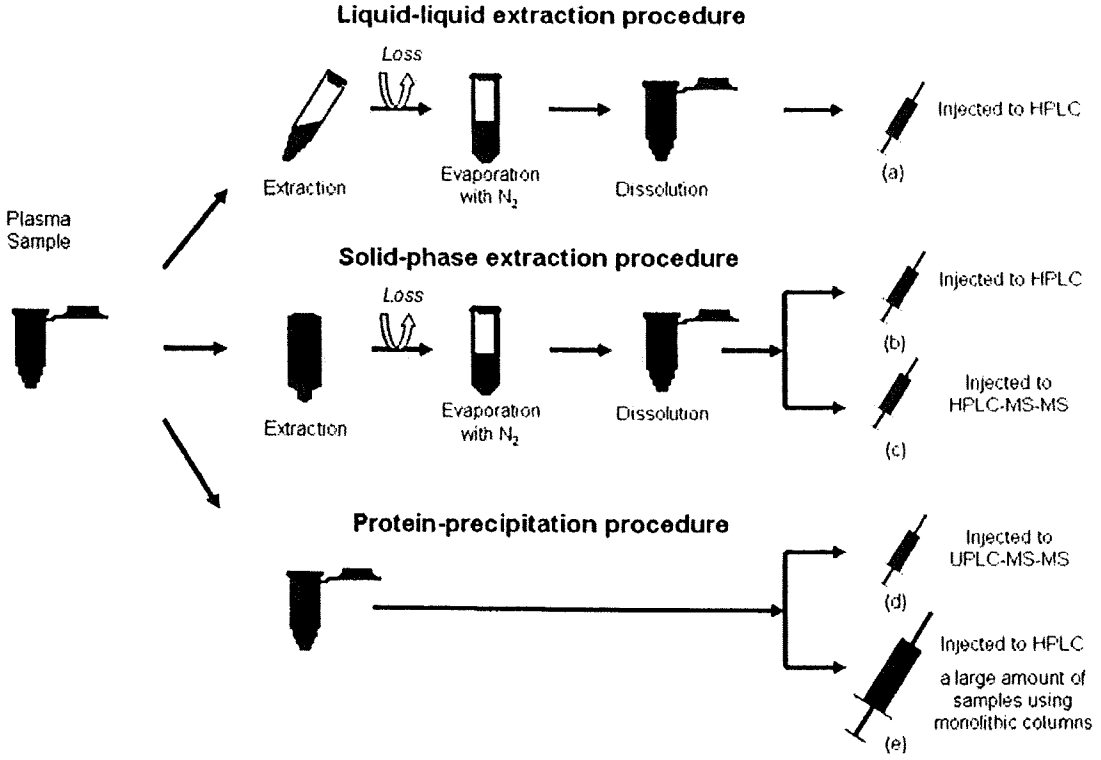

Figure 4. Four methods previously described methods for determination of amrubicin and amrubicinol in plasma; (a) HPLC method (Noguchi *et al.*, 1998) with sample preparation by liquid–liquid extraction; (b) HPLC method (Matsunaga *et al.*, 2006) with sample preparation by solid-phase extraction; (c) HPLC-MS-MS method (Yanaihara *et al.*, 2007) with sample preparation by solid-phase extraction; (d) UPLC-MS-MS method (Li *et al.*, 2008) with sample preparation by protein precipitation; (e) HPLC method with sample preparation by protein precipitation in this paper.

shown). We added 1-octanesulfonate to mobile phase as an ion-pair agent.

Previous reports have described four methods for determination of amrubicin and amrubicinol. The UPLC-MS-MS method (Li *et al.*, 2008) is the most sensitive of the four; however, UPLC-MS-MS is not widely available in hospitals. The other methods involve problems in relation to application to PK studies, such as low recovery or loss during processing (Fig. 4). A more simple and sensitive method that can be performed with equipment that is generally available was needed for analysis in hospitals.

We validated our method under Guidance for Industry of the Food and Drug Administration in Bioanalytical Method Validation, with regard to specificity, accuracy, precision, recovery and calibration curve for concentrations ranging from 2.5 to 5000 ng/mL, which were thought to be clinically relevant range for amrubicin and amrubicinol concentrations in plasma. Both the inter-day and intra-day accuracy and precision of the method were adequate. Our method provides good sensitivity, and was able to detect all points in our PK study.

Conclusion

A simple and sensitive HPLC method was developed for determination of amrubicin and amrubicinol in human plasma. In our method, we selected a monolithic column for determination and protein precipitation for preparation, and it was validated sufficiently. This method can be used clinically because the required equipment and technique are simple. The PK/PD study of amrubicin is ongoing, and a therapeutic drug monitoring study by this HPLC method is in the planning stage.

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ORIGINAL ARTICLE

A dose-finding and pharmacokinetic study of nedaplatin in elderly patients with advanced non-small cell lung cancer

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Abstract
Purpose Nedaplatin is a second-generation platinum showing favorable activity against non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC). Dose-limiting toxicity (DLT) is thrombocytopenia, predicted by creatinine clearance (Ccr). This study was conducted to determine the recommended dose, and evaluate the toxicities, pharmacokinetics and efficacy for elderly NSCLC patients.
Methods Patients ≥70 years were stratified into two groups based on renal functions: Group A, Ccr ≥ 60 and Group B, 40 ≤ Ccr < 60. The initial doses were 80 and 60 mg/m^2 in Groups A and B, respectively. The doses were escalated in 20-mg/m^2 increments to 100 mg/m^2 until DLT.
Results Chemotherapy-naïve 39 elderly patients (Group A/Group B: 22/17) received a total of 83 cycles. Major toxicities were hematological. In Group A, one of the 15 patients at 100 mg/m^2 experienced DLT (neutropenia) and the recommended dose was determined at 100 mg/m^2. In Group B, three of the five patients had DLTs (leukopenia, neutropenia, thrombocytopenia and febrile neutropenia) at 100 mg/m^2, and the recommended dose was determined at 80 mg/m^2. The percentage decreases of neutrophil were well correlated with total and free-Pt AUCs. Partial responses were observed in 13 (33%) of the 39 patients, and 12 of the 13 patients who responded had a squamous cell carcinoma.
Conclusions Nedaplatin was administered simply and feasibly by stratifying renal function and exerted favorable antitumor activity for elderly patients with NSCLC, especially on squamous cell carcinoma.

Keywords Nedaplatin · Dose-finding study · Pharmacokinetics · NSCLC · Elderly patient

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Introduction

The proportion of elderly patients with non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) is increasing [1]. At present, the first-line standard chemotherapy for non-elderly patients with advanced NSCLC is a platinum-based doublet regimen. The efficacy and feasibility of this strategy have been demonstrated in several randomized trials in patients with a good performance status and aged ≤70 years [2–4]. However, platinum-based doublet regimens are not always feasible for elderly patients. Age-related comorbidity and physiologic changes increase inter-individual pharmacokinetic variability, possibly leading to unacceptable severe toxicities. In particular, application of a cisplatin-based regimen to elderly patients is substantially restricted because of the risk of emesis, neurotoxicity and nephrotoxicity.

Oshita et al. [5] prospectively evaluated the feasibility of cisplatin-based chemotherapy in patients aged 75 years or older. Only 10 (29%) out of the 34 patients fulfilled the eligibility criteria for the cisplatin-based regimen. Furthermore, the majority of these eligible patients had grade 4 neutropenia and infectious episodes requiring antibiotics. In another analysis of cisplatin pharmacokinetics, the area under the plasma concentration versus time curve (AUC) of the ultrafilterable and total plasma platinum increased with age, and this was an independent predictor of cisplatin pharmacokinetics [6]. Therefore, the administration of cisplatin is restricted to highly select elderly patients.

(Glycolate-*O,O'*)-diammine platinum (II) (nedaplatin) is a second-generation platinum analog synthesized by Shionogi & Co., Ltd. (Osaka, Japan). In the preclinical studies, nedaplatin is highly active against solid tumors and has higher aqueous solubility than cisplatin [7–9]. The emesis and nephrotoxicity of nedaplatin are substantially reduced, compared with those of cisplatin, and multiple days of hydration for renal protection are not required [10]. Dose-limiting toxicity (DLT) is thrombocytopenia, and recommended dose in Japanese patient ≤70 years is 100 mg/m^2 every 4 weeks. This agent is active against NSCLC, with a response rate of 20.5% for previously untreated patients [10]. In a pharmacokinetic analysis, thrombocytopenia was significantly correlated with renal function (i.e., creatinine clearance [Ccr]), and nadir platelet count could be predicted from the following formula [11]:

$$[\text{Nadir platelet count}](/\text{mm}^3) = -64{,}264.7 + 2{,}783.4 \times [\text{Ccr}](\text{mL/min})$$

We conducted a dose-finding and pharmacokinetic study of nedaplatin in elderly patients with NSCLC, stratified into two groups based on renal function. This study was conducted to determine the recommended dose, and evaluate the toxicity profiles, pharmacokinetics and antitumor activity.

Patients and methods

Eligibility

Patients with histologically and cytologically confirmed chemotherapy-naïve advanced or metastatic non-small cell lung cancer were eligible for this study. Other eligibility criteria included the following: (1) age ≥70 years; (2) Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group (ECOG) performance status of 0 or 1; (3) adequate bone marrow (white blood cell [WBC] count ≥4,000/mm^3, absolute neutrophil count [ANC] ≥2,000/mm^3, hemoglobin level ≥9.0 g/dL and platelet [PLT] count ≥100,000/mm^3), hepatic (serum total bilirubin level ≤1.5 mg/dL, serum asparatate aminotransferase [AST] level ≤100 IU/L and serum alanine aminotransferase [ALT] level ≤100 IU/L), renal (serum creatinine [Cr] level ≤1.5 mg/dL, creatinine clearance [Ccr] ≥40 mL/min) and pulmonary (PaO_2 ≥60 torr) functions.

The exclusion criteria were as follows: (1) symptomatic brain metastasis; (2) pleural or pericardial effusions and ascites requiring drainage; (3) serious pre-existing medical conditions such as uncontrolled infections, severe heart disease, uncontrolled diabetes and psychogenic disorders; and (4) hepatic B or C virus or human immunodeficiency virus infection.

Written informed consent was obtained from all the patients. This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the National Cancer Center.

Study design, dosage and dose escalation

This study was designed to determine the recommended dose of nedaplatin for elderly patients with advanced NSCLC, stratified into two groups based on renal function. The primary objective was to determine the recommended dose, and the secondary objectives were to evaluate toxicity profiles, pharmacokinetics and antitumor activity.

Patients were stratified into two groups based on their renal function at the time of study entry: Group A, Ccr ≥60 mL/min; and Group B, 40 ≤ Ccr < 60 mL/min. Ccr was measured on three consecutive days, and the mean value was used for stratification. Each Ccr was calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{Ccr}(\text{mL/min}) = [\text{urine volume}(\text{mL/min}) \times \text{urine creatinine}(\text{mg/dL})]/\text{serum creatinine}(\text{mg/dL})$$

In Group A, the initial dose of nedaplatin was 80 mg/m^2, and this was escalated to 100 mg/m^2. In Group B, the initial dose was 60 mg/m^2, and this was escalated to 80 and 100 mg/m^2. At least three to six patients were enrolled at each dose level, and the unacceptable dose was defined as the dose level at which >50% of the patients experienced DLT. The definition of DLT was as follows: (1) ≥grade 3 leukopenia, neutropenia or thrombocytopenia; (2) ≥grade 3 non-hematological toxicities except for alopecia, nausea and vomiting; (3) ≥grade 3 nausea and vomiting for ≥5 days. The recommended dose was defined as one dose level below the unacceptable dose level in each treatment arm.

Nedaplatin administration

Nedaplatin (Aqupla, (glycolate-*O,O'*)-diammine platinum (II); Shionogi Pharmaceutical Company, Osaka, Japan) was obtained commercially. Premedication, consisting of

3 mg of granisetron and 16 mg of dexamethasone diluted in 100 mL of 0.9% saline, was administered via a 30-minute intravenous (IV) infusion. The calculated doses of nedaplatin in both treatment groups were diluted in 300 mL of 0.9% saline and were administered using a 1-h IV infusion every 4 weeks. Following the nedaplatin administration, 500 mL of 0.9% saline was administered intravenously to provide minimal hydration.

Pretreatment and follow-up evaluation

On enrollment into the study, history and physical examination was performed. Complete differential blood cell count (including WBC count, ANC, hemoglobin and PLT), and clinical chemistry analysis (including serum total protein, albumin, bilirubin, Cr, AST, ALT, gamma-glutamyltransferase, and alkaline phosphatase) were performed. These above were performed at least twice a week throughout the study. Tumor measurement was planned every cycle, and antitumor response was assessed using the WHO standard response criteria. Toxicity was evaluated according to the National Cancer Institute common toxicity criteria (version 2.0).

PK study

Pharmacokinetic (PK) evaluations were performed in all patients during the initial cycle of treatment. Heparinized venous blood samples (7 mL) were taken before infusion, at 30 min and just before the end of infusion, as well as at 15 and 30 min and 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 23 and 47 h after the end of infusion.

Blood samples were centrifuged immediately at 4,000 rpm for 10 min. One milliliter of plasma was stored at −20°C or below in a polyethylene tube until the measurement of total plasma platinum (total-Pt) concentration. Residual plasma was transferred to an Amicon Centrifree tube (Amicon, Inc., Beverly, MA, USA) and centrifuged at 4,000 rpm for 20 min. Ultrafiltrate of the plasma was taken and stored at −20°C or below in a polyethylene tube until the measurement of the plasma-free platinum (free-Pt) concentration. The total-Pt and free-Pt concentrations were measured using flameless atomic absorption spectrometry, as previously reported [12].

The PK parameters were estimated using a nonlinear least-squares regression analysis (WinNonlin, Version 5.2; Bellkey Science, Inc., Chiba, Japan) with a weighting factor of $1/year^2$. The individual plasma concentration–time data were fitted to one-, two- and three-exponential equations using a zero-order infusion input and first-order elimination (corresponding to a one-, two- and three-compartment PK model). The model was chosen on the basis of Akaike's information criteria [13]. Fitted parameters (coefficients and exponent of exponential equations) were permitted in the computation of the following PK parameters: half life ($t_{1/2}$), area under the plasma concentration versus time curve (AUC), systemic clearance (CL), and volume of distribution at steady state (V_{dss}).

To assess the pharmacodynamic effect, percentage decrease was calculated in WBC, ANC or PLT according to the following formula:

$$\text{Percentage decrease} = [(\text{pretreatment count} - \text{nadir count})/(\text{pretreatment count})] \times 100.$$

These percentages were related to the AUC according to the sigmoid E_{max} model, as follows:

$$\text{Effect}(\%) = [E_{max}(\text{AUC})^k]/[\text{AUC}_{50}^k + \text{AUC}^k] \times 100.$$

A nonlinear least-squares regression using WinNonlin was used to estimate the AUC that produces 50% of the maximum effect (AUC_{50}) and the sigmoidicity coefficient (k).

Results

Patient characteristics

Between June 1996 and July 2001, 39 patients were stratified into two groups (22 in Group A and 17 in Group B) based on their renal functions at entry into the study (Table 1). They received a total of 83 cycles of therapy. The patients comprised 35 males and 4 females with good performance status, and the median age was 76 years in both treatment groups. All the patients were included in the toxicity evaluation. A total of 28 (72%) patients were included in the PK analysis and the remaining 11 (28%) were excluded because of insufficient PK samplings. Eight patients (two from Group A and six from Group B) had stage IIIA disease, but were not candidates for thoracic radiotherapy because of their poor pulmonary function. Six patients (five from Group A and one from Group B) received surgical resections for primary tumors. As much as 21 patients (54%, 12 from Group A and 9 from Group B) had squamous cell carcinoma. Nine patients (4 from Group A and 5 from Group B) received only one cycle of therapy because of progressive disease (PD) and 22 patients (12 from Group A and 10 from Group B) received two cycles of treatment. Among these 22 patients, partial response (PR), stable disease (SD) and PD were observed in 8, 10 and 4 patients, respectively. Five of eight patients with PR, two of ten with SD and one of four with PD received sequential thoracic radiotherapy for primary lesion following two cycles of treatment. Two of ten patients with SD and one of four with PD received palliative

radiotherapy for metastatic lesion. Two of four patients with PD received second-line chemotherapy. The remaining nine patients received supportive care according to the patients' request.

Toxicity

All the 39 patients were included in the toxicity evaluation. Major toxicities were hematological, such as leukopenia, neutropenia and thrombocytopenia, in both groups, and these hematological toxicities increased in severity with increased dose level of nedaplatin. In Group A, 1 (6.7%) out of the 15 patients treated at a dose level of 100 mg/m^2 had grade 3 neutropenia; this dose level was considered to be acceptable (Table 2). In Group B, three (50%) out of six patients treated at a dose level of 80 mg/m^2 had ≥grade 3 hematological toxicities (one with grade 3 neutropenia, another with grade 4 neutropenia and febrile neutropenia, and the other with grade 3 leukopenia, anemia and grade 4 thrombocytopenia). The patient with grade 4 thrombocytopenia required a platelet transfusion. At a dose level of 100 mg/m^2, three (60%) out of five patients had ≥grade 3 hematological toxicities (one with grade 3 leukopenia and neutropenia, another with grade 3 thrombocytopenia and grade 4 neutropenia, and the other with grade 3 leukopenia, thrombocytopenia and grade 4 neutropenia). These three patients had also febrile neutropenia. In Group B, a dose level of 100 mg/m^2 was considered to be unacceptable (Table 2).

Non-hematological toxicities, mainly nausea and anorexia, were generally mild in severity and were not dose limiting in either group (Table 3). Renal toxicity,

Table 1 Patient characteristics

	Group A (Ccr ≥60 mL/min)		Group B (40 ≤ Ccr < 60 mL/min)	
	No. of patients	Percentage	No. of patients	Percentage
Total patients enrolled	22	100	17	100
Assessable for toxicity	22	100	17	100
Assessable for PK analysis	15	68	13	76
Age, median (range), years	76 (70–82)		76 (70–78)	
Sex				
Male	19	86	16	94
Female	3	14	1	6
ECOG PS				
0	6	27	1	6
1	16	73	15	88
2	0	0	1	6
Stage				
IIIA	2	9	6	35
IIIB	4	18	6	35
IV	11	50	4	24
Postoperative recurrence	5	23	1	6
Pathological subtype				
Squamous cell carcinoma	12	54	9	53
Adenocarcinoma	9	41	8	47
P/D carcinoma	1	5	0	0
Dose of nedaplatin (mg/m^2)				
60	–	–	6	35
80	7	32	6	35
100	15	68	5	30
Treatment cycle				
Median (range)	2 (1–5)		2 (1–4)	
1 cycle	4	18	5	29
2 cycles	12	55	10	59
≥3 cycles	6	27	2	12

PK pharmacokinetics, *ECOG* Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group, *PS* performance status, *P/D carcinoma* poorly differentiated carcinoma

Table 2 Hematological toxicity

Group A (Ccr ≥60 mL/min)	Dose level (mg/m^2), (number of patients)									
	80 (n = 7) Grade					100 (n = 15) Grade				
Event	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
Leukopenia	6	1	0	0	0	12	1	2	0	0
Neutropenia	6	1	0	0	0	8	4	2	1[a]	0
Anemia	4	2	1	0	0	5	7	3	0	0
Thrombocytopenia	7	0	0	0	0	12	2	1	0	0
No. of patients with febrile neutropenia	0					0				
No. of patients with DLT	0					1				

Group B (40 ≤ Ccr < 60 mL/min)	Dose level (mg/m^2), (number of patients)														
	60 (n = 6) Grade					80 (n = 6) Grade					100 (n = 5) Grade				
Event	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
Leukopenia	5	1	0	0	0	2	1	2	1[a]	0	2	0	1	2[a]	0
Neutropenia	5	1	0	0	0	2	2	0	1[a]	1[a]	1	1	0	1[a]	2[a]
Anemia	4	1	1	0	0	3	1	1	1[a]	0	1	2	2	0	0
Thrombocytopenia	6	0	0	0	0	3	1	1	0	1[a]	2	1	0	2[a]	0
No. of patients with febrile neutropenia	0					1					3				
No. of patients with DLT	0					3					3				

[a] DLT

characterized as an increase in Cr, was also mild, and only one out of five patients treated at a dose level of 100 mg/m^2 in Group B had a grade 2 Cr increase. Considering the toxicity profiles, the recommended doses in Groups A and B were determined to be 100 and 80 mg/m^2, respectively.

Response and survival

The antitumor response was assessed in all the 39 patients (Table 4). Of the 39 patients who achieved PR, 13 had an overall response rate of 33%. Similar antitumor responses were observed in both treatment groups; that is, 6 (27%) of 22 and 7 (41%) of 17 patients had PRs in Groups A and B, respectively. Furthermore, 12 of the 13 patients with PRs in both groups had squamous cell carcinoma, and the response rate among patients with squamous cell carcinoma was 57%. Survival follow-up was completed in all the enrolled patients. The median survival time was 11.2 months (95% confidence interval: 7.7–14.6 months), and the 1-, 2- and 5-year survival rates were 46, 23 and 5%, respectively.

Pharmacokinetics

Pharmacokinetic analysis was performed using data from 28 (72%) of the 39 patients. The first patient enrollment in both treatment groups was started in 1996, and techniques of the sample centrifuging and measurement were not fully developed at the beginning of this pharmacokinetic study. Therefore, the remaining 11 patients (28%) were excluded for pharmacokinetic analysis. The mean plasma concentration–time profiles of total-Pt and free-Pt of nedaplatin are illustrated in Fig. 1. The plasma disappearances of total-Pt and free-Pt were biphasic, and the mean terminal half lives in all the assessable patients averaged 6.28 and 3.57 h, respectively. The C_{max} and AUC of the total-Pt and free-Pt tended to increase with the dose of nedaplatin. The AUCs of the total- and free-Pt at a dose of 100 mg/m^2 in Group A seemed similar to those at a dose of 80 mg/m^2 in Group B (Table 5), and there were no significant differences between these two treatment subgroups (P = 0.293 for total-Pt AUC and P = 0.336 for free-Pt AUC). Furthermore, the AUCs of free-Pt at the recommended doses in both groups (i.e., 100 mg/m^2 in Group A and 80 mg/m^2 in Group B) seemed also similar to that in patients aged 70 years or under who had been treated with 100 mg/m^2 of nedaplatin [14]. In the sigmoid Emax model assessing the pharmacodynamic effect of nedaplatin, the percentage decrease in the neutrophil counts were well correlated with the total-Pt (r = 0.652) and free-Pt (r = 0.723; Fig. 2).

Table 3 Non-hematological toxicity

Group A (Ccr ≥60 mL/min)	Dose level (mg/m^2), (number of patients)									
	80 (n = 7) Grade					100 (n = 15) Grade				
Event	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
Nausea	5	1	1	0	0	3	9	3	0	0
Vomiting	6	1	0	0	0	15	0	0	0	0
Anorexia	5	1	1	0	0	7	4	4	0	0
Diarrhea	6	1	0	0	0	14	1	0	0	0
Stomatitis	7	0	0	0	0	15	0	0	0	0
Hyperbilirubinemia	6	0	1	0	0	15	0	0	0	0
AST increase	6	1	0	0	0	13	2	0	0	0
ALT increase	6	1	0	0	0	13	2	0	0	0
ALP increase	7	0	0	0	0	15	0	0	0	0
Cr increase	7	0	0	0	0	15	0	0	0	0

Group B (40 ≤ Ccr < 60 mL/min)	Dose level (mg/m^2), (number of patients)														
	60 (n = 6) Grade					80 (n = 6) Grade					100 (n = 5) Grade				
Event	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
Nausea	1	4	1	0	0	1	3	2	0	0	1	1	3	0	0
Vomiting	6	0	0	0	0	5	1	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0
Anorexia	4	2	0	0	0	1	3	2	0	0	1	1	3	0	0
Diarrhea	6	0	0	0	0	5	1	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0
Stomatitis	6	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0
Hyperbilirubinemia	6	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	4	0	1	0	0
AST increase	4	2	0	0	0	5	0	1	0	0	4	0	1	0	0
ALT increase	5	1	0	0	0	5	0	1	0	0	4	0	1	0	0
ALP increase	6	0	0	0	0	5	1	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0
Cr increase	6	0	0	0	0	4	2	0	0	0	4	0	1	0	0

AST asparatate aminotransferase, *ALT* serum alanine aminotransferase, *ALP* alkaline phosphatase, *Cr* creatinine

Discussion

In this dose-finding study, we evaluated the toxicities, pharmacokinetics as well as antitumor activity, and determined the recommended doses of nedaplatin for elderly patients with advanced NSCLC based on renal function. The predominant toxicities were hematological, such as leukopenia, neutropenia and thrombocytopenia, in both groups. These hematological toxicities tended to increase in severity with the increased dose level of nedaplatin. Non-hematological toxicities were acceptable and those were not dose limiting in either group. The recommended dose was determined as 100 mg/m^2 every 4 weeks in elderly patients with a renal function of Ccr ≥ 60 mL/min, which is the same dose recommended for patients aged ≤70 years. On the other hand, for elderly patients with a renal function of 40 ≤ Ccr < 60 mL/min, the recommended dose was 80 mg/m^2 every 4 weeks. In this study,

Table 4 Response

Group	Dose level (mg/m^2)	No. of patients	Response				PR	
			CR	PR	SD	PD	Sq.	Non–sq.
Group A (Ccr ≥60 mL/min)	80	7	0	2	3	2	2	0
	100	15	0	4	6	5	4	0
Group B (40 ≤ Ccr < 60 mL/min)	60	6	0	3	2	1	2	1
	80	6	0	3	1	2	3	0
	100	5	0	1	1	3	1	0
Total		39	0	13	13	13	12	1

CR complete response, *PR* partial response, *SD* stable disease, *PD* progressive disease, *Sq.* squamous cell carcinoma, *Non-sq.* non-squamous cell carcinoma

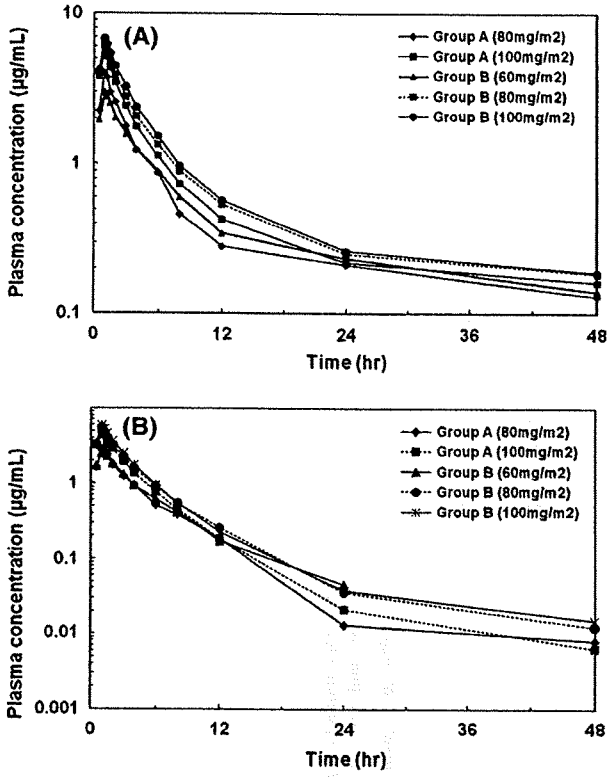

Fig. 1 Mean plasma concentration–time profiles for: **a** total-Pt and **b** free-Pt of nedaplatin

an additional nine patients were enrolled at the dose level of 100 mg/m^2 in Group A. First, the favorable antitumor response was observed in squamous cell carcinoma and we intended to evaluate the antitumor response mainly for squamous cell carcinoma. Then, five of nine additional patients enrolled had squamous cell carcinoma. Second, the recommended dose was determined as 100 mg/m^2 in Group A, which was the same dose in younger patients. We intended to confirm the toxicity and pharmacokinetic profiles in this elderly subgroup.

In the development of chemotherapy for elderly patients, the selection of appropriate agents is extremely important. Candidate agents must have confirmed antitumor activities and acceptable toxicity profiles in younger patients (e.g., aged ≤70 years). In this study, we investigated nedaplatin as it had a lower incidence of associated emesis and nephrotoxicity, compared with cisplatin, and favorable antitumor activity in NSCLC patients aged ≤70 years. Furthermore, the current standard treatment for elderly patients with advanced NSCLC, that is, third-generation single-agent chemotherapy such as vinorelbine, gemcitabine or docetaxel, had not been established at the time of planning of the study [15–17]. The DLT of nedaplatin in patients aged ≤70 years was reported to be thrombocytopenia, which is correlated with renal function; therefore, we expected that nedaplatin could be safely administered to elderly patients by stratifying the patients according to renal function. Patients with a Ccr ≥40 mL/min were eligible for inclusion in this study based on the results of a previous PK analysis examining the correlation between the nadir platelet count and renal function (described in "Introduction") [11]. When younger patients with a Ccr ≥40 mL/min were treated with 100 mg/m^2 of nedaplatin, the predicted nadir platelet count was ≥50,000/mm^3. Therefore, the initial doses of nedaplatin in Group A (Ccr ≥60 mL/min) and Group B (40 ≤ Ccr < 60 mL/min) were determined to be 80 and 60 mg/m^2, respectively. The dose escalation over 100 mg/m^2 was not planned, because the recommended dose in younger patients (aged ≤70 years) had already been determined at 100 mg/m^2.

In this study, milder criteria of DLT was applied, compared with that used in conventional phase I studies. In this developmental strategy, we pursued "the recommended dose with moderate and acceptable toxicities for the majority of elderly patients", instead of "the recommended dose with the severe toxicities in a small and limited number of patients, as per most conventional phase I studies", because the physiological and pharmacological function of elderly patients is highly variable.

Table 5 Pharmacokinetic parameters of total-Pt and free-Pt

Group	Dose level (mg/m^2)	No. of patients	No. of assessables for PK analysis	C_{max} (μg/mL)	AUC (μg/mL h)	V_{dss} (L)	$T_{1/2}$ (h)	CL (L/h)
PK parameters of total-Pt								
Group A (Ccr ≥60 mL/min)	80	7	2[a]	4.02 (3.49, 4.57)	22.58 (13.46, 31.69)	64.24 (35.27, 93.21)	14.15 (3.25, 25.04)	6.00 (3.60, 8.40)
	100	15	13	5.94 ± 1.38	21.65 ± 4.54	31.50 ± 13.40	3.28 ± 1.35	7.63 ± 1.74
Group B (40 ≤ Ccr < 60 mL/min)	60	6	2[a]	3.02 (2.91, 3.12)	19.78 (14.87, 24.68)	57.05 (33.21, 80.89)	10.77 (4.08, 17.46)	5.21 (4.16, 6.25)
	80	6	6	6.35 ± 1.11	25.99 ± 9.68	29.29 ± 13.18	7.88 ± 8.97	6.10 ± 1.13
	100	5	5	6.83 ± 1.20	32.11 ± 7.86	32.84 ± 22.00	6.62 ± 4.55	5.01 ± 1.57
PK parameters of free-Pt								
Group A (Ccr ≥60 mL/min)	80	7	2[a]	2.72 (2.13, 3.31)	10.56 (7.05, 14.06)	42.30 (37.98, 46.62)	3.49 (2.70, 4.28)	12.08 (8.11, 16.04)
	100	15	13	5.11 ± 1.51	16.20 ± 3.34	32.26 ± 11.17	3.51 ± 4.02	10.26 ± 2.46
Group B (40 ≤ Ccr < 60 mL/min)	60	6	2[a]	2.55 (2.46, 2.64)	11.59 (11.38, 11.79)	49.33 (33.22, 65.43)	6.16 (2.98, 9.34)	8.45 (7.89, 9.01)
	80	6	6	5.52 ± 1.25	18.53 ± 7.12	29.51 ± 9.11	3.40 ± 0.65	7.25 ± 2.21
	100	5	5	5.91 ± 1.21	20.69 ± 5.52	29.63 ± 12.32	2.92 ± 0.66	7.87 ± 2.71
Patients ≤70 years [14]	100	5	5		15.9			

Data are shown as mean ± SD excepting the dose level of 80 mg/m^2 in Group A and 60 mg/m^2 in Group B

PK pharmacokinetics, *total-Pt* total platinum, *free-Pt*, free platinum, C_{max} maximum plasma concentration, *AUC* area under the plasma concentration versus time curve, V_{dss} volume of distribution at steady-state, $T_{1/2}$ terminal half life, *CL* systemic clearance

[a] Data are shown as mean (actual data)

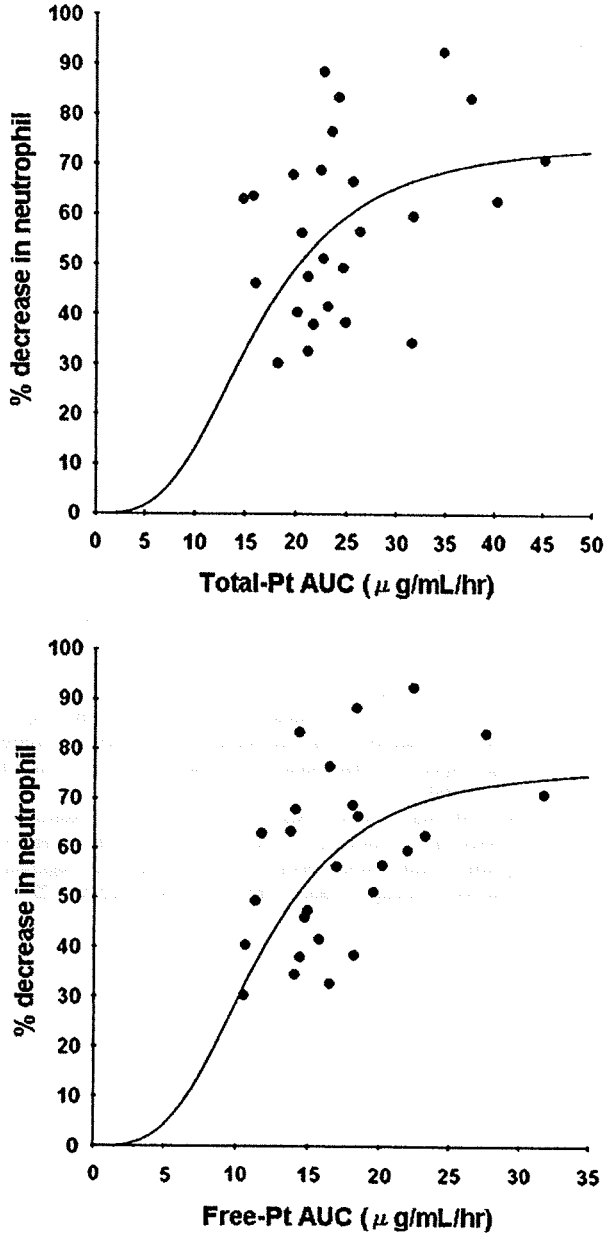

Fig. 2 Relationship between AUCs of total/free-Pt and the percentage decrease in the neutrophil count

In the pharmacokinetic analysis, the free-Pt AUC at a dose of 100 mg/m^2 in Group A seemed similar to that of 80 mg/m^2 in Group B, and there was no significant difference between these two treatment subgroups ($P = 0.336$). These results endorsed an almost equivalent drug exposure in both patient groups, stratified according to renal function. Furthermore, the AUC values in both groups seemed similar to historical data (obtained in a study with a small sample size) for patients aged ≤70 years [14]. However, a significant correlation was not observed between the renal function (i.e., the Ccr value) and the nadir platelet count, as in a previous report examining younger patients. These were possibly attributed to the wide inter-patient physiological and pharmacological variability among elderly patients or just the consequence of the adaptation of dose [11]. For elderly patients, a strict dose calculation of nedaplatin based on renal function, such as the dose calculation for carboplatin using the Calvert formula [18], is not required, and a simple dose selection of nedaplatin stratified according to renal function is considered to be reasonable.

A total of 13 (33%) of the 39 patients achieved partial responses. In this study, 21 patients with squamous cell carcinoma were enrolled, 12 patients achieved PR and the response rate was 57%. The biological mechanism responsible for the antitumor activity of nedaplatin against squamous cell carcinoma of the lung remains unknown. In the pharmacokinetic analysis, no significant differences were observed in responding patients with squamous cell carcinoma compared with non-responding others. However, nedaplatin also has a favorable antitumor activity against head and neck cancer and esophageal cancer, which also have a high frequency of squamous cell histology [19–22]. Although antitumor activity was evaluated only in elderly patients in this study, the development of this activity is worthwhile in the treatment of NSCLC with squamous cell histology. Furthermore, a translational study to identify the biological and/or genetic mechanism responsible for the antitumor activity of nedaplatin against squamous cell carcinoma is also warranted.

In conclusion, the recommended doses of nedaplatin for elderly patients with NSCLC were determined based on renal function, a dose of 100 mg/m^2 every 4 weeks was recommended for patients with a Ccr ≥60 mL/min, and a dose of 80 mg/m^2 every 4 weeks was recommended for patients with 40 ≤ Ccr < 60 mL/min. Nedaplatin can be safely administered to elderly patients with an acceptable level of toxicity and favorable antitumor activities against NSCLC, especially squamous cell carcinoma.

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Gender Difference in Treatment Outcomes in Patients with Stage III Non-small Cell Lung Cancer Receiving Concurrent Chemoradiotherapy

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Objective: To identify any gender differences in the outcomes of concurrent platinum-based chemotherapy and thoracic radiotherapy for unresectable stage III non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC).
Methods: A comparative retrospective review of the clinical characteristics and treatment outcomes between female and male NSCLC patients receiving chemoradiotherapy.
Results: Of a total of 204 patients, 44 (22%) were females and 160 (78%) were males. There was no difference in age, body weight loss, performance status or disease stage between the sexes, whereas never-smokers and adenocarcinoma were more common in female patients (55% vs. 3%, $P < 0.001$, and 73% vs. 55%, $P = 0.034$, respectively). Full cycles of chemotherapy and radiotherapy at a total dose of 60 Gy were administered to ~70% and >80% of the patients, respectively, of both sexes. Grade 3–4 neutropenia was observed in 64% of the female patients and 63% of the male patients. Severe esophagitis was encountered in <10% of the patients, irrespective of the sex. The response rate was higher in the female than in the male patients (93% vs. 79%, $P = 0.028$), but the median progression-free survival did not differ between the sexes. The median survival time in the female and male patients was 22.3 and 24.3 months, respectively ($P = 0.64$).
Conclusions: This study failed to show any gender differences in the survival or toxicity among patients treated by concurrent chemoradiotherapy. These results contrast with the better survival in female patients undergoing surgery for localized disease or chemotherapy for metastatic disease.

Key words: gender – female – non-small cell lung cancer – chemotherapy – radiotherapy

INTRODUCTION

Lung cancer in women differs from that in men with respect to its incidence, association with smoking, and histological distribution (1). Several epidemiological studies have shown that female smokers have a 1.5- to 3-fold higher risk of developing lung cancer than male smokers, suggesting that women may have an increased susceptibility to the carcinogens in tobacco. Never-smokers with lung cancer are more likely to be female than male, and in East Asian countries, as high as 70% of the women diagnosed with lung cancer have never smoked in their lives. Women are more likely to develop adenocarcinoma than squamous cell carcinoma, the latter being more common in men. This difference cannot be explained fully by differences in the smoking patterns, and potentially suggests basic differences in the etiology of lung cancer between the sexes (1).

Prospective cohort studies and a large population-based study have consistently shown that female gender is a favorable prognostic factor in patients with non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC). These studies, however, included patients

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with all stages of cancer, and the therapies administered are not specified (2–4). The existence of a gender difference in survival remains controversial among patients with locally advanced NSCLC receiving radiation-based treatment. Some studies have shown better survival in females than in males (5–7), whereas others have shown no difference in survival between the sexes (8,9). Many patients in these studies, however, received radiotherapy alone, which is no longer the standard treatment for locally advanced disease. Furthermore, all but one of these studies included patients with stage I–II disease who were considered unsuitable for surgical treatment because of poor general condition. One study that addressed gender differences in unresectable stage III NSCLC patients treated by chemoradiotherapy showed a median survival time in women of 19.7 months and in men of 21.7 months ($P = 0.26$) (10). The objectives of this study were to compare the outcomes of concurrent chemoradiotherapy between female and male patients with stage III NSCLC.

PATIENTS AND METHODS

Study Population

Patients with unresectable stage III NSCLC who underwent concurrent platinum-based chemotherapy and thoracic radiotherapy at the National Cancer Center Hospital between 1994 and 2005 were eligible for this study. A total of 204 patients were identified. Patients treated by sequential chemotherapy and thoracic radiotherapy were excluded from this study, because we consider that the standard of care for unresectable stage III NSCLC without effusion is concurrent chemoradiotherapy, and sequential treatment is only given to patients in poor general condition or those with tumors too large for radiotherapy initially, which are expected to shrink sufficiently for radiotherapy after chemotherapy. All patients underwent a systematic pre-treatment evaluation and standardized staging procedures, which included physical examination, chest X-rays, computed tomographic (CT) scans of the chest and abdomen, CT or magnetic resonance imaging of the brain, and bone scintigraphy. Chemotherapy consisted of cisplatin combined with either vinorelbine ($n = 125$), vindesine with or without mitomycin ($n = 46$), or other drugs ($n = 6$) repeated every 4 weeks, carboplatin and docetaxel ($n = 10$) administered weekly, and nedaplatin and paclitaxel administered every 4 weeks ($n = 17$).

A retrospective review of the medical charts of the patients was conducted to determine the gender, age, smoking history, body weight loss, performance status, clinical stage, histology, success of treatment delivery, incidence/severity of hematological toxicity and esophagitis, tumor responses, and survival parameters. The histological classification of the tumor was based on the criteria of the World Health Organization (11). Toxicity was graded according to the Common Terminology Criteria for Adverse Events v3.0. Objective tumor responses were evaluated according to the Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumors (RECIST) (12).

Statistical Methods

The demographic, clinical and histopathologic characteristics were compared between the genders. The χ^2 and Mann–Whitney tests were used to evaluate the differences in the categorical and continuous variables, respectively. Overall survival was measured from the start of chemotherapy to death from any cause. For progression-free survival (PFS), both the first evidence of disease progression and death from any cause were counted as an event. A patient who did not develop any event at the last follow-up was censored at that time. Survival curves were calculated according to the Kaplan–Meier method. Cox's proportional hazard models were used to adjust for potential confounding factors such as tumor stage and performance status (13). The significance of P value was set to be <0.05. All of the above-mentioned analyses were performed using the Dr. SPSS II 11.0 for Windows software package (SPSS Japan Inc., Tokyo, Japan).

RESULTS

Patient Demographics

Of the 204 patients, 44 (22%) were females and 160 (78%) were males (Table 1). There were no differences in age, body weight loss or performance status between the sexes, whereas never-smokers were more common among female patients (55% vs. 3%, $P < 0.001$). Adenocarcinoma accounted for the main histological type in both sexes, but was more common in female patients (73% vs. 55%, $P = 0.034$). No difference in the distribution of the clinical stage was noted between the sexes.

Treatment Delivery

The delivery of chemoradiotherapy was good in both sexes. Three to four cycles of chemotherapy were administered in 68% of the female patients and 69% of the male patients. A total radiation dose of 60 Gy was given to 89% of the female patients and 86% of the male patients.

Toxicities

Grade 3–4 neutropenia was observed in 64% of the female patients and 63% of the male patients (Table 2). The frequency of febrile neutropenia was also the same between the sexes. Severe esophagitis was encountered in <10% of the patients, irrespective of the sex.

Treatment after Recurrence

The use of epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR)-tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs) was evaluated in

43 of the 44 female patients and 153 of the 160 male patients. Gefitinib was given to 7 female and 25 male patients, and erlotinib to 1 female and 1 male patient. Thus, in all, EGFR-TKIs were given to 8 (18.2%) female and 26 (16.3%) male patients.

Table 1. Patient characteristics

Characteristics	Female ($n = 44$)		Male ($n = 160$)		*P* value
	N	%	*N*	%	
Age					
Median (range)	57 (29–74)		58 (35–78)		0.28
Smoking history					
Never	24	55	5	3	<0.001
Former	5	11	77	48	
Current	15	34	78	49	
Body weight loss					
≤4.9%	36	82	126	79	0.66
≥5.0%	8	18	34	21	
Performance status					
0	12	27	51	32	0.62
1	32	73	107	67	
2	0		2	1	
Histology					
Adenocarcinoma	32	73	88	55	0.034
Non-adenocarcinoma	12	27	72	45	
Stage					
IIIA	17	39	69	43	0.53
IIIB	27	61	91	57	
Period					
1994–99	17	39	47	29	0.24
2000–05	27	61	113	71	

Table 2. Grade 3–4 toxicity

Toxicity	Grade	Female ($n = 44$)		Male ($n = 160$)		*P* value
		N	%	*N*	%	
Leukopenia	3	23	52	79	49	0.44
	4	9	21	33	21	
Neutropenia	3	13	30	49	31	0.19
	4	15	34	51	32	
Thrombocytopenia	3	1	2	5	3	0.97
	4	0		1	1	
Febrile neutropenia	3	9	21	37	23	0.59
	4	1	2	1	1	
Esophagitis	3	2	5	14	9	0.79

Response and Survival

There were 3 patients showing complete response (CR), 38 showing partial response (PR) and 2 showing stable disease (SD) among the 43 female patients evaluable for response, and 10 patients showing CR, 116 showing PR, 24 showing SD and 7 showing progressive disease among the 157 male patients evaluable for response. The response rate was higher in the female than in the male patients (93% vs. 79%, $P = 0.028$). Disease progression was noted in 36 of the 44 (82%) female patients and 131 of the 160 (82%) male patients. The median PFS did not differ significantly between the sexes: 9.2 months in the females and 9.7 months in the males ($P = 0.67$, Fig. 1). The median survival time in the female and male patients was 22.3 and 24.3 months, respectively ($P = 0.64$, Fig. 2). Survival analyses in subgroups showed the

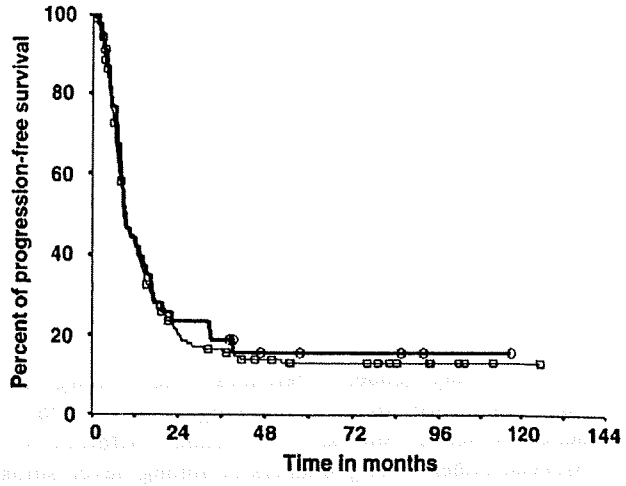

Figure 1. Progression-free survival by sex. Thick line, females; thin line, males.

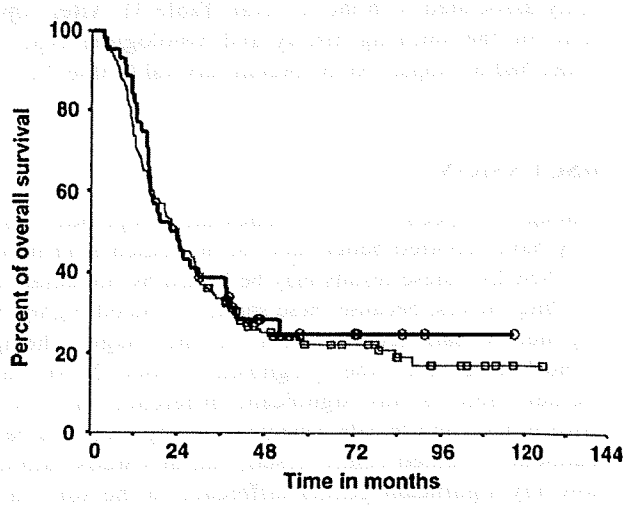

Figure 2. Overall survival by sex. Thick line, females; thin line, males.

Table 3. Factors associated with overall survival

Variables	Hazard ratio (95% confidence interval)	
	Univariate analyses	Multivariate analyses
Age	1.01 (0.99–1.03)	—
Sex		
Female	1	1
Male	1.10 (0.74–1.62)	1.16 (0.71–1.90)
Smoking habit		
No	1	1
Yes	1.00 (0.63–1.59)	0.75 (0.41–1.36)
Body weight loss		
≤4.9%	1	—
≥5.0%	1.19 (0.81–1.75)	—
Performance status		
0	1	1
1–2	1.59 (1.11–2.28)	1.44 (0.97–2.15)
Histology		
Adenocarcinoma	1	1
Non-adenocarcinoma	0.76 (0.53–1.10)	0.74 (0.51–1.08)
Stage		
IIIA	1	1
IIIB	0.96 (0.70–1.32)	0.79 (0.56–1.11)
Period		
1994–99	1	1
2000–05	0.62 (0.45–0.86)	0.65 (0.45–0.92)

absence of any gender differences either among patients with adenocarcinoma or among those with non-adenocarcinoma. Similarly, no gender differences were observed either among smokers or among never-smokers. Univariate Cox's proportional hazard analyses showed that the performance status and treatment period were significantly associated with the survival (Table 3). After adjustment for the smoking history and histological type, the gender had no impact on the overall survival (Table 3).

DISCUSSION

Although prospective cohort studies and a population-based study have reported better survival in women than in men with NSCLC, these results may be biased by potential confounding factors, because these studies included highly heterogeneous patients in terms of the stage, therapy, co-morbidities and other prognostic factors (2–4). Thus, whether there is any significant difference in survival between male and female patients receiving radiation-based treatment remained controversial, and this study failed to show any significant gender difference in the survival in NSCLC patients receiving concurrent chemoradiotherapy.

Several previous studies have suggested a better prognosis in female than in male NSCLC patients treated by surgery (2,14–18), whereas our results were inconsistent with this suggestion. This may be attributable to the difference in the distribution of the disease stage (pathological stages I, II and III) between these studies and our study, including pathological stages I, II and III. The magnitude of the gender difference in survival has been suggested to vary with the disease stage. Some studies have shown a diminishing gender difference as the disease stage advanced from stages I to III, with disappearance of the gender difference among patients with stage III disease (14,15), whereas others have shown relatively constant gender difference through all the disease stages (2,16,17). A study on the gender difference in the survival in surgically resected NSCLC patients showed a better overall survival in women than men, but no significant difference in the cancer-specific survival between the two sexes (18). These results suggest that the gender difference in survival in NSCLC patients undergoing curative surgery, especially patients with early-stage disease, can be explained by the mortality related to diseases other than lung cancer.

Among local or locally advanced NSCLC patients receiving radiotherapy-based treatment, the gender difference in survival has been controversial (5–9), but potential confounding factors in these studies prevent an accurate interpretation of the results. In these studies, as high as 30% of the patients had medically inoperable stage I–II disease and 3–22% of the patients had a performance status of 2. In addition, 36–100% of patients were treated by thoracic radiation alone, whereas the others also received some form of chemotherapy as part of the treatment. Neither the current study nor another previous study showed any gender difference in the survival (10). The patients in both of these studies were limited to stage III NSCLC patients with a performance status of 0–1 who were treated by concurrent chemoradiotherapy.

Several studies have been conducted on the gender differences in survival among patients with stage IIIB–IV disease treated by systemic chemotherapy (19–24). Of these, many showed a better survival in female patients than in male patients (19–22), but the causes of this gender difference in survival remain unknown. Our previous study also showed a better survival in female patients, which was explained partly by the large number of female patients (56% vs. 44%) receiving gefitinib, and the 4-fold longer duration of gefitinib treatment (144 vs. 35 days) in these patients (25). In contrast, only 18% of the female patients and 16% of the male patients received EGFR-TKIs in this study. Thus, treatment with EGFR-TKIs had little influence on the patient survival in this study.

Clear difference in the frequency of adenocarcinoma and smoking history between female and male patients has been reported repeatedly, and this study also showed that adenocarcinoma and never-smokers were more common among the female patients. Thus, it would be reasonable to think that differences in the tumor cell characteristics between the

female and male patients may be responsible for the difference in survival between the two sexes. However, survival analyses conducted separately in subgroups among patients with adenocarcinoma and those with non-adenocarcinoma, or among smokers and non-smokers have failed to reveal any gender differences in the survival among any subgroups. In addition, a multivariate analysis showed no difference in survival between the sexes after adjustment for the tumor histology and smoking history.

The threshold for drug toxicity may also differ between women and men. In general, chemotherapy-related toxicity is reported to be slightly more severe in women, and to the best of our knowledge, there are no reports on the gender difference in radiation-related toxicity. This study showed no difference in the severity of esophagitis or hematological toxicity between the two sexes. We did not examine pulmonary toxicity in this study, because our previous large retrospective study showed no difference in the incidence or grade of pulmonary toxicity between the sexes (26).

Among several limitations of this study, the most important is the small sample size that made it difficult to draw definitive conclusions. Indeed, small difference in survival between the sexes, if any, could not be detected in this small number of patients. It is difficult, however, to expand the study population without an increase in its heterogeneity. A population-based study with >20 000 patients, for example, included patients with all stages of lung cancer, and the therapies administered were not specified. Furthermore, the quality of data on diagnosis and treatment was not uniform (4). Thus, the results of that study may be biased, despite of the huge number of patients. We cannot overlook this problem especially when analyzing stage III NSCLC patients treated with radiation-based treatment, because the quality control of radiotherapy has not been fully developed in Japan, and therefore, indication, methods and outcomes of thoracic radiotherapy may vary among hospitals.

In conclusion, this study failed to reveal any significant differences in the treatment outcomes, including survival and treatment toxicity, between female and male patients with stage III NSCLC receiving concurrent chemoradiotherapy. These results are in sharp contrast to the reported better survival in female patients with localized disease treated by surgery or those with metastatic disease treated by systemic chemotherapy.

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Conflict of interest statement

None declared.

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Characteristics and outcomes of patients with advanced non-small-cell lung cancer who declined to participate in randomised clinical chemotherapy trials

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There are inadequate data on the outcomes of patients who declined to participate in randomised clinical trials as compared with those of participants. We retrospectively reviewed the patient characteristics and treatment outcomes of both participants and non-participants in the two randomised trials for chemotherapy-naive advanced non-small-cell lung cancer. Trial 1 compared four platinum-based combination regimens. Trial 2 compared two sequences of carboplatin plus paclitaxel and gefitinib therapies. Nineteen of 119 (16%) and 153 (37%) patients declined to participate in Trials 1 and 2, respectively. Among the background patient characteristics, the only variable associated with trial participation or declining was the patients' attending physicians ($P<0.001$). Important differences were not observed in the clinical outcomes between participants and non-participants, for whom the response rates were 30.6 *vs* 34.2% and the median survival times were 489 *vs* 461 days, respectively. The hazard ratio for overall survival, adjusted for other confounding variables, was 0.965 (95% confidence interval: 0.73–1.28). In conclusion, there was no evidence to suggest any difference in the characteristics and clinical outcomes between participants and non-participants. Trial designs and the doctor–patient relationship may have an impact on the patient accrual to randomised trials.
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Clinical Studies

Randomised clinical trials (RCTs) are the definitive method for comparing the efficacy of treatments and a crucial step in the development of new cancer treatments. There has always been a big problem that their low accrual rates limit their progress (Lara *et al*, 2001; Corrie *et al*, 2003; Go *et al*, 2006).

A number of studies have examined the motivations of patients for accepting or declining entry to RCTs (Jenkins and Fallowfield, 2000; Madsen *et al*, 2000, 2002; Ellis *et al*, 2001; Wright *et al*, 2004; Ho *et al*, 2006; Albrecht *et al*, 2008). The results of questionnaire surveys administered to patients regarding clinical trials revealed that two of the most common reasons for entering the trial were the hope for personal benefit and the opportunity to contribute to the research knowledge thereby benefiting others in the future (Jenkins and Fallowfield, 2000; Madsen *et al*, 2000, 2002; Ellis *et al*, 2001; Wright *et al*, 2004; Albrecht *et al*, 2008). On the other hand, the common reasons for declining participation were worries about the process of randomisation, overestimation of the benefits of standard therapy and fear of the trial's experimental nature (Jenkins and Fallowfield, 2000; Ellis *et al*, 2001; Ho *et al*, 2006).

However, inadequate data are available on the actual outcomes of non-participants compared with those participating in RCTs (Schmoor *et al*, 1996; Braunholtz *et al*, 2001; Burgers *et al*, 2002; Peppercorn *et al*, 2004; West *et al*, 2005). Although several reports and their review (Braunholtz *et al*, 2001) have suggested the existence of a 'trial effect', in which participants enjoy favourable outcomes, others, especially those which attempted to exclude the confounding factors, have refuted this finding (Schmoor *et al*, 1996; Burgers *et al*, 2002; Peppercorn *et al*, 2004; West *et al*, 2005).

On the other hand, if participation in prospective trials is associated with certain clinical characteristics of the patients, generalisability of the conclusion from the data to the clinical practise, even in patients who meet the restrictive eligibility criteria, should be in question.

The purpose of this study was to analyse the characteristics and outcomes of the patients who met the eligibility criteria but declined to participate in RCTs, as compared with those who did participate, and to search for clues to improve patient accrual to clinical trials.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Between October 2000 and October 2005, each of the 272 patients, who fulfilled the entry criteria of our top priority studies during the period, was informed of all aspects of RCTs on non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC) and was invited to participate in one of the two trials to be conducted at the National Cancer Center Hospital, Tokyo, Japan. We make it a rule for each patient with advanced

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lung cancer to be hospitalised for the first-line chemotherapy. All patients are then checked for the eligibility criteria of clinical trials available at the time and recorded in our database, whether or not they are treated on trials.

Signed informed consent was obtained from the patients for future statistical analysis of their clinical courses and outcomes, even when they were treated outside clinical trials.

Trial 1 was conducted to compare the four platinum-based combination regimens (cisplatin–irinotecan, carboplatin–paclitaxel, cisplatin–gemcitabine and cisplatin–vinorelbine) in patients with untreated advanced NSCLC between October 2000 and June 2002 (Ohe *et al*, 2007). When patients declined to participate, cisplatin-based combination regimens, such as cisplatin–irinotecan, the reference arm of the trial, were recommended. The patients ultimately selected the treatment following discussions with their families and the physicians.

Trial 2 was conducted between June 2003 and October 2005 to compare the following two treatment arms; (A) four courses of carboplatin and paclitaxel (CP) followed by gefitinib, and (B) gefitinib until disease progression followed by CP, in patients with advanced NSCLC (Nokihara *et al*, 2008). When patients declined to participate, platinum-based combination regimens, such as CP, were recommended. The patients ultimately selected the treatment following discussions with their families and the physicians; treatment options included gefitinib as first-line chemotherapy, when the patients and their families wished to start with it.

Patients in each trial had to meet the following criteria: histologically and/or cytologically documented NSCLC; clinical stage IV or IIIB (including only patients with no indications for curative radiotherapy); no earlier systematic chemotherapy; at least one measurable lesion; age 20–74 years old; Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group Performance Status (PS) of 0 or 1; adequate haematological, hepatic and renal functions; and partial pressure of arterial oxygen of 60 torr or more. Each patient was required to submit a written informed consent before entry.

Four physicians (A, B, C and D) participated in Trial 1 and five physicians (A, B, C, D and E) in Trial 2. All were male. Physicians A, B, C and D had 16, 14, 11 and 9 years of experience, respectively, at the time of activation of Trial 1 (October 2000), and Physician E had 9 years of experience at the start of Trial 2 (June 2003). One of the five attending staff physicians and one to two residents or trainees attended each consultation. Which doctor actually offered the RCTs depended on each case and was not recorded, but the attending staff physician finally confirmed the decision by the patient.

Paper and/or electronic medical records from the initial visit to our centre to the end of the follow-up were retrospectively reviewed. Demographic data (age, gender, smoking history), medical information (tumour histology, clinical stage, performance status, therapy characteristics), and clinical outcomes (response rate, follow-up time, overall survival time, 1- and 2-year survival rates) were abstracted and analysed. The response was evaluated according to the Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumours (RECIST) (Therasse *et al*, 2000) by the attending physicians. It is our policy to assess clinical responses with RECIST, even in routine practise. Follow-up time at our institution was defined as the period from the initiation of the first day of the initial therapy or decision of no therapy, to the last day at our institution (including death during follow-up). Survival data of the patients who left our institution could be collected by enquiry into official agency for family registry in Japan.

χ^2-tests and logistic regression analysis was used to assess associations between patient characteristics and the rate of declining to participate. Overall survival (OS) curves were produced using the Kaplan–Meier method and compared with the log rank test. All participants (those who agreed to be enroled into the RCT) and non-participants (those who declined to participate in the RCT) were included in the OS analysis. A Cox proportional hazards model was used to adjust for other potential confounding factors (age, gender, smoking history, clinical stage and PS) in comparing the OS of participants and non-participants. *P*-values <0.05 were considered statistically significant. The data collected were analysed using an SPSS II statistical package.

Japanese ethics guidelines for clinical and epidemiological studies, which took effect in August 2007, do not mandate institutional review board (IRB) approval for a single-institutional, retrospective data analysis from the medical charts, when the predesignated person of the institution so judges. This study was thus exempted from ethical review of IRB in due process, on the judgment of the responsible official, deputy director of National Cancer Center Hospital.

RESULTS

There were no significant differences in the outcomes between the arms of each trial. In Trial 1, no statistically significant differences in the response rate, progression-free survival and OS were observed between the four regimens. In Trial 2, there were no statistically significant differences in the median survival time (MST) (18.8 and 17.2 months) and the survival rate at 1 year between the two arms. Seventy-five patients declined to participate in those trials, and 1 of the 197 who initially accepted entry withdrew consent, refusing to continue the trial immediately after randomisation.

Table 1 shows the patient characteristics and rate of declining. 100 patients accepted and 19 patients (16%) declined entry to Trial 1, and 96 patients accepted and 57 patients (37%) declined entry to clinical Trial 2 (including the one patient already mentioned who withdrew consent after randomisation) ($P<0.001$). No significant influence on the rate of declining of patient gender, age,

Table 1 Patient characteristics and rate of declining

	Clinical trial 1			Clinical trial 2			Total		
	P	NP	ROD (%)	P	NP	ROD (%)	P	NP	ROD (%)
No.	100	19	16	96	57	37	196	76	28
Gender									
Male	64	12	16	55	34	38	119	46	28
Female	36	7	16	41	23	36	77	30	28
Age									
<60	46	9	16	37	29	44	83	38	31
⩾60	54	10	16	59	28	32	113	38	25
Smoking history									
+	69	9	12	55	33	38	124	43	26
–	31	10	24	41	24	37	72	33	31
Clinical stage									
III	24	6	20	21	19	48	45	25	36
IV	76	13	15	75	38	34	151	51	25
PS									
0	27	4	13	47	19	29	74	23	24
1	73	15	17	49	38	44	122	53	30
Physicians									
A	32	5	14	23	25	52	55	30	35
B	28	0	0	25	1	4	53	1	2
C	18	2	10	34	4	11	52	6	10
D	22	12	35	7	18	72	29	30	51
E	—	—	—	7	9	56	7	9	56

Abbreviations: NP = non-participants, P = participants; PS = performance status; ROD = rate of declining.