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Treatment of lung damage

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

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Abstract

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

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

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

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

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Keywords: Radiation pneumonitis; Radiotherapy; Lung cancer; Corticosteroid

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

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

Patients and methods

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

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

Results

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

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

Table 1
Patient demographics and radiotherapy performance

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

Table 2
Symptoms through clinical courses

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Discussion

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

Table 4
Corticosteroid, dose and duration of steroid therapy

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

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

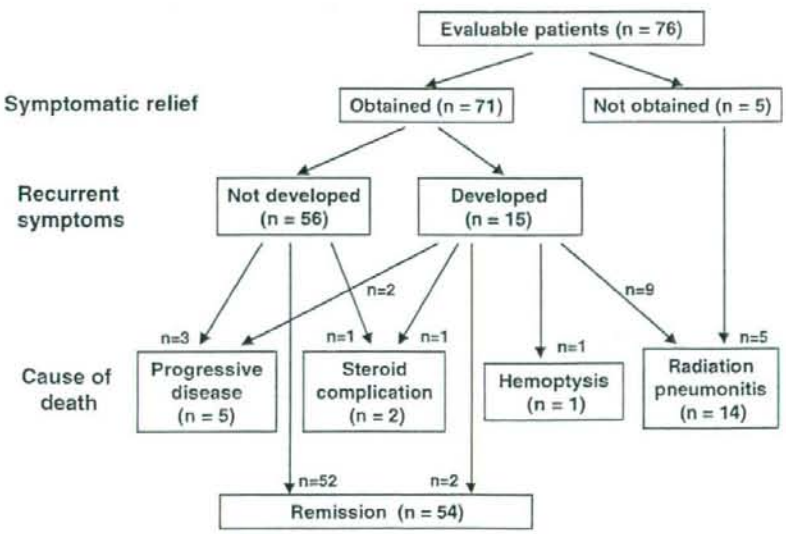

Fig. 1. Outcome of patients who received steroid therapy. Two patients were excluded because of loss of follow-up. Of 76 evaluable patients, 71 (93%) experienced symptomatic relief by steroid therapy.

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.

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ORIGINAL ARTICLE

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

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Abstract *Purpose*: The safety and efficacy of weekly chemotherapy with paclitaxel and carboplatin for the treatment of patients with refractory or relapsed small-cell lung cancer (SCLC) were evaluated. *Patients and methods*: Paclitaxel (100 mg/m^2) 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 well-tolerated and gave a high-response rate in pts with refractory or relapsed small-cell lung cancer.

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Keywords Small-cell lung cancer · Second line chemotherapy · Weekly chemotherapy · Carboplatin · Paclitaxel

Introduction

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, first-line 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 anti-cancer 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.

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 $\leq$ 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 $\geq$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/m^2 intravenously during a 1-h infusion on days 1and 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/m^2, 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/mm^3 or more, the neutrophil count 1,500/mm^3 or more, the platelet count 75,000/mm^3 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 significant differences between sensitive cases (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/m^2, 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	26
Female	3
Age (years)	
Median	63
Range	43–74
Performance status	
0	9
1	10
2	10
Disease extent at relapse	
Limited disease	7
Extensive disease	22
Relapse type	
Refractory case	11
Sensitive relapse case	18
Prior therapy	
Chemotherapy alone	21
Chemotherapy and irradiation	8
Prior chemotherapy regime	
CBDCA + ETOP	3
CDDP + ETOP(PE)	11
CODE + PE	1
CDDP + CPT-11(PI)	9
CDDP + ETOP + CPT-11	3
PE + PI	2
Response to prior chemotherapy	
Complete response	4
Partial response	21
Stable disease	3
Progressive disease	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.

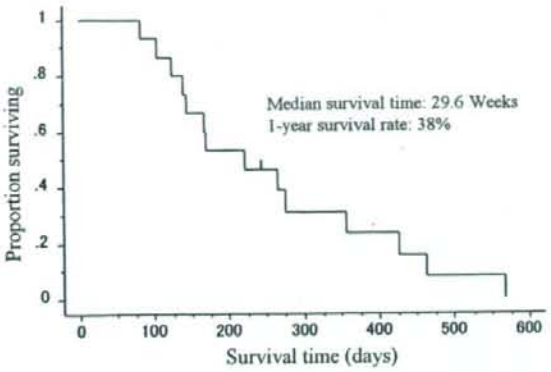

Fig. 1 Kaplan–Meier estimated overall survival curves. Median survival time, 29.6 weeks; 1-year survival rate, 38%

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 2 Toxicities ($n = 29$)

	Grade (common toxicity criteria)				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	

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	CBDCA/PTX	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

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

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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 survey.

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.

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

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1. Introduction

Transthoracic needle biopsy is a common procedure used mainly to elucidate the nature of pulmonary nodules [1,2]. CT has rapidly become the guidance modality of choice for performing transthoracic needle biopsy due to technical advances in CT and its better detection of pulmonary lesions, which sometimes cannot be identified on chest radiograph [3].

CT-guided needle biopsy is generally regarded as a safe procedure, although pneumothorax and other rare complications can sometimes occur [4]. There have been occasional reports of deaths due to severe complications, such as, air embolism following lung biopsy [5]. Fortunately, these complications are generally very rare; previously published data shows wide variations in complication rates, making them difficult to generalize [5–8].

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

2. Materials and methods

Postal questionnaires regarding CT-guided needle biopsy were sent out to named radiologists at 101 university hospitals and cancer centers in Japan in August 2001. The radiologists at these hospitals were asked to pass duplications of the questions to other associate hospitals. The questions required information regarding: the total number and duration of CT-guided lung biopsies performed at each hospital, and the complication rates, numbers of pneumothorax, hemothorax, air embolism, tumor seeding, tension pneumothorax, severe pulmonary hemorrhage or hemoptysis which was treated with drugs for hemostasis and other rare complications, and mortalities and morbidities after that.

We defined a case as having a severe complication when one of the following criteria was met: (1) the duration of hospital stay was prolonged due to the biopsy, (2) a special technique or treatment was required to treat the complication, (3) a special procedure was required for resuscitation, and (4) shock or pre-shock developed. Each severe complication was followed with additional questions, including diagnosis of the complication, the position of the pulmonary lesion, the distance of the pulmonary lesion from the peripheral pleura, whether the lesion was located near the hilum or large pulmonary vessel, whether there was any reasonable factor causing the complication such as cough during biopsy, biopsy technique (CT-fluoroscopy or Co-axial method), the number of biopsies for each case, type and size of the needle, and presence of significant sequela from the complication.

Furthermore, the questionnaire included the following enquiries: whether emergency medication was prepared for resuscitation in the operating room, whether the patient was treated by the intravenous route and monitors, such as automatic sphygmomanometer, pulse oximetry, and electrocardiography. Finally, availability of access to other departments in case of emergency was questioned. Postal replies of questionnaire had been received for a year, and these answers were analyzed.

3. Results

A total of 9783 biopsy data were collected from 124 centers. The average number of biopsies performed per center was 79 cases, and that per center per year was 21 cases. The number of institutions in which hyperbaric oxygen recompression can be performed was 41 of 114 (37%) hospitals. Patients were kept on peripheral intravenous drip infusion in 86 of 92 (93%) hospitals, automatic sphygmomanometer in 38 of 92 (41%) hospitals, pulse oximetry in 32 of 92 (35%) hospitals, and electrocardiography in 8 of 92 (9%) hospitals.

Pneumothorax was the most common complication, and occurred in 2412 (35%) of 6881 cases. The number of centers that reported severe complications was 39 (35%) of 114 centers. The total number of overall severe complications was 74 (0.75%) cases. Of these, details of the complications in 64 cases are described in Table 1. 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, 10 cases (0.10%) with hemothorax, and 26 cases (0.26%) with others. The others included 14 cases of pneumothorax requiring temporal drainage of the pneumothorax or chest tube insertion, three cases of heart arrest, and so on. There was no report of coughing during needle placement into the thorax in any of the cases with air embolism. Two of six pulmonary lesions were complicated with air emboli located near the large pulmonary vessel, and one lesion contained a cavity (Table 2). Tumor seeding occurred in two cases following CT-guided biopsy performed

Table 1
Summary of 64 cases of severe complications

Severe complications	No.
Pneumothorax requiring drainage of air	14
Tension pneumothorax	10
Hemothorax	10
Air embolism	6
Tumor seeding	6
Pulmonary hemorrhage of hemoptysis	6
Heart arrest	3
Respiratory arrest	1
Shock	1
Cyanosis	1
Cardiac tamponade	1
Pneumomediastinum	1
Mediastinal hematoma	1
Loss of consciousness	1
Severe pain of biopsied site	1
disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC)	1
Total	64

Table 2
Summary of cases of air embolism

No.	Age	Sex	Size (mm)	Location (lobe)	Distance from pleura (mm)	Large vessel near the nodule	Cavity	CT-fluoloscopy	Co-axial method	No. of biopsy	Technique of biopsy	Size of the needle	Sequela
1	72	F	20	Left lower	40	Yes	No	Yes	No	2	Core biopsy	18G	Death
2	59	M	10	Left lower	20	No	No	NA[a]	Yes	1	Core biopsy	18G	Totally improved
3	57	F	7	Right middle	25	No	No	Yes	No	1	Core biopsy	18G	Totally improved
4	74	M	20	Right upper	25	Yes	No	Yes	No	2	Core biopsy	20G	Partially improved
5	57	M	12	Right lower	3	No	No	No	Yes	1	Core biopsy	20G	Totally improved
6	75	M	25	Right lower	18	No	Yes	No	No	1	Core biopsy	18G	Totally improved

[a] NA, information was not available.

by the Co-axial method (Table 3). In one of these two cases, the tip of the outer cannula was placed within the chest wall, so that seeding obviously occurred by direct contact of the inner needle with the biopsy route.

From a total of 62 cases with severe complications, 54 cases (0.55%) were recovered without sequela, and one case (0.01%) recovered but with hemiplegia due to cerebral infarction. Unfortunately, four (0.04%) of the remaining seven cases died just after the CT-guided biopsy procedure; these consisted of one case of air embolism, one case of DIC, and two cases of heart arrest. Three cases (0.03%) of the remaining seven cases died several years later due to tumor seeding. Four cases complicated with air embolism, three of which were treated with hyperbaric oxygen recompression, were recovered without sequela out of a total of six cases. In 23 (50%) of 46 centers, an emergency team was able to attend when a severe complication occurred.

4. Discussion

Recently, many small pulmonary lesions, which cannot be detected on chest radiograph, have been easily visualized by CT examination in daily clinical work. These lesions are usually followed with CT, or in some cases these are biopsies using CT-guided technique. CT-guided needle biopsy is a widely accepted technique and is one of the principal methods for evaluating a pulmonary lesion [9]. Although it is not rare to have minor complications due to CT-guided needle biopsy, such as, a small amount of pneumothorax and pulmonary hemorrhage, these complications improve without any treatment [5]. On the other hand, it is well known that potentially life-threatening complications such as air embolism and tumor seeding can occur. Fortunately, the frequency of these complications is considered very rare [5]. However, the number of published reports has shown that the incidence of air embolism has been increasing over the last several years. Only seven cases with air embolism were documented in the 20 years before 1995 [10–16], whereas six cases have already been published in the last 10 years [17–22].

This is the first national research study demonstrating the incidence rate of severe complications with respect to CT-guided needle biopsy based on a large number of biopsy cases using a multi-center survey.

The most common complication of transthoracic percutaneous needle biopsy is pneumothorax, with a frequency rate of 0–61%, whereas the incidence of pneumothorax requiring chest tube drainage ranges from 1.6% to 17% [23]. In the present study, the rate of pneumothorax was 35.1%, which is considered comparable to the previous studies.

Sinner's review of the literature determined that there were two cases suspected of air embolism in 2726 patients [5]. He estimated that the relative risk of air embolism per patient was about 0.07%. In the present study of 9783 biopsies, air embolism occurred in six patients, resulting in an incidence

Table 3
Summary of cases of tumor seeding

No.	Age	Sex	Size (mm)	Location	Distance from pleura (mm)	Co-axial method	No. of biopsy	Technique of biopsy	Size of the needle
1	72	M	30	Right upper	0	No	1	Core biopsy	18G
2	73	M	30	Left lower	30	Yes	3	Core biopsy	18G
3	71	M	10	Right upper	20	No	2	Aspiration biopsy	22G
4	30	F	28	Left upper	76	No	2	Core biopsy	18G
5	69	M	15	Right lower	0	No	2	Core biopsy	21G
6	77	M	12	Right upper	30	Yes	2	Core biopsy	20G

rate of 0.06%, which also shows no major difference from the previously reported complication rate. However, in the present study, there were several cases of severe complications including cardiac and respiratory arrest, and shock, which can be secondary to air embolism, although it is very difficult to confirm air embolism in the coronary artery in cases of myocardial infarction when the patient has not been scanned at the level of the heart. It is speculated that concurrent cough during the procedure has a high possibility of an air embolism misplacing the biopsy needle into the large vessel adjacent to the pulmonary lesion. Among the total of six cases with air emboli in the present study, two cases demonstrated biopsied pulmonary lesions located close to the large vessels, however the remaining four cases have no close relation to the large vessels. There were no reports of coughing during the procedure in any of the cases complicated by air embolism. Air embolism even occurred in a case in which the nodule was very near the pleura (case no. 5). In our study, all cases with air emboli had undergone CT-guided biopsy using a core biopsy needle of 18–20 gauge, which is greater in diameter than the usually used fine aspiration needles. Having said that, in the previous reviews, most cases with air emboli were biopsied by fine aspiration needles, and there are two prior reports of air embolism following CT-guided lung needle marking using thin needles without recent biopsy [24–26].

Tumor seeding into the needle tract seems to be a rare possibility in several case reports [27–34]. There were six cases (0.06%) of tumor seeding in our study, which is a relatively high frequency compared to previous studies [5,35]. The true incidence of tumor seeding along the needle may be underestimated as not all cases can be diagnosed, and many patients die before these metastases become clinically apparent. Tumor seeding appears to depend on the size of the needle, therefore large-bore needles carry a relatively greater risk of tumor seeding, however tumor seeding following a fine needle aspiration was reported in one case of our study. It is thought that CT-guided biopsy performed using the Co-axial method has less frequency of tumor seeding as the outer cannula minimizes direct contact of the tumor cells with the biopsy route. Surprisingly, tumor seeding occurred in two cases using the Co-axial method. We speculate that the outer cannula was not appropriately placed.

Unfortunately, there were seven patients (0.07%) who died in our study due to complications in the CT-guided needle biopsy. Greene [6] estimated the mortality rate associated with fine needle aspiration to be 0.02%, however Richardson et al. [8] reported eight deaths (0.15%) in their study due to complications in CT-guided needle biopsy. Most of the deaths in the present study were attributed to fatal air embolism. Three cases of air embolism that were treated with hyperbaric oxygen recompression were recovered without sequela, which may suggest hyperbaric oxygen recompression therapy is effective for treatment of air embolism, and for reducing the mortality rate.

Our study has several limitations, including selection bias, the long period of the study, multi-center analysis with a large variety of techniques and CT scanners, and the possibility of missing or misdiagnosing significant complications such as the number of air emboli and tumor seeding. Moreover, our study is a retrospective questionnaire-based analysis rather than a prospective survey.

In conclusion, this is the first nation-wide 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.

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Schedule-Dependent Interactions Between Pemetrexed and Cisplatin in Human Carcinoma Cell Lines In Vitro

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The combination of pemetrexed and cisplatin shows good clinical activity against mesothelioma and lung cancer. In order to study the potential cellular basis for this, and provide leads as to how to optimize the combination, we studied the schedule-dependent cytotoxic effects of pemetrexed and cisplatin against four human cancer cell lines in vitro. Tumor cells were incubated with pemetrexed and cisplatin for 24 h at various schedules. The combination effects after 5 days were analyzed by the isobologram method. Both simultaneous exposure to pemetrexed and cisplatin for 24 h and sequential exposure to cisplatin for 24 h followed by pemetrexed for 24 h produced antagonistic effects in human lung cancer A549, breast cancer MCF7, and ovarian cancer PA1 cells and additive effects in colon cancer WiDr cells. Pemetrexed for 24 h followed by cisplatin for 24 h produced synergistic effects in MCF7 cells, additive/synergistic effects in A549 and PA1 cells, and additive effects in WiDr cells. Cell cycle analysis of MCF7 and PA1 cells supported these findings. Our results suggest that the simultaneous clinical administration of pemetrexed and cisplatin may be suboptimal. The optimal schedule of pemetrexed in combination with cisplatin at the cellular level is the sequential administration of pemetrexed followed by cisplatin and this schedule is worthy of clinical investigations.

Key words: Pemetrexed; Cisplatin; Isobologram; Synergism; Antagonism

INTRODUCTION

Pemetrexed (multitargeted antifolate) is a novel antifolate that inhibits multiple points in folate metabolism including thymidylate synthase, dihydrofolate reductase, and glycinamide ribonucleotide formyl transferase (1–3). Preclinical studies of pemetrexed have demonstrated antitumor activity against a variety of human cancer cells in preclinical models (4). The optimal dose and schedule of pemetrexed was considered to be 500 mg/m^2 in a 10-min infusion once every 3 weeks (5,6). Clinical trials of pemetrexed showed a broad activity against a variety of solid tumors including malignant mesothelioma, and colorectal, pancreas, lung, head and neck, gastric, bladder, and breast cancers (6–14). Dose-limiting toxicities included neutropenia, mucositis, diarrhea, and severe nausea and vomiting (5,6). Patients with a folate-deficient state were associated with severe toxicity, and folate and cobalamin administration before pemetrexed has been introduced in clinical trials (9,13).

Combination chemotherapy has become a standard in the treatment of cancer, based upon theoretical advantages and on proven clinical efficacy. The clinical studies of pemetrexed and platinums (e.g., cisplatin, carboplatin, and oxaliplatin) in combinations have been used against malignant mesothelioma and non-small cell lung cancer, and the promising activity of this combination has been observed (15–19). The wide range of antitumor activity of pemetrexed and platinums (20), their different cytotoxic mechanisms and different toxic profiles, and the absence of cross-resistance provide a rationale for using combinations of these agents.

The cytotoxic action of cisplatin is considered to be the result of the formation of cisplatin–DNA adducts

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(20). Pemetrexed treatment may influence adduct formation by cisplatin or the repair of formed adducts, because pemetrexed inhibits both pyrimidine and purine synthesis. The disturbances of the cell cycle produced by pemetrexed and cisplatin may also influence the cytotoxic effects of each other because these agents are cell cycle specific (21,22).

These suggest that the drug schedule may play a significant role in the outcome, and therefore the design of a protocol using them in combination may requires careful consideration. Schedule-dependent interactions have been observed for the combinations of pemetrexed and gemcitabine (23), doxorubicin (24), or paclitaxel (25) in in vitro studies. Because experimental studies for the combination of pemetrexed with cisplatin are limited (26, 27), the optimal schedule of this combination is obscure.

The present study aimed at elucidating the cytotoxic effects of combinations of pemetrexed and cisplatin in various schedules on four human carcinoma cell lines. Our data suggest that the simultaneous administration of pemetrexed and cisplatin may be suboptimal for this combination and the optimal schedule of this combination at the cellular level is the sequential administration of pemetrexed followed by cisplatin.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell Lines

The human lung cancer A549, the breast cancer MCF7, the ovarian cancer PA1, and the colon cancer WiDr cells were used. These cells were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (Rockville, MD) and maintained in RPMI-1640 medium (Sigma Chemical Co., St Louis, MO) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Grand Island Biological Co.) and antibiotics. The doubling times of A549, MCF7, PA1, and WiDr cells in our experimental conditions were 20–24 h.

Drugs

Pemetrexed was kindly provided by Eli Lilly and Company (Indianapolis, IN). Cisplatin was purchased from Nihon Kayaku Co. (Tokyo). Drugs were diluted with RPMI-1640 plus 10% FBS.

Cell Growth Inhibition Using Combined Anticancer Agents

On day 0, cells growing in the exponential phase were harvested with 0.05% trypsin and 0.02% EDTA and resuspended to a final concentration of 5.0×10^3 cells/ml in fresh medium containing 10% FBS and antibiotics. The cell suspensions (100 μl) were dispensed using a multichannel pipette into the individual wells of a 96-well tissue culture plate with a lid (Falcon, Oxnard, CA). Each plate had one 8-well control column containing medium alone and one 8-well control column containing cells without drug. Eight plates were prepared for each drug combination. The cells were preincubated overnight to allow attachment.

Simultaneous Exposure to Pemetrexed and Cisplatin

After 16–20-h incubation for cell attachment, solutions of pemetrexed and cisplatin (50 μl) at different concentrations were added to the individual wells. The plates were also incubated under the same conditions for 24 h. The cells were then washed twice with culture medium containing 1% FBS, and then fresh medium containing 10% FBS (200 μl) and antibiotics was added. The cells were incubated again for 4 days.

Sequential Exposure to Pemetrexed Followed by Cisplatin or Vice Versa

After 16–20-h incubation, medium containing 10% FBS (50 μl) and solutions (50 μl) of pemetrexed (or cisplatin) at different concentrations was added to the individual wells. The plates were then incubated under the same conditions for 24 h. The cells were washed

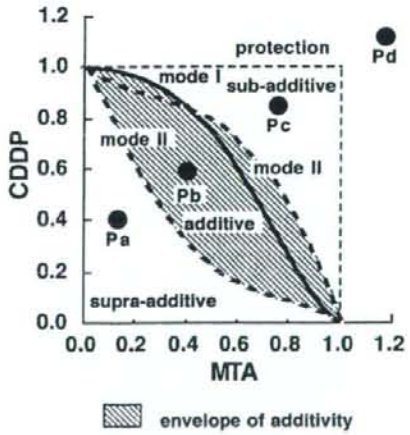

Figure 1. Schematic representation of an isobologram (29). The envelope of additivity, surrounded by mode I (solid line) and mode II (dotted lines) isobologram lines, was constructed from the dose–response curves of pemetrexed (MTA) and cisplatin (CDDP). The concentrations that produced 80% cell growth inhibition were expressed as 1.0 in the ordinate and the abscissa of all isobolograms for MCF7, PA1, and WiDr cells, while the concentrations that produced 50% cell growth inhibition were expressed as 1.0 in the ordinate and the abscissa of all isobolograms for A549 cells. The combined data points Pa, Pb, Pc, and Pd show supra-additive, additive, subadditive, and protective effects, respectively.

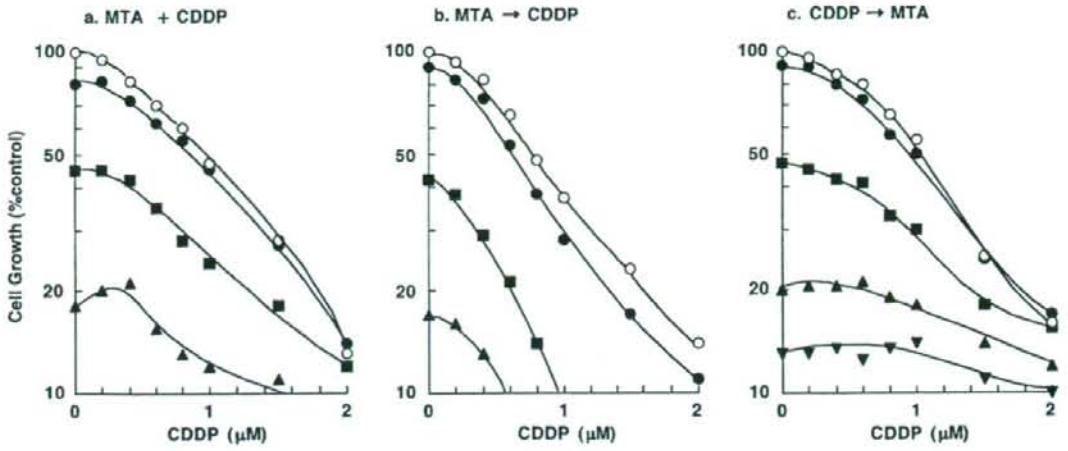

Figure 2. Schedule dependence of the interaction between pemetrexed and cisplatin in PA1 cells. Cells were exposed to these two drugs simultaneously for 24 h (a), pemetrexed first for 24 h followed by cisplatin for 24 h (b), or the reverse sequence (c). The cell number after 5 days was measured using the MTT assay and was plotted as a percentage of the control (cells not exposed to drugs). The concentrations of cisplatin are shown on the abscissa. The concentrations of pemetrexed were 0 (open circles), 20 (filled circles), 50 (filled squares), 100 (filled upward triangles), and 200 (filled downward triangles) nM, respectively. Data are mean values for three independent experiments; SE was <20%.

twice with culture medium containing 1% FBS; fresh medium containing 10% FBS (150 μl) and antibiotics was added, followed by the addition of solutions (50 μl) of cisplatin (or pemetrexed) at different concentrations. The plates were incubated again under the same conditions for 24 h. The cells were then washed twice with culture medium, and fresh medium containing 10% FBS (200 μl) and antibiotics was added. The cells were then incubated again for 3 days.

MTT Assay

The cytotoxicity of pemetrexed alone, cisplatin alone, and their combinations was determined by 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) assay as described previously (28). For all four cell lines examined, we were able to establish a linear relationship between the MTT assay value and the cell number within the range shown.

Isobologram

The dose–response interactions between pemetrexed and cisplatin for the MCF7, PA1, and WiDr cells were evaluated at the IC_{80} level by the isobologram method of Steel and Peckham (Fig. 1) (29). The IC_{80} was defined as the concentration of drug that produced 80% cell growth inhibition (i.e., an 80% reduction in absorbance). Although the drug interaction at IC_{90} or more would be more important than both IC_{80} and IC_{50} for cancer chemotherapy, it is difficult to get reliable data at IC_{90} or more using MTT assay. A549 was resistant to pemetrexed and the interactions between them were evaluated at the IC_{50} level.

We used the isobologram method of Steel and Peckham because this method can cope with any agents with unclear cytotoxic mechanisms and a variety of dose–response curves of anticancer agents. The concept and analysis of the isobologram has been described in detail previously (30,31). The isobologram of Steel and Peckham is very strict for synergism and antagonism.

If the two agents act additively by independent mechanisms, the combined data points would lie near the mode I line (hetero-addition). If the agents act additively by similar mechanisms, the combined data points would lie near the mode II lines (iso-addition). When the data points of the drug combination fell within the area surrounded by mode I and /or mode II lines (i.e., within the envelope of additivity), the combination was described as additive.

A combination that gives data points to the left of the envelope of additivity (i.e., the combined effect is caused by lower doses of the two agents than is predicted) can confidently be described as supra-additive (synergism). A combination that gives data points to the right of the envelope of additivity, but within the square or on the line of the square, can be described as subadditive (i.e., the combination is superior or equal to a single agent but is less than additive). A combination that gives

data points outside the square can be described as protective (i.e., the combination is inferior in cytotoxic action to a single agent). A combination with both subadditive and/or protective interactions can confidently be described as antagonistic.

Data Analysis

The findings were analyzed as described previously (32). When the observed data points from combinations fell mainly in the area of supra-additivity or in the areas of subadditivity and protection, the mean value of the observed data was smaller than that of the predicted minimum data or larger than that of the predicted maximum data, the combinations were considered to have a synergistic or an antagonistic effect, respectively. To determine whether the condition of synergism (or antagonism) truly existed, a Wilcoxon signed-rank test was performed to compare the observed data with the predicted minimum (or maximum) data for an additive effect. Probability values of $p < 0.05$ were considered significant. Because the isobologram of Steel and Peckham is very strict for synergism and antagonism, combinations with $p \geq 0.05$ were defined as having an additive/synergistic (or additive/antagonistic) effect. All statistical analyses were performed using the Stat View 4.01 software program (Abacus Concepts, Berkeley, CA).

Flow Cytometric Analysis

PA1 cells were treated with 0.2 μM pemetrexed alone or 0.5 μM cisplatin alone or their combination simultaneously for 24 h. MCF7 cells were treated with 0.5 μM pemetrexed alone or 5 μM cisplatin alone or their combination simultaneously for 24 h. The cells were also treated with pemetrexed for 24 h followed by cisplatin for 24 h or the reverse sequence. The cells were harvested at 48 h and the cell cycle profiles were analyzed by staining the intracellular DNA with propidium iodide in preparation for flow cytometry with the FACScan CellFIT system (Becton-Dickinson, San Jose, CA). A DNA histogram was obtained by analyzing 25,000 cells with the ModFIT program (Becton-Dickinson) (33).

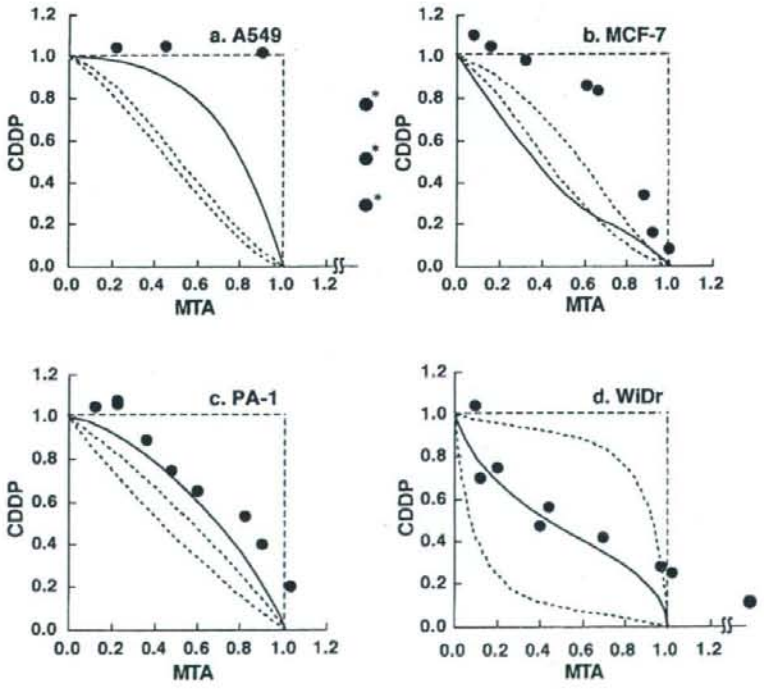

Figure 3. Isobolograms of simultaneous exposure to pemetrexed and cisplatin for 24 h in A549 (a), MCF7 (b), PA1 (c), and WiDr (d) cells. For the A549, MCF7, and PA1 cells, the combined data points fell in the areas of subadditivity and protection. For the WiDr cells, the combined data points fell mainly within the envelope of additivity. Data are mean values for at least three independent experiments; SE was <25% (*except the data).