original article

Table 4. Second-line treatment

The second section of the second seco	Cisplatin + irinot	tecan Carboplatin + paclitaxel	Cisplatin + gemcital	oine Cisplatin + vinorelbi	ne
Number of patients	145	145	146	145	
Chemotherapy	107 (74%)	87 (60%)	101 (69%)	95 (66%)	P = 0.081
Docetaxel	. 39	25	50	51	
Gefitinib	11	9	18	12	
Paclitaxel	15	. 14	7	11	
Gemcitabine	24	28	17	28	
Vinorelbine	9	12	2	9	
Irinotecan	15	4	3	3	
Thoracic irradiation	8	10	13	10	

than previously reported, and higher 2-year survival rates, 21.4%–31.5%, were observed in the minimum 2-year follow-up in this study. Second-line or later treatments may affect survival, because docetaxel has been established as standard second-line chemotherapy for advanced NSCLC [27, 28]. Gefitinib is also effective as second-line or later chemotherapy for advanced NSCLC, especially in Asian patients, never smokers and patients with adenocarcinoma [29–32].

The toxicity profile of each treatment differed and the toxicity of all four regimens was well tolerated. Overall QoL was similar in the four platinum-based doublets. Only physical domain QoL evaluated by the QoL-ACD was statistically better in TC, GP, and NP than in IP. This finding is presumably attributable to the fact that diarrhea is a statistically less frequent adverse effect of TC, GP, and NP than of IP.

In conclusion, all four platinum-based doublets had similar efficacy for advanced NSCLC but different toxicity profiles. All the four regimens can be used to treat advanced NSCLC patients in clinical practice.

appendix

Institutions of the FACS Cooperative Group: National Hospital Organization (NHO) Hokkaido Cancer Center, Tohoku University Hospital, Yamagata Prefectural Central Hospital, Niigata Cancer Center Hospital, Tochigi Cancer Center, NHO Nishigunma National Hospital, Saitama Cancer Center, National Cancer Center Hospital East, Chiba University Hospital, National Cancer Center Hospital, Tokyo Medical University Hospital, Japanese Foundation for Cancer Research, Kanagawa Cancer Center, Yokohama Municipal Citizen's Hospital, Kanagawa Cardiovascular and Respiratory Center, Aichi Cancer Center Hospital, Prefectural Aichi Hospital, Nagoya City University Hospital, NHO Nagoya Medical Center, Nagoya University Hospital, Gifu Municipal Hospital, NHO Kyoto Medical Center, Osaka City General Hospital, Osaka City University Hospital, Osaka Medical Center for Cancer and Cardiovascular Diseases, NHO Toneyama Hospital, Osaka Prefectural Medical Center for Respiratory and Allergic Diseases, Kinki University School of Medicine, Rinku General Medical Center Izumisano Municipal Hospital, Kobe Central General Hospital, The Hospital of Hyogo College of Medicine, Hyogo Medical Center for Adults, Tokushima University Hospital, Kagawa Prefectural Central Hospital, NHO Shikoku Cancer Center Hospital, Hiroshima University Medical Hospital, NHO Kyushu Cancer Center Hospital, Kyushu University Hospital, National Nagasaki Medical Center, Nagasaki Municipal Hospital, Nagasaki University Hospital of Medicine and Dentistry, Kumamoto Chuo Hospital, Kumamoto Regional Medical Center, NTT West Osaka Hospital.

acknowledgements

This study was supported by Bristol-Myers K.K., Tokyo; Eli Lilly Japan K.K., Kobe; and Kyowa Hakko Kogyo Co. Ltd, Tokyo, Japan.

references

- Cancer Statistics in Japan 2005: The Editorial Board of the Cancer Statistics in Japan. Tokyo, Japan: Foundation for Promotion of Cancer Research 2005.
- 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 randomised clinical trials. BMJ 1995; 311: 899–909.
- Fukuoka M, Niitani H, Suzuki A et al. A phase II study of CPT-11, a new derivative of camptothecin, for previously untreated non-small-cell lung cancer. J Clin Oncol 1992; 10: 16–20.
- Rowinsky EK, Donehower RC. Paclitaxel (taxol). N Engl J Med 1995; 332: 1004–1014.
- 5. Gelmon K. The taxoids: paclitaxel and docetaxel. Lancet 1994; 344: 1267-1272.
- Hertel LW, Border GB, Kroin JS et al. Evaluation of the antitumor activity of gemcitabine (2',2'-difluoro-2'-deoxycytidine). Cancer Res 1990; 50: 4417–4422
- Binet S, Fellous A, Lataste H et al. Biochemical effects of navelbine on tubulin and associated proteins. Semin Oncol 1989; 16 (2 Suppl 4): 9–14.
- Kubota K, Watanabe K, Kunitoh H et al. Phase III randomized trial of docetaxel plus cisplatin versus vindesine plus cisplatin in patients with stage IV non-smallcell lung cancer: the Japanese Taxotere Lung Cancer Study Group. J Clin Oncol 2004; 22: 254–261.
- Le Chevalier T, Brisgand D, Douillard JY et al. Randomized study of vinorelbine and cisplatin versus vindesine and cisplatin versus vinorelbine alone in advanced non-small cell lung cancer: results of a European multicenter trial including 612 patients. J Clin Oncol 1994; 12: 360–367.
- Belani CP, Lee JS, Socinski MA et al. Randomized phase III trial comparing cisplatin-etoposide to carboplatin-paclitaxel in advanced or metastatic non-small cell lung cancer. Ann Oncol 2005; 16: 1069–1075.
- Yana T, Takada M, Origasa H et al. New chemotherapy agent plus platinum for advanced non-small cell lung cancer: a meta-analysis. Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol 2002; 21: 328a.
- Baggstrom MQ, Socinski MA, Hensing TA et al. Third generation chemotherapy regimens (3GR) improve survival over second generation regimens (2GR) in stage IIIB/IV non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC): a meta-analysis of the published literature. Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol 2002; 21: 306a.

original article

- 13. Hotta K, Matsuo K, Ueoka H et al. Addition of platinum compounds to a new agent in patients with advanced non-small-cell lung cancer: a literature based meta-analysis of randomised trials. Ann Oncol 2004; 15: 1782-1789.
- 14. 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.
- 15. 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;
- 16. Scaoliotti GV. De Marinis F. Rinaldi M et al. Phase III randomized trial comparing three platinum-based doublets in advanced non-small-cell lung cancer. J Clin Oncol 2002; 20: 4285-4291.
- 17. 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.
- 18. Negoro S, Masuda N, Takada Y et al. Randomised phase III trial of irinotecan combined with cisplatin for advanced non-small-cell lung cancer. Br J Cancer 2003: 88: 335-341
- 19. Niho S, Nagao K, Nishiwaki Y et al. Randomized multicenter phase III trial of irinotecan (CPT-11) and cisplatin (CDDP) versus CDDP and vindesine (VDS) in patients with advanced non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC). Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol 1999: 18: 492a.
- 20. Fukuoka M. Nagao K. Ohashi Y et al. Impact of irinotecan (CPT-11) and cisplatin (CDDP) on survival in previously untreated metastatic non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC). Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol 2000; 19: 495a.
- 21. 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.
- 22. Cella DF, Bonomi AE, Lloyd SR et al. Reliability and validity of the Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy-Lung (FACT-L) quality of life instrument. Lung Cancer 1995: 12: 199-220.
- 23. Kurihara M, Shimizu H, Tsuboi K et al. Development of quality of life questionnaire in Japan; quality of life assessment of cancer natients receiving chemotherapy, Psychooncology 1999; 8: 355-363.

- 24. Matsumoto T, Ohashi Y, Morita S et al. The quality of life questionnaire for cancer patients treated with anticancer drugs (QOL-ACD): validity and reliability in Japanese patients with advanced non-small-cell lung cancer. Qual Life Res 2002: 11: 483-493.
- 25. Pfister DG, Johnson DH, Azzoli CG et al. American Society of Clinical Oncology treatment of unresectable non-small-cell lung cancer guideline; update 2003. J Clin Oncol 2004; 22: 330-353.
- 26. Gandara DR, Ohe Y, Kubota K et al. Japan-SWOG common arm analysis of paclitaxel/carboplation in advanced stage non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC): a model for prospective comparison of cooperative group trials. Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol 2004: 22: 618a.
- 27. 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:
- 28. 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. The TAX 320 Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer Study Group. J Clin Oncol 2000; 18: 2354-2362.
- 29. 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
- 30. 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 (The IDEAL 1 Trial). Clin Oncol 2003; 21: 2237-2246.
- 31. Takano T, Ohe Y, Kusumoto M et al. Risk factors for interstitial lung disease and predictive factors for tumor response in patients with advanced nonsmall cell lung cancer treated with gefitinib. Lung Cancer 2004; 45:
- 32. Takano T, Ohe Y, Sakamoto H et al. Epidermal growth factor receptor gene mutations and increased copy numbers predict gefitinib sensitivity in patients with recurrent non-small-cell lung cancer. J Clin Oncol 2005; 23: 6829-6837.

Clinical Trials for Lung Cancer in Progress in Japan

Ikuo Sekine, Yuichiro Ohe, Nagahiro Saijo and Tomohide Tamura



Contents

39.1	Introduction
39.2	Drug Approval System in Japan 463
39.3	Recent Clinical Trials for Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer
39.4	Recent Clinical Trials for Small-Cell Lung Cancer . 465
39.5	New Agents for the Treatment of Lung Cancer 466

39.1 Introduction

Lung cancer has been the leading cause of death from cancer in many countries, despite extensive basic research and clinical trials. About 80% of patients with lung cancer have already developed distant metastases, either by the time of the initial diagnosis or by the time recurrence is detected after surgery for local disease. Systemic chemotherapy is the mainstay of lung cancer treatment, although its efficacy is still limited. Therefore, new chemotherapeutic agents continue to be developed against lung cancer [1].

39.2 Drug Approval System in Japan

Since 1955, 23 anticancer drugs have been approved for use against lung cancer in Japan. Of these, 9 were discovered and developed in Japan, including mitomycin, bleomycin, and the topoisomerase I inhibitor irinotecan, and are routinely used all over the world. The Japanese Pharmaceutical Affairs Law (PAL) was enacted in 1948, and was first amended in 1960 to provide for regulations to ensure the maintenance of the quality, efficacy, and safety of drugs and medical devices, and to promote research and development of these medical and pharmaceutical products. Good Clinical Practice was enforced by the Bureau Notification of the Ministry of Health and Welfare of Japan in 1989. In 1996, PAL and

its related laws were amended to strengthen Good Clinical Practice, Good Laboratory Practice, Good Postmarketing Surveillance Practice, and standard compliance reviews, conforming to the International Conference on Harmonization of Technical Requirements for Registration of Pharmaceuticals for Human Use [2]. In contrast to the laws prevailing in the US and EU, in Japan, marketing approval for anticancer agents can be granted based on reports of the antitumor effects of the new agents in phase II studies. Two independently conducted comparative phase III trials with survival as the endpoint are required after the approval, with at least one of these conducted as a post-marketing sponsored (PMS) trial in Japan [2].

39.3 Recent Clinical Trials for Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer

Several randomized phase III trials for previously untreated advanced non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) have been conducted by Japanese pharmaceutical companies. A three-arm trial of cisplatin+vindesine versus cisplatin+irinotecan versus irinotecan alone conducted on 398 patients with stage IIIB or IV NSCLC between 1995 and 1998 showed that the overall response rate (31%, 43%, and 21%, respectively, p < 0.001), but not the overall survival rate (median survival time [MST], 47, 52, and 47 weeks, respectively, p = 0.099), was significantly better in the cisplatin+irinotecan arm than in the other two arms [3]. A second trial conducted on 210 patients with advanced NSCLC, comparing cisplatin +vindesine versus cisplatin+irinotecan, showed no statistically significant difference in the overall response rate (22% versus 29%) or survival rate (MST, 50 versus 45 weeks) between the two arms [4]. A randomized phase III trial of docetaxel+cisplatin versus vindesine+ cisplatin was conducted between 1998 and 2000 on 305 patients with stage IV NSCLC. Both the overall response rate and the survival rate were significantly superior in the docetaxel+cisplatin arm as compared to the vindesine+cisplatin arm (response rate, 37% versus 21%, respectively, p < 0.01; MST, 11.3 versus 9.6 months, respectively, p = 0.014) [5, 6]. After the commercial use of paclitaxel, gemcitabine, and vinorelbine was approved for NSCLC in 1999, a phase III study was conducted to confirm the efficacy and safety of these agents, to fulfill the requirements of PAL. A four-arm randomized phase III study of these agents for NSCLC was conducted in cooperation with three pharmaceutical companies. The four arms consisted of cisplatin (80 mg/m² on day 1) + irinotecan (60 mg/m² on days 1, 8, and 15) administered every 4 weeks as the reference arm; carboplatin (area under the curve [AUC] 6 on day 1)+paclitaxel (200 mg/m² on day 1) administered every 3 weeks; cisplatin (80 mg/m² on day 1) + gemcitabine (1,000 mg/m² on days 1 and 8) every 3 weeks; and cisplatin (80 mg/ m² on day 1)+vinorelbine (25 mg/m² on days 1 and 8) administered every 3 weeks. Of a total of 602 patients registered from 44 institutes in Japan between 2000 and 2002, 581 were assessable for response, toxicity, and survival. The overall response rates in the four arms were 31%, 32%, 30%, and 33%, respectively, and the MST was 14.2, 12.3, 14.8, and 11.4 months, respectively. Non-inferiority of the three experimental arms as compared to the reference arm was not demonstrated in this study [5, 6].

Docetaxel monotherapy is the standard second-line treatment for NSCLC patients, based upon the demonstration of improved survival and quality of life in phase III studies [7, 8]. The Japan Clinical Oncology Group (JCOG) conducted a phase III trial (JCOG0104) to evaluate the efficacy and toxicity of gemcitabine combined with docetaxel in NSCLC patients with a history of prior platinum-based chemotherapy. The chemotherapeutic regimens compared in this study consisted of docetaxel alone (60 mg/m² on day 1) or doce-

taxel (60 mg/m 2 on day 8) + gemcitabine (800 mg/m 2 on days 1 and 8), repeated every 21 days until disease progression, with a planned sample size of 142 patients per arm. Between January 2002 and April 2003, 65 patients were accrued for each arm. However, this trial was terminated early because of the unexpectedly high incidence of interstitial lung disease (ILD) and three treatment-related (all due to ILD) deaths (5%) in the docetaxel + gemcitabine arm. While the incidence of grade 3-4 neutropenia and febrile neutropenia was similar in both the arms, the incidence of dyspnea (23% versus 14%) and ILD (21% versus 2%) was higher in the docetaxel + gemcitabine arm [9]. A randomized, double-blind, parallel-group, international, multicenter trial of gefitinib, an epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) tyrosine kinase inhibitor, was conducted in patients with advanced NSCLC with recurrent or refractory disease following therapy with one or two chemotherapeutic regimens, at institutes in Europe, Australia, South Africa, and Japan. Patients were randomized to receive either 250 or 500 mg/day gefitinib using blinded tablets, until disease progression, intolerable toxicity, or withdrawal of consent. Between October 2000 and January 2001, 102 patients were enrolled from 19 institutes in Japan. The objective tumor response rate in the Japanese patients was 28% in both the 250and the 500-mg/day arms. Thus, there was no difference in the objective response rate depending on the dose of gefitinib, although the incidence of toxicities, including rash, diarrhea, liver damage, and nausea, was relatively lower in the 250-mg/day arm [10]. A randomized, open-labeled phase III trial of second-line chemotherapy with docetaxel versus gefitinib in patients with advanced NSCLC previously treated with platinum-based chemotherapy is in progress in Japan as a PMS trial,

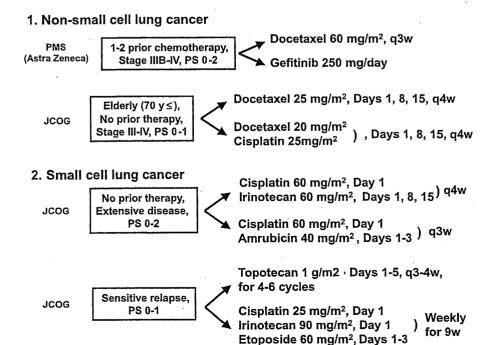


Fig. 39.1. Phase III trials in progress or being planned in Japan. PMS Post-marketing sponsored, JCOG Japan Clinical Oncology Group

since December 2003. The projected accrual for this study is a total of 484 patients (242 patients per treatment arm) (Fig. 39.1).

Monotherapy with a third-generation cytotoxic agent is widely accepted for the treatment of advanced NSCLC in the elderly, after demonstration of the survival benefit of vinorelbine over standard supportive care alone, without deterioration of the quality of life, in a phase III trial [11]. The West Japan Thoracic Oncology Group (WJTOG) is conducting a phase III trial (WJTOG 9904) of docetaxel (60 mg/m² on day 1) versus vinorelbine (25 mg/m² on days 1 and 8) administered every 3 weeks for advanced NSCLC in patients aged 70 years or older with no prior history of chemotherapy, a performance status of 0-2, and adequate organ function, as indicated by routine blood counts and blood chemistry, and electrocardiography. The projected sample size for this trial is 90 patients for each arm, and patient accrual for this study has recently been completed.

There are limited data to support the use of platinum-based combination chemotherapeutic regimens in patients over 70 years of age, although platinum doublet is standard treatment for younger patients. A retrospective analysis of 401 patients 65 years of age or older in a large phase III trial of docetaxel+cisplatin versus docetaxel+carboplatin versus vinorelbine+cisplatin revealed no significant differences in the therapeutic outcomes based on the age, although a moderately higher incidence of grade 3-4 asthenia, infection, pulmonary toxicities, diarrhea, and sensory neurotoxicity was noted in the elderly patients [12]. A phase I and a phase II study showed that a combination of cisplatin and docetaxel administered as three consecutive weekly infusions was safe and effective in elderly patients with advanced NSCLC [13, 14]. Based on these data, a JCOG phase III trial of weekly docetaxel versus weekly docetaxel+cisplatin (JCOG0207) is under way (Fig. 39.1). The primary endpoint of this study is the overall survival of the patients treated with these regimens. The secondary endpoints are the response rate, progression-free survival, toxicity, and symptom score. Eligibility includes stage IV or IIIB disease, no history of previous chemotherapy, performance status of 0 or 1, age 70 years or older, and adequate organ functions. The chemotherapeutic regimens consisted of docetaxel (25 mg/m²) administered on days 1, 8, and 15 every 4 weeks, or docetaxel (20 mg/m²) + cisplatin (25 mg/m²) administered on days 1, 8, and 15 every 4 weeks. The projected accrual for this study is a total of 230 patients (115 patients per treatment arm).

39.4 Recent Clinical Trials for Small-Cell Lung Cancer

The JCOG conducted a phase III study of cisplatin (60 mg/m² on day 1)+irinotecan (60 mg/m² on days 1, 8, and 15) administered every 4 weeks versus cisplatin $(80 \text{ mg/m}^2 \text{ on day } 1) + \text{etoposide } (100 \text{ mg/m}^2 \text{ on days } 1)$ 2, and 3) administered every 3 weeks for untreated extensive small-cell lung cancer (E-SCLC) (JCOG9511). The projected sample size for this study was 230 patients (115 patients per treatment arm), however, enrollment was stopped early because of a statistically significant difference in the survival observed between the two treatment arms on interim analysis. In this interim analysis, 154 patients were randomized to the two treatments, 77 into each arm. The overall response rate and survival were significantly better in the cisplatin + irinotecan group (response rate, 84% versus 68%, respectively, p = 0.02; MST, 12.8 versus 9.4 months, respectively, p = 0.002) [15]. Based on these observations, the combination of cisplatin+irinotecan is used as the standard chemotherapeutic regimen for E-SCLC in Japan. A three-drug combination of cisplatin, irinotecan, and etoposide was investigated. The maximum tolerated dose of each of the three drugs was determined in phase I studies using two different schedules: a weekly (JCOG9507) and a 4-weekly (JCOG9512) schedule. The antitumor effects of these regimens were evaluated in a randomized phase II study (JCOG9902DI) [16]. The weekly arm consisted of cisplatin (25 mg/m² on day 1 at weeks 1-9), irinotecan (90 mg/m² on day 1 at weeks 1, 3, 5, 7, and 9), and etoposide (60 mg/m² on days 1-3 at weeks 2, 4, 6, and 8), administered with granulocyte colony-stimulating factor (G-CSF) support. The 4-weekly arm consisted of cisplatin (60 mg/m² on day 1), irinotecan (60 mg/m² on days 1, 8, and 15), and etoposide (50 mg/m² on days 1-3) administered with G-CSF support. From August 1999 to October 2000, 30 patients were entered in each of the two treatment arms of this study. Although 70% of all the patients received full cycles of chemotherapy in both arms, treatment delay in the weekly arm and skipping of irinotecan on day 15 in the 4-weekly arm were common because of toxicity. The complete and partial response rates and the MST were 7%, 77%, and 8.9 months, respectively, in the weekly arm, and 17%, 60%, and 12.9 months, respectively, in the 4-weekly arm. Since no overall survival benefit was obtained with the weekly schedule, and the dose of irinotecan on day 15 frequently needed to be skipped in the 4-weekly schedule, a 3-week schedule with irinotecan administered only on days 1 and 8 every 3 weeks might be appropriate for subsequent trials. A randomized phase II trial of cisplatin (60 mg/m² on day 1)+irinotecan (60 mg/m² on days 1 and 8) versus the same threedrug combination of cisplatin and irinotecan combined with etoposide (50 mg/m² on days 1-3) administered

every 3 weeks with G-CSF support in patients with previously untreated E-SCLC is in progress.

Amrubicin (SM-5887) is an entirely synthetic anthracycline that has been shown to possess topoisomerase II inhibitory activity. It has been shown to exert more potent antitumor activity than doxorubicin against various experimental tumors and human tumor xenografts in mice, without any cardiotoxicity. A phase II study of single-agent amrubicin using a schedule of 45 mg/m² administered on days 1-3 every 3 weeks yielded an overall response rate of 76%, a complete response rate of 9%, and an MST of 11.7 months in 33 previously untreated E-SCLC patients [17]. The recommended dose of amrubicin when combined with cisplatin was determined to be 40 mg/m² on days 1-3 every 3 weeks, and the response rate and MST for E-SCLC patients receiving this combination were 88% and 13.6 months, respectively [18]. The next JCOG phase III trial for this patient population should be of a combination of cisplatin + amrubicin versus cisplatin + irinotecan (Fig. 39.1).

Despite a high response rate to chemotherapy, the majority of SCLC patients eventually develop recurrent disease. At the time of recurrence, the tumor is broadly resistant to second-line chemotherapy and death occurs within a few to several months [19]. Thus, there is need for further development of effective salvage chemotherapy. We conducted a phase II study of cisplatin (25 mg/ m²) administered weekly for 9 weeks, etoposide (60 mg/m²) administered for 3 days on weeks 1, 3, 5, 7, and 9, and irinotecan (90 mg/m²) administered on weeks 2, 4, 6, and 8, with G-CSF support, in patients with sensitive relapsed SCLC [20]. Since the drug dose and treatment schedule can be easily modified according to the patient condition in the weekly regimen, it is considered that this regimen may be the most suitable for relapsed SCLC patients, who usually present with severe hematological toxicities during salvage chemotherapy because of poor bone marrow reserve. In a total of 40 patients registered, the overall response rate was 78% with 5 complete responses and 26 partial responses, and the MST was 11.8 months. Grade 3-4 neutropenia and thrombocytopenia were observed in 73% and 33% of the patients, respectively, and the non-hematological toxicities were mild and transient in all the patients. The JCOG is planning a phase III study to compare the efficacy of this regimen with that of topotecan monotherapy in sensitive relapsed SCLC patients (Fig. 39.1).

At diagnosis, 25-40% of patients with SCLC are 70 years old or older, and this percentage is expected to increase with the growing population of geriatric patients. Carboplatin is especially useful for the elderly because only minimum hydration of the patients is required, its non-hematological toxicity is mild, and the dose can be adjusted according to the patient's creatinine clearance [21]. The JCOG evaluated the toxicity and efficacy of this drug in a phase II study (JCOG9409), and observed grade 4 neutropenia and

thrombocytopenia in 44% and 12% of the patients, respectively, and complete response and partial response in 6% and 69% of the patients, respectively [22]. We started a large phase III trial in 1998, to compare the clinical efficacy of etoposide (80 mg/m² on days 1-3) + carboplatin (AUC=5) versus etoposide (same dose) + cisplatin (25 mg/m² on days 1-3) in elderly patients with SCLC (JCOG9702). The sample size was 220 patients (110 patients for each arm), and registration was completed in February 2004.

39.5 New Agents for the Treatment of Lung Cancer

The development of oral preparations of 5-fluorouracil (5-FU) began in Japan in 1971, based on the finding that 5-FU acts in a time-dependent manner and on the possibility of treating patients on an outpatient basis, without deterioration of the quality of life, when drugs can be administered orally. S-1 (Taiho Pharmaceutical) is a novel oral fluoropyrimidine derivative consisting of tegafur, a prodrug of 5-FU, and two modulators, 5chloro-2, 4-dihydroxypyridine (CDHP) and potassium oxonate (Oxo), in a molar ratio of 1:0.4:1 [23]. CDHP enhances the serum 5-FU concentrations by competitive inhibition of dihydropyrimidine dehydrogenase, an enzyme responsible for 5-FU catabolism. Oxo reduces 5-FU-induced diarrhea by inhibiting orotate phosphoribosyltransferase, a phosphoenzyme for 5-FU in gastrointestinal tissue. In a phase I trial, the maximum tolerated dose of S-1 was 75-100 mg/body, and the dose-limiting toxicity was myelosuppression. In a phase II trial of S-1 administered orally at approximately 40 mg/m² twice a day for 28 days followed by a 2-week rest period in 59 advanced NSCLC patients without prior history of chemotherapy, the response rate was 22% and the MST was 10.2 months, and the incidence of toxicity was relatively low, including grade 3-4 neutropenia in 7%, thrombocytopenia in 2%, diarrhea in 9%, and stomatitis in 2% of the patients [24]. A combination of S-1 and cisplatin was evaluated in a phase II trial for locally advanced and metastatic NSCLC, in which S-1 was administered orally (40 mg/m², twice daily) for 21 consecutive days and cisplatin was administered intravenously (60 mg/m² on day 8), and this schedule was repeated every 5 weeks. An overall response rate of 47% and MST of 11 months were obtained, with a mild toxicity profile, including grade 3-4 neutropenia in 29%, grade 3 anorexia in 13%, vomiting in 7%, and diarrhea in 7% of the patients [25]. This drug was approved for use in cases of advanced NSCLC by the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare of Japan in December 2004, on condition that a phase III trial of S-1 combined with platinum be conducted for advanced NSCLC patients with a reference arm of the standard regimen for this disease.

Several antifolates have been evaluated for the treatment of NSCLC, but none has as yet gained recognition as a useful drug in standard clinical practice. Pemetrexed (LY231514; Eli Lilly Japan) is a novel antifolate with multiple intracellular targets, including thymidylate synthase, dihydrofolate reductase, and glycinamide ribonucleotide formyl transferase, all key folate enzymes involved in the de novo synthesis of purines and pyrimidines [26]. The recommended dose of pemetrexed from early phase I trials is 600 mg/m² administered every 3 weeks, and the dose-limiting toxicity was myelosuppression [27]. Phase II studies conducted with this drug at the dose of 500 mg/m² yielded response rates of 15-23% in untreated patients and 9% in previously treated patients with advanced NSCLC [28, 29]. A phase III trial of pemetrexed versus docetaxel as a second-line chemotherapy for NSCLC showed that this drug had the same antitumor activity as docetaxel, but with less toxicity [30]. Because folic acid and vitamin B₁₂ supplementation was found to decrease the toxicity of this agent [31], a Japanese phase I trial of the drug was conducted with such vitamin supplementation [32]. In a total of 31 patients (19 with NSCLC, 7 with malignant pleural mesothelioma, 2 with thymoma, 1 with rectal cancer, and 2 others), grade 3 neutropenia was observed in 4 patients, elevated liver transaminase levels in 2 patients, and skin rash in 1 patient, and the recommended dose of pemetrexed was determined to be 1,000 mg/m² every 3 weeks. The pharmacokinetic profile of pemetrexed with vitamin supplementation in Japanese patients was essentially similar to that in western patients, with or without vitamin supplementation. In a total of 20 patients who were evaluable for antitumor activity, a partial response was observed in 4 of the 13 patients with NSCLC, and 1 of 2 patients with thymoma. A phase II trial of this drug in previously treated cases of NSCLC is under way in Japan.

Erlotinib (Chugai Pharmaceutical) is another selective inhibitor of EGFR tyrosine kinase sharing a common chemical backbone with gefitinib. Erlotinib was consistently twice as potent as gefitinib in preclinical studies, from cell-free systems to in vivo toxicity and efficacy studies [33]. At the dose of 150 mg, the recommended dose for phase II trials, the plasma AUC of erlotinib was higher by one order of magnitude than that of gefitinib administered at the dose of 250 mg/day [33]. The response rate of erlotinib in phase II trials in the USA was 12% in patients with NSCLC and 26% in patients with bronchoalveolar carcinoma. Phase III trials of standard platinum-based doublet with erlotinib versus placebo in patients with stage IIIB or IV NSCLC (TALENT and TRIBUTE) failed to show any survival benefit of erlotinib over placebo in a whole patient population [34]. A Japanese phase I trial of erlotinib was conducted in 11 patients with NSCLC, 3 patients with colon cancer, and 1 patient with head and neck cancer, using a dose in the range 50-150 mg/day [35]. The toxicity profile was mild, with grade 1–2 skin rash in 87%, grade 1 diarrhea in 53%, and grade 1–2 elevation of liver transaminases in 40% of patients, except for 1 patient who developed fatal ILD following treatment with 100 mg/day erfotinib. The $C_{\rm max}$ increased in a dose-related manner, but there was no clear trend in the AUC. A partial response was observed in 4 (36%) of the 11 NSCLC patients. A phase II trial in previously treated patients with NSCLC is in progress.

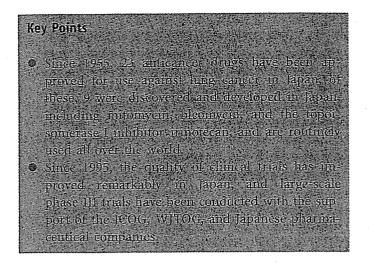
Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) is a potent and specific mitogen for endothelial cells that activates the angiogenic switch in vivo through binding to two distinct receptors on endothelial cells: Flt-1 (VEGFR-1) and Flk-1/KDR receptor (VEGFR-2). Enhanced expression of VEGF is generally correlated with increased neovascularization within the tumor [36]. ZD6474 (AstraZeneca) is an orally bioavailable, smallmolecule VEGFR-2 tyrosine kinase inhibitor that also possesses activity against the EGFR tyrosine kinase [37]. Oral administration of ZD6474 to athymic mice bearing various established human tumor xenografts produced a dose-dependent regression of the tumors in all the cases [37]. In addition, ZD6474 inhibited the growth of tumors resistant to EGFR inhibitors [38]. A phase I trial of ZD6474 in 18 Japanese patients with solid tumors refractory to standard therapy showed that ZD6474 was well tolerated when administered at the dose of 100-300 mg/day, with common toxicity, including skin rash in 14, asymptomatic QTc prolongation in 11, diarrhea in 10, and hypertension in 7 patients [39]. The C_{max} and AUC of ZD6474 increased linearly with the dose, and the terminal half-life was long, ranging from 72 to 167 h (median 96 h). The dose level of 100-300 mg/day yielded trough concentrations of the nonprotein-bound drug of 0.08-0.31 µmol/l in 10 patients, which was over the IC₅₀ (0.04 μmol/L) of ZD6474 for VEGFR-2. Preliminary suggestion of tumor regression was observed in 4 out of 9 patients with NSCLC. A phase II trial in advanced NSCLC patients with a history of prior chemotherapy is in progress in Japan.

Since 1995, the quality of clinical trials has improved remarkably in Japan, and large-scale phase III trials have been conducted with the support of the JCOG, WJTOG, and Japanese pharmaceutical companies:

- 1. Molecular-target drugs, including gefitinib, erlotinib, and ZD6474, have been evaluated in phase II-III trials of NSCLC in Japan.
- 2. Amrubicin, a new anthracycline, is promising for the treatment of SCLC, and phase III trials are being planned.

Acknowledgements

We thank Ms. Yuko Yabe for her assistance in the preparation of this manuscript.



References

- Sekine I, Saijo N. Novel combination chemotherapy in the treatment of non-small cell lung cancer. Expert Opin Pharmacother 2000; 1:1131.
- Fujiwara Y, Kobayashi K. Oncology drug clinical development and approval in Japan: the role of the pharmaceuticals and medical devices evaluation center (PMDEC). Crit Rev Oncol Hematol 2002; 42:145.
- Negoro S, Masuda N, Takada Y, et al. Randomised phase III trial of irinotecan combined with cisplatin for advanced non-small-cell lung cancer. Br J Cancer 2003; 88:335.
- Niho S, Nagao K, Nishiwaki Y, et al. Randomized multicenter phase III trial of irinotecan (CPT-11) and cisplatin (CDDP) versus CDDP and vindesine (VDS) in patients with advanced non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC). Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol 1999;18:492a.
- Kubota K, Nishiwaki Y, Ohashi Y, et al. The Four-Arm Cooperative Study (FACS) for advanced non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC). Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol 2004; 23:616.
- Kubota K, Watanabe K, Kunitoh H, et al. Phase III randomized trial of docetaxel plus cisplatin versus vindesine plus cisplatin in patients with stage IV non-small-cell lung cancer: the Japanese Taxotere Lung Cancer Study Group. J Clin Oncol 2004; 22:254.
- 7. Dancey J, Shepherd FA, Gralla RJ, Kim YS. Quality of life assessment of second-line docetaxel versus best supportive care in patients with non-small-cell lung cancer previously treated with platinum-based chemotherapy: results of a prospective randomized phase III trial. Lung Cancer 2004; 43:183.
- 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.
- Takeda K, Negoro S, Tamura T, et al. Docetaxel (D) versus docetaxel plus gemcitabine (DG) for second-line treatment of non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC): results of a JCOG randomized trial (JCOG0104). Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol 2004; 23:622.
- 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 (the IDEAL 1 trial) [corrected]. J Clin Oncol 2003; 21:2237.
- ELVIS. Effects of vinorelbine on quality of life and survival of elderly patients with advanced non-small-cell lung cancer. The Elderly Lung Cancer Vinorelbine Italian Study Group. J Natl Cancer Inst 1999; 91:66.

- Fossella F, Belani C. Phase III study (TAX 326) of docetaxel-cisplatin (DC) and docetaxel-carboplatin (DCb) versus vinorelbine-cisplatin (VC) for the first-line treatment of advanced/metastatic non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC): analyses in elderly patients. Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol 2003; 22:629.
- Ohe Y, Niho S, Kakinuma R, et al. Phase I studies of cisplatin and docetaxel administered by three consecutive weekly infusions for advanced non-small cell lung cancer in elderly and non-elderly patients. Jpn J Clin Oncol 2001; 31:100.
- 14. Ohe Y, Niho S, Kakinuma R, et al. A phase II study of cisplatin and docetaxel administered as three consecutive weekly infusions for advanced non-small-cell lung cancer in elderly patients. Ann Oncol 2004; 15:45.
- 15. Noda K, Nishiwaki Y, Kawahara M, et al. Irinotecan plus cisplatin compared with etoposide plus cisplatin for extensive small-cell lung cancer. N Engl J Med 2002; 346:85.
- Sekine I, Nishiwaki Y, Noda K, et al. Randomized phase II study of cisplatin irinotecan and etoposide combinations administered weekly or every 4 weeks for extensive smallcell lung cancer (JCOG9902-DI). Ann Oncol 2003; 14:709.
- 17. Yana T, Negoro S, Takada Y. Phase II study of amrubicin (SM-5887) a 9-amino-anthracycline in previously untreated patients with extensive stage small-cell lung cancer (ES-SCLC): a West Japan Lung Cancer Group trial. Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol 1998; 18:450 a
- Ohe Y, Negoro S, Matsui K, et al. Phase I-II study of amrubicin and cisplatin in previously untreated patients with extensive-stage small-cell lung cancer. Ann Oncol 2005; 16:430.
- Glisson BS. Recurrent small cell lung cancer: update. Semin Oncol 2003; 30:72.
- Goto K, Sekine I, Nishiwaki Y, et al. Multi-institutional phase II trial of irinotecan cisplatin and etoposide for sensitive relapsed small-cell lung cancer. Br J Cancer 2004; 91:659.
- Sekine I, Yamamoto N, Kunitoh H, et al. Treatment of small cell lung cancer in the elderly based on a critical literature review of clinical trials. Cancer Treat Rev 2004; 30:359.
- Okamoto H, Watanabe K, Nishiwaki Y, et al. Phase II study of area under the plasma-concentration-versus-time curve-based carboplatin plus standard-dose intravenous etoposide in elderly patients with small-cell lung cancer. J Clin Oncol 1999; 17:3540.
- 23. Shirasaka T, Nakano K, Takechi T, et al. Antitumor activity of 1 M tegafur-0.4 M 5-chloro-24-dihydroxypyridine-1 M potassium oxonate (S-1) against human colon carcinoma orthotopically implanted into nude rats. Cancer Res 1996; 56:2602.
- 24. 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.
- Ichinose Y, Yoshimori K, Sakai H, et al. S-1 plus cisplatin combination chemotherapy in patients with advanced non-small cell lung cancer: a multi-institutional phase II trial. Clin Cancer Res 2004; 10:7860.
- 26. Shih C, Chen VJ, Gossett LS, et al. LY231514 a pyrro-lo[23-d]pyrimidine-based antifolate that inhibits multiple folate-requiring enzymes. Cancer Res 1997; 57:1116.
- 27. Rinaldi DA. Overview of phase I trials of multitargeted antifolate (MTA LY231514). Semin Oncol 1999; 26:82.
- 28. Rusthoven JJ, Eisenhauer E, Butts C, et al. Multitargeted antifolate LY231514 as first-line chemotherapy for patients with advanced non-small-cell lung cancer: a phase II study. National Cancer Institute of Canada Clinical Trials Group. J Clin Oncol 1999; 17:1194.
- Smit EF, Mattson K, von Pawel J, et al. Alimta (pemetrexed disodium) as second-line treatment of non-small-

- cell lung cancer: a phase II study. Ann Oncol 2003; 14:455
- 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.
- Scagliotti GV, Shin DM, Kindler HL, et al. Phase II study
 of pemetrexed with and without folic acid and vitamin B12 as front-line therapy in malignant pleural mesothelioma. J Clin Oncol 2003; 21:1556.
- Nakagawa K, Kudoh S, Matsui K, et al. A phase I study of pemetrexed supplemented with folic acid (FA) and vitamin B12 (VB12) in Japanese patients with solid tumors. Eur J Cancer 2004; 40(suppl 2):S148.
- Perez-Soler R. The role of erlotinib (Tarceva OSI 774) in the treatment of non-small cell lung cancer. Clin Cancer Res 2004; 10:4238s.
- 34. Fuster LM, Sandler AB. Select clinical trials of erlotinib (OSI-774) in non-small-cell lung cancer with emphasis on phase III outcomes. Clin Lung Cancer 2004; 6(suppl 1): S24.

- 35. Horiike A, Yamada Y, Yamamoto N, Shimoyama T, Murakami H, Fujisake Y, Takayama K, Sakamoto T, Tamura T. A phase I study of erlotinib (TarcevaTM) monotherapy in Japanese patients with non-small cell lung cancer and other solid tumors. Lung Cancer 2003; 41:S251.
- Ferrara N. The role of vascular endothelial growth factor in pathological angiogenesis. Breast Cancer Res Treat 1995; 36:127.
- Wedge SR, Ogilvie DJ, Dukes M, et al. ZD6474 inhibits vascular endothelial growth factor signaling angiogenesis and tumor growth following oral administration. Cancer Res 2002; 62:4645.
- 38. Ciardiello F, Bianco R, Caputo R, et al. Antitumor activity of ZD6474 a vascular endothelial growth factor receptor tyrosine kinase inhibitor in human cancer cells with acquired resistance to antiepidermal growth factor receptor therapy. Clin Cancer Res 2004; 10:784.
- Minami H, Ebi H, Tahara M, et al. A phase I study of an oral VEGF receptor tyrosine kinase inhibitor ZD6474 in Japanese patients with solid tumors. Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol 2003; 22:194.

Treatment of lung damage

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

Ikuo Sekine^{a,*}, Minako Sumi^b, Yoshinori Ito^b, Hiroshi Nokihara^a, Noboru Yamamoto^a, Hideo Kunitoh^a, Yuichiro Ohe^a, Tetsuro Kodama^a, Nagahiro Saijo^a, Tomohide Tamura^a

^aDivision of Internal Medicine and Thoracic Oncology, and ^bDivision of Radiation Oncology, National Cancer Center Hospital, Tokyo, Japan

Abstract

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

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

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

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

© 2006 Elsevier Ireland Ltd. All rights reserved. Radiotherapy and Oncology 80 (2006) 93-97.

Keywords: Radiation pneumonitis; Radiotherapy; Lung cancer; Corticosteroid

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

Use of adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH) and cortisone for radiation pneumonitis in a case was first reported in 1951 [8], and 9 cases of radiation pneumonitis treated with cortisone therapy in the literature were reviewed in

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

Patients and methods

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

0167-8140/\$ - see front matter © 2006 Elsevier Ireland Ltd. All rights reserved. doi:10.1016/j.radonc.2006.06.007

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

Results

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

ation-induced lung injury was noted. Thus, the subject of this study was 385 patients.

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

Table 1
Patient demographics and radiotherapy performance

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

Table 2
Symptoms through clinical courses

Symptom	At the initi	al change in ch	est X-ray		During subsequent clinical course			
	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	P	Group 1ª	Group 2 ^b	Group3 ^b	р
Cough	96 (31)	35 (56)	5 (36)	0.001	85 (28)	38 (59)	5 (36)	<0.001
Sputum	32 (10)	11 (18)	4 (29)	0.049	30 (10)	11 (17)	3 (21)	0.12
Hemosputum	5 (2)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.53	4 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.60
Chest pain	7 (2)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.40	2 (0.6)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.78
Fever						4.4		
None	269 (88)	35 (56)	7 (50)	<0.001	272 (89)	32 (50)	2 (14)	<0.001
37.0-37.9 °C	18 (6)	11 (18)	2 (14)	24 (8)	16 (25)	5 (35)		
38 °C≼	13 (4)	14 (22)	5 (36)	8 (3)	13 (20)	7 (50)		
Not specified	7 (2)	3 (4)	0 (0)	3 (1)	3 (4)	0 (0)		
Dyspnea	43 (14)	14 (22)	6 (43)	0.007	40 (13)	28 (44)	8 (57)	<0.001
Fever or dyspnea	75 (24)	37 (58)	10 (71)	< 0.001	65 (21)	49 (77)	14 (100)	<0.001
Any	150 (49)	51 (81)	13 (93)	< 0.001	118 (38)	60 (94)	14 (100)	<0.001

^a During one month period following the initial change in the chest X-ray.

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

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

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

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

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

Outcome of steroid therapy was evaluated in 76 patients (Fig. 1). Symptomatic relief was obtained and the steroid dose was reduced in 71 (93%) of the 76 patients, while no effect was noted in the remaining five patients, who all died of radiation pneumonitis despite escalated steroid administration. Of the 71 patients, 15 (21%) developed recurrent symptoms at the median daily prednisolone dose of 20 mg

(range, 10-40 mg) within median 33 days (range, 21-42 days) from the start of the steroid therapy, and required steroids to be escalated. Of the 15 patients, nine died of radiation pneumonitis and one died of complication of steroid therapy. A total of 54 (71%) patients were in remission from pneumonitis and steroid therapy was terminated. The remainder 22 patients died during steroid therapy, 14 of radiation pneumonitis, two of infectious complication (bacterial pneumonia in one, and lung aspergillosis in another patient), five of lung cancer progression, and one of hemoptysis. Thus, 16 patients, who accounted for 4.2% of 385 patients receiving 50-70 Gy of thoracic radiotherapy, and who accounted for 21% of 78 patients treated with steroid therapy, died of radiation pneumonitis or complication associated with steroid therapy. Median survival from the start of steroid therapy in these patients was 45 (range, 8-107) days.

Discussion

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

b At the start of steroid therapy.

Table 4
Corticosteroid, dose and duration of steroid therapy

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

study is the first systemic review of these patients both who received corticosteroid therapy and who did not. Comparison between the expert opinions and the results of this study is given below. First, radiation-induced lung injury is severer when a radiographic change appears earlier [5]. In

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

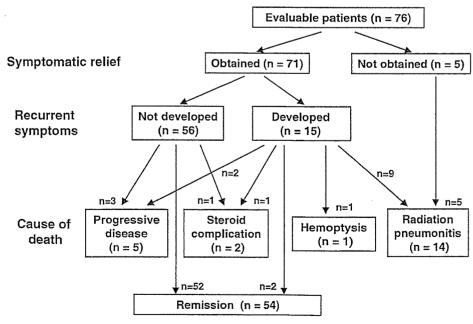


Fig. 1. Outcome of patients who received steroid therapy. Two patients were excluded because of loss of follow-up. Of 76 evaluable patients, 71 (93%) experienced symptomatic relief by steroid therapy.

tient and another in this study. This may be partly due to the diversity in clinical course of radiation pneumonitis, but mostly due to lacking in available recommendation for tapering schedules. In this study, median total duration of steroid therapy was 10 weeks, which may be a tentative guide. A guideline of taper schedule appeared in the latest textbook: the dose should be tapered by 10 mg every two weeks, and be terminated in 12 weeks [10].

Although our clinical practice mostly followed the expert opinions on the management of radiation-induced lung injury as mentioned above, there is little evidence that our steroid use, dose and duration for radiation-induced lung injury were correct. In this study, 21% of patients received steroid therapy and 4% of patients died of radiation pneumonitis among lung cancer patients treated with thoracic radiotherapy at a total dose of 50 Gy or higher. These figures are comparable to the incidence of grade 3 pneumonitis, 3—20%, and that of fatal pneumonitis, 1—4%, in other reports [10].

In conclusion, development of fever and dyspnea, and short interval between the end of radiotherapy and the first radiographic change were associated with fatal radiation-induced lung injury. Prednisolone 30—40 mg daily for two weeks followed by slow taper was selected for the treatment in many patients.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported in part by Grants-in-Aid for Cancer Research from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of Japan. We thank Yuko Yabe and Mika Nagai for preparation of the manuscript.

* Corresponding author. Ikuo Sekine, Division of Internal Medicine and Thoracic Oncology, National Cancer Center Hospital, Tsukiji 5-1-1, Chuo-ku, Tokyo 104-0045, Japan. *E-mail address:* isekine@ncc.go.jp

Received 11 October 2005; received in revised form 19 April 2006; accepted 23 May 2006; Available online 3 July 2006

References

- [1] Groover TA, Christie AC, Merritt EA. Observations on the use of the copper filter in the roentgen treatment of deep-seated malignancies. South Med J 1922;15:440—4.
- [2] Hines LE. Fibrosis of the lung following roentgen-ray treatments for tumor. JAMA 1922;79:720—2.
- [3] Evans WA, Leucutia T. Intrathoracic changes induced by heavy radiation. Am J Roentgenol 1925;13:203—20.
- [4] Gross NJ. Pulmonary effects of radiation therapy. Ann Intern Med 1977;86:81–92.
- [5] Stover D, Kaner R. Pulmonary toxicity. In: DeVita Jr V, Hellman S, Rosenberg S, editors. Cancer: principles and practice of oncology. Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2001. p. 2894–904.
- [6] McDonald S, Rubin P, Phillips TL, Marks LB. Injury to the lung from cancer therapy: clinical syndromes, measurable endpoints, and potential scoring systems. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys 1995;31:1187—203.
- [7] Inoue A, Kunitoh H, Sekine I, et al. Radiation pneumonitis in lung cancer patients: a retrospective study of risk factors and the long-term prognosis. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys 2001;49:649-55.
- [8] Cosgriff SW, Kligerman MM. Use of ACTH and cortisone in the treatment of post-irradiation pulmonary reaction. Radiology 1951;57:536–40.
- [9] Rubin P, Casarett GW. Clinical Radiation Pathology. Philadelphia: WB Saunders Co; 1968.
- [10] Machtay M. Pulmonary complications of anticancer treatment. In: Abeloff M, Armitage JO, Niederhuber JE, Kastan MB, McKenna WG, editors. Clin. Oncol.. Philadelphia: Elsevier Churchill Livingstone; 2004. p. 1237—50.
- [11] Pezner RD, Bertrand M, Cecchi GR, et al. Steroid-withdrawal radiation pneumonitis in cancer patients. Chest 1984:85:816—7.
- [12] Parris TM, Knight JG, Hess CE, Constable WC. Severe radiation pneumonitis precipitated by withdrawal of corticosteroids: a diagnostic and therapeutic dilemma. Am J Roentgenol 1979;132:284–6.
- [13] Castellino RA, Glatstein E, Turbow MM, et al. Latent radiation injury of lungs or heart activated by steroid withdrawal. Ann Intern Med 1974:80:593—9.

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Kiyoshi Mori · Yukari Kamiyama · Tetsuro Kondo Yasuhiko Kano · Tetsuro Kodama

Pilot phase II study of weekly chemotherapy with paclitaxel and carboplatin for refractory or relapsed small-cell lung cancer

Received: 24 May 2005 / Accepted: 15 August 2005 / Published online: 31 January 2006 © Springer-Verlag 2006

Abstract Purpose: The safety and efficacy of weekly chemotherapy with paclitaxel and carboplatin for the treatment of patients with refractory or relapsed smallcell lung cancer (SCLC) were evaluated. Patients and methods: Paclitaxel (100 mg/m²) and carboplatin (with a target area under the concentration versus time curve of 2 mg min/ml using the Calvert formula) were administered to patients with previously- treated SCLC on days 1 and 8 at every 3-4 weeks. Results: A total of 29 patients (pts) [male/female, 26/3 pts; median age 62.7 years (43-74); performance status 0/1/2, 9/10/10 pts] were enrolled between March 2000 and June 2002. The mean number of cycles administered per pt was 3 (1-7). The overall response rate was 69% (95% confidence interval 52-86%), and 83% (15/18) in sensitive pts and 45% (5/ 11) in refractory pts (P < 0.01). The overall median survival time was 29.6 weeks with a 1-year survival rate of 37% [34.1 weeks in sensitive pts and 23.1 weeks in refractory pts (P=0.085), 46.9 weeks in PS 0-1 and 16.3 weeks in PS 2 (P < 0.001)]. The median time to progressive disease was 16.4 weeks [21.7 weeks in sensitive pts and 15.3 weeks in refractory pts (P=0.32)]. Hematologic toxicities observed included grade ≥3 neutropenia in 55%, grade ≥3 anemia in 36%, and grade ≥3 thrombocytopenia in 3%. Non-hematologic toxicities were mild except for grade 3 diarrhea in three pts and grade 3 pneumonitis in one pt. Conclusion: Weekly chemotherapy with paclitaxel and carboplatin was welltolerated and gave a high-response rate in pts with refractory or relapsed small-cell lung cancer.

Carboplatin · Paclitaxel

Introduction

Keywords Small-cell lung cancer · Second line

chemotherapy · Weekly chemotherapy ·

Small-cell lung cancer (SCLC) accounts for 15-20% of the total number of lung cancer patients. It grows more rapidly and shows a higher incidence of remote metastasis than non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC). It is apparently more sensitive to chemotherapy and radiotherapy than NSCLC, but is cured only in a small number of patients and recurs in a great majority of them. Recurrent SCLC is less responsive to chemotherapy, and the median survival time from recurrence to death is 2-3 months [3]. Chemotherapy has been reported to contribute to the improvement of symptoms and prolongation of the survival time in patients with recurrent SCLC [2, 6]. In general, firstline chemotherapy is conducted for sensitive disease (relapse ≥90 days after completion of first-line chemotherapy). For refractory disease (relapse during first-line chemotherapy or less than 90 days after completion of initial chemotherapy), however, salvage chemotherapy is undertaken due to the lack of a standard chemotherapy regimen. However, no standard chemotherapy has been established for recurrent SCLC [17].

In recent years, a number of institutions have undertaken weekly chemotherapy for lung cancer and reported the outcome [11, 14]. Weekly chemotherapy is being reported to be useful for recurrent SCLC as well [1, 4, 7, 10]. It is considered to be more suitable than the standard chemotherapy conducted every 3–4 weeks for recurrent cases with impaired bone marrow due to initial chemotherapy because it uses smaller doses of anticancer drugs in each administration cycle and it is possible to titrate their doses after starting the treatment depending on hemotoxicity and the patients' physical condition.

K. Mori (⊠) · Y. Kamiyama · T. Kondo · Y. Kano · T. Kodama Department of Thoracic Diseases, Tochigi Cancer Center,

4-9-13 Yonan, Utsunomiya, 320-0834 Tochigi, Japan

E-mail: kmori@tcc.pref.tochigi.jp E-mail: ykamiyam@ tcc.pref.tochigi.jp E-mail: tkondo@tcc.pref.tochigi.jp E-mail: ykano@tcc.pref.tochigi.jp E-mail: tkodama@tcc.pref.tochigi.jp

Tel.: +81-28-6585151 Fax: +81-28-6585669 When used alone, paclitaxel was reported to produce good therapeutic results in patients with refractory SCLC with a response rate of 29% and a median survival time of 100 days [15]. When coadministered with carboplatin, paclitaxel showed even better results with a response rate of 73.5% and a median survival time of 31 weeks [5]. This report prompted us to conduct the present study to evaluate the efficacy and safety of weekly chemotherapy using carboplatin and paclitaxel in recurrent SCLC patients.

Patients and methods

Patient selection

All patients with histologically or cytologically confirmed SCLC with documented progression after chemotherapy were eligible for this phase II trial. Patients with either limited- or extensive-stage disease were allowed. The trial was initiated after a rest period of at least 4 weeks following previous chemotherapy (2 weeks in the case of radiotherapy). Patients were required to have recovered completely from prior therapy, with no ongoing toxicity greater than grade 1.

Other eligibility criteria included expected survival of 12 weeks, age ≤ 75 years, Eastern cooperative oncology group performance score of 0–2, measurable lesions, and adequate hematological function. Primary refractory disease was defined as relapse during first-line chemotherapy or less than 90 days after completing initial chemotherapy, and sensitive disease was defined as relapse ≥90 days after completion of first-line chemotherapy.

The ethical committee of the Tochigi cancer center approved the protocols. Written informed consent stating that the patient was aware of the investigational nature of this treatment regimen was obtained in every case.

Treatment

Paclitaxel was administered at a dose of 100 mg/m² intravenously during a 1-h infusion on days land 8 of the treatment cycle. Carboplatin was given at a dose designed to give an area under the curve (AUC) of 2 on days 1 and 8 with the use of the Calvert formula: $2 \times$ (creatinine clearance + 25). Prior to each treatment, patients were given 50 mg diphenhydramine orally, and an H2 blocker intravenously along with 16 mg dexamethasone . Intrvenously administered antiemetics, 3 mg graniston, were used. The length of each chemotherapy cycle was 21 days. Patients who experienced grade 4 leukopenia or neutropenia that lasted for three days or more, or who experienced grade 4 thrombocytopenia, reversible grade 2 neurotoxicity, or liver dysfunction, received reduced doses of both paclitaxel and carboplatin (paclitaxel 80 mg/m², carboplatin AUC1.5)

for the next cycle. If non-hematologic toxicities of grade 3 or more occurred, treatment was stopped. Subsequent courses of chemotherapy were started after 3–4 weeks when the leukocyte count was 3,000/mm³ or more, the neutrophil count 1,500/mm³ or more, the platelet count 75,000/mm³ or more, serum creatinine less than 1.5 mg/dl, GOT and GPT less than twice the upper limit of the normal range, and neurotoxicity was grade 1 or less. If these variables did not return to adequate levels by the first day of the next course of chemotherapy, treatment was withheld until full recovery. If more than 6 weeks passed from the time of the last treatment before these criteria were satisfied, or if more than dose reduction were indicated, the patient was taken off the study at that time, but still included in the analysis.

Evaluation of response and toxicity

Pretreatment evaluation included medical history, physical examination, complete blood count, bone marrow examination, serum biochemical analyses, chest roentgenogram, electrocardiogram, and urinalysis. All patients underwent radionuclide bone scan, bone marrow aspiration or biopsy, magnetic resonance or computerized tomography (CT) of the brain, and CT of thorax and abdomen. Complete blood count, biochemical tests, serum electrolytes, urinalysis, and chest roentgenograms were obtained weekly during this phase II trial.

Response and toxicity were evaluated on the basis of tumor images obtained by CT and other techniques, laboratory data and subjective/objective symptoms before, during, and after administration of the study drugs and during the period from completion of treatment to final analysis. Measurable disease parameters were determined every 4 weeks by various means such as CT. Evaluation was made in compliance with response evaluation criteria in solid tumors (RECIST) guidelines [16] for anti-tumor activity, and with NCI common toxicity criteria Version 2 for safety. Patients were withdrawn from the study if evidence of tumor progression was observed. The Institutional Ethical Review Committee approved the study.

Statistical analyses

Time to progression was measured as a period from the start of this treatment to the identifiable time for progression. Survival time was measured from the start of the present treatment until death or last follow-up. The Kaplan–Meier method was used to calculate survival curves. Survival differences between subgroups were compared using the log-rank test. The chi-square test was used to compare the percentage of patients in each group.

Primary endpoints were response rate and toxicity; secondary endpoints were survival and time to pro-

gression. We chose a 50% response rate as a desirable target level and a 25% response rate as an undesirable target. Our design had a power in excess of 95% and less than 20% type I error, requiring 26 patients. Considering the percentage of probable dropout cases, 29 patients were required.

Results

Patient characteristics

Twenty-nine patients were enrolled in this study from March 2000 to June 2002. All patients were assessed for toxicity, response and survival. Characteristics of the 29 patients are listed in Table 1. There were 11 refractory cases and 18 sensitive cases against the first-line chemotherapy.

Efficacy of treatment

The mean number of cycles administered per patient was three, and ranged from one to seven. There were no cycles of dose reduction. One patient achieved a complete response (CR) and 19 patients showed partial response (PR). Overall response rate was 69% (20/29) [95% confidence interval (CI) 52-86%]. The response rate was 83% (15/18, 95% CI: 66-100%) in sensitive cases and 45% (5/11, 95% CI: 16-75%) in refractory cases, with significant differences between the two groups (P < 0.01). The median time to progressive disease was 16.4 weeks [21.7 weeks in sensitive pts and 15.3 weeks in refractory pts (P=0.32)]. The overall median survival time was 29.6 weeks (Fig. 1) with no sensitive differences between significant (34.1 weeks) and refractory cases (23.1 weeks) (P=0.085). The median survival time differed significantly between PS 0 or 1 patients (46.9 weeks) and PS 2 patients (16.3 weeks) (P < 0.001). The 1-year survival rate was 38% (11/29).

Toxicities

Table 2 lists the toxicities observed during this study. Hematological and blood biochemical reactions included a high incidence of leukopenia and neutropenia, leukopenia, and neutropenia of grade 3 or higher occurred in 55 and 55%, respectively. All neutropenia patients recovered upon treatment with G-CSF. Anemia and thrombocytopenia of grade 3 or higher occurred in 27 and 3%, respectively. Subjective and objective symptoms observed included grade 3 diarrhea in three patients who all showed improvement after administration of anti-cholinergic drugs, and grade 3 pneumonitis in one, who showed rapid recovery following administration of steroids. Other subjective and objective symptoms observed were of grade 2 or less and included

nausea in 34%, vomiting in 10%, alopecia in 59%, neuropathy in 28%, and flushing in 17%. All of these toxicities disappeared or improved by symptomatic treatment. There were no toxic deaths.

Discussion

No standard chemotherapy for recurrent SCLC has been established since only two Phase III clinical studies have been reported to date on chemotherapy for this disease [13, 17]. In contrast, many studies have been undertaken on salvage chemotherapy for recurrent SCLC, with monotherapy with new third-generation anti-cancer agents and platinum-based multi-drug chemotherapy being the mainstay in recent years [1, 4, 5, 8–10, 14, 15]. Some institutions administer anti-cancer drugs on a weekly basis (weekly chemotherapy) [1, 4, 7, 10]. This treatment regimen makes it possible to titrate the dose of anti-cancer drugs depending on adverse reactions and the patients' physical condition after starting the treatment by dividing the dose into some installments.

The results reported with weekly chemotherapy are summarized in Table 3 [1, 4, 7, 10]. While the study by Goto et al. [4] included only sensitive cases, all other studies included 35–64% of refractory cases. The overall response rate ranged between 31% and 88%: 37–91% in sensitive cases and 23–83% in refractory cases. No study, apart from ours, reported any significant difference between sensitive and refractory cases. The overall median survival time was 6.1–11.8 months with no significant differences between sensitive and refractory cases [10]. In our study, the median survival time was 46.9 weeks in PS 0 or 1 patients and 16.3 weeks in PS 2 patients (P < 0.001). Naka et al. [10] reported significant differences between PS 0 or 1 patients (6.9 months) and PS 2 patients (3.8 months) [10]. Hemotoxicity was the main adverse reaction in all studies. Thrombocytopenia was milder in our study than in other studies. Diarrhea also showed a high incidence in regimens including CPT-11.

Groen et al. [5] reported therapeutic results similar to ours with carboplatin and paclitaxel therapy: overall response rate of 73.5% and overall median survival time of 31 weeks. They administered carboplatin and paclitaxel at AUC 7 and 175 mg/m², respectively at an interval of 3 weeks. These doses were 1.7 and 0.88 times that obtained by us. The main adverse reaction was hemotoxicity in both studies, but thrombocytopenia was milder in our study. In the study by Groen et al., 22 and 4 of 34 patients received RBC transfusions and platelet transfusions, respectively [5].

In a phase III trial, which compared topotecan versus cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin and vincristine (CAV) in patients with recurrent SCLC [17], the response rate was 24.3 and 18.3%, respectively; time to progression 13.3 and 12.3 weeks; median survival time 25.0 and 24.7 weeks; 1-year survival rate 14.2 and 14.4%. In our study, the response rate was 69%, time to progression 16.4 weeks,

Table 1 Patient characteristics

Eligible patients	29
Gender Male Female	26 3
Age (years) Median Range	63 43–7
Performance status 0 1 2	9 10 10
Disease extent at relapse Limited disease Extensive disease	7 22
Relapse type Refractory case Sensitive relapse case	11 18
Prior therapy Chemotherapy alone Chemotherapy and irradiation	21 8
Prior chemotherapy regime CBDCA + ETOP CDDP + ETOP(PE) CODE + PE CDDP + CPT-11(PI) CDDP + ETOP + CPT-11 PE + PI	3 11 1 9 3 2
Response to prior chemotherapy Complete response Partial response Stable disease Progressive disease	4 21 3 1

CBDCA carboplatin, ETOP etoposide, CDDP cisplatin, CODE cisplatin/vincristine/doxorubicin/etoposide, CPT-11 irinotecan

median survival time 29.6 weeks, and 1-year survival rate 37%, and our study showed better therapeutic performance in terms of all four parameters although ours was a pilot study and direct comparisons cannot be made.

Table 2 Toxicities (n=29)

Table 2 Toxicides (n=25)							
	Grade (com	Grade ≤ 3 (%)					
	1	2	3	4			
Leukopenia	1	7	14	2	16 (55%)		
Neutropenia	1	5	9	7	16 (55%)		
Anemia	5	8	6	2	8 (27%)		
Thrombocytopenia	8	3	1	0	1 (3%)		
Diarrhea	7	0	3	0	3 (10%)		
Pneumonitis	0	0	1	0	1 (3%)		
Nausea	9	1	0	_			
Vomiting	3	0	0	_			
Fatigue	3	3	0	0			
Alopecia	17	0	****	_			
Neuropathy	8	0	0	0			
Flushing	5		_	_			
Edema	4	0	0	0			
Arthralgia	3	0	0	0			
Rash	3	0	0	0			
Arrythmia	2	0	0	0			

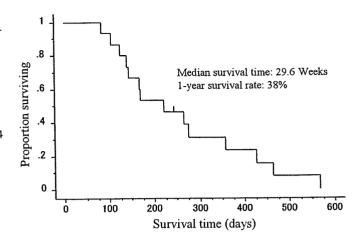


Fig. 1 Kaplan-Meier estimated overall survival curves. Median survival time, 29.6 weeks; 1-year survival rate, 38%

In Japan, cisplatin and irinotecan chemotherapy is the standard therapy for untreated patients in extensive SCLC. Only 8 of 40 patients in the study by Goto et al. [4] and 14 of 29 in our study received irinotecan-based regimens in initial therapy, and no other weekly chemotherapy studies included in Table 3 used such regimens. Carboplatin and paclitaxel combination chemotherapy appears rational in patients with recurrence following initial therapy with cisplatin and irinotecan because the two regimens are not cross resistant.

Conclusion

Weekly chemotherapy with paclitaxel and carboplatin is tolerable and an active regimen for patients with refractory or relapsed SCLC. It is to be recommended as a candidate regimen in planning a phase III clinical study in refractory or relapsed SCLC, and this regimen will ultimately be evaluated in a phase III clinical study.

Table 3 Weekly chemotherapy studies for relapsed small-cell lung cancer

References	Regimen	No. of pts	% of ref pts (%)	RR	RR in sen pts (%)	RR in ref pts (%)	MST (months)
7	CODE	17	35	88	91	83	8.2
10	CPT-11/CBDCA	28	46	31	37	23	6.1
1	CPT-11/CDDP	25	64	80	78	81	7.9
4	CPT-11/CDDP/ETOP	40	0	78	78	_	11.8
Present study		29	38	69	83	45	7.4

pts patients, ref refractory, sen sensitive, RR response rate, MST median survival time, CODE cisplatin/vincristine/doxorubicin/etoposide, CPT-11 irinotecan, ETOP etoposide, CDDP cisplatin, PTX paclitaxel, CBDCA carboplatin

Acknowledgements This work was supported in part by a Grant-in-Aid for Cancer Research from the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare (Tokyo, Japan), and by a second term comprehensive 10-year strategy for cancer control.

References

- Ando M, Kobayashi K, Yoshimura A, Kurimoto F, Seike M, Nara M, et al (2004) Weekly administration of irinotecan (CPT-11) plus cisplatin for refractory or relapsed small cell lung cancer. Lung Cancer 44:121-127
- Einhorn LH, Pennington K, McClean J (1990) Phase II trial of daily oral VP-16 in refractory small cell lung cancer: a Hoosier Oncology Group study. Semin Oncol 17:32
- Glisson BS (2003) Recurrent small cell lung cancer. Update. Semin Oncol 30:72
- Goto K, Sekine I, Nishiwaki Y, Kakinuma R, Kubota K, Matsumoto T, et al (2004) Multi-institutional phase II trial of irinotecan, cisplatin, and etoposide for sensitive relapsed smallcell lung cancer. Br J Cancer 91:659-665
- Groen HJ, Fokkema E, Biesma B, Kwa B, van Putten JW, Postmus PE, et al (1999) Paclitaxel and carboplatin in the treatment of small-cell lung cancer patients resistant to cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin, and etoposide: a non-cross-resistant schedule. J Clin Oncol 17:927-932
- Johnson DH, Greco FA, Strupp J, Hande KR, Hainsworth JD (1990) Prolonged administration of oral etoposide in patients with relapsed or refractory small-cell lung cancer: a phase II trial. J Clin Oncol 8:1613
- Kubota K, Nishiwaki Y, Kakinuma R, Hojo F, Matsumoto T, Ohmatsu H, et al (1997) Dose-intensive weekly chemotherapy for treatment of relapsed small-cell lung cancer. J Clin Oncol 15:292-296
- Masters GA, Declerck L, Blanke C, Sandler A, DeVore R, Miller K, et al (2003) Phase II trial of gemcitabine in refractory or relapsed small-cell lung cancer: eastern cooperative oncology group trial 1597. J Clin Oncol 21:1550-1555

- Masuda N, Fukuoka M, Kusunoki Y, Matsui K, Takifuji N, Kudoh S, et al (1992) CPT-11: a new derivative of camptothecin for the treatment of refractory or relapsed small-cell lung cancer. J Clin Oncol 10:1225-1229
- Naka N, Kawahara M, Okishio S, Hosoe S, Ogawara M, Atagi S, et al (2002) Phase II study of weekly irinotecan and carboplatin for refractory or relapsed small-cell lung cancer. Lung Cancer 37:319-323
- 11. Neubauer M, Schwartz J, Caracandas J, Conkling P, Ilegbodu D, Tuttle T, et al (2004) Results of a phase II study of weekly paclitaxel plus carboplatin in patients with extensive small-cell lung cancer with Eastern cooperative oncology group performance status of 2, or age? 70 years. J Clin Oncol 22:1872–1877
- 12. Noda K, Nishiwaki Y, Kawahara M, Negoro S, Sugiura T, Yokoyama A, et al (2002) Irinotecan plus cisplatin compared with etoposide plus cisplatin for extensive small-cell lung cancer. N Engl J Med 346:85-91
- Schiller JH, Adak S, Cella D, DeVore RF III, Johnson DH (2001) Topotecan versus observation after cisplatin plus etoposide in extensive-stage small-cell lung cancer: E7593-A phase III trial of the Eastern cooperative oncology group. J Clin Oncol 19:2114-2122
- 14. Sekine I, Nishiwaki Y, Kakinuma R, Kubota K, Hojo F, Matsumoto T, et al (2003) Phase I/II trial of weekly cisplatin, etoposide, and irinotecan chemotherapy for metastatic lung cancer. JCOG 9507. Br J Cancer 88:808-813
- Smit EF, Fokkema E, Biesma B, Groen HJ, Snoek W, Postmus PE (1998) A phase II study of paclitaxel in heavily pretreated patients with small-cell lung cancer. Br J Cancer 77:347-351
- Therasse P, Arbuck SG, Eisenhauer EA, Wanders J, Kaplan RS, Rubinstein L, et al (2000) New guidelines to evaluate the response to treatment in solid tumors. J Natl Cancer Inst 92:205-216
- 17. von Pawel J, Schiller JH, Shepherd FA, Fields SZ, Kleisbauer JP, Chrysson NG, et al (1999) Topotecan versus cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin, and vincristine for the treatment of recurrent small-cell lung cancer. J Clin Oncol 17:658

European Journal of Radiology 59 (2006) 60-64



www.elsevier.com/locate/ejrad

CT-guided needle biopsy of lung lesions: A survey of severe complication based on 9783 biopsies in Japan

Noriyuki Tomiyama ^{a,*}, Yoshifumi Yasuhara ^b, Yasuo Nakajima ^c, Shuji Adachi ^d, Yasuaki Arai ^e, Masahiko Kusumoto ^e, Kenji Eguchi ^f, Keiko Kuriyama ^g, Fumikazu Sakai ^h, Masayuki Noguchi ⁱ, Kiyoshi Murata ^j, Sadayuki Murayama ^k, Teruhito Mochizuki ^l, Kiyoshi Mori ^m, Kozo Yamada ⁿ

^a Department of Radiology, Osaka University Graduated School of Medicine, 2-2 Yamadaoka, Suita, Osaka 565-0871, Japan

^b Department of Radiology, National Hospital Organization Ehime National Hospital, Japan

^c Department of Radiology, St. Marianna University School of Medicine, Japan

^d Department of Radiology, Hyogo Medical Center for Adults, Japan

^e Department of Diagnostic Radiology, National Cancer Center, Japan

f Department of Oncology, Tokai University School of Medicine, Japan
E Department of Radiology, Kinki Central Hospital of the Mutual Aid Association of Public School Teachers, Japan

h Department of Radiology, Tokyo Metropolitan Komagome Hospital, Japan

i Department of Pathology, Graduate School of Comprehensive Human Sciences, Institute of Basic Medical Sciences, University of Tsukuba, Japan

j Department of Radiology, Shiga University of Medical Science, Japan

k Faculty of Medicine, University of the Ryukyus, Japan

¹ Department of Radiology, Ehime University School of Medicine, Japan

m Department of Thoracic Oncology, Tochigi Cancer Center, Japan

ⁿ Department of Thoracic Oncology, Kanagawa Cancer Center, Japan

Received 3 November 2005; received in revised form 4 February 2006; accepted 6 February 2006

Abstract

Purpose: The aim of our study was to update the rate of severe complications following CT-guided needle biopsy in Japan via a mailed

Materials and methods: Postal questionnaires regarding CT-guided needle biopsy were sent out to multiple hospitals in Japan. The questions regarded: the total number and duration of CT-guided lung biopsies performed at each hospital, and the complication rates and numbers of pneumothorax, hemothorax, air embolism, tumor seeding, tension pneumothorax and other rare complications. Each severe complication was followed with additional questions.

Results: Data from 9783 biopsies was collected from 124 centers. Pneumothorax was the most common complication, and occurred in 2412 (35%) of 6881 cases. A total of 39 (35%) hospitals reported 74 (0.75%) cases with severe complications. There were six cases (0.061%) with air embolism, six cases (0.061%) with tumor seeding at the site of the biopsy route, 10 cases (0.10%) with tension pneumothorax, six cases (0.061%) with severe pulmonary hemorrhage or hemoptysis, nine cases (0.092%) with hemothorax, and 27 cases (0.26%) with others, including heart arrest, shock, and respiratory arrest. From a total of 62 patients with severe complications, 54 patients (0.55%) recovered without sequela, however one patient (0.01%) recovered with hemiplegia due to cerebral infarction, and the remaining seven patients (0.07%) died. Conclusions: This is the first national study documenting severe complications with respect to CT-guided needle biopsy in Japan. The complication rate in Japan is comparable to internationally published figures. We believe this data will improve both clinicians as well as patients understanding of the risk versus benefit of CT-guided needle biopsy, resulting better decisions.

© 2006 Elsevier Ireland Ltd. All rights reserved.

Keywords: CT-guided needle biopsy; Complication; Lung nodule

^{*} Corresponding author. Tel.: +81 6 6879 3434; fax: +81 6 6879 3439. E-mail address: tomiyama@radiol.med.osaka-u.ac.jp (N. Tomiyama).