

1992a; Ota *et al*, 1992). Moreover, Matsumoto *et al* (2001) demonstrated that the combination of nedaplatin and gemcitabine resulted in enhanced inhibition of tumour growth *in vivo* and the antitumour efficacy of the combination was superior to that of cisplatin-gemcitabine or carboplatin-gemcitabine. Based on the results of a preclinical study, we designed the present phase I study of the efficacy of the combination of nedaplatin and gemcitabine for advanced NSCLC. The purpose of this study was to establish the toxicities and MTD of this combination, to determine the RD for phase II studies, and to observe their antitumour activity.

## PATIENTS AND METHODS

### Patient eligibility

Patients with histologic or cytologic confirmation of locally advanced or metastatic NSCLC who received either no prior chemotherapy or one previous chemotherapy regimen were eligible. The eligibility criteria were as follows; (1) measurable lesions; (2) age  $\leq 75$  years; (3) Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group (ECOG) performance status (PS) 0-1; (4) adequate organ function (a white blood count (WBC)  $\geq 4000 \mu\text{l}^{-1}$ , a neutrophil count  $\geq 2000 \mu\text{l}^{-1}$ , a platelet count  $\geq 100\,000 \mu\text{l}^{-1}$ , a haemoglobin count  $\geq 9.5 \text{ g dl}^{-1}$ , serum total bilirubin  $\leq 1.5 \text{ mg dl}^{-1}$ , serum transaminase  $\leq 2 \times$  upper normal limits, a serum creatinine  $\leq$  upper normal limits, blood urea nitrogen (BUN)  $\leq 25 \text{ mg dl}^{-1}$ ,  $\text{PaO}_2 \geq 60 \text{ mmHg}$  or  $\text{SpO}_2 \geq 90\%$ ); and (5) normal electrocardiogram (ECG). At least 4 weeks must have passed after the completion of previous therapy and the patients had to have recovered from the toxic effects of previous therapy. The exclusion criteria consisted of pulmonary fibrosis or interstitial pneumonitis with symptoms or apparent abnormalities on chest X-ray, massive pleural effusion or ascites, acute inflammation, pregnancy, lactation, symptomatic brain metastases, active concurrent malignancies, severe drug allergies, severe heart disease, cerebrovascular disease, uncontrollable diabetes mellitus or hypertension, severe infection, active peptic ulcer, ileus, paralysis intestinal, diarrhoea and jaundice. This study was performed at Kinki University School of Medicine and was approved by the Institutional Review Board. Written informed consent was obtained from all patients. This study was conducted in accordance with Declaration of Helsinki.

### Pretreatment and follow-up studies

Prior to entry, a complete history was taken and physical examination including age, height, weight, performance status, histological diagnosis, tumour stage, contents of previous treatment and presence of a complication was performed. The pretreatment laboratory investigations included a complete blood cell count, differential WBC count, platelet count, serum electrolytes, total protein, albumin, total bilirubin, transaminase, alkaline phosphatase, lactate dehydrogenase, BUN, creatinine, creatinine clearance and urinalysis. After the initiation of therapy, a complete blood cell count with a differential WBC count was performed at least twice a week. Blood chemistry profiles and chest X-ray films were obtained weekly. The lesion measurements were performed during at least every second course. Toxicities were evaluated according to the National Cancer Institute Common Toxicity Criteria (NCI-CTC) version 2 and tumour responses were assessed using the Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumors (RECIST) guidelines (Therasse *et al*, 2000). Time to progression was measured from the date of registration to the date of first progression or death from any cause. Survival time was also measured from the date of registration to the date of death or latest follow-up, and was calculated using the Kaplan-Meier method (Kaplan and Meier, 1958).

### Drug administration and dose escalation

The treatment schedule included nedaplatin, diluted with 500 ml of normal saline, given intravenously over 90 min on day 1, and gemcitabine with 100 ml of normal saline, given intravenously over 30 min after the completion of nedaplatin infusion on days 1 and 8, every 3 weeks. All patients were allowed to receive antiemetics with dexamethasone and granisetron, and post-therapy hydration with 1000 ml of normal saline. Granulocyte colony-stimulating factor (G-CSF) prophylaxis was not administered. Doses of gemcitabine on day 8 were given if the WBC count was  $> 2000 \mu\text{l}^{-1}$  and/or the platelet count was  $> 750\,000 \mu\text{l}^{-1}$ , and/or allergic reaction, fever, elevation of transaminase and pneumonitis were less than grade 2, and/or the other nonhaematological toxicities were less than grade 3. The subsequent courses were withheld until the toxic levels returned to those specified in the eligibility criteria. The doses of both drugs were decreased by one dose level if DLTs occurred. In the case of the initial dose level, the doses of nedaplatin and gemcitabine were reduced by 20 and 200  $\text{mg m}^{-2}$ , respectively.

Dose escalations were performed as listed in Table 1. Inpatient dose escalation was not allowed. At least three patients were treated at each dose level, and three additional patients were entered at the same dose level if DLT was observed in one of the first three patients. The MTD was defined as the dose level at which more than two of three patients, or three of six patients experienced DLT. The definition of DLT was as follows: (1) grade 4 leukopenia, (2) grade 4 neutropenia for more than 4 days, (3) thrombocytopenia  $< 20\,000 \mu\text{l}^{-1}$ , (4) grade 3 febrile neutropenia, (5) grade 3 nonhaematologic toxicity except for nausea/vomiting, (6) delay of administration of gemcitabine on day 8 over a week for toxicities.

## RESULTS

Between August 2001 and February 2003, 20 patients were enrolled in this study. The total and the median number of courses were 56 and 3 (range 1-6), respectively. The patients' characteristics are shown in Table 2. The majority of patients had a PS of 1. There

**Table 1** Dose-escalation schema

Dose level	Nedaplatin dose ( $\text{mg m}^{-2}$ )	Gemcitabine dose ( $\text{mg m}^{-2}$ )	No. of patients (courses)
1	60	800	3 (8)
2	80	800	3 (10)
3	80	1000	8 (18)
4	100	1000	6 (20)

**Table 2** Patients' characteristics

No. of patients		20
Age, years	Median	63.5
	Range	36-74
Sex	Male/female	17/3
Performance status	0/1	5/15
Histology	Adeno/squamous	13/7
Stage	IIIB/IV	4/16
Prior therapy	None	5
	Surgery	5
	Radiation	6
	Chemotherapy	14
	CDDP-based	3
	CBDCA-based	4
	Nonplatinum	4
	UFT	2
	Gefitinib	1

were five previously untreated patients (level 3, two patients; level 4, three patients) and 15 (75%) previously treated patients. Of the previously treated patients, five had received prior surgery, five had prior radiotherapy, and 14 had prior chemotherapy. Seven had received platinum-based chemotherapy (cisplatin, three patients; carboplatin, four patients), and four a nonplatinum regimen. Responses to previous chemotherapy included partial response in five patients, stable disease in seven, progressive disease in one, and not evaluable in one. The median interval from previous treatment was 16 weeks (range 4–92.5 weeks). Out of 20 patients, 18 were assessable for toxicity and response. Two patients at level 3 were excluded from the toxicity and response evaluation because they had refused this study after registration.

**Toxicities**

The haematological and nonhaematological toxicities observed during the first course are shown in Tables 3 and 4, respectively. The most frequent toxicities observed in the first cycle were neutropenia and thrombocytopenia (Table 3). One-third of the patients had grade 3 thrombocytopenia, and one patient received a platelet transfusion during the first course. Three patients had grade 4 neutropenia for no longer than 4 days. The nadir for neutropenia and thrombocytopenia occurred on day 15 (median, range 5–18), and on day 15 (median, range 8–18), respectively. Nonhaematological toxicities generally were mild because none of the patients had experienced more than grade 3 in the first course (Table 4). The major toxicities following all courses are listed in Table 5. Grade 3 thrombocytopenia occurred in 16 out of 56 courses, and three patients received platelet transfusion (one patient at level 1, one at level 3 and one at level 4). However, no patient had haemorrhagic complications. The most frequent nonhaematological toxicities were elevation of transaminase activity, nausea and appetite loss, but all were mild. One previously untreated patient at level 3 experienced grade 3 pneumonitis after

the fifth course, probably induced by this treatment, and the patient's condition improved after the administration of steroid. There was no treatment-related death. One of the 18 patients at level 4 underwent dose reduction after the first course due to neutropenia, and two patients at level 3 did not receive gemcitabine on day 8 because they had neutropenia, thrombocytopenia and high transaminase activity. Delays in the commencement of subsequent courses occurred in 11 courses, and the median length of the delay before starting the subsequent course was 21 days (21–35 days).

**MTD and DLTs**

At levels 1 and 2, none of the patients had developed a DLT. Haematological and nonhaematological toxicities were generally mild at these levels, although one patient had grade 3 thrombocytopenia at level 1. At level 3, two of six assessable patients had developed DLTs. Both could not receive their scheduled dose of gemcitabine on day 8 because they had neutropenia, thrombocytopenia and high transaminase activity. At level 4, three of six patients had developed DLTs. One patient received G-CSF for neutropenia, not lasting more than 4 days, which was considered as the DLT. Another patient required a platelet infusion because of thrombocytopenia  $<20\,000\ \mu\text{l}^{-1}$ . The third patient could not receive the second course due to the delayed anaemia, also considered as DLT. Therefore, dose level 4,  $100\ \text{mg m}^{-2}$  nedaplatin with  $1000\ \text{mg m}^{-2}$  gemcitabine was regarded as the MTD. The recommended dose level for further phase II study was determined to be  $80\ \text{mg m}^{-2}$  nedaplatin with  $1000\ \text{mg m}^{-2}$  gemcitabine (dose level 3 in this study).

**Response and survival**

There were three partial responses, for an overall response rate of 16.7%. As for squamous cell carcinoma, only one out of seven

**Table 3** Haematological toxicity following first course of nedaplatin and gemcitabine

Dose level	No. of patients	WBC grade					ANC grade					plt grade					Hb grade				
		0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
1	3	0	2	1	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	2	1	0	0
2	3	1	0	2	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0
3	6	1	1	2	1	0	2	0	0	3	1	1	2	1	2	0	3	3	0	0	0
4	6	1	0	3	2	0	0	0	3	1	2	0	2	1	3	0	0	3	3	0	0

**Table 4** Nonhaematological toxicity following first course of nedaplatin and gemcitabine

Dose level	No. of patients	Nausea grade					Vomiting grade					Fatigue grade					Transaminase grade				
		0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
1	3	3	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
2	3	1	1	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0
3	6	2	3	1	0	0	5	1	0	0	0	4	2	0	0	0	3	1	2	0	0
4	6	2	2	2	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	1	5	0	0	0

Dose level	No. of patients	Infection grade					Fever grade					Appetite loss grade					Constipation grade				
		0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
1	3	3	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
2	3	2	0	1	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
3	6	6	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	2	4	0	0	0	4	2	0	0	0
4	6	4	0	2	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	2	4	0	0	0	4	2	0	0	0

**Table 5** Toxicities following all courses of nedaplatin and gemcitabine (56)

	Grade			
	1	2	3	4
WBC	13	26	10	0
ANC	15	15	13	3
Hb	24	27	1	0
Plt	22	14	16	0
Nausea	17	4	0	0
Vomiting	6	0	0	0
Appetite loss	21	0	0	0
Fatigue	15	0	0	0
Constipation	6	7	0	0
Transaminase	27	5	0	0
Neuropathy	5	0	0	0
Pneumonitis	0	0	1	0
Fever	1	0	0	0
Infection	0	3	1	0

patients had a partial response. The median progression-free survival time was 5.1 months. The median survival time and 1-year survival rate were 9.1 months and 34.1%, respectively. Out of 15 patients who had received prior treatment, two (13.3%) achieved a partial response, and there was no clear relationship between responses to previous treatment and responses to this regimen. For previously treated patients, the median survival time and 1-year survival rate were 9.2 months and 40.3%, respectively. Among five previously untreated patients, one (20%) achieved a partial response and the median survival time and 1-year survival rate were 12.0 months and 50.0%, respectively.

## DISCUSSION

Many recent randomised clinical trials have shown that the combinations of cisplatin with one of the new agents, such as gemcitabine, taxanes or vinorelbine, is the standard therapy for patients with locally advanced or metastatic NSCLC (Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer Collaborative Group, 1995; Kelly *et al*, 2001; Schiller *et al*, 2002; Fossella *et al*, 2003). As it is known that cisplatin strongly promotes nephrotoxicity, neurotoxicity and gastrointestinal toxicity, second-generation platinum-containing compounds including carboplatin have attracted attention. Based on several randomised trials that have shown that the combination of carboplatin with paclitaxel produces similar response rates and overall survival with a more favourable toxicity profile than the combination of cisplatin with new agents (Kelly *et al*, 2001; Scagliotti *et al*, 2002; Schiller *et al*, 2002), combined therapy of carboplatin and paclitaxel is considered to be a standard therapy. More recently, the combination of carboplatin with gemcitabine has become attractive as a therapy for advanced NSCLC. Some

## REFERENCES

- Abbratt RP, Bezwoda WR, Falkson G, Goedhals L, Hacking D, Rugg TA (1994) Efficacy and safety profile of gemcitabine in non-small-cell lung cancer: a phase II study. *J Clin Oncol* 12: 1535–1540
- Alberola V, Camps C, Provencio M, Isla D, Rosell R, Vadell C, Bover I, Ruiz-Casado A, Azagra P, Jimenez U, Gonzalez-Larriba JL, Diz P, Cardenal F, Artal A, Carrato A, Morales S, Sanchez JJ, de las Penas R, Felip E, Lopez-Vivanco G (2003) Cisplatin plus gemcitabine versus a cisplatin-based triplet versus nonplatinum sequential doublets in advanced non-small-cell lung cancer: a Spanish Lung Cancer Group phase III randomized trial. *J Clin Oncol* 21: 3207–3213
- Anderson H, Hopwood P, Stephens RJ, Thatcher N, Cottier B, Nicholson M, Milroy R, Maughan TS, Falk SJ, Bond MG, Burt PA, Connolly CK, McIlmurray MB, Carmichael J (2000) Gemcitabine plus best supportive care (BSC) vs BSC in inoperable non-small cell lung cancer – a randomized trial with quality of life as the primary outcome. *Br J Cancer* 83: 447–453
- Anderson H, Lund B, Back F, Thatcher N, Walling J, Hansen HH (1994) Single-agent activity of weekly gemcitabine in advanced non-small cell lung cancer. A phase II study. *J Clin Oncol* 12: 1821–1826

randomised studies have indicated that carboplatin–gemcitabine regimen offers equivalent median survival compared with cisplatin–gemcitabine or mitomycin–vinblastine–cisplatin/mitomycin–ifosfamide–cisplatin (Danson *et al*, 2003; Zatlouk *et al*, 2003), and results in significant improvements in overall survival over those for gemcitabine alone or the older cisplatin-containing regimens (Grigorescu *et al*, 2002; Rudd *et al*, 2002; Sederholm, 2002). However, neutropenia and thrombocytopenia were more common in carboplatin–gemcitabine regimens than others; thrombocytopenia was particularly common.

Like carboplatin, nedaplatin is also a second-generation platinum derivative that appears to have a similar mechanism and toxicity profile to carboplatin, although direct comparison has not been performed. Moreover, *in vivo* study suggested that nedaplatin–gemcitabine resulted in more enhanced inhibition of tumour growth than cisplatin–gemcitabine or carboplatin–gemcitabine. These results prompted us to investigate nedaplatin-based combinations and to conduct this phase I study.

With respect to toxicities, the most frequent toxicities were haematological toxicities, especially neutropenia and thrombocytopenia. Eight of 18 patients (44.4%) developed more than grade 3 neutropenia after the first courses, and after 16 out of 56 (28.6%) courses overall. On the other hand, six out of 16 patients (37.5%) developed grade 3 thrombocytopenia after the first courses, and after 16 out of 56 courses (37.5%) overall. However, patients required platelet transfusions during only three courses. In addition, one previously untreated patient developed drug-related pneumonitis, which improved with the administration of steroid, at level 3 after the fifth course.

Overall, the toxicities of the combination of nedaplatin with gemcitabine were generally mild and this combination chemotherapy is both well tolerated and active against advanced NSCLC.

The overall response rate of 16.7%, the median survival time of 9.1 months, and 1-year survival rate of 34.1% in this study were quite acceptable because most patients had been given prior chemotherapy. As evaluation of antitumour activity was not a primary objective, and our patient population was small and heterogeneous, we are unable to draw definitive conclusions about the activity of this regimen. Currently, it is still controversial whether novel platinum compounds such as carboplatin and nedaplatin could replace cisplatin for the treatment of advanced NSCLC. However, when not only antitumour activity but also palliation are the main goals of treatment, these new platinum compounds might play a useful role because of their favourable toxicity profile. Therefore, nedaplatin–gemcitabine warrants a phase II study, and further evaluation in prospective randomised trials with cisplatin- or carboplatin-based combinations as a first-line chemotherapy for advanced NSCLC in order to investigate whether nedaplatin could replace cisplatin or carboplatin.

In conclusion, the combination of nedaplatin with gemcitabine is well tolerated and active for advanced NSCLC. The MTD and recommended dose level are 100 mg m<sup>-2</sup> nedaplatin with 1000 mg m<sup>-2</sup> gemcitabine and 80 mg m<sup>-2</sup> nedaplatin with 1000 mg m<sup>-2</sup> gemcitabine, respectively.

- Bergman AM, Ruiz van Haperen VW, Veerman G, Kuiper CM, Peters GJ (1996) Synergistic interaction between cisplatin and gemcitabine *in vitro*. *Clin Cancer Res* 2: 521–530
- Danson S, Middleton MR, O'Byrne KJ, Clemons M, Ranson M, Hassan J, Anderson H, Burt PA, Fairve-Finn C, Stout R, Dowd I, Ashcroft L, Beresford C, Thatcher N (2003) Phase III trial of gemcitabine and carboplatin versus mitomycin, ifosfamide, and cisplatin or mitomycin, vinblastine, and cisplatin in patients with advanced nonsmall cell lung carcinoma. *Cancer* 98: 542–553
- Fossella F, Pereira JR, von Pawel J, Pluzanska A, Gorbounova V, Kaukel E, Mattson KV, Ramlau R, Szczesna A, Fidias P, Millward M, Belani CP (2003) Randomized, multinational, phase III study of docetaxel plus platinum combinations versus vinorelbine plus cisplatin for advanced non-small-cell lung cancer: the Tax 326 Study Group. *J Clin Oncol* 21: 3016–3024
- Fukuda M, Shinkai T, Eguchi K, Sasaki Y, Tamura T, Ohe Y, Kojima A, Oshita F, Hara K, Saijo N (1990) Phase II study of (glycolato-O, O') diammineplatinum (II), a novel platinum complex, in the treatment of non-small-cell lung cancer. *Cancer Chemother Pharmacol* 26: 393–396
- Furuse K, Fukuoka M, Asamoto H, Niitani H, Kimura I, Sakuma A, Yamaguchi Y (1992a) A randomized comparative study of 254-S plus vindesine vs cisplatin plus vindesine in patients with advanced non-small cell lung cancer. *Jpn J Cancer Chemother* 19: 1019–1026
- Furuse K, Fukuoka M, Kurita Y, Ariyoshi Y, Niitani H, Yoneda S, Fujii M, Hasegawa K, Nishiwaki Y, Tamura M, Kimura I, Inoue S, Oshima S, Kusume K, Sugimoto K (1992b) A phase II study of *cis*-diammine glycolate platinum, 254-S, for primary lung cancer. *Jpn J Cancer Chemother* 19: 879–884
- Gatzemeier U, Shepherd FA, Le Chevalier T, Weynants P, Cottier B, Groen HJM, Rosso R, Mattson K, Cortes-Funes H, Tonato M, Burkes RL, Gottfried M, Voi M (1996) Activity of gemcitabine in patients with non-small cell lung cancer: a multicentre, extended phase II study. *Eur J Cancer* 32: 243–248
- Grigorescu AC, Draghici IN, Nitipir C, Gutulescu N, Corlan E (2002) Gemcitabine (GEM) and carboplatin (CBDCA) versus cisplatin (CDDP) and vinblastine (VLB) in advanced non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC) stage III and IV: a phase III randomised trial. *Lung Cancer* 37: 9–14
- Kameyama Y, Okazaki N, Nakagawa M, Koshida H, Nakamura M, Gemba M (1990) Nephrotoxicity of a new platinum compound, evaluated with rat kidney cortical slices. *Toxicol Lett* 52: 15–24
- Kaplan EL, Meier P (1958) Nonparametric estimation from incomplete observation. *J Am Stat Assoc* 53: 457–481
- Kelly K, Crowley J, Bunn PA, Presant CA, Grevstad PK, Moinpour CM, Ramsey SD, Wozniak AJ, Weiss GR, Moore DF, Israel VK, Livingston RB, Gandara DR (2001) Randomized phase III trial of paclitaxel plus carboplatin versus vinorelbine plus cisplatin in the treatment of patients with advanced non-small-cell lung cancer: a Southwest Oncology Group trial. *J Clin Oncol* 19: 3210–3218
- Matsumoto M, Takeda Y, Maki H, Hojo K, Wada T, Nishitani Y, Maekawa R, Yoshioka T (2001) Preclinical *in vivo* antitumor efficacy of nedaplatin with gemcitabine against human lung cancer. *Jpn J Cancer Res* 92: 51–58
- Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer Collaborative Group (1995) Chemotherapy in non-small cell lung cancer: a meta-analysis using updated data on individual patients from 52 randomized clinical trials. *BMJ* 311: 899–909
- Ota K, Wakui A, Majima H, Niitani H, Inuyama Y, Ogawa M, Ariyoshi Y, Yoshida O, Taguchi T, Kimura I, Kato T (1992) Phase I study of a new platinum complex 254-S, *cis*-diammine (glycolato)-platinum (II). *Jpn J Cancer Chemother* 19: 855–861
- Rudd RM, Gower NH, James LE, Gregory W, Eisen T, Lee SM, Harper PG, Spiro SG (2002) Phase III randomised comparison of gemcitabine and carboplatin with mitomycin, ifosfamide, and cisplatin in advanced non-small cell lung cancer. *Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol* 21: 292a
- Sandler AB, Nemunaitis J, Denham C, von Pawel J, Cormier Y, Gatzemeier U, Mattson K, Manegold Ch, Palmer MC, Gregor A, Nguyen B, Niyikiza C, Einhorn LH (2000) Phase III trial of gemcitabine plus cisplatin versus cisplatin alone in patients with locally advanced or metastatic non-small-cell lung cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 18: 122–130
- Scagliotti GV, De Marinis F, Rinaldi M, Gridelli CC, Ricci S, Matano E, Boni C, Marangoro M, Failla G, Altavilla G, Adamo V, Ceribelli A, Clerici M, Costanzo F Di, Frontini L, Tonato M (2002) Phase III randomized trial comparing three platinum-based doublets in advanced non-small-cell lung cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 20: 4285–4291
- Schiller JH, Harrington D, Belani CP, Langer C, Sandler A, Krook J, Zhu J, Johnson DH (2002) Comparison of four chemotherapy regimens for advanced non-small-cell lung cancer. *N Engl J Med* 346: 92–98
- Sederholm C (2002) Gemcitabine compared with gemcitabine plus carboplatin in advanced non-small cell lung cancer: a phase III study by the Swedish Lung Cancer Study Group. *Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol* 21: 291a
- Therasse P, Arbuck SG, Eisenhauer EA, Wanders J, Kaplan RS, Rubinstein L, Verweij J, Van Glabbeke M, van Oosterom AT, Christian MC, Gwyther SG (2000) New guidelines to evaluate the response to treatment in solid tumors. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 92: 205–216
- Zatloukal P, Petruzelka L, Zemanova M, Kolek V, Skrickova J, Pesek M, Fojtu H, Grygarkova I, Sixtova D, Roubec J, Horenkova E, Havel L, Prusa P, Novakova L, Skacel T, Kuta M (2003) Gemcitabine plus cisplatin vs gemcitabine plus carboplatin in stage IIIB and IV non-small cell lung cancer: a phase III randomized trial. *Lung Cancer* 41: 321–331

## Effect of re-treatment with gefitinib ('Iressa', ZD1839) after acquisition of resistance

A 70-year-old man with adenocarcinoma of the lung developed pulmonary metastases 7 months after middle and lower lobectomy of the right lung in October 1998. He received four courses of first-line chemotherapy with docetaxel/irinotecan from June to September 1999. The best response was stable disease and, after 6 months of treatment, there was evidence of progressive disease with increase in size and number of pulmonary metastases. Therefore, we recommended enrollment in a phase I study of gefitinib ('Iressa') [1], an orally active epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) tyrosine kinase inhibitor.

The patient began to take gefitinib 700 mg/day in March 2000. Remarkable tumor regression was immediately achieved in April 2000 (Figure 1). This response lasted for 18 months. However, pulmonary metastases again developed (considered to be progressive disease), and gefitinib was discontinued in October 2001. The patient received a combination of nedaplatin, a second-generation platinum complex with high antitumor activity against non-small-cell lung cancer [2], and gemcitabine in November 2001. Significant tumor regression was achieved, and a total of six courses from November to April 2002 were administered. Pulmonary metastases progressed again and pulmonary effusion developed in August 2002. Although progressed, he had few symptoms, and was considered to have a performance status of 0. We planned to use a chemotherapy regimen that had not previously been used for this patient, but instead commenced re-treatment with gefitinib at the patient's request on September 3, 2002 (gefitinib 250 mg/day had by this time been approved for use in Japan). One month later, a significant response had been achieved (Figure 1).

This is an interesting case in which acquired resistance to gefitinib could be overcome. There are some possible explanations. First, resistance to gefitinib might naturally change over time, but there is no report of this so far. Secondly, because platinum-based cytotoxic chemotherapy was administered after the first treatment with gefitinib, the proportion of sensitive or resistant cells might have been modified. Thirdly, treatment with cytotoxic chemotherapy might produce genetic changes in EGFR or other unknown associated genes that regulate resistance to gefitinib. Saltz et al. reported that a combination of the EGFR inhibitor cetuximab (C225) and irinotecan produced a 22.5% partial

response in patients with irinotecan-refractory colorectal cancer with high EGFR expression [3]. In contrast to that report, cytotoxic agents have the possibility of modifying resistance to cytostatic agents. Recently, two large phase III studies to compare concurrent use of conventional platinum-based chemotherapy (carboplatin/paclitaxel or cisplatin/gemcitabine) and gefitinib with conventional chemotherapy alone were reported [4, 5]. No differences in overall survival were found. These results suggested that gefitinib and chemotherapy may be targeting the same cells with the possibility of overlapping activity. If cytotoxic agents altered sensitivity to gefitinib by genetic modification, chemotherapy followed by gefitinib might be superior to concurrent use. Gefitinib is a very promising agent, but little knowledge is available concerning the types of cases for which gefitinib should be administered, or how gefitinib should be combined with conventional cytotoxic agents. Further investigations are needed to answer these questions.

T. Kurata, K. Tamura, H. Kaneda, T. Nogami, H. Uejima, G. Asai, K. Nakagawa & M. Fukuoka\*

\*Department of Medical Oncology, Kinki University School of Medicine, 377-2 Ohno-Higashi Osaka-Sayama, Osaka 589-8511, Japan  
(\*E-mail: mfukuoka@med.kindai.ac.jp)

## References

1. Negoro S, Nakagawa K, Fukuoka M et al. Final results of a phase I intermittent dose-escalation trial of ZD1839 ('Iressa') in Japanese patients with various solid tumors. *Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol* 2001; 20: 324a.
  2. Kameyama Y, Okazaki N, Nakagawa M et al. Nephrotoxicity of a new platinum compound, 254-S, evaluated with rat kidney cortical slices. *Toxicol Lett* 1990; 52: 15–24.
  3. Saltz L, Rubin M, Hochster H et al. Cetuximab (IMC-C225) plus irinotecan (CPT-11) is active in CPT-11-refractory colorectal cancer (CRC) that express epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR). *Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol* 2002; 20: 3a.
  4. Giaccone G, Johnson DH, Manegold C et al. A phase III clinical trial of ZD1839 ('Iressa') in combination with gemcitabine and cisplatin in chemotherapy-naive patients with advanced non-small-cell lung cancer (INTACT 1). *Ann Oncol* 2002; 13 (Suppl 5): 2.
  5. Johnson DH, Herbst R, Giaccone G et al. ZD1839 ("Iressa") in combination with paclitaxel and carboplatin in chemotherapy-naive patients with advanced non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC): results from a phase III clinical trial (INTACT 2). *Ann Oncol* 2002; 13 (Suppl 5): 127.
- 10.1093/annonc/mdh006



**Figure 1.** A 70-year-old man with adenocarcinoma of the lung. CT scan before treatment of gefitinib (A), after initiation of treatment (B), before re-treatment (C) and after initiation of re-treatment (D).

## S-1 Plus Cisplatin Combination Chemotherapy in Patients with Advanced Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer: A Multi-Institutional Phase II Trial

Yukito Ichinose,<sup>1</sup> Kozo Yoshimori,<sup>2</sup>  
Hiroshi Sakai,<sup>3</sup> Yushi Nakai,<sup>4</sup> Takahiko Sugiura,<sup>5</sup>  
Masaaki Kawahara,<sup>6</sup> and Hisanobu Niitani<sup>7</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Thoracic Oncology, National Kyushu Cancer Center, Fukuoka, Japan; <sup>2</sup>Department of Respiratory Organs, Fukujūji Hospital Anti-TB Association, Tokyo, Japan; <sup>3</sup>Department of Respiratory Disease, Saitama Cancer Center, Saitama, Japan; <sup>4</sup>Department of Internal Medicine, Sendai Kohsei Hospital, Miyagi, Japan; <sup>5</sup>Department of Pulmonary Disease, Aichi Cancer Center, Aichi, Japan; <sup>6</sup>Department of Internal Medicine, National Kinki Central Hospital for Chest Diseases, Osaka, Japan; and <sup>7</sup>Tokyo Cooperative Oncology Group, Tokyo, Japan

### ABSTRACT

**Purpose:** To evaluate the efficacy and toxicity of a novel combination chemotherapeutic regimen including cisplatin with an oral anticancer agent, S-1 that consisted of tegafur, 5-chloro-2, 4-dihydroxypyridine, and potassium oxonate, for non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC) patients.

**Experimental Design:** In this phase II trial, patients with locally advanced and metastatic NSCLC were treated with the oral administration of S-1 at 40 mg/m<sup>2</sup> twice a day for 21 consecutive days while cisplatin (60 mg/m<sup>2</sup>) was administered intravenously on day 8. This schedule was repeated every 5 weeks.

**Results:** Of 56 patients enrolled in the study, 55 patients were eligible and analyzed. The median number of cycles administered was 3 (range, 1-12 cycles). Among these 55 patients, one complete response and 25 partial responses were observed with an overall response rate of 47% (95% confidence interval, 34-61%). The median survival time was 11 months and the 1-year survival rate was 45%. Hematologic toxicities of grades 3 and 4 included neutropenia (29%) and anemia (22%). No grade 4 nonhematologic toxicity was observed.

Grade 3 toxicity included anorexia (13%), vomiting (7%), or diarrhea (7%).

**Conclusions:** S-1 plus cisplatin combination chemotherapy showed a promising effectiveness with acceptable toxicity rates in patients with advanced NSCLC. These results warrant further investigations of this regimen including a randomized controlled trial for its use as a first line treatment for NSCLC.

### INTRODUCTION

S-1 (Taiho Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd, Tokyo, Japan) is an oral anticancer agent comprised of tegafur, 5-chloro-2, 4-dihydroxypyridine, and potassium oxonate, in a molar ratio of 1:0.4:1 (1). Tegafur is a prodrug that generates 5-fluorouracil (5-FU) in the blood primarily via metabolism by liver enzyme cytochrome P450. 5-Chloro-2, 4-dihydroxypyridine enhances the serum 5-FU concentration by the competitive inhibition of dihydropyrimidine dehydrogenase, an enzyme responsible for 5-FU catabolism. The inhibitory effect of 5-chloro-2, 4-dihydroxypyridine on dihydropyrimidine dehydrogenase *in vitro* is reported to be 180 times higher than that of uracil (2). Potassium oxonate is a reversible competitive inhibitor of orotate phosphoribosyl transferase, a phosphoenzyme for 5-FU. Diarrhea induced by 5-FU administration is thought to be attributable to the phosphorylation of 5-FU by the enzyme in the gastrointestinal tissue. After the oral administration of potassium oxonate, the concentration of potassium oxonate in the gastrointestinal tissue is high enough to inhibit the enzyme, and the concentration in blood and tumor is reported to be either slight or nil (3). Because of these mechanisms, oral S-1 administration generates a higher concentration of 5-FU than protracted intravenous injection of 5-FU given in a dose equimolar to the tegafur in S-1 whereas the incidence of adverse events concerning the gastrointestinal tract does not increase (4, 5).

In a phase II trial of S-1, which was orally administered at approximately 40 mg/m<sup>2</sup> twice a day for 28 days followed by a 2-week rest period in 59 advanced non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC) patients without prior chemotherapy, the response rate was 22% [95% confidence interval (CI), 12-35%] and the median survival time was 10.2 months. As expected, the incidence of severe gastrointestinal adverse events was low: *i.e.*, the incidence of grade 3 was 10% in anorexia, 8% in diarrhea, and 2% in stomatitis whereas no grade 4 nonhematologic adverse events were observed. In addition, there were few severe hematologic adverse events. The incidence of grade 3 or 4 was 7% in neutropenia, 2% in anemia, and 2% in thrombocytopenia (6).

UFT is another dihydropyrimidine dehydrogenase-inhibitory fluoropyrimidine consisting of tegafur and uracil in a 1:4 molar concentration (7). UFT has a similar profile of adverse events but a weaker antitumor activity against NSCLC than S-1 (8). However, combination chemotherapy consisting of a daily

Received 6/21/04; revised 8/5/04; accepted 8/18/04.

Grant support: Taiho Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan.

The costs of publication of this article were defrayed in part by the payment of page charges. This article must therefore be hereby marked *advertisement* in accordance with 18 U.S.C. Section 1734 solely to indicate this fact.

**Note:** additional participating institutions and principal investigators included National Shikoku Cancer Center Hospital (Yoshihiko Segawa), Jizankai Tsuboi Hospital (Koichi Hasegawa), Niigata Cancer Center Hospital (Akira Yokoyama), and Nippon Medical School (Akinobu Yoshimura).

**Requests for reprints:** Yukito Ichinose, Department of Thoracic Oncology, National Kyushu Cancer Center, 3-1-1, Notame, Minami-ku Fukuoka, Japan. Phone: 81-92-541-3231; Fax: 81-92-551-4585; E-mail: yichinos@nk-ml.go.jp.

©2004 American Association for Cancer Research.

administration of UFT for 2 or 3 weeks and a bolus injection of cisplatin at mid-cycle of administration of UFT for advanced non-small-cell lung cancer yields a response rate of 29 to 38% and a median survival time of 10 to 13 months (9-11).

With these backgrounds, we conducted a phase II trial combining the oral administration of S-1 for 21 days and a bolus injection of cisplatin on day 8 in patients with advanced NSCLC.

## PATIENTS AND METHODS

**Patient Eligibility.** The patients were eligible for this phase II trial if they had been either cytologically or histologically confirmed to have NSCLC; stage IIIB without any indications for radiotherapy or stage IV; measurable disease; no prior treatment; an age range from 20 to 74 years; an Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group performance status of 0, 1, or 2; and a projected life expectancy of at least 3 months. Other eligibility criteria for an organ function were as follows: a leukocyte count of 4,000 to 12,000/ $\mu$ L; platelet count  $\geq$ 100,000/ $\mu$ L; hemoglobin level of  $\geq$ 9 g/dl; a serum bilirubin level  $<$ 1.5 mg/dl; serum aspartate aminotransferase and alanine aminotransferase levels  $<$ 100 IU/L; alkaline phosphatase level of twice the upper limit or less; normal creatinine level; creatinine clearance rate of at least 60 mL/minute; partial pressure of arterial oxygen  $>$ 70 Torr. For staging, all patients underwent a computed tomography scan of the thorax, including upper abdomen, and either a brain computed tomography scan or magnetic resonance images of brain, and a radioisotopic bone scan was also done in almost all patients.

Any patients who were pregnant or had concomitant serious diseases, a concomitant malignancy, pleural effusion necessitating treatment, or symptomatic cerebral involvement were excluded from the study. Written informed consent was required from all patients, and the protocol was approved by the institutional ethics committee of each of the participating institutions. On entrance to the study, the eligibility of patients was checked via facsimile by the central administration office of the Tokyo Cooperative Oncology Group (Tokyo).

**Treatment Schedule.** S-1 capsule in the form of a 20 and 25 mg capsule containing 20 and 25 mg tegafur, respectively, was provided by the Taiho Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd. (Tokyo, Japan). S-1 was administered orally, 40 mg/ $m^2$  twice a day, after meals between days 1 and 21. The actual dose of S-1 was selected as follows: in a patient with body surface area (BSA)  $<$  1.25  $m^2$ , 40 mg twice a day; BSA of 1.25  $m^2$  but  $<$ 1.5  $m^2$ , 50 mg twice a day; and BSA  $\geq$  1.5  $m^2$ , 60 mg twice a day. Cisplatin (60 mg/ $m^2$ ) was administered intravenously on day 8 when patients were hydrated with at least a 2,500 mL infusion. An antiemetic agent could be administered at the discretion of each patient's physician. The treatment regimen was repeated every 5 weeks at least two cycles unless disease progression or unacceptable toxicity occurred. A leukocyte count of  $\geq$ 3,000/ $\mu$ L and the entry eligibility criteria regarding organ functions had to be satisfied to start the next cycle. If these criteria were satisfied 4 weeks after day 1 of each cycle of chemotherapy, the next cycle could be administered. The doses of S-1 were adjusted according to the degree of hematologic and nonhematologic toxicity. The dose was reduced by one level (20

mg per day) in patients whose BSA was  $\geq$ 1.25  $m^2$ , with evidence of grade 4 hematologic toxicity or grade 3 or more nonhematologic toxicity during any cycle of administration. If recovery from such toxicities was confirmed at a reduced dose, administration at the reduced dose was continued. If a patient with BSA  $<$ 1.25  $m^2$  experienced the above toxicities, then no further treatment with S-1 was done. If a rest period of  $>$ 4 weeks was required, then the patient was withdrawn from the study.

**Evaluation of Response and Toxicity.** All eligible patients who received any part of the treatment were considered assessable for response and toxicity. Chest X-ray, complete blood count, and blood chemistry studies were repeated weekly. The response was assessed based on the chest X-ray or computed tomography scan findings that initially had been used to define the tumor extent. The response was evaluated in accordance with the criteria of the World Health Organization (12). A central radiological review was done to determine the eligibility of patients and the response of treatment. Adverse events were graded according to the National Cancer Institute-Common Toxicity Criteria (NCI-CTC) version 2.0.

**Statistical Analysis.** The number of patients to be enrolled in this study was calculated to be 54, which was required to reject the null hypothesis that the lower bound of 95% CI of the expected response rate (50%) would be  $<$ 30% under the conditions of  $\alpha$  error of 0.025 (one side) and  $\beta$  error of 0.2. The overall survival of the eligible patients was defined as the time from the start of the treatment until death from any cause, and it was estimated by the Kaplan-Meier method. Differences between the proportions were evaluated by the  $\chi^2$  test. The data were considered to be significant when the *P* value was  $\leq$ 0.05.

## RESULTS

**Patient Population.** Between September 2000 and November 2001, 56 patients were enrolled in this study. One patient was considered to be ineligible because of prior treatment for pleurodesis in which OK432 was used for his malignant pleural effusion. The clinical characteristics of all eligible 55 patients are listed in Table 1. They included 41 men and 14 women, with a median age of 64 years. Thirty (55%) patients

Table 1 Patient characteristics

No. of patients	55
Age (years), median (range)	64 (46-74)
Gender	
Male	41 (75%)
Female	14 (26%)
Performance status (ECOG)	
0	30 (55%)
1	23 (42%)
2	2 (4%)
Stage	
IIIB	10 (18%)
IV	45 (82%)
Histology	
Adenocarcinoma	37 (67%)
Squamous cell carcinoma	14 (26%)
Others	4 (7%)

Abbreviation: ECOG, Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group.



had Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group performance status of 0 and 45 (82%) patients had stage IV disease. The predominant histology type was adenocarcinoma (67%).

**Response and Survival.** Among all 55 eligible patients, 1 had a complete response and 25 had a partial response. Thus, the overall response rate was 47% (95% CI, 34–61%). Because one ineligible patient had a partial response, the overall response of all registered 56 patients was 48% (95% CI, 35–62%). The responding patients were classified in terms of the items shown in Table 2. There was no statistically significant difference in the response rates between the items compared. The median response duration was 4.2 months.

The median follow-up period was 28 months (range, 20–33 months). As shown in Fig. 1, median survival time of the 55 eligible patients was 11 months and the 1-year and 2-year survival rates were 45% (95% CI, 32–59%) and 17% (95% CI, 6–27%), respectively.

**Adverse Events.** The adverse events observed throughout the treatment of the 55 eligible patients are shown in Table 3. Among the hematologic adverse event, grade 3/4 neutropenia and anemia was observed in 29 and 22% of the patients, respectively. However, grade 3 thrombocytopenia was observed in only one patient (2%), and no patient had grade 4 thrombocytopenia.

Table 3 Hematologic and nonhematologic toxicities

Toxicity	Grade				Frequency of 3 or 4 (%)
	1	2	3	4	
Leukopenia	8	18	2	1	6
Neutropenia	7	13	13	3	29
Anemia	14	24	10	2	22
Thrombocytopenia	28	4	1	0	2
Aspartate aminotransferase	7	0	1	0	2
Alanine aminotransferase	6	1	1	0	2
Creatinine	9	1	1	0	2
Anorexia	21	15	7	0	13
Vomiting	14	3	4	0	7
Diarrhea	12	3	4	0	7
Stomatitis	12	2	0	0	0
Dermatitis	13	0	0	0	0

Table 2 Patient characteristics in relation to the response

Characteristics	No. of patients	Response				Response rate (%)
		CR	PR	NC	PD	
All	55	1	25	23	6	47
Gender						
Male	41	1	20	15	5	51
Female	14	0	5	8	1	36
Stage						
IIIB	10	0	4	5	1	40
IV	45	1	21	18	5	49
Histology						
Adenocarcinoma	37	0	15	17	5	41
Squamous cell carcinoma	14	1	7	5	1	57
Others	4	0	3	1	0	75

Abbreviations: CR, complete response; PR, partial response; NC, no change; PD, progressive disease.

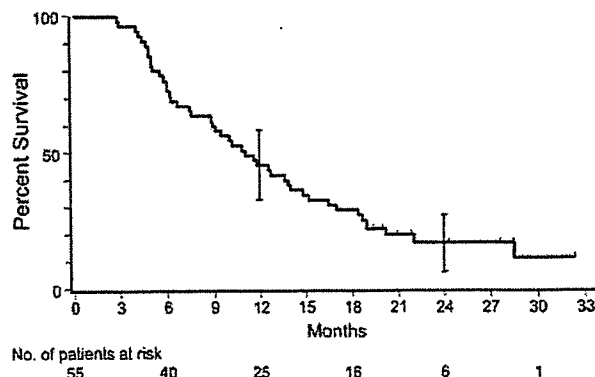


Fig. 1 Overall survival. Each tick represents a patient who is alive. The bars represent the 95% confidence interval of the survival rate at 1 year and 2 years after treatment.

Among the observed nonhematologic adverse events, no grade 4 level was observed. There were no unexpected toxicities.

**Compliance.** A range of 1 to 12 treatment cycles were administered (1 cycle, 6 patients; 2 cycles, 18 patients; 3 cycles, 5 patients; 4 cycles, 12 patients; >4 cycles, 14 patients). The reasons for only one cycle of treatment were progressive disease in 4 patients and adverse events in 2 patients. The dose of S-1 was reduced in 8 patients because of adverse events including myelosuppression in 4 patients, gastrointestinal toxicity in 2 patients, glycemia in 1 patient, and dermatitis in 1 patient. A total of 197 cycles were given to the 55 patients. Sixty-nine (49%) of 142 treatment cycles excluding the first cycle was given at 4-week interval, 58 (40%) were at a 5-week interval, and 15 (11%) were at a >5-week interval.

## DISCUSSION

Because the half-life of 5-FU is as short as 5 to 20 minutes (13) and the antitumor activity of 5-FU is time dependent, the continuous intravenous administration of 5-FU is considered to be appropriate rather than a bolus intravenous injection of 5-FU. In fact, a meta-analysis of six randomized trials in patients with colorectal cancer showed that the response rate was clearly higher for continuous infusion of 5-FU over 5 consecutive days than for weekly bolus injection of 5-FU (14). Although NSCLC has also been reported not to respond to a bolus injection of 5-FU (15), whether or not continuous treatment with 5-FU is effective for NSCLC remains unclear. However, studies have shown that a combination of cisplatin and protracted intravenous injection of 5-FU is effective for NSCLC (16). In prior trials, we used this combination chemotherapy with daily oral administration of UFT in place of the protracted intravenous injection of 5-FU which negatively affects the quality of life of a patient for advanced NSCLC (9–11).

The combination chemotherapy of cisplatin and 5-FU has been proven to have synergic antitumor effect in many experimental and clinical studies (17, 18). However, the optimal sequence for the administration of these drugs has yet to be determined. The sequence of cisplatin followed by 5-FU has been shown to be more cytotoxic than the reverse succession in *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies (19, 20) whereas the sequence of 5-FU followed by cisplatin has been proven to have a greater

antitumor activity than the opposite order of administration in tumor-bearing animals (21). Therefore, in our prior trials using UFT, we designed a treatment regimen that is thought to be a compromise solution between the present conflicting experimental data; namely, a daily administration of UFT from day 1 to 14 or 21 and a bolus infusion of cisplatin on day 8 (9, 10).

In the present study with S-1, the treatment modality was determined based on the UFT trials (9, 10) and phase I/II trial of S-1 combined with cisplatin in patients with advanced gastric cancer (22). The dose of cisplatin was decreased from 80 mg/m<sup>2</sup> in prior UFT trial to 60 mg/m<sup>2</sup> in the present trial because phase I trial indicated that 60 mg/m<sup>2</sup> of cisplatin on day 8 was the recommended dose when it was combined with daily administration of S-1 from day 1 for 3 weeks (22). Concerning the dose of cisplatin in combination chemotherapy in NSCLC patients, the effect of the dosage on survival has not yet been clearly elucidated. Klastersky *et al.* (23) reported the median survival time of patients who received vindesine plus combination chemotherapy consisting of either 60 or 120 mg/m<sup>2</sup> of cisplatin to be 7.6 and 6.4 months, respectively, and no overall survival difference between the two groups was observed ( $P = 0.138$ ). On the other hand, the incidence of adverse events was significantly higher in the 120-mg dose than that in 60-mg dose.

Although a comparison between the present S-1 trial and the prior UFT trial with 108 patients (10) has limitation because of different trials, the response rate and survival seems to be favorable in the present trial despite the fact that proportion of stage IV patients in the present trial was higher than that in the UFT trials (82% versus 68%). The response rate and median survival time was 47% and 11.2 months in the present study and 29% and 10 months in the UFT trial, respectively. The frequency of severe adverse events in the both trials was similarly low.

The standard chemotherapy regimen for NSCLC is considered to be a platinum-based two-drug combination chemotherapy that uses paclitaxel, docetaxel, gemcitabine, or vinorelbine. The response rate and median survival time in the recent phase III trials that use these combination chemotherapies have been reported to be 17 to 28% and 7 to 9 months, respectively. Grade 3 or 4 hematologic and nonhematologic adverse events were observed in 57 to 76% (neutropenia) and 4 to 35% (vomiting), respectively (24, 25). In the present study with S-1 and cisplatin, the incidence of those adverse events seems to be lower than the above mentioned data. In addition, the antitumor mechanism is different from those agents. On the basis of these observations, we plan to conduct a randomized trial comparing the present combination chemotherapy with standard platinum-based two-drug combination chemotherapy regarding survival and the quality of life.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Brian Quinn for critical review and Yumiko Oshima for help in preparing the report.

## REFERENCES

- Shirasaka T, Shimamoto Y, Fukushima M. Inhibition by oxonic acid of gastrointestinal toxicity of 5-fluorouracil without loss of its antitumor activity in rats. *Cancer Res* 1993;53:4004-9.
- Tatsumi K, Fukushima M, Shirasaka T, Fujii S. Inhibitory effects of pyrimidine, barbituric acid and pyridine derivatives on 5-fluorouracil degradation in rat liver extracts. *Jpn J Cancer Res* 1987;78:748-55.
- Shirasaka T, Shimamoto Y, Ohshimo H, et al. Development of a novel form of an oral 5-fluorouracil derivative (S-1) directed to the potentiation of the tumor selective cytotoxicity of 5-fluorouracil by two biochemical modulators. *Anticancer Drugs* 1996;7:548-57.
- van Groeningen CJ, Peters GJ, Schomagel JH, et al. Phase I clinical and pharmacokinetic study of oral S-1 in patients with advanced solid tumors. *J Clin Oncol* 2000;18:2772-9.
- Yamada Y, Hamaguchi T, Goto M, et al. Plasma concentrations of 5-fluorouracil and F-beta-alanine following oral administration of S-1, a dihydropyrimidine dehydrogenase inhibitory fluoropyrimidine, as compared with protracted venous infusion of 5-fluorouracil. *Br J Cancer* 2003;89:816-20.
- Kawahara M, Furuse K, Segawa Y, et al. Phase II study of S-1, a novel oral fluorouracil, in advanced non-small-cell lung cancer. *Br J Cancer* 2001;85:939-43.
- Fujii S, Kitano S, Ikenaka K, Shirasaka T. Effect of coadministration of uracil or cytosine on the anti-tumor activity of clinical doses of 1-(2-tetrahydrofuryl)-5-fluorouracil and level of 5-fluorouracil in rodents. *Gann* 1979;70:209-14.
- Keicho N, Saijo N, Shinkai T, et al. Phase II study of UFT in patients with advanced non-small cell lung cancer. *Jpn J Clin Oncol* 1986;16:143-6.
- Ichinose Y, Takanashi N, Yano T, et al. A phase II trial of oral tegafur and uracil plus cisplatin in patients with inoperable nonsmall cell lung cancer. *Cancer (Phila)* 1995;75:2677-80.
- Ichinose Y, Yosimori K, Yoneda S, Kuba M, Kudoh S, Niitani H. UFT plus cisplatin combination chemotherapy in the treatment of patients with advanced nonsmall cell lung carcinoma: a multiinstitutional phase II trial. For the Japan UFT Lung Cancer Study Group. *Cancer (Phila)* 2000;88:318-23.
- Saito J, Nakai Y, Saijo Y, et al. A phase II trial of oral UFT plus cisplatin (CDDP) in patients with non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC). *Lung Cancer* 2001;31:285-93.
- Miller AB, Hoogstraten B, Staquet M, Winkler A. Reporting results of cancer treatment. *Cancer (Phila)* 1981;47:207-14.
- Iyer L, Ratain MJ. 5-Fluorouracil pharmacokinetics: causes for variability and strategies for modulation in cancer chemotherapy. *Cancer Invest* 1999;17:494-506.
- Meta-analysis Group In Cancer. Efficacy of intravenous continuous infusion of fluorouracil compared with bolus administration in advanced colorectal cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 1998;16:301-8.
- Crawford J, O'Rourke M, Schiller JH, et al. Randomized trial of vinorelbine compared with fluorouracil plus leucovorin in patients with stage IV non-small-cell lung cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 1996;14:2774-84.
- Heim W, Wampler GL, Lokich JJ, et al. A study of infusional cisplatin and infusional fluorouracil for locally advanced or metastatic non-small-cell lung cancer: a Mid-Atlantic Oncology Program study. *J Clin Oncol* 1991;9:2162-6.
- Decker DA, Drelichman A, Jacobs J, et al. Adjuvant chemotherapy with cis-diamminodichloroplatinum II and 120-hour infusion 5-fluorouracil in stage III and IV squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck. *Cancer (Phila)* 1983;51:1353-5.
- Kemeny N, Israel K, Niedzwiecki D, et al. Randomized study of continuous infusion fluorouracil versus fluorouracil plus cisplatin in patients with metastatic colorectal cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 1990;8:313-8.
- Scanlon KJ, Newman EM, Lu Y, Priest DG. Biochemical basis for cisplatin and 5-fluorouracil synergism in human ovarian carcinoma cells. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 1986;83:8923-5.
- Shirasaka T, Shimamoto Y, Ohshimo H, Saito H, Fukushima M. Metabolic basis of the synergistic antitumor activities of 5-fluorouracil and cisplatin in rodent tumor models in vivo. *Cancer Chemother Pharmacol* 1993;32:167-72.

21. Kuroki M, Nakano S, Mitsugi K, et al. In vivo comparative therapeutic study of optimal administration of 5-fluorouracil and cisplatin using a newly established HST-1 human squamous-carcinoma cell line. *Cancer Chemother Pharmacol* 1992;29:273-6.
22. Koizumi W, Tanabe S, Saigenji K, et al. Phase I/II study of S-1 combined with cisplatin in patients with advanced gastric cancer. *Br J Cancer* 2003;89:2207-12.
23. Klastersky J, Sculier JP, Ravez P, et al. A randomized study comparing a high and a standard dose of cisplatin in combination with etoposide in the treatment of advanced non-small-cell lung carcinoma. *J Clin Oncol* 1986;4:1780-6.
24. Kelly K, Crowley J, Bunn PA Jr, et al. Randomized phase III trial of paclitaxel plus carboplatin versus vinorelbine plus cisplatin in the treatment of patients with advanced non-small-cell lung cancer: a Southwest Oncology Group trial. *J Clin Oncol* 2001;19:3210-8.
25. Schiller JH, Harrington D, Belani CP, et al. Comparison of four chemotherapy regimens for advanced non-small-cell lung cancer. *N Engl J Med* 2002;346:92-8.

# Is the Importance of Achieving Stable Disease Different between Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor Tyrosine Kinase Inhibitors and Cytotoxic Agents in the Second-Line Setting for Advanced Non-small Cell Lung Cancer?

Takayasu Kurata, MD,\* Keitaro Matsuo, MD,† Minoru Takada, MD,‡ Masaaki Kawahara, MD,‡ Masahiro Tsuji, MD,§ Yuka Matsubara, MD,§ Nagahiro Otani, MD,§ Shigeki Matsuyama, MD,§ Kenya Muraishi, MD,§ Tetsuya Fujita, MD,§ Masato Ishikawa, MD,§ Keita Koyano, MD,§ Isamu Okamoto, MD,\* Taroh Satoh, MD,\* Kenji Tamura, MD,\* Kazuhiko Nakagawa, MD,\* and Masahiro Fukuoka, MD\*

**Background:** It is controversial whether achieving stable disease leads to a survival benefit and whether the importance of achieving stable disease differs between cytotoxic agents and molecular targeted agents. To examine these questions, the authors retrospectively reviewed phase II and III studies in the second-line setting for advanced non-small cell lung cancer using epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs) and cytotoxic agents separately.

**Methods:** The authors chose 45 trials for the chemotherapy group and nine for the EGFR TKI group by searching the PubMed database. All nine trials in the EGFR TKI group concern gefitinib and erlotinib.

**Results:** The median survival time increased 0.0375 month with each 1% increase in stable disease rate ( $p = 0.039$ ), and each 1% increase in response rate resulted in 0.0744 ( $p < 0.001$ ) month of median survival time in the analysis combined with both cytotoxic agents and EGFR TKIs. Main and interaction terms for EGFR TKI treatment were not statistically significant. With respect to time to progression, only response rate showed a statistically significant relationship with survival.

**Conclusions:** To obtain response seems to be more important than to achieve stable disease for both cytotoxic agents and EGFR TKIs, although achieving stable disease is still valuable. The relationship between survival and response or stable disease appears similar for cytotoxic agents and EGFR TKIs.

**Key Words:** Stable disease, Response rate, Non-small cell lung cancer, Second-line setting, Epidermal growth factor receptor, Tyrosine kinase inhibitors.

(*J Thorac Oncol.* 2006;1: 684–691)

In 1995, a meta-analysis demonstrated a modest survival benefit for cisplatin-based chemotherapy compared with best supportive care as first-line therapy in patients with locally advanced or metastatic non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC).<sup>1</sup> Equal survival improvement is provided by introducing several new agents with novel mechanisms and significant activity against NSCLC such as taxanes, gemcitabine, and vinorelbine, when used in combination with a platinum agent.<sup>2–4</sup> However, most patients relapse following platinum-based chemotherapy, leading to poor survival. Until recently, the role of second-line chemotherapy was not well defined because most patients had a poor performance status by the time of relapse. However, as newer agents in combination with platinum agents have increased, the number of patients with durable antitumor effects and the number of patients for second-line chemotherapy have increased. Therefore, second-line chemotherapy for advanced NSCLC is becoming increasingly important. Several chemotherapy agents have been evaluated in the second-line setting. Among them, docetaxel was the first agent to show a survival benefit and an improvement in quality of life in two large phase III studies<sup>5,6</sup> and has been approved as a second-line agent. A recent randomized phase III study reported that pemetrexed (a multitargeted antifolate, Alimta; Eli Lilly & Co., Indianapolis, IN) had comparable activity and better symptom relief than docetaxel.<sup>7</sup> Both of these cytotoxic agents demonstrated response rates of less than 10%, but both agents have demonstrated survival benefits and an improvement in quality of life. This indicates that it is important to achieve stable disease and objective response for second-line cytotoxic agents.

\*Department of Medical Oncology, Kinki University School of Medicine, Osaka, Japan; †Department of Epidemiology and Prevention, Aichi Cancer Center Research Institute, Nagoya, Japan; ‡National Hospital Organization, Kinki-Chuo Chest Medical Center; and §Kinki-Chuo Oncology Meeting, Osaka, Japan.

Address for correspondence: Takayasu Kurata, MD, Department of Medical Oncology, Kinki University School of Medicine, 377-2, Ohno-Higashi, Osaka-Sayama, Osaka 589-8511, Japan. E-mail: kurata@hp.pref.hyogo.jp

Copyright © 2006 by the International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer

ISSN: 1556-0864/06/0107-0684

The molecular targeted agents are attractive because they promise to produce specific cytostatic action with a resultant mild toxicity profile. In many tumors, overexpression of the epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) is associated with a poor prognosis and chemoresistance,<sup>8,9</sup> and it is common in NSCLC.<sup>10-12</sup> The low-molecular-weight EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs) gefitinib and erlotinib are the most advanced agents in clinical trials. The results of a recent phase III study in the second-line setting showed that erlotinib significantly improved survival compared with best supportive care,<sup>13</sup> although the overall response rate was only 9% on the erlotinib arm.

Because of their mechanism of action, it might be more important to achieve stable disease for most molecular targeted agents than for their cytotoxic counterparts. However, evaluating stable disease in clinical trials is very difficult, as patients with stable disease are not a homogeneous population.

Based on this background, we hypothesized that not only objective response but also stable disease could lead to survival benefit, in particular, with molecular targeted agents. Therefore, we retrospectively reviewed phase II and randomized phase III studies in the second-line setting using EGFR TKIs and cytotoxic agents separately to evaluate our hypothesis and ascertain whether the importance of achieving stable disease was different between EGFR TKIs and cytotoxic agents.

## METHODS

### Search and Selection for Trials

Data concerning response rates, rates of stable disease, time to progression, and survival from all published studies including phase II and randomized phase III studies assessing the activity of EGFR TKIs and cytotoxic agents in the second-line setting were identified electronically. We performed the search for trials through a computer-based search of the PubMed database using the following terms: "NSCLC," "chemotherapy (second or pretreated)," "advanced," "not radiation," "not adjuvant," "randomized controlled trial," "human," and "English," in the chemotherapy group. In the EGFR TKI group, we used the following terms: "NSCLC," "clinical trial," "human," "English," and the name of the EGFR TKI (e.g., gefitinib, referred from the review of Wendy et al.<sup>14</sup>). All trials that had been reported by September 30, 2004, were targeted. However, because there was no phase III study in the EGFR TKI group, only one abstract from the *Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology*, by Shepherd et al., was added. Among the retrieved studies, we excluded the trials that had missing outcomes data. We also excluded phase I/II studies. When we examined randomized phase III and randomized phase II studies, if both arms (experimental and reference arms) included cytotoxic agents or EGFR TKIs, both were included in our analysis.

### Statistical Analysis

All the analyses were performed with Stata version 8 (Stata Corp., College Station, TX). Multiple linear regression

analysis was applied to examine impacts on the proportion of subjects who responded and achieved stable disease on survival (median survival time [MST] and time to progression [TTP]). Scales in the models were percentages and months for proportion of subjects and survival, respectively. Two models were examined: model 1, including response rate and stable disease rate or disease control rate (response rate plus stable disease rate) as explanatory variables; and model 2, including EGFR TKI usage (yes/no) and interaction terms between EGFR TKI usage and response/stable disease rate or disease control rate in addition to model 1. In the models, each study was weighted by the number of subjects in an intent-to-treat analysis setting in each study. Thereafter, we chose model 1 based on the significance of interaction terms. To further evaluate the impact of stable disease rate considering response rate, we chose a linear regression model for residual (the observed median survival minus fitted median survival in the response rate only model) as a dependent variable with stable disease rate as a responsible variable. This approach was applied to MST and TTP separately (Figures 1 and 2). The statistical significance was defined as a value of  $p < 0.05$ , and adjustment for multiple comparison was not considered because of the exploratory setting of this study.

## RESULTS

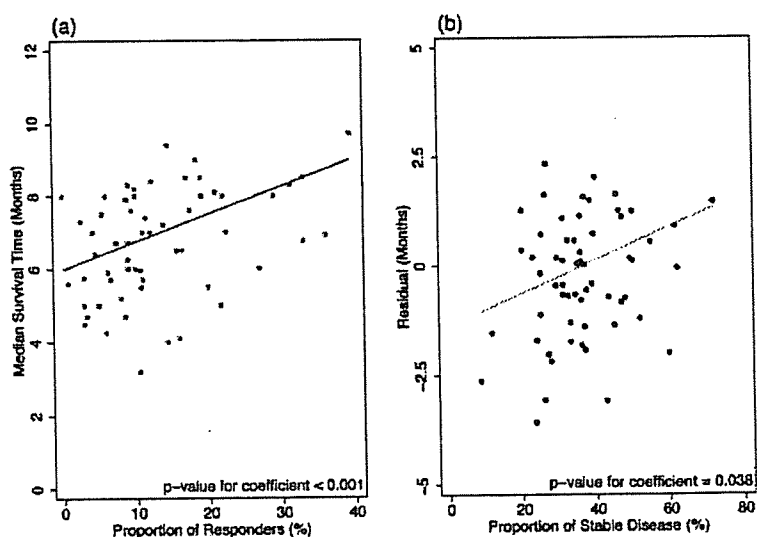
### Study Characteristics

As a result of our search, we identified 219 references and chose 45 trials for the chemotherapy group and nine trials for the EGFR TKI group. The baseline characteristics of the 45 trials and nine trials are shown in Tables 1 and 2, respectively. There are four randomized phase II and three phase III studies for cytotoxic agents, and two randomized phase II studies and one phase III study for EGFR TKIs. In the analysis of cytotoxic agents, docetaxel, pemetrexed, other agents, and many types of combination regimens are included. In the analysis of EGFR TKIs, only monotherapies of gefitinib and erlotinib were detected. The median number of enrolled patients per study was 40 (range, 17-288) for the cytotoxic agents and 103 (range, 31-488) for the analysis of EGFR TKIs.

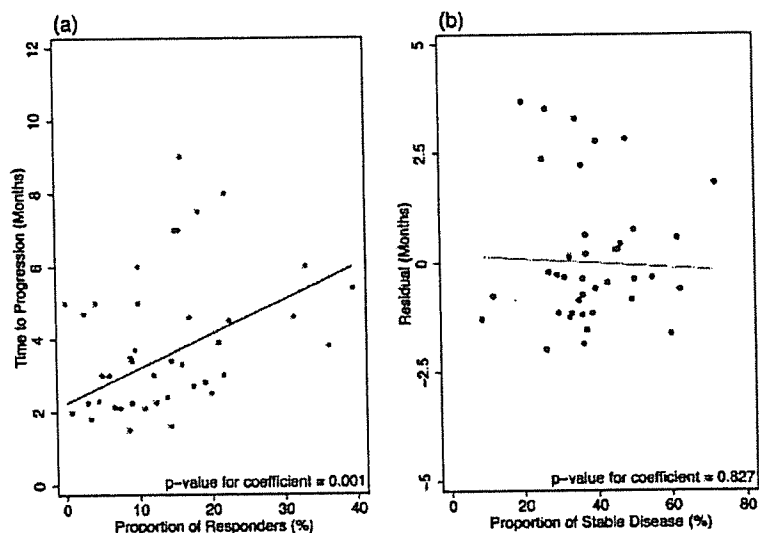
### Median Survival Time

As shown in Table 3, both rate of stable disease and response rate were statistically significantly associated with MST in model 1 in the analysis that combined both cytotoxic agents and EGFR TKIs. The coefficient 0.0375 ( $p = 0.039$ ) for stable disease in model 1 indicates that MST increases by 0.0375 month for each 1% increase in stable disease rate. Similarly, each 1% increase in response rate is associated with an increase of 0.0744 month in MST ( $p < 0.001$ ). This trend was similarly observed in model 2, which considered the interaction between EGFR TKI treatment and two response parameters. As interaction terms for EGFR TKI treatment were not statistically significant, one may interpret that the relationship between survival and response rate or stable disease rate is not different between EGFR TKI and cytotoxic chemotherapy. We therefore took model 1 as the model

**FIGURE 1.** Scatterplot for MST and response/stable disease rates. (A) The observed MST corresponding to the percentage of responders. (B) The residuals (observed MST minus fitted MST in the model for A). The figure indicates that both response rate and stable disease rate significantly influence the prolongation of MST.



**FIGURE 2.** Scatterplot for TTP and response/stable disease rates. (A) The observed median TTP corresponding to the percentage of responders. (B) The residuals (observed TTP minus fitted TTP in the model for A). The figure indicates that the response rate but not the stable disease rate significantly influences the prolongation of TTPs.



explaining associations between MST and response variables. Figure 1A is a graphic presentation of observed MSTs corresponding to response rates with the fitted line. Figure 1B presents how well the stable disease rate explains the residual by the response rate only model. Both figures indicate that the response rate and the stable disease rate significantly contribute to MST prolongation. The coefficient for the disease control rate in model 1 was 0.05, indicating that a 1% increase in the disease control rate prolongs MST by 0.05 month ( $p < 0.001$ ). Similar results regarding EGFR TKI terms are listed in Table 3.

**Time to Progression**

Table 4 shows similar analyses as MST for TTP considering stable disease rate and response rate. Contrary to MST analyses, only response rate showed a statistically significant association with TTP. The coefficient 0.0954 ( $p = 0.001$ ) for response rate in model 1 indicates that TTP increases 0.0954 month with each 1% increase in response

rates. Nonsignificant coefficient for stable disease rates indicates lack of impact of this factor on TTP after response rate has been accounted for. As interaction terms for EGFR TKI treatment were not statistically significant, we took model 1 as the model explaining associations between TTP and response variables. Figure 2 is a similar graphic presentation of observed TTPs. Although Figure 2A shows that response rate significantly influences the TTPs, there is no apparent association between TTPs and stable disease rate (Figure 2B). As shown in Table 4, disease control rate was not significantly associated with prolongation of TTP in model 1 and model 2. EGFR TKI interaction terms were not statistically significant.

**DISCUSSION**

Since the introduction of molecular targeted agents (especially epidermal growth factor receptor inhibitors) in clinical trials in recent years, the importance of achieving stable disease has become an important issue. For these

**TABLE 1.** Characteristics of the Trials with Cytotoxic Agents in the Second-Line Setting for NSCLC

Author	Phase	Regimen	No. (ITT)	RR (%)	SD (%)	DCR (%)	TTP (mo)	MST (mo)
Stewart et al., 1996 <sup>15</sup>	II	Paclitaxel + hydroxyurea	30	3	52	55	—	5
Georgoulas et al., 1997 <sup>16</sup>	II	Paclitaxel + gemcitabine	26	29	25	54	—	8
Gridelli et al., 1999 <sup>17</sup>	II	Gemcitabine	30	20	60	80	2.5	5.5
Crino et al., 1999 <sup>18</sup>	II	Gemcitabine	83	19	31	50	—	8.5
Stathopoulos et al., 1999 <sup>19</sup>	II	Paclitaxel + cisplatin	36	38.9	58.3	97.2	—	—
Perng et al., 2000 <sup>20</sup>	II	Docetaxel	14	28.6	—	—	4.75	11.7
Mattson et al., 2000 <sup>21</sup>	II	Docetaxel	72	13.8	29.3	43.1	2.4	7.2
Rosati et al., 2000 <sup>22</sup>	II	Paclitaxel + cisplatin + gemcitabine	26	27	27	54	—	6
Sculier et al., 2000 <sup>23</sup>	II	Gemcitabine	77	6	27.7	33.7	—	4.25
Gridelli et al., 2000 <sup>24</sup>	II	Docetaxel	23	21.7	8.7	30.4	3	5
Hainsworth et al., 2000 <sup>25</sup>	II	Gemcitabine + vinorelbine	55	16.4	43.6	60	—	6.5
Shepherd et al., 2000 <sup>5</sup>	III	Docetaxel	55	5.5	47.3	52.8	—	7.5
		Docetaxel	49	6.3	37.5	43.8	—	5.9
Fossella et al., 2000 <sup>6</sup>	III	Docetaxel	125	10.8	33	43.8	2.1	5.5
		Docetaxel	125	6.7	36	42.7	2.13	5.7
		Vinorelbine/ifosfamide	123	0.8	31	31.8	1.98	5.6
Kosmas et al., 2001 <sup>26</sup>	II	Gemcitabine + vinorelbine	43	33	37	70	6	8.5
Hainsworth et al., 2001 <sup>27</sup>	II	Docetaxel + gemcitabine	40	10	48	58	6	6
		Docetaxel + vinorelbine	23	0	40	40	5	8
Agelaki et al., 2001 <sup>28</sup>	II	Vinorelbine + carboplatin	37	16	30	46	9	—
Kakolyris et al., 2001 <sup>29</sup>	II	Cisplatin + irinotecan	44	22	20	42	8	8
Huisman et al., 2001 <sup>30</sup>	II	Cisplatin + epirubicin	27	33	33	66	—	6.75
Pectasides et al., 2001 <sup>31</sup>	II	Gemcitabine + vinorelbine	39	2.6	35.9	38.5	4.7	7.3
Lilenbaum et al., 2001 <sup>32</sup>	II	Docetaxel	30	10	20	30	—	8
Kosmas et al., 2001 <sup>33</sup>	II	Gemcitabine + docetaxel	40	22.5	32.5	55	4.5	7
Kakolyris et al., 2001 <sup>34</sup>	II	Docetaxel + gemcitabine	32	15.6	34.4	50	7	6.5
Spiridonidis et al., 2001 <sup>35</sup>	II	Docetaxel + gemcitabine	40	32.5	—	—	—	8.1
Juan et al., 2001 <sup>36</sup>	II	Paclitaxel	40	39.47	39.47	78.94	5.4	9.7
Chen et al., 2002 <sup>37</sup>	II	Docetaxel + gemcitabine	36	36.1	36.11	72.21	3.8	6.9
Gonzalez et al., 2002 <sup>38</sup>	II	Irinotecan + vinorelbine	35	9	39	48	—	6.25
Rinaldi et al., 2002 <sup>39</sup>	II	Topotecan + gemcitabine	35	11	23	34	—	7
Socinski et al., 2002 <sup>40</sup>	II	Paclitaxel	62	8.1	37	45.1	—	5.2
Herbst et al., 2002 <sup>41</sup>	II	Gemcitabine + vinorelbine	36	17	50	67	4.6	8.5
Sculier et al., 2002 <sup>42</sup>	II	Paclitaxel	67	3	24	27	—	4.5
Thongprasert et al., 2002 <sup>43</sup>	II	Docetaxel	34	10.7	47	57.2	—	5.95
Han et al., 2003 <sup>44</sup>	II	Irinotecan + capecitabine	37	11.4	34.3	45.7	—	7.4
Chen et al., 2003 <sup>45</sup>	II	Docetaxel + ifosfamide	17	31.3	62.5	93.8	4.6	8.3
Font et al., 2003 <sup>46</sup>	II	Irinotecan + docetaxel	51	6	37	43	3	8
Chen et al., 2003 <sup>47</sup>	II	Vinorelbine + cisplatin	22	9.5	61.9	71.4	3.7	7.6
Smit et al., 2003 <sup>48</sup>	II	Pemetrexed	45	4.5	36	40.5	2.3	6.4
		Pemetrexed	36	14.3	26	40.3	1.6	4
Chen et al., 2003 <sup>49</sup>	II	Gemcitabine + vinorelbine	50	10	72	82	5	8.2
Dongiovanni et al., 2004 <sup>50</sup>	II	Paclitaxel + gemcitabine	34	12	50	62	3	7
Georgoulas et al., 2003 <sup>51</sup>	II	Irinotecan + gemcitabine	76	18.4	26.3	44.7	7.5	9
		Irinotecan	71	4.2	25.3	29.5	5	7
Park et al., 2003 <sup>52</sup>	II	Gemcitabine + vinorelbine	38	21	55	76	3.9	8.1
Serke et al., 2003 <sup>53</sup>	II	Docetaxel	36	11	25	36	—	5.7
Hanna et al., 2003 <sup>7</sup>	III	Pemetrexed	283	9.1	45.8	54.9	3.4	8.3
		Docetaxel	288	8.8	46.4	55.2	3.5	7.9
Ceresoli et al., 2003 <sup>54</sup>	II	Paclitaxel	53	15	21	36	7	—
Ardizzoia et al., 2003 <sup>55</sup>	II	Docetaxel	42	10.5	23.5	34	—	3.2
Quoix et al., 2003 <sup>56</sup>	II	Docetaxel	93	8.6	37.1	45.7	1.5	4.7
		Docetaxel	89	7.4	49.4	56.8	2.1	6.7

ITT, intention to treat; RR, response rate; SD, stable disease; DCR, disease control rate; TTP, time to progression; MST, median survival time.

TABLE 2. Characteristics of the Trials with EGFR TKIs in the Second-Line Setting for NSCLC

Author	Phase	Regimen	No. (ITT)	RR (%)	SD (%)	DCR (%)	MST (mo)
Gridelli et al., 2000 <sup>57</sup>	II	Gefitinib	59	3.4	11.8	15.2	4.7
Cappuzzo et al., 2003 <sup>58</sup>	II	Gefitinib	63	15.9	42.8	58.7	4.1
Pallis et al., 2003 <sup>59</sup>	II	Gefitinib	31	3	29	32	5.75
Fukuoka et al., 2003 <sup>60</sup>	II	Gefitinib	103	17.5	35.9	53.4	7.6
Kris et al., 2003 <sup>61</sup>	II	Gefitinib	109	19.1	32.4	51.5	8
		Gefitinib	106	12	31	43	7
Shepherd et al., 2004 <sup>62</sup>	III	Erlotinib	115	9	31	40	6
		Erlotinib	488	9	35	44	6.7
Pérez-Soler et al., 2004 <sup>63</sup>	II	Erlotinib	57	12.3	38.6	50.9	8.4
Cappuzzo et al., 2004 <sup>64</sup>	II	Gefitinib	106	14.4	26.8	41.2	9.4
Cappuzzo et al., 2000 <sup>65</sup>	II	Gefitinib	40	5	45	50	5

ITT, intention to treat; RR, response rate; SD, stable disease; DCR, disease control rate; TTP, time to progression; MST, median survival time.

TABLE 3. Multiple Regression Models for Predicting MST by Study Parameters

	Model 1			Model 2		
	Coefficient	SE	p Value	Coefficient	SE	p Value
Models evaluating SD/RR and interactions with EGFR TKIs use No. 1*						
SD (%)	0.0375	0.0178	0.039	0.0500	0.0188	0.01
RR (%)	0.0744	0.0181	<0.001	0.0669	0.0190	0.001
SD_EGFR interaction	—	—	—	-0.0967	0.0703	0.175
RR_EGFR interaction	—	—	—	0.1082	0.0591	0.073
EGFR TKI	—	—	—	2.2773	2.5364	0.373
_cons	4.6156	0.6532	<0.001	4.1579	0.7617	<0.001
			$R^2 = 0.214$			$R^2 = 0.284$
Models evaluating DCR and an interaction with EGFR TKIs use No. 2†						
DCR (%)	0.0501	0.0119	<0.001	0.0559	0.0132	<0.001
DCR_EGFR interaction	—	—	—	-0.0226	0.0466	0.629
EGFR TKI	—	—	—	1.3146	2.0593	0.526
_cons	4.4323	0.6003	<0.001	4.0573	0.7019	<0.001
			$R^2 = 0.19$			$R^2 = 0.204$

\*Coefficients for SD and RR denote increase of MST in months for 1% increase in SD/RR (model 1).

†Coefficients for DCR denote increase of MST in months for 1% increase in DCR (model 1).

SD, stable disease; RR, response rate; DCR, disease control rate.

agents, stabilization of disease without tumor shrinkage may represent a meaningful benefit. This phenomenon has been derived from two randomized phase II studies (Iressa Dose Evaluation in Advanced Lung Cancer [IDEAL]-1 and IDEAL-2).<sup>60,61</sup> In IDEAL-2, the median survival time of patients achieving stable disease was 9.4 months versus 5.2 months for those with progressive disease.<sup>61</sup> Moreover, when survival and symptom improvement were analyzed together, the median survival time for patients achieving stable disease with symptom improvement was 12.8 months versus 4.8 months for those without symptom improvement.

In contrast, the importance of achieving stable disease has been evaluated for cytotoxic agents. Docetaxel significantly improved overall survival compared with best supportive care as second-line therapy despite the overall response rate of only 6%.<sup>5</sup> In this study, 42.7% of patients achieved

stable disease, which suggests that docetaxel also confers clinical benefit by producing stable disease.

In this retrospective review, we investigated the relationship between response rates and survival benefit and between the rates of stable disease and survival benefit in second-line treatment of NSCLC using both cytotoxic agents and EGFR TKIs. The more the rates of response and stable disease increase, the more the improvement of overall survival is obtained in the analysis that combined both cytotoxic agents and EGFR TKIs. However, as shown in Table 3, for both cytotoxic agents and EGFR TKIs, the survival improvement for a 1% increase in response rate is higher than for a 1% increase in stable disease rate. Moreover, for time to progression, only response rate showed a statistically significant association with TTP. These results indicate that it is more important to increase response rates than to achieve



**TABLE 4.** Multiple Regression Models for Predicting TTP by Study Parameters

	Model 1			Model 2		
	Coefficient	SE	p Value	Coefficient	SE	p Value
Models evaluating SD/RR and interactions with EGFR TKIs use No. 1*						
SD (%)	-0.0050	0.0229	0.828	-0.0248	0.0292	0.402
RR (%)	0.0954	0.0265	0.001	0.0963	0.0291	0.002
SD_EGRF_interaction	—	—	—	0.0297	0.0353	0.406
RR_EGFR_interaction	—	—	—	-0.0344	0.0391	0.385
EGFR TKIs	—	—	—	-1.9322	1.3858	0.172
_cons	2.4205	0.9348	0.014	3.5861	1.2925	0.009
			$R^2 = 0.183$			$R^2 = 0.325$
Models evaluating DCR and an interaction with EGFR TKIs use No. 2†						
DCR (%)	0.0281	0.1430	0.057	0.0166	0.0197	0.405
DCR_EGFR_interaction	—	—	—	0.0088	0.0210	0.677
EGFR TKIs	—	—	—	-1.5120	1.3021	0.253
_cons	1.9636	0.8734	0.03	2.8927	1.2334	0.024
			$R^2 = 0.047$			$R^2 = 0.148$

\*Coefficients for SD and RR denote increase of TTP in months for 1% increase in SD/RR (model 1).  
 †Coefficients for DCR denote increase of TTP in months for 1% increase in DCR (model 1).  
 SD, stable disease; RR, response rate; DCR, disease control rate.

stable disease to improve overall survival for both cytotoxic agents and EGFR TKIs in the second-line setting, although increasing stable disease rates is still valuable.

In our analysis, we could not find a significant difference between cytotoxic agents and EGFR TKIs in terms of the relationship between survival and response and stable disease rate, as interaction terms for EGFR TKI treatment were not statistically significant. As a result, one may infer that the effect on survival of increasing response rates and stable disease rates is similar for cytotoxic agents and EGFR TKIs. However, this interpretation requires cautions on two points. First, our review contains many heterogeneous phase II studies with greatly different registered numbers of cases, and many heterogeneous patient characteristics with a greatly different administered number of regimens before these studies. The method of evaluating response is also different. These may possibly lead to a false conclusion. Moreover, the main effect of EGFR TKI was large but not statistically significant, indicating no evidence of a difference between EGFR TKIs and cytotoxic agents in terms of survival. However, there are very few EGFR TKI studies included in this review, and therefore the ability to detect such an effect may be low. Second, evaluating stable disease in clinical trials is very difficult, as patients with stable disease are not a homogeneous population. The Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumors study defined stable disease as the longest diameter of tumor size from a less than 30% decrease to a less than 20% increase.<sup>65</sup> True disease stabilization inhibits tumor growth and metastasis and may be associated with improvement of survival, symptoms, and quality of life. However, it is difficult to distinguish true stable disease from nonstable disease. Therefore, it is crucial to classify a category of stable disease in the future.

## CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, our review indicated that although it is appropriate to adapt disease control rates to assess the effect of agents in the second-line setting, which is a new concept often used by clinical trials for molecular targeted agents, to obtain response seems to be more important than to achieve stable disease when new agents are developed, although achieving stable disease is still valuable. The relationship between survival and response and stable disease appears similar for cytotoxic agents and EGFR TKIs.

## REFERENCES

1. Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer Collaborative Group. Chemotherapy in non-small cell lung cancer: A meta-analysis using updated data on individual patients from 52 randomized clinical trials. *BMJ* 1995;311:899-909.
2. Fossella F, Pereira JR, von Pawel J, et al. Randomized, multinational, phase III study of docetaxel plus platinum combinations versus vinorelbine plus cisplatin for advanced non-small-cell lung cancer: The Tax 326 Study Group. *J Clin Oncol* 2003;21:3016-3024.
3. Kelly K, Crowley J, Bunn PA, et al. Randomized phase III trial of paclitaxel plus carboplatin versus vinorelbine plus cisplatin in the treatment of patients with advanced non-small-cell lung cancer: A Southwest Oncology Group trial. *J Clin Oncol* 2001;19:3210-3218.
4. Schiller JH, Harrington D, Belani CP, et al. Comparison of four chemotherapy regimens for advanced non-small-cell lung cancer. *N Engl J Med* 2002;346:92-98.
5. Shepherd FA, Dancey J, Ramlau R, et al. Prospective randomized trial of docetaxel versus best supportive care in patients with non-small cell lung cancer previously treated with platinum-based chemotherapy. *J Clin Oncol* 2000;18:2095-2103.
6. Fossella FV, DeVore R, Kerr RN, et al. Randomized phase III trial of docetaxel versus vinorelbine or ifosfamide in patients with advanced non-small-cell lung cancer previously treated with platinum-containing chemotherapy regimens. *J Clin Oncol* 2000;18:2354-2362.
7. Hanna N, Shepherd FA, Fossella FV, et al. Randomized phase III trial of pemetrexed versus docetaxel in patients with non-small-cell lung cancer previously treated with chemotherapy. *J Clin Oncol* 2004;22:1589-1597.

8. Fujino S, Enokibori T, Tezuka N, et al. A comparison of epidermal growth factor receptor levels and other prognostic parameters in non-small cell lung cancer. *Eur J Cancer* 1996;32A:2070-2074.
9. Pavelic K, Banjac Z, Pavelic J, et al. Evidence for a role of EGF receptor in the progression of human lung carcinoma. *Anticancer Res* 1993;13:1133-1137.
10. Veale D, Kerr N, Gibson GJ, et al. Characterization of epidermal growth factor receptor in primary human non-small cell lung cancer. *Cancer Res* 1989;49:1313-1317.
11. Sekine I, Takami S, Guang SG, et al. Role of epidermal growth factor receptor overexpression, K-ras point mutation and c-myc amplification in the carcinogenesis of non-small cell lung cancer. *Oncol Rep* 1998;5:351-354.
12. Rusch V, Klimstra D, Linkov I, et al. Aberrant expression of p53 or the epidermal growth factor receptor is frequent in early bronchial neoplasia and coexpression precedes squamous cell carcinoma development. *Cancer Res* 1995;55:1365-1372.
13. Shepherd FA, Pereira J, Ciuleanu TE, et al. A randomized placebo-controlled trial of erlotinib in patients with advanced non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) following failure of 1st line or 2nd line chemotherapy: A National Cancer Institute of Canada Clinical Trials Group (NCIC CTG) trial (Abstract 7022). *Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol* 2004;.
14. Parulekar WR, Eisenhauer EA. Phase I trial design for solid tumor studies of targeted, non-cytotoxic agents: Theory and practice. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2004;96:990-997.
15. Stewart DJ, Tomiak EM, Goss G, et al. Paclitaxel plus hydroxyurea as second line therapy for non-small cell lung cancer. *Lung Cancer* 1996;15:115-123.
16. Georgoulas V, Kourousis C, Kakolyris S, et al. Second-line treatment of advanced non-small cell lung cancer with paclitaxel and gemcitabine: A preliminary report on an active regimen. *Semin Oncol* 1997;24(4 Suppl 12):61-66.
17. Gridelli C, Perrone F, Gallo C, et al. Single-agent gemcitabine as second-line treatment in patients with advanced non small cell lung cancer (NSCLC): A phase II trial. *Anticancer Res* 1999;19:4535-4538.
18. Crino L, Mosconi AM, Scagliotti G, et al. Gemcitabine as second-line treatment for advanced non-small-cell lung cancer: A phase II trial. *J Clin Oncol* 1999;17:2081-2085.
19. Stathopoulos GP, Rigatos S, Malamos NA. Paclitaxel combined with cis-platin as second-line treatment in patients with advanced non-small cell lung cancers refractory to cis-platin. *Oncol Rep* 1999;6:797-800.
20. Perng RP, Shih JF, Chen YM, et al. A phase II study of single-agent docetaxel chemotherapy for non-small cell lung cancer. *Jpn J Clin Oncol* 2000;30:429-434.
21. Mattson K, Bosquee L, Dabouis G, et al. Phase II study of docetaxel in the treatment of patients with advanced non-small cell lung cancer in routine daily practice. *Lung Cancer* 2000;29:205-216.
22. Rosati G, Rossi A, Nicoletta G, et al. Second-line chemotherapy with paclitaxel, cisplatin and gemcitabine in pre-treated sensitive cisplatin-based patients with advanced non-small cell lung cancer. *Anticancer Res* 2000;20:2229-2234.
23. Sculier JP, Lafitte JJ, Berghmans T, et al. A phase II trial testing gemcitabine as second-line chemotherapy for non small cell lung cancer: The European Lung Cancer Working Party. *Lung Cancer* 2000;29:67-73.
24. Gridelli C, Frontini L, Barletta E, et al. Single agent docetaxel plus granulocyte-colony stimulating factor (G-CSF) in previously treated patients with advanced non small cell lung cancer: A phase II study and review of the literature. *Anticancer Res* 2000;20:1077-1084.
25. Hainsworth JD, Burris III HA, Litchy S, et al. Gemcitabine and vinorelbine in the second-line treatment of nonsmall cell lung carcinoma patients: A Minnie Pearl Cancer Research Network phase II trial. *Cancer* 2000;88:1353-1358.
26. Kosmas C, Tsavaris N, Panopoulos C, et al. Gemcitabine and vinorelbine as second-line therapy in non-small-cell lung cancer after prior treatment with taxane+platinum-based regimens. *Eur J Cancer* 2001;37:972-978.
27. Hainsworth JD, Burris III HA, Billings III FT, et al. Weekly docetaxel with either gemcitabine or vinorelbine as second-line treatment in patients with advanced nonsmall cell lung carcinoma: Phase II trials of the Minnie Pearl Cancer Research Network. *Cancer* 2001;92:2391-2398.
28. Agelaki S, Bania H, Kouroussis C, et al. Second-line treatment with vinorelbine and carboplatin in patients with advanced non-small cell lung cancer: A multicenter phase II study. *Lung Cancer* 2001;34(Suppl 4):77-80.
29. Kakolyris S, Kouroussis Ch, Souglakos J, et al. Cisplatin and irinotecan (CPT-11) as second-line treatment in patients with advanced non-small cell lung cancer. *Lung Cancer* 2001;34(Suppl 4):71-76.
30. Huisman C, Biesma B, Postmus PE, et al. Accelerated cisplatin and high-dose epirubicin with G-CSF support in patients with relapsed non-small-cell lung cancer: Feasibility and efficacy. *Br J Cancer* 2001;85:1456-1461.
31. Pectasides D, Kalofonos HP, Samantas E, et al. An out-patient second-line chemotherapy with gemcitabine and vinorelbine in patients with non-small cell lung cancer previously treated with cisplatin-based chemotherapy: A phase II study of the Hellenic co-operative Oncology Group. *Anticancer Res* 2001;21:3005-3010.
32. Lilenbaum RC, Schwartz MA, Seigel L, et al. Phase II trial of weekly docetaxel in second-line therapy for nonsmall cell lung carcinoma. *Cancer* 2001;92:2158-2163.
33. Kosmas C, Tsavaris N, Vadiaka M, et al. Gemcitabine and docetaxel as second-line chemotherapy for patients with nonsmall cell lung carcinoma who fail prior paclitaxel plus platinum-based regimens. *Cancer* 2001;92:2902-2910.
34. Kakolyris S, Papadakis E, Tsiafakis X, et al. Docetaxel in combination with gemcitabine plus rhG-CSF support as second-line treatment in non-small cell lung cancer: A multicenter phase II study. *Lung Cancer* 2001;32:179-187.
35. Spiridonidis CH, Laufman LR, Carman L, et al. Second-line chemotherapy for non-small-cell lung cancer with monthly docetaxel and weekly gemcitabine: A phase II trial. *Ann Oncol* 2001;12:89-94.
36. Juan O, Albert A, Ordonez F, et al. Low-dose weekly paclitaxel as second-line treatment for advanced non-small cell lung cancer: A phase II study. *Jpn J Clin Oncol* 2001;32:449-454.
37. Chen YM, Perng RP, Lin WC, et al. Phase II study of docetaxel and gemcitabine combination chemotherapy in non-small-cell lung cancer patients failing previous chemotherapy. *Am J Clin Oncol* 2002;25:509-512.
38. Gonzalez Cao M, Aramendia JM, Salgado E, et al. Second-line chemotherapy with irinotecan and vinorelbine in stage IIIB and IV non-small-cell lung cancer: A phase II study. *Am J Clin Oncol* 2002;25:480-484.
39. Rinaldi DA, Lormand NA, Brierre JE, et al. A phase II trial of topotecan and gemcitabine in patients with previously treated, advanced nonsmall cell lung carcinoma. *Cancer* 2002;95:1274-1278.
40. Socinski MA, Schell MJ, Bakri K, et al. Second-line, low-dose, weekly paclitaxel in patients with stage IIIB/IV nonsmall cell lung carcinoma who fail first-line chemotherapy with carboplatin plus paclitaxel. *Cancer* 2002;95:1265-1273.
41. Herbst RS, Khuri FR, Lu C, et al. The novel and effective nonplatinum, nontaxane combination of gemcitabine and vinorelbine in advanced nonsmall cell lung carcinoma: Potential for decreased toxicity and combination with biological therapy. *Cancer* 2002;95:340-353.
42. Sculier JP, Berghmans T, Lafitte JJ, et al. European Lung Cancer Working Party: A phase II study testing paclitaxel as second-line single agent treatment for patients with advanced non-small cell lung cancer failing after a first-line chemotherapy. *Lung Cancer* 2002;37:73-77.
43. Thongprasert S, Cheewakriangkrai R, Napapan S. Docetaxel as second-line chemotherapy for advanced non-small cell lung cancer. *J Med Assoc Thai* 2002;85:1296-1300.
44. Han JY, Lee DH, Kim HY, et al. A phase II study of weekly irinotecan and capecitabine in patients with previously treated non-small cell lung cancer. *Clin Cancer Res* 2003;9:5909-5914.
45. Chen YM, Shih JF, Lee CS, et al. Phase II study of docetaxel and ifosfamide combination chemotherapy in non-small-cell lung cancer patients failing previous chemotherapy with or without paclitaxel. *Lung Cancer* 2003;39:209-214.
46. Font A, Sanchez JM, Taron M, et al. Weekly regimen of irinotecan/docetaxel in previously treated non-small cell lung cancer patients and correlation with uridine diphosphate glucuronosyltransferase 1A1 (UGT1A1) polymorphism. *Invest New Drugs* 2003;21:435-443.
47. Chen YM, Lee CS, Lin WC, et al. Phase II study with vinorelbine and cisplatin in advanced non-small cell lung cancer after failure of previous chemotherapy. *J Chin Med Assoc* 2003;66:241-246.
48. Smit EF, Mattson K, von Pawel J, et al. ALIMTA (pemetrexed diso-

- dium) as second-line treatment of non-small-cell lung cancer: A phase II study. *Ann Oncol* 2003;14:455-460.
49. Chen YM, Perng RP, Lee CS, et al. Phase II study of gemcitabine and vinorelbine combination chemotherapy in patients with non-small-cell lung cancer not responding to previous chemotherapy. *Am J Clin Oncol* 2003;26:567-570.
50. Dongiovanni V, Addeo A, Berruti A, et al. A phase II trial of weekly paclitaxel and gemcitabine in non-small cell lung cancer patients previously treated with platinum and vinorelbine. *Anticancer Res* 2004;24:2567-2572.
51. Georgoulas V, Kouroussis C, Agelidou A, et al. Irinotecan plus gemcitabine vs irinotecan for the second-line treatment of patients with advanced non-small-cell lung cancer pretreated with docetaxel and cisplatin: A multicentre, randomised, phase II study. *Br J Cancer* 2004;91:482-488.
52. Park YH, Lee JC, Kim CH, et al. Gemcitabine and vinorelbine as second-line therapy for non-small cell lung cancer after treatment with paclitaxel plus platinum. *Jpn J Clin Oncol* 2004;34:245-249.
53. Serke M, Schoenfeld N, Loddenkemper R. Weekly docetaxel as second-line chemotherapy in advanced non-small cell lung cancer: Phase II trial. *Anticancer Res* 2004;24:1211-1216.
54. Ceresoli GL, Gregorc V, Cordio S, et al. Phase II study of weekly paclitaxel as second-line therapy in patients with advanced non-small cell lung cancer. *Lung Cancer* 2004;44:231-239.
55. Ardizzoia A, Acquati M, Fagnani D, et al. Second line therapy with weekly low-dose docetaxel for pretreated non-small-cell lung carcinoma patients: A multicenter Italian phase II study. *Lung* 2004;182:1-8.
56. Quoix E, Lebeau B, Depierre A, et al. Randomised, multicentre phase II study assessing two doses of docetaxel (75 or 100 mg/m<sup>2</sup>) as second-line monotherapy for non-small-cell lung cancer. *Ann Oncol* 2004;15:38-44.
57. Gridelli C, Maione P, Castaldo V, et al. Gefitinib in elderly and unfit patients affected by advanced non-small-cell lung cancer. *Br J Cancer* 2003;89:1827-1829.
58. Cappuzzo F, Gregorc V, Rossi E, et al. Gefitinib in pretreated non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC): Analysis of efficacy and correlation with HER2 and epidermal growth factor receptor expression in locally advanced or metastatic NSCLC. *J Clin Oncol* 2003;21:2658-2663.
59. Pallis AG, Mavroudis D, Androulakis N, et al. ZD1839, a novel, oral epidermal growth factor receptor-tyrosine kinase inhibitor, as salvage treatment in patients with advanced non-small cell lung cancer: Experience from a single center participating in a compassionate use program. *Lung Cancer* 2003;40:301-307.
60. Fukuoka M, Yano S, Giaccone G, et al. Multi-institutional randomized phase II trial of gefitinib for previously treated patients with advanced non-small-cell lung cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 2003;21:2237-2246.
61. Kris MG, Natale RB, Herbst RS, et al. Efficacy of gefitinib, an inhibitor of the epidermal growth factor receptor tyrosine kinase, in symptomatic patients with non-small cell lung cancer: A randomized trial. *JAMA* 2003;290:2149-2158.
62. Perez-Soler R, Chachoua A, Hammond LA, et al. Determinants of tumor response and survival with erlotinib in patients with non-small-cell lung cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 2004;22:3238-3247.
63. Cappuzzo F, Magrini E, Ceresoli GL, et al. Akt phosphorylation and gefitinib efficacy in patients with advanced non-small-cell lung cancer. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2004;96:1133-1141.
64. Cappuzzo F, Bartolini S, Ceresoli GL, et al. Efficacy and tolerability of gefitinib in pretreated elderly patients with advanced non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC). *Br J Cancer* 2004;90:82-86.
65. Therasse P, Arbuck SG, Eisenhauer EA, et al. New guidelines to evaluate the response to treatment in solid tumors. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2000;92:205-216.

# Expert Opinion

1. Introduction
2. Irinotecan containing regimens as front-line treatment
3. Irinotecan-containing regimens for relapsed or refractory SCLC
4. Irinotecan containing regimen for LD SCLC
5. Expert opinion and conclusion

Oncologic, Endocrine & Metabolic

## Irinotecan in the treatment of small cell lung cancer: a review of patient safety considerations

Masaaki Kawahara

National Hospital Organization Kinki-chuo Chest Medical Center, 1180 Nagasone, Sakai, Osaka, 591-8555, Japan

A water soluble derivative of camptothecin, irinotecan (CPT-11) is effective against small-cell lung cancer (SCLC), as well as non-SCLC and gastrointestinal cancers. This extended review of recently concluded and ongoing studies focuses on irinotecan in the treatment of limited (LD) and extensive (ED) SCLC specifically considering the safety of patients. Irinotecan-induced diarrhoea is pervasive, and can be severe and life-threatening especially in combination with neutropenia. It can have a significant impact on patient quality of life, negatively influencing compliance with therapy and dose-intensity. For LD SCLC, irinotecan can be administered with radiotherapy concurrently or sequentially. In a Phase III study for ED SCLC comparing etoposide and cisplatin (EP) and irinotecan and cisplatin (IP) regimens, severe myelosuppression was more frequent in the EP arm than in the IP arm, and conversely severe or life-threatening diarrhoea was more frequent in the IP arm than in the EP arm. IP resulted in significantly higher response rates and overall survival in Japan, and confirmatory Phase III studies are ongoing. Irinotecan should not be administered to patients with any degree of ongoing diarrhoea above their baseline. Irinotecan can be administered with relative safety for patients with SCLC only through careful patient monitoring, especially regarding diarrhoea and myelosuppression.

**Keywords:** chemotherapy, irinotecan (CPT-11), radiotherapy, small-cell lung cancer (SCLC), toxicity

*Expert Opin. Drug Saf.* (2006) 5(2):303-312

### 1. Introduction

Lung cancer is the leading cause of cancer deaths worldwide, with > 900,000 deaths per year attributed to the disease [1]. About 15 – 20% of lung cancers are small-cell lung cancer (SCLC), although the frequency has been decreasing relative to other lung cancer over the last two decades [2]. SCLC is considered distinct from other non-small cell lung cancers (NSCLC) because of its clinical and biological characteristics [3]. The clinical characteristics of SCLC tend to be aggressive behaviour with rapid growth, early spread to distant sites, but more sensitive to chemotherapy and radiation. SCLC is usually staged as either limited disease (LD), in which the tumour is confined to the hemithorax of origin, the mediastinum, or the supraclavicular lymph nodes, or extensive disease (ED), in which tumours have spread beyond the supraclavicular areas. About 30% of patients with SCLC have LD. Management of most cases of LD SCLC involves combination chemotherapy, usually with a platinum-containing regimen, and thoracic radiation therapy (TRT). If a complete response is obtained, the patient may be offered prophylactic cranial irradiation. The median survival time (MST) of LD SCLC is 16 – 24 months with current forms of treatment, such as chemoradiotherapy with or without surgery. ED SCLC patients are treated with combination

Ashley Publications  
www.ashley-pub.com

