differences in the distribution of age, initial PSA range, biopsy Gleason score, TNM categories,[7] and clinical stage between the two studies.[5] We speculate the homogeneity of patient background in the two retrospective studies explains the similarity of results for the PSA response at 3 months after the initiation of hormonal therapy (overall CR or PR rates in our study and the previous study were 95.0% and 95.7%, respectively), as well as the duration of response (months) based on antiandrogen administration (BCL: 7.6 ± 7.8 months [our study] versus 9.3 ± 6.0 months [Kojima *et al.*[5]]; FLT: 13.9 ± 14.7 months [our study] versus 14.6 ± 10.3 months [Kojima *et al.*[5]]; CMA: 17.0 ± 17.5 months [our study] versus 29.4 ± 38.3 months [Kojima *et al.*[5]]).

The similarity of patients' backgrounds also resulted in a similar positive AWS rate after CAB as the first-line hormonal therapy (33.3% [10/30] in this study compared to 35.8% [19/53] in Kojima *et al.*[5]). Interestingly, the positive AWS rates after second-line therapy also were similar (7% [1/15] in this study versus 8.0% [2/25] in Kojima *et al.*[5]). Similarly, the results of first-line hormonal therapy (CR and PR) did not significantly affect the AWS response rate (31.5% versus 36.3% in this study, 30.0% versus 42.9% in Kojima *et al.*[5]). Our results enhanced the evidence that the primary PSA response could not predict the AWS response.

In the results regarding the change of antiandrogens between first- and second-line therapy, the overall effective rate in our study was ≈ 12% higher than that in the previous study (51% versus 39.6%, $P = 0.52$). The reason for the higher rate in our study might originate from the difference in the effective rate concerning cases in which antiandrogen administration was added in second-line therapy (71% in our study versus 46% in Kojima *et al.*[5]). In our series, the effective rates from CMA to non-steroidal antiandrogen (FLT or BCL) and from non-steroidal antiandrogen to CMA were 83% (5/6) and 14% (1/7), respectively, while those in Kojima *et al.* were 36% (8/22) and 0% (0/4), respectively (Fig. 1).[5] Interestingly, the effectiveness in the change from CMA (steroidal) to non-steroidal antiandrogen (BCL or FLT) revealed a higher rate (46%, 13/28, when combining the two studies[5]) compared with the rate from non-steroidal to CMA (9%, 1/11, when combining the two studies[5]). Furthermore, no case where the patient went from the non-steroidal antiandrogen to CMA was effective in the change of antiandrogen from second- to third-line therapy (0%, 0/7) in our study or Kojima *et al.*[5] Combining the two sets of results, we speculate that the change to CMA might be less effective compared with the change from CMA to a non-steroidal antiandrogen. However, in the change in first- and second-line therapy, the effective rates between our study and Kojima *et al.*'s study revealed similar results in the change from non-steroidal to other non-steroidal antiandrogens (43% [20/46] in our study and 50% [7/14] in the Kojima *et al.*[5]). The PSA response rates in the change from FLT to BCL were previously reported as being from 38.5–42.9%.[4,8] Considering other results, second-line AAT, from non-steroidal to non-steroidal, was effective in a substantial number of men with advanced prostate cancer, regardless of differences in their race. In 2006, Lam *et al.* demonstrated that there was no report of responses of FLT following BCL therapy.[9] However, Kojima *et al.* already have reported that FLT was effective as an alternative antiandrogen for relapse treatment with BCL in Japanese men.[5] Combining this report's results with the results from our study, we also found that FLT was effective after relapse with BCL.

As is well-known, androgen receptor (AR) mutation might play a key role in AWS.[10,11] Suzuki reported that AR hyper-activated mutation might cause so-called anti-AWS.[12] In addition to the occurrence of AWS, AR mutation, such as the codons 877 and 741, might influence the effectiveness of AAT.[11,13] Primary non-steroidal antiandrogen administration in time might select for mutant AR, which can be stimulated by this agent but inhibited by the alternative non-steroidal antiandrogen.[8] The results of this study revealed that previous antiandrogen treatment altered the response to subsequent hormonal therapy.

In this study, the cause-specific survival rate of second-line responders in all cases, as well as the cases with stage D disease, was significantly better than that of the non-responders. Kojima *et al.*'s study also revealed significant differences between the responders and non-responders.[5] These two studies might lead to the speculation that other options, such as chemotherapy and experimental trials, need to be examined in non-responders without choosing third-line hormonal therapy. Furthermore, it is very important to predict the response of second-line therapy. Similar to Kojima *et al.*'s results,[5] pretreatment parameters, such as age, clinical stage, and pretreatment PSA value, could not predict the response of second-line therapy (data not shown). However, our result showed a certain correlation between first-line responsiveness (PSA CR) and second-line responsiveness. The PSA response after first-line therapy might be a possible parameter in predicting the response of second-line therapy, combining the data from Kojima *et al.*[5] with our results. Based on their data, the proportion of responders in second-line therapy who had achieved PSA CR (14/21) also was higher than those without CR (14/33, $P = 0.08$).

To clarify whether the PSA response can be a critical factor prior to second-line AAT, further analysis with a larger number of men will be necessary.

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講座

術前化学療法後のセンチネルリンパ節生検

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Sentinel Lymph Node Biopsy for Breast Cancer Patients after Neoadjuvant Chemotherapy：Kinoshita T[*1], Fukutomi T[*2], Seki K[*3] ([*1,2]Surgical Oncology Division, [*3]Department of Pathology, National Cancer Center)

Despite the increasing use of both sentinel node biopsy and neoadjuvant chemotherapy in patients with operable breast cancer, there is still limited information on the feasibility and accuracy of sentinel node biopsy following neoadjuvant chemotherapy. So, the feasibility and accuracy of sentinel lymph node (SLN) biopsy for breast cancer patients with clinically node negative after neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NAC) has been investigated under the administration of a radiocolloid imaging agent injected intradermally over a tumor. Also, conditions which may affect SLN biopsy detection and false-negative rates with respect to clinical tumor response and clinical nodal status before NAC were also analyzed.

Our results show that SLN identification rate and false-negative rate after NAC are similar to those in nonneoadjuvant studies.

Key words：Breast cancer patients, After neoadjuvant chemotherapy, Sentinel node biopsy
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はじめに

近年，センチネルリンパ節生検による腋窩郭清の省略と術前化学療法の併用により乳癌の外科治療は急速に縮小化の方向に進んでいる．センチネルリンパ節生検は，1990年代に始まり，従来の色素法にRIを用いたガンマプローブ法を組み合わせるなどの技術的改良と外科医自身の学習効果により，その成績も90％を超える同定率と5～10％の偽陰性率の達成が可能になってきている[1]．海外における69の施設と10,000人以上の患者を対象とした早期乳癌に対するセンチネルリンパ節生検のメタアナリシスの結果は，全体の同定率が90％以上で偽陰性率も8.4％と報告されている[2]．センチネルリンパ節生検の結果，腋窩郭清の省略が可能になった患者は，腋窩郭清を施行された患者と比較して術後合併症の頻度が低く，患手のむくみ，痺れ，運動障害などが軽度でQOLもより良好であると考えられる[1]．海外におけるセンチネルリンパ節生検の比較試験の長期的な成績が待たれるが，本邦においても多くの施設が既にセンチネルリンパ節生検の安全性試験を終了し実地医療へと移行しているものと考えられる．

一方，術前化学療法の導入により多くの症例でダウンステージ効果により乳房温存療法が可能になってきた．術前化学療法は従来，病期ⅢB以上のいわゆる局所進行癌を対象に非切除例を切除可能にする目的で実施されてきたが，近年は病期ⅡAからⅢAの症例も術前化学療法の対象とし，原発巣が巣縮小した結果，多くの症例で乳房温存療法が可能となっている．これらの効果は，原発巣ばかりではなく当然，腋窩リンパ節転移巣にも確認されている．アンスラサイクリン系を含む術前化学療法では，腋窩リンパ節転移を約30％減じ[3]，さらにタキサン系を加えたレジメンでは約40％減ずると報告されている[4,5]．当院

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表4　国立がんセンターにおけるセンチネルリンパ節生検の成績

センチネルリンパ節の転移	非センチネルリンパ節の転移	
	陽性	陰性
陽性	16	14
陰性	3	48

False negative rate, 9.1%; overall accuracy, 96.3%; negative predictive value, 94.1%; positive predictive value, 100%

け実施した．術前化学療法後に原発巣がPR以上の効果を示し，かつ，治療後腋窩リンパ節転移が陰性であった88例をセンチネルリンパ節生検の対象とした．これらの平均腫瘍径は4.9cm（2.5cm～12.0cm）で，T4が6例，治療前に明らかにリンパ節転移を認めた42例も対象となっている（表3）．センチネルリンパ節生検は，色素－RI法を用いたものが80例で，色素法単独が8例となっている．結果として，センチネルリンパ節が同定できた症例は80例で，同定率は92%となる．これらの症例のセンチネルリンパ節とノンセンチネルリンパ節の転移の有無をまとめたものを表4に示す．センチネルリンパ節に転移を認めず，ノンセンチネルリンパ節に転移を認めたものは3例で偽陰性率は9%であり，全体として96%の症例においてセンチネルリンパ節が腋窩リンパ節全体の状況を正確に反映していることが証明された．臨床的諸因子とセンチネルリンパ節の同定率との関連を検討したが，治療前のリンパ節転移の有無，臨床的治療効果，病理組織学的治療効果は関連せず，唯一，T4d（炎症性乳癌）症例のみがセンチネルリンパ節の同定を困難にしていることが明らかとなった．一方，センチネルリンパ節が同定できた症例中，偽陰性になった症例は3例のみであったため，術前化学療法も含めてこれらに影響を与える因子は明らかではなかった．

まとめ

当院での術前化学療法後センチネルリンパ節生検の結果から，炎症性乳癌以外の術前化学療法が著効した症例において，センチネルリンパ節生検は十分に安全に実施できると結論づけられた．同定率は92%，偽陰性率は9%で，早期乳癌における成績と遜色のないものとなった．海外における最近の報告や多施設からの報告は，当院の結果を支持するものである．一方，2005年度にJournal of Clinical Oncology（JCO）に発表されたAmerican Society of Clinical Oncology（ASCO）のガイドラインでは，Preoperative systemic therapy後のセンチネルリンパ節生検に関して，①技術的には安全に実施することはできる，②Preoperative systemic therapy後のn0の意義が明らかでない，③これらの症例では，正確な腋窩リンパ節の転移状況の把握が治療方針を決める際に重要であること，④エビデンスが十分でない，ことより推奨されていない．正確な腋窩リンパ節の情報を得るという目的からするとセンチネルリンパ節生検をPreoperative systemic therapyの前に施行し，Preoperative systemic therapy後に実施する場合でもN0症例に限られるべきだと強調している[18]．

当院での成績から，強力で安定した化学療法の後，色素－RI法を用い熟練した手技のもとにセンチネルリンパ節生検は，安全に実施できることが確認された．術前化学療法が著効した乳癌症例では，腋窩リンパ節陽性率が25%程度になることから術前化学療法後にセンチネルリンパ節生検を実施することに意義があるものと考える．ただし，本対象が進行癌であるということを十分に認識し，腫瘍内科医，病理医，放射線診断医との連携のもとに，慎重に適応を決めて本手技を修練，実施することが望まれる．

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Review Article

Sentinel Lymph Node Biopsy is Feasible for Breast Cancer Patients after Neoadjuvant Chemotherapy

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Background: Despite the increasing use of both sentinel lymph node (SLN) biopsy and neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NAC) in patients with operable breast cancer, information on the feasibility and accuracy of sentinel node biopsy following neoadjuvant chemotherapy is still quite limited. Therefore, we investigated the feasibility and accuracy of sentinel lymph node biopsy for breast cancer patients after NAC.

Methods: A total of 104 patients with Stage II and III breast cancers, previously treated by NAC, were enrolled in the study. All patients were clinically node-negative after NAC. The patients underwent SLN biopsy, which involved a combination of an intradermal injection of radiocolloid and a subareolar injection of blue dye over the tumor. This was followed by completion axillary lymph node dissection (ALND).

Results: SLN could be identified in 97 of 104 patients (identification rate, 93.3%). In 93 of the 97 patients (95.9%), the SLN accurately predicted the axillary status. Four patients' SLN biopsies were false negative, resulting in a false-negative rate of 10.0%. The SLN identification rate tended to be lower among patients with T4 primary tumors prior to NAC (62.5%).

Conclusion: The SLN identification and false-negative rates were similar to rates in non-neoadjuvant studies. The SLN accurately predicted metastatic disease in the axilla of patients with tumor response following NAC.

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Key words: Sentinel node biopsy, Neoadjuvant chemotherapy, Breast cancer, Intradermal injection

Introduction

Currently, the status of the axillary lymph nodes is the most important prognostic indicator for breast cancer and helps guide the physician in adjuvant therapy. More than 40 peer-reviewed pilot studies, published between 1993 and 1999, have established the validity of the SLN biopsy technique for clinically node-negative breast cancer[1] and SLN biopsy has become the standard of care for axillary staging in such patients.

Recent studies report identification rates greater than 90% and false-negative rates ranging from 2 to 10%[2,3]. To ensure a high SLN identification rate and a low false-negative rate, some relative contraindications for SLN biopsy have been established, including T3 or T4 tumors, multicentric or multifocal lesions, a large biopsy cavity, previous axillary surgery, previous chest-wall irradiation, and NAC[4,5].

The application of SLN biopsy in NAC patients may identify, as in non-neoadjuvant chemotherapy groups, patients who do not necessarily require an ALND. Several studies have evaluated the use of SLN biopsy in patients with breast cancer after NAC, but the results have been varied and inconclusive[6-14].

Recently, the American Society of Clinical Oncology panel concluded that there are insufficient data to recommend SLN biopsy for patients receiving preoperative therapy, although SLN biopsy after preoperative systemic chemotherapy is technically feasible[15]. It is possible that the tumor response to chemotherapy may alter or

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Abbreviations:
SLN, Sentinel lymph node; NAC, Neoadjuvant chemotherapy; ALND, Axillary lymph node dissection

interrupt the lymphatic drainage, thus causing lower SLN identification rates and higher false-negative rates than in non-neoadjuvant studies. We hypothesize that the lymphatic flow within the skin lesion overlying the tumor is less damaged by chemotherapy than that in the parenchyma surrounding the tumor, except in T4 tumors. Thus, the usefulness of SLN biopsy with intradermal radiocolloid injection for patients with NAC-treated breast cancer has yet to be established.

The objective of this study was to determine the feasibility and accuracy of SLN biopsy using intradermal radiocolloid injection over the tumor in clinically node-negative, NAC-treated breast cancer patients.

Patients and Methods

Between May 2003 and October 2005, 104 patients with T2-4N0-2 breast cancer underwent NAC with SLN biopsy plus ALND performed by a single surgeon. The pathologic diagnosis was established by core needle biopsy in all patients prior to NAC.

Patients under 65 of age received four cycles of 5FU (500mg/m^2) / epirubicin (100mg/m^2) / cyclophosphamide (500mg/m^2) (FEC), plus twelve weekly cycles of paclitaxel (80mg/m^2). Patients over 65 years of age received twelve weekly cycles of paclitaxel (80mg/m^2) alone. After NAC, we enrolled the 104 clinically node-negative patients into this study.

Lymphatic mapping was performed using a 3 ml combination of blue dye (Patent blue V®, TOC Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) and 30-80 megabecquerels of technetium-99m-labeled Phytate (Daiichi RI Laboratory, Tokyo, Japan). One day prior to surgery, the radiotracer was intradermally injected into the area overlying the tumor, while blue dye was intraoperatively injected into the subareolar site. For nonpalpable lesions, injections were performed using mammographic or ultrasonic needle localization. Sentinel lymph nodes were identified as blue stained, radioactive, or both. SLN biopsy was then followed by a standard level I/II ALND. For 32 patients, lymphscintigraphy was also performed prior to NAC, and was compared to lymphatic mapping after NAC.

All sentinel nodes were histologically evaluated by creating 3-5 mm serial sections and staining with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E). Lymph nodes submitted as part of the axillary dissection were submitted in their entirety and evaluated using standard H&E staining.

Table 1. Patient demographics

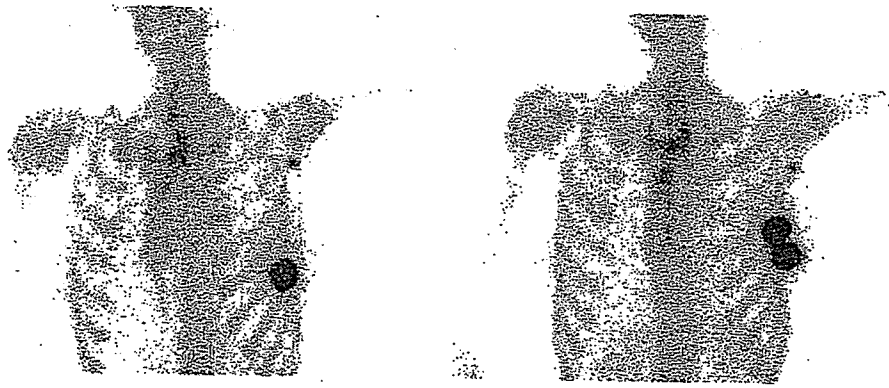
	Number of patients
Age (years)	
Mean	50.2
Range	27-77
Clinical tumor size (cm)*	
Mean	4.89
Range	2.5-12
Tumor classification*	
T2	61 (58.7%)
T3	35 (33.6%)
T4	8 (7.7%)
Lymph node status*	
N0	54 (52.0%)
N1	40 (38.5%)
N2	10 (9.5%)
Tumor type	
Invasive ductal	102 (98.1%)
Invasive lobular	2 (1.9%)
Type of NAC	
FEC plus paclitaxel	100 (96.2%)
paclitaxel alone	4 (3.8%)
Clinical response of the tumor	
CR	55 (52.9%)
PR	41 (39.4%)
SD	8 (7.7%)
Pathological response of the tumor	
pCR	23 (22.1%)
pINV	81 (77.9%)
Pathological nodal status	
Negative	60 (57.7%)
Positive	44 (42.3%)

*Before NAC.
pCR = pathological complete response; pINV = pathological invasive.
CR = Complete response; PR = Partial response; SD= Stable disease

Results

The patient characteristics, type of chemotherapy, clinical response of the tumor, and pathological findings are summarized in Table 1. All patients underwent breast-conserving therapy or mastectomy and were clinically node-negative at the time of operation.

Based on lymphscintigraphy studies before and after NAC, the results of lymphatic mapping were quite similar in 30/32 patients, as shown in Fig 1. SLN were not detected in two cases with a



1a 1b

Fig 1. Lymphscintigraphy before and after NAC (1a and 1b, respectively) revealed one sentinel node at the axilla. The bone scintigram was performed simultaneously to detect bone metastasis.

Table 2. Results of sentinel node biopsy

	Number of patients
Total no. of patients	104
SLN identified	97 (93.4%)
SLN positive	36 (34.6%)
SLN was only positive lymph node	16 (44.4%)
SLN identification method	
Radiocolloid and blue dye	91 (87.5%)
Blue dye only	13 (12.5%)

Table 3. Comparison of lymph node status of SLNs and non-SLNs (n=97)

	Non-SLN status	
SLN status	Positive	Negative
Positive	20	16
Negative	4	57

False-negative rate, 10%; overall accuracy, 96%; negative predictive value, 93%; positive predictive value, 100%

T4d primary tumor.

As seen in Table 2, the overall SLN identification rate was 93.4% (97 of 104). Of the 97 patients in whom an SLN could be identified, 36 (34.6%) had positive SLNs. In 16 of these patients (44.4%), the SLN was the only positive node. SLNs were identified by both radiocolloid and blue dye in 91 patients (87.5%) and by blue dye alone in 13 patients (12.5%).

The pathological status of the SLNs and non-SLNs is outlined in Table 3.

The SLNs accurately predicted axillary status in 93/97 patients (95.9%). Four patients had false-negative SLN biopsies, a false-negative rate of 10.0% (4/40). Fifty-seven patients had pathologically negative SLN or non-SLN.

Table 4. Comparison of lymph node status of SLNs and non- SLNs among tumor classifications before NAC

	T2 (n=59)		T3/T4 (n=38)	
	Non- SLN status			
SLN status	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
Positive	7	7	13	9
Negative	2	43	2	14
	SLN identified, 59/61 (97%) False-negative rate, 13%		SLN identified, 38/43 (88%) False-negative rate, 8%	

The pathological status of the SLNs and non-SLNs was analyzed according to tumor classifications before NAC, clinical lymph node status before NAC, and the response of the tumor after NAC.

In T2 tumors before NAC, the SLN identification rate was 97% (59 of 61), and 2 patients had false-negative SLN biopsies, or a false-negative rate of 13%. In T3 and T4 tumors, the results were 88.4% (38 of 43) and 8%, respectively (Table 4). The SLN identification rate tended to be higher in patients with a T2 primary tumor before NAC than in those with T3/T4 primary tumor before NAC, but the difference was not statistically significant.

In the SLN biopsy results, there was no significant difference between nodal status prior to NAC.

Table 5. Comparison of lymph node status of SLNs and non- SLNs among nodal status before NAC

	N0 (n=52)		N1/N2 (n=45)	
	Non- SLN status			
SLN status	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
Positive	4	8	16	8
Negative	2	38	2	19
	SLN identified, 52/54 (96%) False-negative rate, 14%		SLN identified, 45/50 (90%) False-negative rate, 7%	

Table 6. Comparison of lymph node status of SLNs and non- SLNs among clinical response after NAC

	CR (n=50)		PR/SD (n=47)	
	Non- SLN status			
SLN status	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
Positive	6	5	14	11
Negative	2	37	2	20
	SLN identified, 50/55 (91%) False-negative rate, 15%		SLN identified, 47/49 (96%) False-negative rate, 7%	

Table 7. Success rate of sentinel node identification according to tumor characteristics

	No. of Attempted	Success Rate (%)	P
Tumor classification			
T2	61	97 %	*N.S.*
T3	35	94 %	
T4	8	63 %	
Clinical nodal status			
Negative	54	96 %	*N.S.*
Positive	50	90 %	
Clinical tumor response			
CR	55	91 %	*N.S.*
PR/SD	49	96 %	
Pathological tumor response			
pCR	23	91%	*N.S.*
pINV	81	94 %	

In the patients with clinically negative lymph nodes (N0) before NAC, the SLN identification rate was 96.3% (52 of 54), and two patients had a false-negative SLN biopsy, a false-negative rate of 14%. In the patients with clinically positive lymph nodes (N1/N2), the results were 90% (45 of 50) and 7%, respectively (Table 5). In the SLN biopsy results, there was no significant difference between nodal status prior to NAC.

For patients with complete tumor response (CR) after NAC, the SLN identification rate was 91.0% (50/55) and two patients had false-negative SLN biopsies, resulting in a false-negative rate of 15%. For patients with partial tumor response (PR) and stable disease (SD), the results were 96.0% (47/49) and 7%, respectively (Table 6). The SLN identification rate tended to be lower, although the difference was not statistically significant, after NAC in patients with CR after NAC as compared to those with PR and SD.

There was no significant difference in the false-negative rate according to the tumor classification before NAC, the clinical lymph node status before NAC, or the tumor responses after NAC.

There was also no significant difference in the success rate of SLN identification according to tumor classifications before NAC, the clinical lymph node status before NAC, the clinical response of the tumor after NAC, or the pathological response of the tumor after NAC, although the success rate tended to be lower in patients with a T4 primary tumor (Table 7).

Discussion

Although the use of SLN biopsy has dramatically increased over the past several years, and some experienced surgeons are performing this procedure without completing axillary dissection, it is unlikely that SLN biopsy will become the generally accepted standard of care in axillary staging until results from ongoing randomized trials

Table 8. Studies of SLN biopsy after NAC

	No. of patients	Stage	Tumor size (cm)	No (%) of successful SLN biopsies	False negative (%)
Breslin et al.,2000 [6]	51	II or III	5.0	43 (84.3)	3 (12)
Miller et al., 2002 [7]	35	T1-3N0	3.5	30 (86.0)	0 (0)
Stearns et al.,2000 [8]	34	T3-4, any N	5.0	29 (85.0)	3 (14)
Haid et al.,2001 [9]	33	T1-3, any N	3.3	29 (88.0)	0 (0)
Julian et al.,2002 [10]	31	I or II	NS	29 (93.5)	0 (0)
Tafra et al.,2001 [12]	29	Any T, N0	NS	27 (93.0)	0 (0)
Nason et al.,2000 [13]	15	T2-4, N0	NS	13 (87.0)	3 (33)
Shimazu et al.,2004 [14]	47	II or III	4.5	44 (93.6)	4 (12)
Current study	104	T2-4, any N	4.9	97 (93.0)	4 (10)

demonstrate the equivalence of this procedure with axillary dissection in terms of axillary recurrence and overall survival. At the same time, it is unlikely that the value of sentinel node biopsy following NAC will be established[1]. The main reason for this is that only a small proportion of operable breast cancer patients currently receive NAC, making a randomized trial quite difficult. Another reason is that when the results from the ongoing randomized trials are disclosed, if they are favorable towards the SLN biopsy procedure, the majority of surgeons will extrapolate the applicability of these results to patients who have received NAC. Thus, it is quite possible that demonstrating the feasibility and efficacy of SLN biopsy after NAC will depend on the retrospective data of single-institution experiences.

NAC can reduce tumor size and significantly increase the ability to perform breast-conserving therapy[16-18]. After NAC, axillary downstaging is similarly affected. NAC with anthracycline/cyclophosphamide-containing regimens has been shown to neutralize the involved axillary nodes in about 30% of patients[16]. The addition of taxanes to anthracycline/cyclophosphamide-containing regimens has increased the conversion rate to around 40%[19, 20]. With the number of patients receiving NAC increasing, the question arises as to whether SLN biopsy is an option for these patients. We summarize the studies regarding SLN biopsy after NAC in Table 8, but they are inconclusive[6-14]. Breslin *et al.*[6] reported a study of 51 patients who underwent SLN biopsy after NAC and concluded that SLN biopsy following NAC is accurate. They had an identification rate of 84.3% and a false-negative rate of 12.0%. Nason *et al.*[13] reported a smaller number of patients who hard received NAC, and their identification and false-negative rates were 87.0% and 33.3%, respectively. They concluded that SLN biopsy resulted in an unacceptably high false-positive rate. However, in these small series, even 1 or 2 patients with false-negative SLNs can greatly affect the conclusions in a different direction. We report here a study of 104 patients who received NAC and had an identification rate of 93.4% and false-negative rate of 10.0%. We conclude in our study that SLN biopsy after NAC is accurate and feasible even for large tumors and patients with positive axillary nodal status before NAC without inflammatory breast cancer.

It has been speculated that among patients who have had their axillary lymph node status downstaged by NAC, tumors also typically respond to NAC and shrink so that damage to and alteration of the lymphatic flow from tumor tissues to the axillary basin are more likely to occur. This might then cause an increased false-negative rate for SLN biopsy and a decreased identification rate of SLN biopsy. However the hypothesis of the present study is that the lymphatic flow around skin lesions is rich and less influenced by the effects of chemotherapy and tumor size than that in the parenchyma surrounding the tumor. The lymph-scintigraphy in this study results before and after NAC demonstrated that the effect of NAC did not at all change the lymphatic flow of the breast.

The results of our study suggest that SLN biopsy after NAC using intradermal injection of radiocolloid is feasible and can accurately predict axillary lymph node status for patients with clinically negative lymph node status following NAC. This procedure could help patients who have had their

axillary lymph node status downstaged from positive to negative and patients with large tumors qualify as appropriate candidates for SLN biopsy.

Further, multicenter studies, involving a larger number of patients from a variety of clinical locations, will be required to fully establish the feasibility and accuracy of SLN biopsy for patients with breast cancer who have been treated with NAC.

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Sentinel lymph node biopsy examination for breast cancer patients with clinically negative axillary lymph nodes after neoadjuvant chemotherapy

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Abstract

Background: The feasibility and accuracy of sentinel lymph node (SLN) biopsy examination for breast cancer patients with clinically node-negative breast cancer after neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NAC) have been investigated under the administration of a radiocolloid imaging agent injected intradermally over a tumor. In addition, conditions that may affect SLN biopsy detection and false-negative rates with respect to clinical tumor response and clinical nodal status before NAC were analyzed.

Methods: Seventy-seven patients with stages II and III breast cancer previously treated with NAC were enrolled in the study. All patients were clinically node negative after NAC. The patients then underwent SLN biopsy examination, which involved a combination of intradermal injection over the tumor of radiocolloid and a subareolar injection of blue dye. This was followed by standard level I/II axillary lymph node dissection.

Results: The SLN could be identified in 72 of 77 patients (identification rate, 93.5%). In 69 of 72 patients (95.8%) the SLN accurately predicted the axillary status. Three patients had a false-negative SLN biopsy examination result, resulting in a false-negative rate of 11.1% (3 of 27). The SLN identification rate tended to be higher, although not statistically significantly, among patients who had clinically negative axillary lymph nodes before NAC (97.6%; 41 of 42). This is in comparison with patients who had a positive axillary lymph node before NAC (88.6%; 31 of 35).

Conclusions: The SLN identification rate and false-negative rate were similar to those in nonneoadjuvant studies. The SLN biopsy examination accurately predicted metastatic disease in the axilla of patients with tumor response after NAC and clinical nodal status before NAC. This diagnostic technique, using an intradermal injection of radiocolloid, may provide treatment guidance for patients after NAC.

Keywords: Sentinel node biopsy; Neoadjuvant chemotherapy; Clinically node negative; Intradermal injection

Currently, the status of the axillary lymph nodes remains the most important prognostic indicator for breast cancer and helps the physician in guiding adjuvant therapy. More than 40 peer-reviewed pilot studies published between 1993 and 1999 have established the validity of sentinel lymph node (SLN) biopsy examination technique for clinically node-negative breast cancer [1], and the SLN biopsy procedure has become the standard of care for axillary staging in these patients.

Recent studies report identification rates of more than 90%, with false-negative rates ranging from 2% to 10% [2,3]. To ensure a high SLN identification rate and a low false-negative rate, some relative contraindications for SLN biopsy examination have been established: these include T3 or T4 tumors, multicentric or multifocal lesions, a large biopsy cavity, previous axillary surgery, previous chest-wall irradiation, and neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NAC) [4,5].

The application of SLN biopsy examination in NAC-treated patients may, as in nonneoadjuvant chemotherapy groups, identify patients who do not necessarily require an axillary lymph node dissection (ALND). Several studies

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Table 1
Patient demographics

	Number of patients
Age, y	
Mean	51.1
Range	27–75
Clinical tumor size, cm*	
Mean	4.82
Range	2.7–12
Tumor classification*	
T2	50 (65.0%)
T3	24 (31.2%)
T4	3 (3.8%)
Lymph node status*	
N0	42 (54.5%)
N1	28 (36.4%)
N2	7 (9.1%)
Tumor type	
Invasive ductal	74 (96.1%)
Invasive lobular	3 (3.9%)
Type of NAC	
FEC plus paclitaxel	73 (94.9%)
Paclitaxel alone	4 (5.1%)
Clinical response of the tumor	
CR	41 (53.2%)
PR	28 (36.4%)
SD	8 (10.4%)
Pathologic response of the tumor	
pCR	17 (22.1%)
pINV	60 (77.9%)
Pathologic nodal status	
Negative	47 (61.0%)
Positive	30 (39.0%)

CR = complete response; FEC = fluorouracil/epirubicin/cyclophosphamide; PR = partial response; SD = stable disease; pCR = pathologic complete response; pINV = pathologic invasive.
* Before NAC.

have evaluated the use of SLN biopsy examination in patients with breast cancer after NAC but results are varied and inconclusive [6–14].

Recently, several studies have shown the feasibility and accuracy of SLN biopsy examination using peritumoral injection of radiocolloid for patients with NAC-treated breast cancer. However, false-negative rates varied considerably among these studies [6–13]. It is possible that tumor response to chemotherapy may alter or interrupt the lymphatic drainage, thus causing the lower SLN identification rates and higher false-negative rates as opposed to nonneoadjuvant studies. Our hypothesis is that the lymphatic flow within the skin lesion overlying the tumor is less damaged by the chemotherapy than that in the parenchyma surrounding the tumor, except in T4 tumors. Thus, the usefulness of SLN biopsy examination with intradermal injection of radiocolloid for patients with NAC-treated breast cancer has yet to be established.

The aim of this study was to determine the feasibility and accuracy of the SLN biopsy procedure using intradermal injection of radiocolloid over the tumor in clinically node-negative NAC-treated breast cancer patients.

Methods

Between May 2003 and January 2005, 77 patients with T2-4N0-2 breast cancer underwent NAC with SLN biopsy examination plus ALND performed by a single surgeon. The pathologic diagnosis was established by core needle biopsy examination in all patients.

Patients younger than 65 years of age received 4 cycles of 5-fluorouracil (500 mg/m^2)/epirubicin (100 mg/m^2)/cyclophosphamide (500 mg/m^2) plus 12 weekly cycles of paclitaxel (80 mg/m^2), and patients older than 65 years of age received 12 weekly cycles of paclitaxel (80 mg/m^2) alone. After NAC, we enrolled the 77 clinically node-negative patients in this study.

Lymphatic mapping was performed using a 3-mL combination of blue dye (Patent blue V; TOC Ltd, Tokyo, Japan) and 30 to 80 MBq of technetium-99m–labeled Phytate (Daiichi RI Laboratory, Ltd, Tokyo, Japan). The day before surgery, the radiotracer was injected intradermally into the area overlying the tumor, and blue dye was injected into the subareolar site intraoperatively. For nonpalpable lesions, injections were performed under mammographic or ultrasonic needle localization. Sentinel lymph nodes were identified as being stained blue, radioactive, or both. The SLN biopsy procedure then was followed by a standard level I/II ALND.

All sentinel nodes were evaluated histologically by submitting each node as a 3-mm to 5-mm serial section stained with hematoxylin-eosin. Lymph nodes submitted as part of the axillary dissection were totally submitted and evaluated using standard hematoxylin-eosin staining.

Results

Patient characteristics, type of chemotherapy, clinical response of the tumor, and pathologic findings are summarized in Table 1. All patients underwent breast-conserving therapy or mastectomy and were clinically node negative at the time of surgery.

As shown in Table 2, the overall SLN identification rate was 93.5% (72 of 77). Of the 72 patients in whom an SLN could be identified, 24 (33.3%) had positive SLNs. Within

Table 2
Results of sentinel node biopsy examination

	Number of patients
Total number of patients	77
SLN identified	72 (93.5%)
SLN positive	24 (33.3%)
SLN was only positive lymph node	11 (45.8%)
SLN identification method	
Radiocolloid and blue dye	53 (73.6%)
Radiocolloid only	11 (14.3%)
Blue dye only	8 (11.1%)

Table 3
Comparison of lymph node status of SLNs and non-SLNs

SLN status	Non-SLN status	
	Positive	Negative
Positive	13	11
Negative	3	45

False-negative rate = 11.1%.

11 of these patients (45.8%), the SLN was the only positive node. SLNs were identified by both radiocolloid and blue dye in 53 patients (73.6%), by radiocolloid alone in 11 patients (14.3%), and by blue dye alone in 8 patients (11.1%).

The pathologic status of the SLNs and non SLNs is shown in Table 3.

The SLNs accurately predicted the axillary status in 69 of 72 patients (95.8%). Three patients had a false-negative SLN biopsy examination result, resulting in a false-negative rate of 11.1% (3 of 27). Forty-five patients had pathologically negative SLNs and non-SLNs.

The pathologic status of the SLNs and non-SLNs were analyzed according to tumor classifications before NAC, clinical lymph node status before NAC, and response of the tumor after NAC, respectively.

In T2 tumors before NAC, the SLN identification rate was 94% (47 of 50), and 2 patients had a false-negative SLN biopsy examination result, resulting in a false-negative rate of 14.3%. In T3 and T4 tumors, results were 92.6% (25 of 27) and 7.7% (2 of 27), respectively (Table 4). For the results of SLN biopsy examination, there was no significant difference between T2 and T3/T4 tumors before NAC.

In the patients with clinically negative lymph nodes (N0) before NAC, the SLN identification rate was 97.6% (41 of 42), and 1 patient had a false-negative SLN biopsy examination result, resulting in a false-negative rate of 10%. In the patients with clinically positive lymph nodes (N1/N2), the results were 88.6% (31 of 35) and 11.2% (4 of 35), respectively (Table 5). The SLN identification rate tended to be higher, although not statistically significantly, among patients who had clinically negative lymph nodes before NAC compared with patients who had positive axillary lymph nodes before NAC.

Table 4
Comparison of lymph node status of SLNs and non-SLNs among tumor classifications before NAC

SLN status	Non-SLN status			
	T2 (n = 50)		T3/T4 (n = 27)	
	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
Positive	6	6	7	5
Negative	2	33	1	12
Total number of SLNs identified	47 (94%)		25 (92.6%)	
False-negative rate	14.3%		7.7%	

Table 5
Comparison of lymph node status of SLNs and non-SLNs among nodal status before NAC

SLN status	Non-SLN status			
	N0 (n = 42)		N1/N2 (n = 35)	
	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
Positive	3	6	10	5
Negative	1	31	2	14
Total number of SLNs identified	41 (97.6%)		31 (88.6%)	
False-negative rate	10%		11.2%	

For patients with complete tumor response after NAC, the SLN identification rate was 92.0% (37 of 41), with 1 patient having a false-negative SLN biopsy examination result, resulting in a false-negative rate of 12.5%. For patients with a partial tumor response and stable disease, the results were 97.2% (35 of 36) and 10.5% (1 of 36), respectively (Table 6). The SLN identification rate tended to be lower, although not statistically significantly, among patients with complete tumor response after NAC, compared with partial tumor response and patients with stable disease after NAC.

There was no significant difference in the false-negative rate according to tumor classifications before NAC, clinical lymph node status before NAC, and response of the tumor after NAC.

Comments

ALND is the surgical standard for treatment of the axilla in breast cancer patients. The rationales for ALND are exact staging and prognosis, regional control of the axilla, and the possibility of improved survival. The extent of axillary lymph node involvement is one of the most important independent prognostic factors for recurrence and survival. The SLN biopsy procedure is an accurate minimally invasive method for axillary staging in early breast cancers. In many clinics the SLN biopsy examination is replacing standard ALND because of minimal morbidity. However, with the increasing size of tumors, lymphatic mapping becomes

Table 6
Comparison of lymph node status of SLNs and non-SLNs among clinical response after NAC

SLN status	Non-SLN status			
	CR (n = 41)		PR/SD (n = 36)	
	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
Positive	3	4	10	7
Negative	1	29	2	16
Total number of SLNs identified	37 (90.2%)		35 (97.2%)	
False-negative rate	12.5%		10.5%	

Table 7
Studies of SLN biopsy procedures after NAC

	Number of patients	Stage	Tumor size, cm	Number (%) of successful SLN biopsy procedures	False negative (%)
Breslin et al [6], 2000	51	II or III	5.0	43 (84.3)	3 (12)
Miller et al [7], 2002	35	T1-3N0	3.5	30 (86.0)	0 (0)
Stearns et al [8], 2000	34	T3-4, any N	5.0	29 (85.0)	3 (14)
Haid et al [9], 2001	33	T1-3, any N	3.3	29 (88.0)	0 (0)
Julian et al [11], 2002	31	I or II	NS	29 (93.5)	0 (0)
Tafra et al [12], 2001	29	Any T, N0	NS	27 (93.0)	0 (0)
Nason et al [13], 2000	15	T2-4, N0	NS	13 (87.0)	3 (33)
Shimazu et al [14], 2004	47	II or III	4.5	44 (93.6)	4 (12)
Current study	77	T2-4, any N	4.8	72 (93.5)	3 (11)

NS = not specified.

less accurate [15,16]. NAC can reduce tumor size and significantly increase the ability to perform breast-conserving therapy [17,18]. After NAC, axillary downstaging is affected similarly. NAC with anthracycline/cyclophosphamide-containing regimens has been shown to neutralize involved axillary nodes in about 30% of patients [17]. The addition of taxanes to anthracycline/cyclophosphamide-containing regimens has increased the conversion rate to around 40% [19,20]. With the increasing number of patients receiving NAC, the question arises of whether the SLN biopsy examination is an option for these patients. We summarized the studies concerning SLN biopsy examination after NAC in Table 7, but they are inconclusive [6–14]. Breslin et al [6] reported a study of 51 patients who underwent an SLN biopsy examination after NAC and concluded that an SLN biopsy examination is accurate after NAC. They had an identification rate of 84.3% and a false-negative rate of 12.0%. Nason et al [13] reported on a smaller number of patients who received NAC. Their identification rate was 87.0% and their false-negative rate was 33.3%, concluding that the SLN biopsy examination resulted in an unacceptably high false-positive rate. We have to understand that in most of these small series, even 1 or 2 patients with a false-negative SLN node can sway the conclusions in a different direction. We report a study of 77 patients who received NAC, and had an identification rate of 93.5% and a false-negative rate of 11.1%. We conclude in our study that an SLN biopsy examination after NAC is accurate even for large tumors and positive axillary nodal status before NAC without inflammatory breast cancer.

It has been speculated that among patients who have their axillary lymph node status downstaged by NAC, tumors also typically respond to NAC and shrink, so that damage to and alteration of the lymphatic flow from tumor tissues to the axillary basin are more likely to occur. This may cause an increase in the false-negative rate for SLN biopsy examination and a decreasing identification rate for SLN biopsy examination. Our hypothesis is that the lymphatic flow around the skin lesion is rich and less influenced by the effect of chemotherapy and tumor size than that in the parenchyma around the tumor. Our results were not significantly influenced by tumor size, tumor response, or nodal status before NAC.

In conclusion, the results of our study suggest that an SLN biopsy procedure after NAC using intradermal injection of radiocolloid is feasible and can predict axillary lymph node status with high accuracy for patients with clinically negative lymph node status after NAC. This procedure could make patients who have had their axillary lymph node status downstaged from positive to negative and patients with large tumors appropriate candidates for an SLN biopsy examination.

Further studies involving a larger number of patients will be required to establish fully the feasibility and accuracy of the SLN biopsy procedure for patients with breast cancer who have been treated with NAC.

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Treatment of lung damage

Retrospective analysis of steroid therapy for radiation-induced lung injury in lung cancer patients

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Abstract

***Purpose*: To disclose characteristics of lung cancer patients developing radiation-induced lung injury treated with or without corticosteroid therapy.**

***Methods and materials*: Radiographic changes, symptoms, history of corticosteroid prescription, and clinical course after 50–70 Gy of thoracic radiotherapy were retrospectively evaluated in 385 lung cancer patients.**

***Results*: Radiation-induced lung injury was stable without corticosteroid in 307 patients (Group 1), stable with corticosteroid in 64 patients (Group 2), and progressive to death despite corticosteroid in 14 patients (Group 3). Fever and dyspnea were noted in 11%, 50% and 86% ($p < 0.001$), and in 13%, 44% and 57% ($p < 0.001$) patients in Groups 1–3, respectively. Median weeks between the end of radiotherapy and the first radiographic change were 9.9, 6.7 and 2.4 for Groups 1–3, respectively ($p < 0.001$). The initial prednisolone equivalent dose was 30–40 mg daily in 52 (67%) patients. A total of 16 (4.2%) patients died of radiation pneumonitis or steroid complication with a median survival of 45 (range, 8–107) days.**

***Conclusion*: Development of fever and dyspnea, and short interval between the end of radiotherapy and the first radiographic change were associated with fatal radiation-induced lung injury. Prednisolone 30–40 mg daily was selected for the treatment in many patients.**

Keywords: Radiation pneumonitis; Radiotherapy; Lung cancer; Corticosteroid

Thoracic radiotherapy is widely used for the curative and palliative treatment of lung cancer. Radiation-induced lung injury was first described as early as 1922 [1,2], and two types of lung injury, radiation pneumonitis and radiation fibrosis, were recognized in 1925 [3]. Radiation pneumonitis occurs in 5–15% of patients who have received radiation therapy for lung cancer. Its clinical symptoms are characterized by cough, dyspnea and fever developing between 1 and 3 months after the end of radiotherapy. Distinctive radiographic changes of radiation pneumonitis are a ground-glass opacification or diffuse haziness in early phase, and then alveolar infiltrates or dense consolidation in late phase in the region corresponding to the irradiated area [4–7]. Radiation pneumonitis may persist for a month or more and subside gradually. In severe cases, however, pneumonitis progresses to death due to respiratory failure within few weeks [4].

Use of adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH) and cortisone for radiation pneumonitis in a case was first reported in 1951 [8], and 9 cases of radiation pneumonitis treated with cortisone therapy in the literature were reviewed in 1968 [9]. Although no case series or clinical trials of corticosteroid therapy have been reported since that time, prednisolone has been given in patients with severe pneumonitis in clinical practice. The initial dose of prednisolone, approximately 30–100 mg daily, and very slow tapering schedule are in agreement among experts [4–6,10], because early withdrawal results in aggravation of pneumonitis [11–13]. There is no consensus, however, about criteria to define when steroids are required for radiation-induced lung injury. The objective of this study is to disclose general characteristics of lung cancer patients developing radiation-induced lung injury treated with or without corticosteroid therapy, to obtain data on the initiation criteria, dose, and taper schedule of corticosteroid therapy for further prospective trials.

Patients and methods

Consecutive lung cancer patients treated with thoracic radiotherapy at a total dose of 50–70 Gy in National Cancer

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Center Hospital between January 1998 and December 2003 were subjects of this study. We retrospectively reviewed all chest X-ray films taken during 6 month period from the end of thoracic radiation to identify the first radiographic change and its progress. History of corticosteroid prescription, symptoms at the time of and one-month period after the first radiographic change in a chest X-ray film, and clinical course of radiation-induced lung injury were obtained from medical charts. The diagnosis of radiation-induced lung injury was defined as radiographic changes including opacification, diffuse haziness, infiltrates or consolidation conforming to the outline of the sharply demarcated irradiated area in a chest X-ray film. During clinical course, scarring (fibrosis) was developed within the irradiated area leading to a reduction in lung volume. In contrast, pulmonary infection spreads through anatomical structure of the lung, and the boundary of infiltrates corresponds to anatomical boundary of the lung. For patients with fever, the radiographical response to antibiotics was also evaluated. Observed differences in the proportions of patients in various patient subgroups were evaluated using Chi-square test. Differences between continuous variables were compared using Mann–Whitney tests. The Dr. SPSS II 11.0 for Windows software package (SPSS Japan Inc., Tokyo, Japan) was used for all statistical analyses.

Results

Of 544 lung cancer patients receiving thoracic radiotherapy at a total dose of 50–70 Gy, 111 patients were excluded from this study because they were not evaluable: loss of follow-up in 88 patients, early lung cancer progression in 18 patients, chemotherapy-induced neutropenic fever and pneumonia in three patients, death of bleeding from the esophageal stent in one patient, and no chest X-ray films available in one patient. In addition, 48 patients (11% of 433 evaluable patients) were also excluded because no radiation-induced lung injury was noted. Thus, the subject of this study was 385 patients.

Of the 385 patients, 78 (20%) received corticosteroid therapy for radiation-induced lung injury, and 307 did not. Radiation-induced lung injury was stable without corticosteroid in the 307 (80%) patients (Group 1), stable or in remission with corticosteroid in 64 (17%) patients (Group 2), and progressive to death despite corticosteroid in 14 (4%) patients (Group 3). No difference in sex, total dose, intent of radiotherapy, and combination chemotherapy was noted among three Groups, but median age of patients was higher in Group 3 (Table 1). Fever was developed in 50% of patients in Group 3 at the initial radiographic change, and in 86% of them during subsequent clinical course, while it was developed in only 11–12% of patients in Group 1 through their clinical course (Table 2). Dyspnea was developed in 57% of patients in Group 3 and in 44% of patients in Group 2 during clinical course, while it was developed in only 14% of patients in Group 1 (Table 2). A total of 88 patients developed fever at the initial change in chest X-ray and/or during subsequent clinical course. Of these, 43 patients received antibiotics, but no radiographical response was obtained in these patients. Five (2%) and seven (2%) patients in Group 1 developed bloody sputum and chest pain, respectively, but none in Group 2 or 3 developed these symptoms. The average interval of chest X-rays taken between the start of radiotherapy and the first appearance of radiographic change was 1.7 weeks for group 1, 1.3 weeks for group 2, and 0.9 weeks for group 3 ($P < 0.001$, Table 3). Interval between the end of radiotherapy and the first change in a chest X-ray was shorter in Group 3 than in Group 2 or Group 1 (Table 3). Of 57 patients in whom the first radiographic change was noted within three weeks, 9 (16%) died of pneumonitis, while radiation-induced lung injury that occurred 10 weeks or later after the end of radiation was easily managed with or without steroid therapy (Table 3). Oxygen content in the blood at the start of steroid therapy was examined in 70 patients of Groups 2 and 3. Oxygen content

Table 1
Patient demographics and radiotherapy performance

Characteristics	Total *N* (%)	Group 1 *N* (%)	Group 2 *N* (%)	Group 3 *N* (%)	*p*-value
Total	385 (100)	307 (80)	64 (17)	14 (4)	
Sex					
Male	300 (78)	240 (78)	47 (73)	13 (93)	0.28
Female	85 (22)	67 (22)	17 (27)	1 (7)	
Age median (range)	65 (28–87)	63 (28–87)	65 (37–83)	71 (65–84)	0.008
Total dose (Gy)					
Median (range)	60 (50–70)	60 (50–70)	60 (50–61)	60 (50–60)	0.50
Intent of radiotherapy					
Curative	298 (77)	232 (76)	52 (81)	14 (100)	0.074
Palliative	87 (23)	75 (24)	12 (19)	0 (0)	
Chemotherapy					
None	121 (31)	101 (33)	15 (23)	5 (36)	0.48
Sequential	121 (31)	93 (30)	25 (39)	3 (21)	
Concurrent	143 (37)	113 (37)	24 (38)	6 (43)	

Table 2
Symptoms through clinical courses

Symptom	At the initial change in chest X-ray				During subsequent clinical course			
	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	p	Group 1[a]	Group 2[b]	Group3[b]	p
Cough	96 (31)	35 (56)	5 (36)	0.001	85 (28)	38 (59)	5 (36)	<0.001
Sputum	32 (10)	11 (18)	4 (29)	0.049	30 (10)	11 (17)	3 (21)	0.12
Hemosputum	5 (2)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.53	4 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.60
Chest pain	7 (2)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.40	2 (0.6)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.78
Fever								
None	269 (88)	35 (56)	7 (50)	<0.001	272 (89)	32 (50)	2 (14)	<0.001
37.0–37.9 °C	18 (6)	11 (18)	2 (14)	24 (8)	16 (25)	5 (35)		
38 °C⩽	13 (4)	14 (22)	5 (36)	8 (3)	13 (20)	7 (50)		
Not specified	7 (2)	3 (4)	0 (0)	3 (1)	3 (4)	0 (0)		
Dyspnea	43 (14)	14 (22)	6 (43)	0.007	40 (13)	28 (44)	8 (57)	<0.001
Fever or dyspnea	75 (24)	37 (58)	10 (71)	<0.001	65 (21)	49 (77)	14 (100)	<0.001
Any	150 (49)	51 (81)	13 (93)	<0.001	118 (38)	60 (94)	14 (100)	<0.001

[a] During one month period following the initial change in the chest X-ray.
[b] At the start of steroid therapy.

Table 3
The chest X-ray intervals and first radiographic change

Weeks	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	p-value
The average interval of chest X-rays (weeks)[a]				
Median (range)	1.7 (0.7 to 6.0)	1.3 (0.5 to 4.4)	0.9 (0.5 to 3.8)	<0.001
Duration between the end of radiotherapy and the first radiographic change (weeks)				
Median (range)	9.9 (−2.9 to 45.1)	6.7 (0 to 24.9)	2.4 (0.4 to 10.1)	<0.001
<6	82 (27)	26 (41)	11 (79)	<0.001
6–11.9	116 (38)	29 (45)	3 (21)	
12–17.9	71 (23)	7 (11)	0 (0)	
18⩽	38 (12)	2 (3)	0 (0)	

[a] Calculated as follows: the average interval of chest X-rays = (the first radiographic change − the start of radiotherapy)/the number of chest X-rays taken during this period/7).

was slightly decreased (PaO2 = 70–74.9 Torr) in 12 (19%) patients of Group 2 and one (7%) patient of Group 3, and moderately to severely decreased (PaO2 ⩽ 69.9 Torr or SpO2 ⩽ 92%) in 21 (33%) patients of Group 2 and 7 (50%) patients of Group 3 ($p = 0.38$).

Prednisolone was administered as the initial therapy in 69 (88%) patients of Groups 2 and 3. The initial prednisolone equivalent dose of steroid was 30–40 mg daily in 52 (67%), and 60 mg of higher only in 8 (10%) patients (Table 4). The median duration of the initial dose was 10 (range, 2–64) days, and the dose was reduced within 14 days in 57 (77%) patients. The median duration of steroid therapy was 10 (range, 2–28) weeks (Table 4). Steroid pulse therapy (methylprednisolone 1000 mg daily for three days) was administered as the initial therapy in one patient, and as salvage therapy in six patients at the time of pneumonitis aggravation. Among the seven patients, six died of respiratory failure due to progressive radiation pneumonitis.

Outcome of steroid therapy was evaluated in 76 patients (Fig. 1). Symptomatic relief was obtained and the steroid dose was reduced in 71 (93%) of the 76 patients, while no effect was noted in the remaining five patients, who all died of radiation pneumonitis despite escalated steroid administration. Of the 71 patients, 15 (21%) developed recurrent symptoms at the median daily prednisolone dose of 20 mg (range, 10–40 mg) within median 33 days (range, 21–42 days) from the start of the steroid therapy, and required steroids to be escalated. Of the 15 patients, nine died of radiation pneumonitis and one died of complication of steroid therapy. A total of 54 (71%) patients were in remission from pneumonitis and steroid therapy was terminated. The remainder 22 patients died during steroid therapy, 14 of radiation pneumonitis, two of infectious complication (bacterial pneumonia in one, and lung aspergillosis in another patient), five of lung cancer progression, and one of hemoptysis. Thus, 16 patients, who accounted for 4.2% of 385 patients receiving 50–70 Gy of thoracic radiotherapy, and who accounted for 21% of 78 patients treated with steroid therapy, died of radiation pneumonitis or complication associated with steroid therapy. Median survival from the start of steroid therapy in these patients was 45 (range, 8–107) days.

Discussion

Patients with radiation-induced lung injury have been managed in compliance with the expert opinions, because there has been no case series or clinical trial report on clinical course and corticosteroid use for this lung injury. This

Table 4
Corticosteroid, dose and duration of steroid therapy

	N (%)
Corticosteroid	
Prednisolone	69 (88)
Dexamethasone	4 (5)
Betamethasone	4 (5)
Methylprednisolone	1 (1)
Initial dose, mg/body daily (prednisolone equivalent)	
Pulse therapy	1 (1)
60	7 (9)
50	1 (1)
40	10 (13)
30	42 (54)
10–25	17 (22)
Duration of the initial dose, days	
Median (range)	10 (2–64)
⩽14	57 (77)
15–28	9 (12)
29⩽	8 (11)
Not evaluable	4
Total duration of steroid therapy, weeks	
Median (range)	10 (2–28)
⩽6	16 (30)
6.1–12	19 (35)
12.1–18	14 (26)
18.1⩽	5 (9)
Not evaluable	24

study is the first systemic review of these patients both who received corticosteroid therapy and who did not. Comparison between the expert opinions and the results of this study is given below. First, radiation-induced lung injury is severer when a radiographic change appears earlier [5]. In this study, the initial change in a chest X-ray film was observed in 9.9 (range, −3 to 45) weeks in Group 1, in 6.7 (range, 0–25) weeks in Group 2, and 2.4 (range, 0–10) weeks in Group 3 after the end of thoracic radiotherapy. If patients present with symptoms, presumably they receive a chest X-ray. Thus, the patients with symptoms may have radiographic findings seen sooner, since they receive an X-ray when they complain of symptoms. The average interval of chest X-rays taken between the start of radiotherapy and the first appearance of radiographic change was longer in Group 1 than that in groups 2 and 3. The difference, however, was negligibly small when compared with the difference in duration between the end of radiotherapy and the first radiographic change. Second, steroid administration is determined generally based on the severity of symptoms [5]. In this study steroid was used when patients developed dyspnea or fever. Dyspnea has been thought to be the cardinal symptom of radiation pneumonitis but fever to be unusual [5,10]. In this study, however, fever was highly associated with fatal radiation pneumonitis; fever was noted in 12% patients of Group 1, in 58% patients of Group 2, and 86% patients of Group 3. This study failed to show utility of blood gas analysis. An oxygen content in the blood was decreased moderately to severely in only 28 (36%) patients in Groups 2 and 3, and did not differ between the two groups. The oxygen content in Group 1 was measured in only small number of patients, and therefore it was not evaluable in this study. Third, 30–100 mg/day of prednisolone has been recommended as the initial dose [4–6,10]. In our practice, a dose of 30–40 mg was the most frequently used. We selected this relatively low dose of steroid mostly because steroid therapy was started in out patient clinic. Forth, duration of the initial dose was within two weeks in 73% of patients, which is consistent to most expert opinions [6,10]. In contrast, tapering schedules varied between a pa-

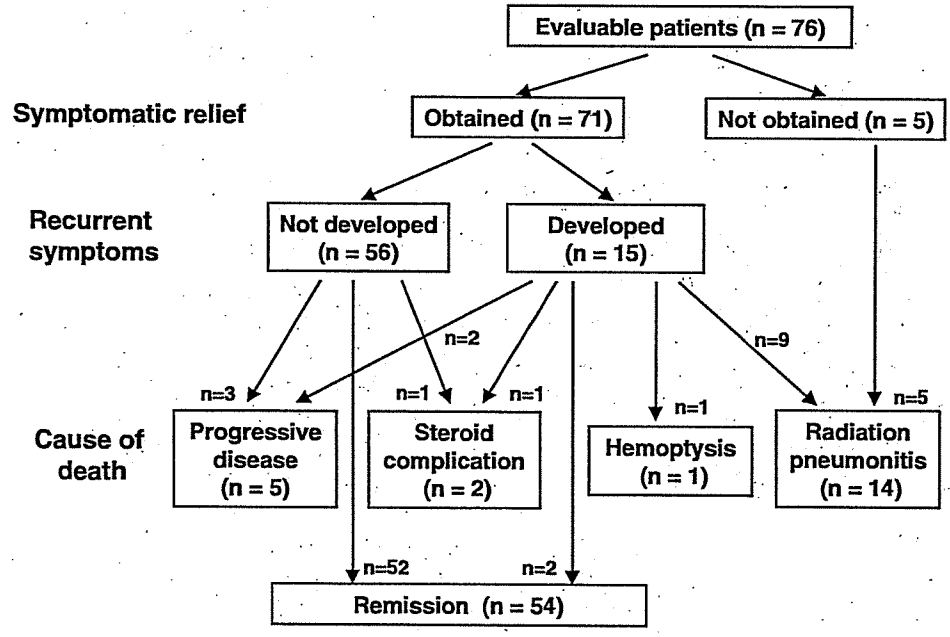

Fig. 1. Outcome of patients who received steroid therapy. Two patients were excluded because of loss of follow-up. Of 76 evaluable patients, 71 (93%) experienced symptomatic relief by steroid therapy.