorelbine, DTX: docetaxel, PTX: paclitaxel, GEM: gemcitabine, PF: pulmonary fibrosis.

[a] Treatment-related death.

[b] Death from lung cancer.

Table 3 Risk factors for interstitial lung disease ($n = 112$)

	No. of patients	Incidence of ILD (%)	Univariate analysis		Multivariate analysis	
			Odds ratio (95% CI)	*P*-values	Odds ratio (95% CI)	*P*-values
Total	112	5.4				
Age						
<70 years	80	5.0	0.80 (0.15–4.18)	0.791	2.05 (0.46–9.17)	0.347[a]
≥70 years	32	6.3	1			
Sex						
Female	35	2.9	0.44 (0.053–3.62)	0.428	19.1 (0.44–837)	0.126
Male	77	6.5	1		1	
Histological diagnosis						
Adenocarcinoma	93	5.4	1.02 (0.13–8.26)	0.984	0.26 (0.012–5.46)	0.383
Non-adenocarcinoma	19	5.3	1		1	
Smoking history (pack-years)						
Heavy smokers (≥40)	48	10.4	–	0.096[b]	1.50 (0.98–2.29)	0.062[c]
Moderate smokers (1–39)	30	3.3	–			
Never-smokers (0)	34	0.0	1			
PS						
2–3	20	0.0	0	0.240		
0–1	92	6.5	1			
Prior surgery						
Yes (recurrence)	33	3.0	0.48 (0.056–3.94)	0.480	2.48 (0.14–43.2)	0.534
No (advanced disease)	79	6.3	1		1	
Prior chemotherapy						
Yes	84	7.1	–	0.146		
No	28	0.0	1			
Prior thoracic radiotherapy						
Yes	26	0.0	0	0.166		
No	86	7.0	1			
Pulmonary fibrosis						
Yes	12	33	16.7 (3.40–83.3)	<0.001	177 (4.53–6927)	0.006
No	100	2.0	1		1	

CI: confidence interval.
[a] Age was analyzed as a continuous variable in the multivariate analysis. Odds ratio was calculated per 10-year decrease.
[b] Smoking history was analyzed by comparing never-smokers and moderate/heavy smokers in the univariate analysis.
[c] Smoking history (pack-years) was analyzed as a continuous variable in the multivariate analysis. Odds ratio was calculated per 10-pack-year increase.

The incidence of drug-related adverse events is listed in Table 4. Grade 1 or 2 skin rash (81%) and diarrhea (56%) were the most frequent adverse events. Grades 1–3 elevation in glutamic-oxaloacetic transaminase (GOT) and/or glutamic-pyruvic transaminase (GPT) levels was observed in 46% of the patients.

3.3. Efficacy

Of the 112 patients, 98 had measurable disease. Four patients were not evaluated due to early discontinuation. Complete response, partial response, stable disease, and progressive disease were observed in 2, 30, 29, and 33 patients,

Table 4 Toxicity

	No. of patients evaluated	Grade			
		1	2	3	4
Skin rash	109	59	29	0	0
Diarrhea	109	57	4	0	0
GOT/GPT	106	31	8	10	0
Nausea	109	21	5	0	0
Interstitial lung disease (ILD)	112	0	1	1	4[a]

[a] Treatment-related death.

respectively. The response rate was 33% (32/98). The response rates in each subgroup of patients are listed in Table 5. According to the results of the univariate analysis, female gender ($P = 0.003$), adenocarcinoma ($P = 0.010$), no history of smoking ($P < 0.001$), and no history of thoracic radiotherapy ($P = 0.015$) were significant predictors of tumor response to gefitinib. The response rate of male smokers was 14% (8/56), which was lower than both that of female smokers (40%, $P = 0.052$) and that of male never-smokers (70%, $P < 0.001$). When pack-years were analyzed as a continuous variable among the smokers, the association between

Table 5 Response rates among subgroups of patients ($n = 98$)

	No. of patients	Response rate (%)	Univariate analysis		Multivariate analysis	
			Odds ratio (95% CI)	*P*-values	Odds ratio (95% CI)	P values
Total	98	33				
Age						
<70 years	69	36	1.50 (0.76–2.97)	0.244	1.57 (0.96–2.56)	0.071[a]
≥70 years	29	24	1			
Sex						
Female	32	53	2.34 (1.34–4.06)	0.003	1.84 (0.51–6.56)	0.349
Male	66	23	1		1	
Histological diagnosis						
Adenocarcinoma	81	38	6.51 (1.58–26.8)	0.010	4.27 (0.48–37.0)	0.191
Non-adenocarcinoma	17	6	1		1	
Smoking history (pack-years)						
Never-smokers (0)	32	63	3.44 (1.98–5.97)	<0.001[b]	3.92 (1.03–14.9)	0.045[b]
Moderate smokers (1–49)	22	23	1		1	
Heavy smokers (≥50)	44	16				
PS						
0–1	83	31	0.78 (0.38–1.62)	0.510	0.46 (0.10–2.09)	0.314
2–3	15	40	1		1	
Prior surgery						
No (advanced disease)	68	28	0.64 (0.36–1.14)	0.134	1.25 (0.35–4.41)	0.732
Yes (recurrence)	30	43	1		1	
Prior chemotherapy						
No	24	42	1.40 (0.76–2.58)	0.279	1.32 (0.35–4.95)	0.678
Yes	74	30	1		1	
Prior thoracic radiotherapy						
No	74	39	3.14 (1.24–7.90)	0.015	6.76 (1.30–35.7)	0.023
Yes	24	13	1		1	

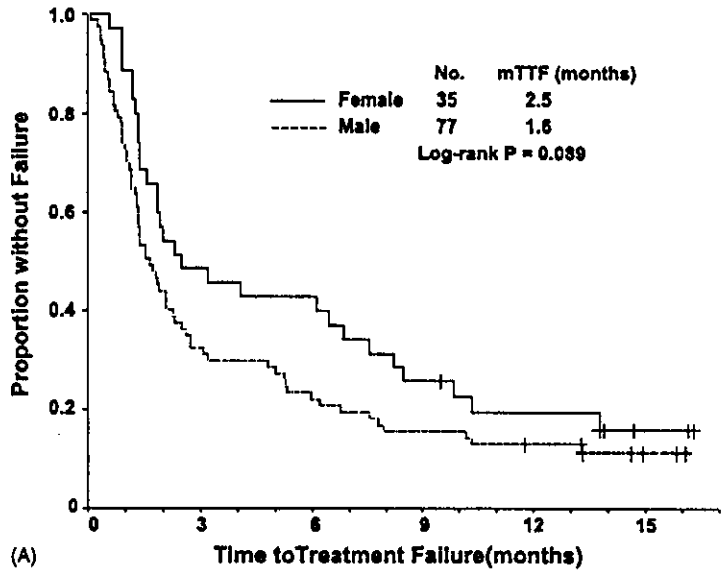
CI: confidence interval.

[a] Age was analyzed as a continuous variable in the multivariate analysis. The odds ratio was calculated per 10-year decrease.

[b] Smoking history was analyzed by comparing never-smokers and moderate/heavy smokers.

increased pack-years and a lower response rate was also shown (OR per 10-pack-year increase: 0.74, 95% CI: 0.56–0.99, $P = 0.041$).

The results of a multivariate analysis showed that "no history of smoking" ($P = 0.045$) and "no history of thoracic radiotherapy" ($P = 0.023$) were significant predictors of response. It was also suggested that younger patients tended to obtain a higher response rate ($P = 0.071$). Although female gender and adenocarcinoma were not found to be predictive factors in the multivariate analysis, sex and histological diagnosis were significantly associated with smoking history, and these variables may have canceled each other's effect on the dependent variable. The proportion of never-smokers was 69% (22/32) among the women versus 15% (10/66) among the men (correlation coefficient [r] = 0.536, $P < 0.001$), and 67% (54/81) among the patients with adenocarcinoma versus 0% (0/17) among those with non-adenocarcinoma ($r = 0.319$, $P = 0.001$). When a multivariate analysis was performed excluding smoking history as a factor, the OR of the females and patients with adenocarcinoma was 3.81 (95% CI: 1.36–10.7, $P = 0.011$) and 6.45 (95% CI: 0.76–55.6, $P = 0.087$), respectively.



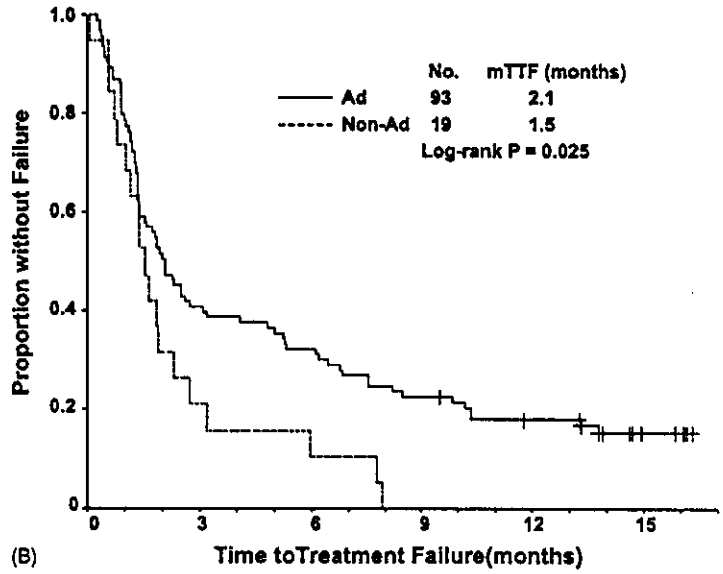


Fig. 1 Kaplan–Meier plot of time to treatment failure according to subgroups: (A) female versus male; (B) adenocarcinoma versus non-adenocarcinoma; (C) never-smokers versus moderate/heavy smokers. mTTF: median time to treatment failure, Ad: adenocarcinoma.

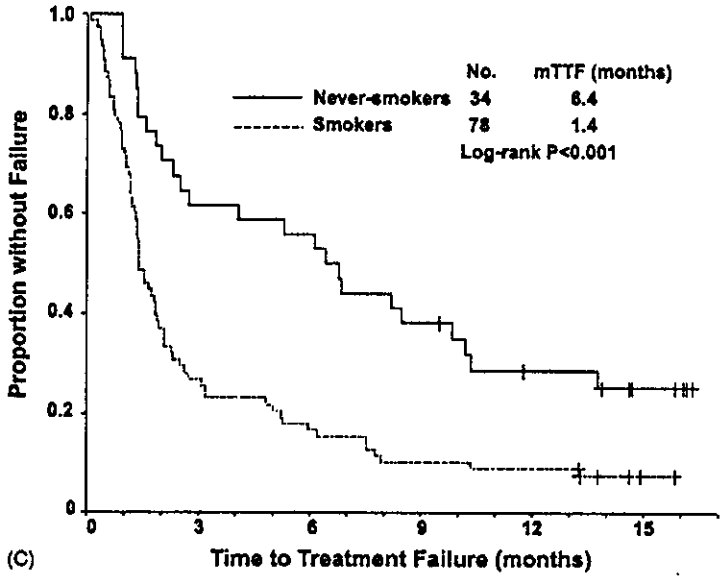


Fig. 1 (*Continued*).

The median follow-up time for survivors was 14.7 months, and ranged from 11.0 to 16.8 months. Sixty-nine patients (62%) died: 65 of disease progression and 4 of toxicity. Gefitinib treatment was terminated in 97 patients (87%) because of disease progression (68 patients), no tumor shrinkage (7 patients), toxicity (19 patients), or at the patients' request (3 patients). The median TTF and the median survival time (MST) for all patients were 1.9 and 10.7 months, respectively. The 1-year survival rate was 45%. The Kaplan–Meier plots of TTF and OS in each subgroup are shown in Figs. 1 and 2. The women had a longer TTF and OS than the men, but the difference was not significant. Patients with adenocarcinoma had a significantly longer TTF than those with non-adenocarcinoma, and "adenocarcinoma" was a marginally significant predictor of longer survival. "No history of smoking" was a highly significant predictor of longer TTF ($P < 0.001$) and longer survival ($P = 0.007$); the MST was 15.3 months in never-smokers and 8.8 months in moderate/heavy smokers.

We observed an association between efficacy and toxicity. As shown in Table 6, those who experienced skin rash or elevation in GOT/GPT levels tended to

Table 6 Association between efficacy and toxicity

	No. of patients	Response rate (%)	*P*-values*	Median survival (months)	1-year survival (%)	*P*-values†
Skin rash						
Grade 0	21	12	0.043	3.0	24	0.011
Grade 1	59	33		10.6	44	
Grade 2	29	46		15.3	66	
Diarrhea						
Grade 0	48	33	0.903	9.3	35	0.037
Grade 1–2	61	32		13.6	54	
GOT/GPT						
Grade 0	57	21	0.004	7.8	31	0.006
Grade 1	31	48		15.1	55	
Grade 2–3	18	50		Not reached	83	

* *P*-values for chi-square test between grade 0 and 1–3.
† *P*-values for log-rank test.

exhibit a response, and skin rash, diarrhea and elevation in GOT/GPT levels were significant prognostic factors of survival.

4. Discussion

Gefitinib is a promising agent for the treatment of advanced NSCLC, but risk assessment is of critical importance to using it properly. Gefitinib was thought to be a relatively safe agent at first, and physicians in Japan tended to prescribe it without careful consideration of risks. In the first 4 months after its approval, 17,000 patients began taking gefitinib, the most rapid adoption of any antitumor agent in Japan. The Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare has estimated that the incidence of ILD was 2.2%. However, since a follow-up survey of all of the cases has not been conducted and only limited data from sporadic reports by physicians were available, many ILD cases may not have been reported, and the actual incidence may have been higher than 2.2%. Although the sample size in the present study was small, the incidence of ILD was

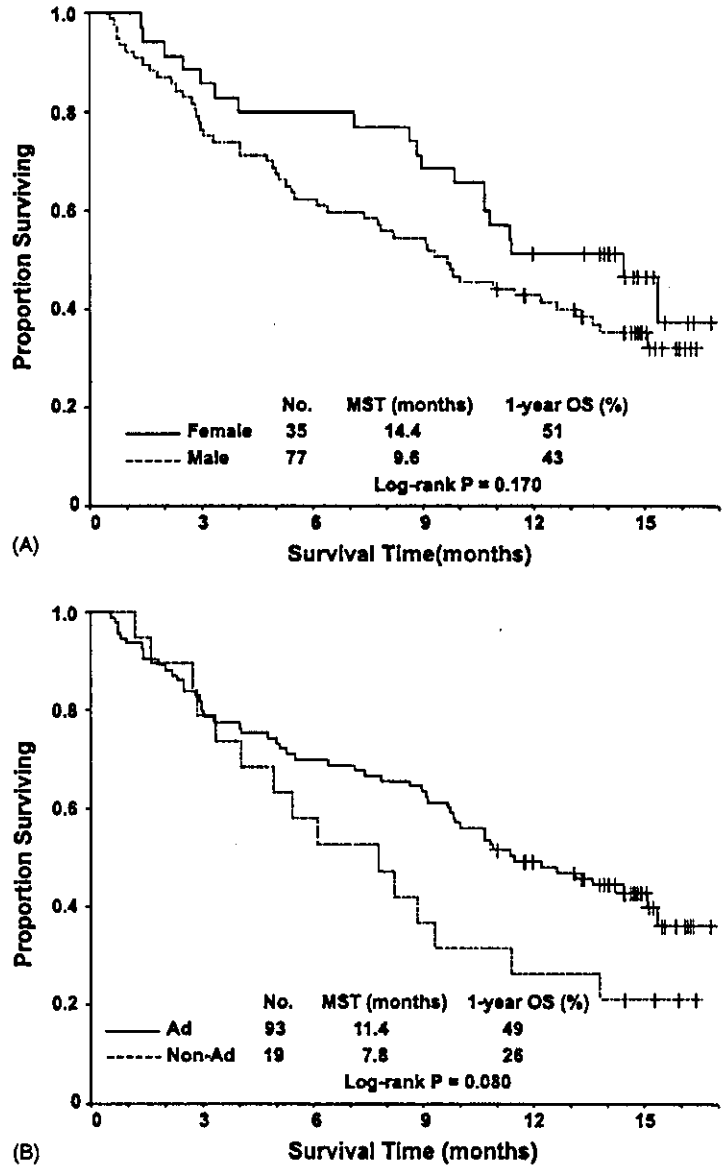


Fig. 2 Kaplan–Meier plot of overall survival according to subgroups: (A) female versus male; (B) adenocarcinoma versus non-adenocarcinoma; (C) never-smokers versus moderate/heavy smokers. MST: median survival time, OS: overall survival, Ad: adenocarcinoma.