Chemoradiation for Small Cell Esophageal Carcinoma: Report of 11 Cases from Multi-institution Experience

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Small cell carcinoma/Esophageal cancer/Chemoradiation.

Small cell esophageal carcinoma(SCEC) is a rare disease with aggressive behavior and poor prognosis. Because of the rarity of this disease, standard therapy has not yet been established. The objective of this retrospective study was to report the outcomes of SCEC treated with chemotherapy and radiotherapy from a retrospective study of 11 patients. We enrolled 11 SCEC patients who were treated with radiation therapy (more than 50 Gy) and chemotherapy between May 1996 and October 2007. Patients' age ranged from 44 to 77 years (mean: 69 years). In all patients, pathological examination of the specimen obtained by biopsy revealed small cell carcinoma. All patients were treated with chemotherapy and radiation therapy. The mean follow-up time was 14.7 months, and the median overall survival time of all patients was 13.2 months (range: 4.2–43.6 months). The 1-year and 3-year overall survival rates were 63% and 24%, respectively, while the 1-year and 3-year progression-free survival rates were 45% and 14%, respectively. Five of seven patients with complete response (CR) developed recurrent disease. Recurrence sites were distant metastases in four patients and lymph node outside the radiation field in one patient. Chemoradiation should be considered as one of the important treatment options for the loco-regional control in the patients with SCEC.

INTRODUCTION

The esophagus is the most commonly involved site of extrapulmonary small cell carcinoma. Small-cell carcinoma has been described in the lung, esophagus, stomach, intestine, salivary gland, paranasal sinus, thymus, prostate, urinary bladder, breast, uterine cervix, endometrium, and skin. In the gastrointestinal (GI) tract, 50% of tumors arise in the esophagus. McKeown reported two cases of small cell esophageal carcinoma (SCEC), the first report of this disease, and since that time the incidence of SCEC has been estimated to range from 0.4% to 3.2% of all esophageal

malignancy.^{4,5)} SCEC is a rare disease with aggressive behavior and poor prognosis, and because of the rarity of this disease, standard therapy has not yet been established.

The clinical behavior of SCEC has a marked resemblance to that of small cell lung carcinoma (SCLC), with a high frequency of regional and distant spreading at diagnosis and early systemic relapse after local treatment. Small cell carcinoma is considered to be highly sensitive to radiotherapy and chemotherapy. Radiation therapy and surgery are used to manage loco-regional disease, and systemic chemotherapy is used to treat metastasis. The objective of this retrospective study was to report the outcomes of SCEC treated with chemotherapy and radiotherapy from a retrospective study of eleven patients.

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Patients

We enrolled eleven SCEC patients who were treated with radiation therapy (more than 50 Gy) and chemotherapy at Kyushu University Hospital, Kyushu Cancer Center, Kita-Kyushu Medical Center, and Saiseikai Fukuoka Hospital between May 1996 and October 2007. The characteristics of

MATERIALS AND METHODS

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the patients are shown in Table 1. Patient age ranged from 44 to 77 years (mean: 69 years). In all patients, pathological examination of the specimen obtained by biopsy revealed small cell carcinoma.

Pretreatment evaluation

The extent of disease in each patient was evaluated by physical examination, esophagography, esophagoscopy, and computed tomography (CT) of the neck, chest, and abdomen. Distant metastases were evaluated using CT, brain MRI or positron emission tomography (PET). Assignment of clinical staging was performed according to the criteria of the International Union against Cancer (UICC, 2002).⁹

By analogy with SCLC, we have defined limited disease (LD) as a tumor that could be covered reasonably within a single field, and extensive disease (ED) as one that involved distant metastases.

Treatments

The details of radiation and chemotherapy treatment of all patients are shown in Table 2. All patients were treated with chemotherapy and radiation therapy. In all patients, radiation therapy was performed using an external beam and delivered at a daily dose of 1.8–2 Gy, five times per week using 4, 6, or 10MV photon beams. The total dose ranged from 50 to 70 Gy (median 60.8 Gy). Eight patients were treated with prophylactic regional irradiation of 40–41.4 Gy. The chemotherapy regimen consisted of cisplatin (CDDP) and 5-fluorourasil (5-FU) in four patients, CDDP and UFT in one patient, carboplatin (CBDCA) and etoposide (VP-16) in three patients, CDDP and irinotecan hydrochloride (CPT-11) in two patients, and CDDP and VP-16 in one patient. In two

ED patients with liver metastases before treatment, transarterial infusion with CDDP was performed for liver metastasis. Concurrent chemoradiotherapy was performed in eight patients.

Response evaluation

For measurable disease, responses were evaluated according to the World Health Organization (WHO) criteria.7) Response for all sites was as follows: complete response (CR) was consistent with disappearance of all visible tumors including distant metastasis, while partial response (PR) was assigned if all visible tumors were reduced by at least 50%. Progressive disease (PD) was consistent with an increase in the tumor area by 25% or developing distant metastasis. Response for the primary tumor was also evaluated according to the criteria of the Japanese Society for Esophageal Disease.8) Briefly, CR for a primary tumor was consistent with the disappearance of all visible tumors, including ulceration, and a negative biopsy result on esophagoscopy that lasted more than four weeks. PR was assigned if the primary tumor was reduced by at least 50% on esophagography and reduction lasted for four weeks. PD was consistent with an increase in the tumor area by 25%. Responses were evaluated using esophagography, esophagoscopy, and CT of the chest and abdomen. Distant metastases were evaluated using CT, brain MRI or PET. Common Terminology Criteria for Adverse Events v.3.0 (CTCAE) was used to evaluate observed toxicity.

Statistical analysis

The survival time was calculated from the date of treatment initiation to that of death from any cause or to the last

Table 1. Patient characteristics

Patient	Age	Gender	PS	Finding type	primary site	Tumor length (mm)	Т	N	M	Stage	LD or ED	Metastatic site
1	71	М	1	2	Lt	30	3	1	1	4	ED	liver, adrenal
2	65	M	1	2	Mt	80	4	1	0	3	LD	
3	70	M	0	2	Mt	100	3	1	0	3	LD	
4	51	F	3	2	Mt	30	4	1	0	3	LD	
5	66	F	0	2	Lt	100	3	1	0	3	LD	
6	44	M	1	2	Ut	65	3	0	0	2	LD	
7	76	M	1	2	Lt	30	3	1	0	3	LD	
8	75	M	0	2	Mt	47	2	0	1	4	ED	liver, adrenal
9	58	M	0	3	Ut	130	4	1	0	3	LD	
10	77	F	2	3	Lt	70	4	1	0	3	LD	
11	74	F	0	0–1 pl	Mt	10	1b	0	0	1	LD	

Abbreviations: Ut = upper thoracic esophagus; Mt = middle thoracic esophagus; Lt = lower thoracic esophagus; LD = limited disease; ED = extended disease

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Table 2. Treatment course and results of treatment

D-414	Treatment	RT total	RT initial	CT la mina an	Response of all	PD site	OST	Present status
Patient	course	dose (Gy)	field*	CT legimen	sites	PD site	(month)	Present status
1	CT→RT + TAI	50	small	CDDP/5-FU	PR	unknown	23.4	Dead of disease
2	$RT \rightarrow CT \rightarrow RT$	50.4	large	CDDP/VP	CR	DM	13.2	Dead of disease
3	CT→RT	61.4	large	CBDCA/VP	CR	none	44.6	Dead with NED
4	CT→CCRT	61.4	large	CBDCA/VP	CR	DM	24	Alive with disease
5	$CT \rightarrow CCRT$	61.4	large	CBDCA/VP	CR	none	18	Alive with NED
6	CCRT	70	large	CDDP/5-FU	CR	DM	5.6	Dead of disease
7	CT→RT	60	large	CDDP/CPT-11	CR	DM	9.2	Dead of disease
8	$CT \rightarrow RT + TAI$	60	small	CDDP/CPT-11	PR	DM	12.4	Dead of disease
9	CCRT	60.8	large	CDDP/5-FU	PR	DM	7.2	Dead of disease
10	CCRT	60.8	large	CDDP/5-FU	PD	DM	4.2	Dead of disease
11	CCRT→CT	63	small	CDDP/UFT	CR	LN	18.1	Dead of disease

Abbreviations: CT = chemotherapy; RT = radiotherapy, CCRT = concurrent chemoradiation; TAI = transarterial infusion; CR = complete response; PR = partial response; PD = progressive disease; DM = distant metasiasis; LN = lymph node; OST = overall survival time; NED = no evidence of disease

^{*}large/small; with/without prophylactic irradiation

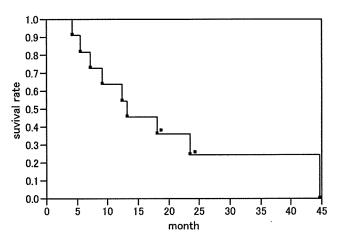


Fig. 1. Overall survival curve; 1-year and 3-year overall survival rate were 63% and 24%.

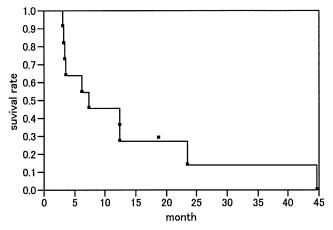


Fig. 2. Progression-free survival curve; 1-year and 3-year progression-free survival rate were 45% and 14%.

date of confirmation of survival. We estimated survival curves using the Kaplan-Meier method.

RESULTS

The response for all sites was CR in seven patients, PR in three patients, and PD in 1 patient. The response rate (RR) for all sites was 91%. The RR of primary esophageal lesions was 82% (nine of 11 patients). The summary of results of treatment is shown in Table 2. One patient with PD of all sites (patient 10) developed distant metastasis in the liver and bone during therapy. Two patients (patients 3 and 5)

were still alive at the last follow-up, and one patient showed no evidence of disease.

The mean follow-up time was 20 months, and the median overall survival time of all patients was 13.2 months (range: 4.2–43.6 months). The 1-year and 3-year overall survival rates were 63% and 24%, respectively (Fig. 1), and the 1-year and 3-year progression-free survival rates were 45% and 14%, respectively (Fig. 2). Five of seven patients with CR response developed recurrent disease. Recurrence sites were distant metastases in four patients and lymph node outside the radiation field in one patient. Local recurrence was not observed. Distant metastatic sites were the liver in two

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Table 3. Severe adverse reactions

Hematologic adverse reactions	Grade 3	Grade 4
Leukopenia	3	1
Thrombocytopenia	0	2
Anemia	1	1
Non-hematologic adverse reactions		
Radiation pneumonnitis	1	0
Esophagitis	0	0
Nausea	0	0

patients, brain in two patients, bone in one patient, and pancreas in one patient.

Toxicity is summarized in Table 3. Grade 3/4 neutropenia was observed in four patients (36%), grade 4 thrombocytopenia was observed in two patients (18%), And grade 3/4 anemia was observed in two patients (18%). Regarding nonhematologic adverse reactions, grade 3 radiation pneumonitis was observed in one patient (9%). Other adverse reactions were mild, with no treatment-related deaths observed.

DISCUSSION

Small-cell esophageal cancer (SCEC) is a rare disease with aggressive behavior and poor prognosis. The SCEC tumor is aggressive, and most patients present with disseminated disease. The prognosis of this tumor is generally unfavorable, with median survival ranging from 3.1 to 15.5 months. ⁹⁻¹¹ Surgical resection, radiotherapy and multi-drug chemotherapy have been used either alone or in combination to treat SCEC, but the overall prognosis is still disappointing, regardless of treatment modality. Because of the rarity of this disease, the most effective treatment for SCEC has not yet been established.

Small cell carcinoma is considered to be highly sensitive to radiotherapy and chemotherapy. Since SCEC has similar histological and clinical characteristics to small cell lung cancer (SCLC), the same therapeutic strategies for both malignancies are recommended in the literature. 12-15) SCEC is a systemic disease, so chemotherapy is considered to play a more important role in the combined therapy. In a study involving eight patients, Isolauri et al. suggested that the survival was better for the patients receiving chemotherapy (range: 4-8 months) compared with the patients treated with surgery alone (range: 9-30 days). 16) Law et al. reported a median survival of 16.7 months (range: 2.8-72 months) for patients receiving systemic treatment compared to 2.2 months (range: 4 days to 9.1 months) in the other cases. 10) Nichols et al. reported that 50% of patients with SCEC were insensitive to multi-drug combination chemotherapy with/ without sequential radiation,⁵⁾ and Nishimaki *et al.* also reported that chemotherapy with a single-drug protocol could not prolong patient survival.¹⁷⁾ Nemoto *et al.* reported that survival rates were significantly better in the 14 patients who were treated with chemotherapy (median survival time: 24 months) compared with six patients who were not treated with chemotherapy (median survival time: 5 months) (p = 0.0061).¹⁸⁾

Hudson et al. concluded that combined modality therapy using platinum-based combination chemotherapy and radical radiotherapy might allow a non-surgical approach to management, avoiding the morbidity of esophagectomy. 19) They reported that the median survival time of all patients (n = 16) was 13.2 months and that the median survival time of patients with LD (n = 6) was significantly longer than those with ED (n = 9) (24.4 versus 9.1 months, P = 0.034). Additionally, Yau et al. managed all patients non-operatively with chemotherapy and/or radiotherapy, and the overall median survival time was 8 months (range: 2-62 months).²⁰⁾ The survival was 4-62 months for patients with LD (n = 4), whereas it was 2–10 months for patients with ED (n = 6) at initial diagnosis. They concluded that satisfactory palliation could be achieved with chemoradiation for patients with limited disease.

Chemotherapy for squamous cell esophageal cancer usually consists of platinum plus 5-FU regimens. However, the recommended chemotherapy for SCLC is the platinum plus VP-16 or CPT-11 regimen. CDDP and VP-16 or CPT-11 are the standard regimen for SCLC in Japan.²¹⁾ Recently, the authors of two studies have suggested that the combination of CPT-11 or VP-16 and platinum such as that used to treat SCLC seems to be effective therapy for SCEC with an acceptable toxicity profile. 22,23) Regarding SCEC, Yamashita et al. reported that 9 LD patients treated with concurrent chemoradiation using a CDDP plus VP-16 regimen showed a median survival time of 10.8 months (range: 4.2-42.8 months) and a 3-year overall survival rate of 55.6%.²²⁾ Chin et al. reported that 12 patients treated with chemotherapy using a CDDP plus CPT-11 regimen with/without radiation or surgery showed a median survival time of 417 days (range: 97-1626 days), and 3 of 12 patients were alive for over 40 months.²³⁾ CDDP plus VP-16 or CPT-11 may be effective regimen for SCEC as well as SCLC. However, further analysis is needed to determine the optimal chemotherapy regimen for SCEC.

SCEC is extremely aggressive and exhibits early metastatic dissemination much like that seen in SCLC. The authors of several previous reports suggested that SCEC is a systemic disease, so metastasis developed in early stages of the disease. 11–13,16–20) The most frequent sites of distant metastases were the bone and liver, followed by the lymph node, brain, and lung. In our two ED patients, liver metastases were found initially. We performed transarterial infusion with CDDP for liver metastasis in these two patients and achieved

good response. Transarterial infusion can be effective for liver metastases. In our two patients, brain metastases were observed after initial treatment. Prophylactic cranial irradiation (PCI) prolonged the survival time in patients with LD and ED SCLC in CR cases. ^{24,25)} It is very difficult to determine the role of PCI in the treatment for SCEC by randomized prospective study because of the rarity of this disease.

The standard dose and timing of radiation therapy for SCEC has not been established. In our study, all of the 11 patients achieved CR or PR of the primary region and no patient had local recurrence following treatment with 50-70 Gy (median 60.8 Gy) of irradiation. However, Yamashita et al. reported that 2 of 9 patients suffered from loco-regional recurrence in the irradiation field with 50 Gy of irradiation, 22) and Chin et al. reported that 7 of 12 patients initially treated with CPT-11 plus CDDP without radiotherapy suffered from locoregional recurrence.²³⁾ Therefore, radiotherapy is considered to have an important role in loco-regional control of SCEC. In the treatment of SCLC, local recurrence is observed in approximately half of the patients receiving 40-50 Gy of irradiation,²⁶⁾ but recurrence tends to be reduced by higher radiation doses.²⁷⁾ Considering the excellent local control in our series, most of which were treated with 60 Gy or higher doses, high dose irradiation may be effective for local control of SCEC. The recommended radiation therapy for SCLC patients is early and concurrent radiation with an accelated hyperfractionated (AHF) regimen.²⁸⁾ However, the AHF regimen is difficult to use for SCEC treatment because of the large field size consisting of a long part of the esophagus. The optimal dose, radiation field, fractionation schedule, and timing of the combination with chemotherapy remained to be established.

Surgical resection is often performed for LD-SCEC as well as radiation therapy. Sun KL et al. reported that, in the 73 patients treated with surgical resection for SCEC including 60 patients received chemotherapy after operation, 1-, 3and 5-year survival rates of patients were 50.7%, 13.7% and 8.2%, respectively.²⁹⁾ In our study, 1-year and 3-year overall survival rates were 63% and 24%, respectively. Additionally, chemoradiation achieved good response of primary legions and a local recurrence was not observed in our study. SCEC is considered a systemic disease rather than local disease because of high incidence of distant metastases as well as SCLC. Considering the high local control achieved by radiotherapy combined with chemotherapy, chemoradiation may be an effective treatment option comparable to surgical resection for LD-SCEC. Also for ED-SCEC, a combination use of radiotherapy with chemotherapy should be an useful palliative treatment against esophageal stenosis due to primary tumor.

In conclusion, chemoradiation should be considered as one of important treatment options for patients with SCEC. Although the incidence of SCEC is low, it is necessary to try to do clinical trials to obtain evidences of high level.

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集学的治療の一部として不可欠な領域 1 **肺 癌**

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● はじめに

肺癌は現在、日本において最も死亡率の高いがんである。特に高齢者における肺癌死亡率は高く、高齢者人口がさらに増加することにより肺癌死亡率はさらに増えることが懸念されており¹⁾、高齢者肺癌に対する治療戦略の確立は非常に重要な課題である。放射線治療は、肺癌に対する非侵襲的かつ有効な治療であり、早期から進行期まで、また、若年者から高齢者まで非常に幅広く適応できるという利点と特徴を備えた治療法であり、肺癌の集学的治療のなかできわめて大きな役割をもつ。

近年、CTシミュレーションをベースとした 三次元原体放射線治療(3D-CRT),定位放射線 治療(SRT),強度変調放射線治療(IMRT)な どの高精度 X 線照射法が開発されており,治療 成績の向上および副作用の低減に大きく寄与し ている。肺癌に対する放射線治療は,がんの治 癒を目的とする根治的治療と,症状の緩和を目 的とした緩和的治療とに大別されるが,ここで は、根治的治療を中心に述べる。

● 放射線治療の適応条件

1 非小細胞肺癌

非小細胞肺癌では、根治的放射線治療の適応 となるのは、早期癌では、内科的合併症や高齢 などにて臨床的に手術困難と判断された医学的

表 1 非小細胞肺癌における病期別放射線治療の 適応

病 期	推奨 される 治療法	備考
〜 期 (手術不能または拒否)	放射線 療法	末梢型 I 期には体幹 部定位照射が有効
Ⅲ A 期 (手術不能または拒否)	化学 放射線 療法	化学療法併用が困難 な例では放射線単独 治療
III A 期(bulky N2) III B 期(悪性胸水例を 除く)	化学 放射線 療法	化学療法併用が困難 な例では放射線単独 治療
Ⅳ 期	化療法 機服 緩累射	遠隔転移巣が 1〜数 個の場合に原発巣お よび遠隔転移巣へ根 治的な照射を行うこ とあり

手術不能や手術拒否の I, II 期症例,局所進行癌では,CT 上の短軸径 2 cm 以上の 2 群リンパ節転移(bulky N2)を有する III A 期症例,III B 期(ただし,悪性胸水例を除く)症例である(表 1)。手術との境界領域にある III 期について,術前または術後照射が試みられてきたが,その意義については明らかなエビデンスが得られておらず,化学放射線療法が標準的治療と考えてよい^{2,3)}。

I, II 期症例においては、加速過分割照射法を 用いて治療期間の短縮や SRT を用いて線量増加を図るなどの工夫がなされてきたが、特に近

表 2 小細胞肺癌における放射線治療の適応

病期	推奨される 治療法	備考
限局型	化学放射線 療法	Ⅰ期で外科手術後に化 学療法が行われる場合 がある
限局型 (悪性胸 水合併) 進展型	化学療法士 緩和照射	化学療法で遠隔転移が 消失した場合に胸部照 射を行うことあり

^{*}化学放射線療法後の寛解に対しては,予防的全脳 照射の適応あり。

年, I 期症例に対する SRT は, 手術に匹敵する 良好な成績が示されつつあり^{4,5)}, 医学的手術不 能または手術拒否の I 期症例に対するきわめて 有効な治療法として期待されている。ただし, 腫瘍径が 5 cm を超える症例や中枢側 (縦隔側) に存在し, 主気管支, 心臓, 大血管 (肺動脈本 幹, 大動脈), 脊髄などの重要リスク臓器に大線 量が照射される可能性が高い症例では適応が困 難とされている⁶⁾。

III 期局所進行肺癌の放射線治療では、PS(パ フォーマンス・ステータス)不良や高齢者を除 けば、化学療法を併用する化学放射線療法が標 準的治療法と考えられており^{7~9)}, 日本肺癌学 会ガイドライン 2005 年版でも、全身状態が良 好 (PS:0, 1) 症例においては、化学放射線療 法を行うよう強く勧めるとなっている²⁾。ただ し、年齢に関しては、その上限が明確に規定さ れているわけではない。しかし、70歳以上の高 齢者においては、放射線治療に化学療法を併用 した場合の利益を示した報告は少ないこと, Radiation Therapy Oncology Group (RTOG), Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group (ECOG), Southwest Oncology Group (SWOG) 共同のラン ダム化比較試験の後ろ向き分析でも,70歳以上 の高齢者では化学療法併用による生存率の向上 は認められていないこと⁹⁾, 70歳以上の高齢者 にも生存率向上の面で利益があったとする報告 でも、重篤な骨髄抑制、肺臓炎などの有害事象 が多かったとされていること10), などの観点か ら,70歳以上の高齢者局所進行肺癌に対して化 学療法を併用した放射線治療を行う場合には、 慎重な適応判断および十分なインフォームドコ

ンセントが必要である。

全身状態,年齢などの理由で化学療法が困難な症例においても,放射線単独治療により生存期間が延長することが示されており,初回治療として放射線治療を行うことが推奨されている²⁾。

2 小細胞肺癌

限局型小細胞肺癌に対しては、化学療法と放射線治療の併用が標準的である。一般に、小細胞肺癌は早期にリンパ節転移・遠隔転移をきたす症例が多く、化学療法の重要性が高いが、複数のメタアナリシスの結果により、放射線治療を行うことで局所再発率の減少、生存期間の延長が得られることが示され^{11,12)}、局所領域制御における放射線治療の重要性も非常に大きい(表 2)。

また、化学放射線療法などの初期治療により 寛解が得られた症例に対しては、予防的全脳照 射 (PCI) を行うことにより、脳転移再発の減 少と生存期間の延長が得られることがランダム 化比較試験により示されている^{13,14)}。

3 非適応条件

放射線治療が非適応となる条件は少ないが,活動性の間質性肺炎を合併している症例では,放射線治療により間質性肺炎の急性増悪をきたし,ときに致命的となることもあり,きわめて慎重な判断を要する。また,抗がん剤ゲムシタビンとの胸部放射線治療の併用は,重篤な肺臓炎や食道炎が起こることがあり,禁忌とされている。そのほか,膠原病患者にも皮膚障害,肺障害などの副作用の観点から注意を要する。

● 放射線治療方法

近年,治療計画用 CT と三次元治療計画装置を用いた治療計画(三次元治療計画)とリニアック治療装置の進歩により,三次元照射(定位照射も含む),IMRT など線量集中性が高く,精度の高い治療が可能となっている。

1 非小細胞肺癌

a 標的体積・照射野

肉眼的標的体積(GTV)は原発巣および転移 リンパ節である。GTVの決定の際には、2deoxy-2- [F-18] fluoro-D-glucose を用いた positron emission tomography (FDG-PET) の所見を参考にすることが望ましい。臨床的標的体積 (CTV) としては,微視的な浸潤を考慮し,GTV 周囲には 10 mm 程度マージンを加える。また,中枢型 (肺門部型) や III 期症例では,同側肺門,気管分岐部および上縦隔リンパ節領域まで含める必要があるが,末梢型でリンパ節 転移のない症例においては,必ずしも予防的リンパ節領域を含める必要はない。特に末梢型 I 期症例においては,リンパ節単独再発は少なく,原発巣のみへの照射でよいとされている¹⁵⁾。

また、肺癌の放射線治療においては、症例ごとにターゲットの呼吸性移動を正確に評価したうえで適切なマージンを付加した内的標的体積(ITV)という概念が非常に重要である。現在は、呼吸同期照射、息止め照射、腹部圧迫法などを用いて、ITVをできるだけ小さくする工夫が行われている。ITVにセットアップ精度を考慮したマージンをさらに加えたものが計画的標的体積(PTV)となり、線量処方の対象となる。

b 線量・分割

通常線量分割法(1日1回1.8~2.0 Gy, 週5回 照射) では、最低 60 Gy/30 回/6 週以上の照射 が推奨されている²⁾。I, II 期症例では, 1 回線 量 1.2~1.5 Gy を 1 日 2 回照射する過分割照射 や三次元照射による線量増加が有効である。特 に末梢型 I 期に対しては、体幹部定位照射によ る短期高線量照射法(45~60 Gy/3~10 回)で 非常に良好な治療成績が報告されている4,5)。切 除不能 III 期に対しては、今までに過分割照射法 による線量増加試験が行われたが、治療成績向 上の面での有効性は明らかにはなっていない。 最近では、微視的な腫瘍の広がりは化学療法の 役割として, 予防的リンパ節領域照射 (elective nodal irradiation: ENI) を省略し, 原発巣+転 移リンパ節に限局した比較的狭い照射 (involved field radiation therapy: IFRT) で線量 増加を行い、治療成績の向上と副作用低減を図 る傾向にある。

III B 期非小細胞肺癌症例に対する三次元照射を用いた放射線治療の例を図1に示す。同じ

症例に対して IMRT 計画シミュレーションを 行ったものが図 2 であるが、さらに線量集中性 が高い良好な線量分布となっている。

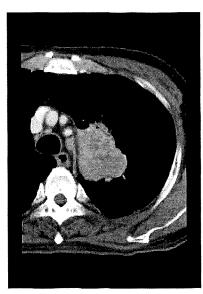
c 化学療法併用

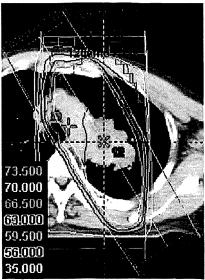
切除不能 III 期非小細胞肺癌に対しては、プラチナ製剤を含む化学放射線療法が、標準治療である²⁾。併用時期については、放射線治療の前または後に化学療法を併用する逐次併用療法よりも、同時併用療法で有意に生存率が高いことがランダム化比較試験によって示されており¹⁶⁾、同時併用が推奨されている。併用薬剤については、プラチナ製剤にもう1剤を加えた2剤併用が一般的であるが、近年、プラチナ製剤に新規抗がん剤(イリノテカン、パクリタキセル、ドセタキセル、S-1など)を組み合わせた第三世代レジメンが登場し汎用されている。ただし、従来の化学療法レジメンとの比較で有意に優れていると証明されているわけではない。

2 小細胞肺癌

化学療法(シスプラチン+エトポシド)に加 え、加速過分割照射法(1回1.5 Gv, 1日2回) で 45 Gy/30 回/3 週または通常分割照射法で 45~54 Gy/25~30 回/5~6 週の放射線治療を行 うことが、限局型小細胞肺癌(LD)に対する標 準治療として推奨されている²⁾。化学療法との 併用時期については、NCI of Canada Clinical Trial Group (NCCTG) の早期併用群と後期併用 群との間で生存期間と脳転移発生率を比較した 臨床試験で、早期併用が優れていることが報告 され¹⁷⁾、化学療法開始後なるべく早期に放射線 治療を併用することが推奨されている。照射領 域に関しては、標準的には GTV (原発巣+転移 リンパ節) および同側肺門、気管分岐部リンパ 節および上縦隔リンパ節領域までとされてい る。もちろん、鎖骨上リンパ節に転移がある場 合には、それも含む必要がある。下葉原発で正 常肺の照射領域が広くなってしまう症例では、 導入化学療法後に原発巣+転移リンパ節に限局 した照射範囲で治療を行うこともある。

初期治療にて寛解が得られた症例に対しては, 25 Gy/10 回/2 週程度の PCI を行うことで有意に生存率が向上することが示され^{13,14)}.





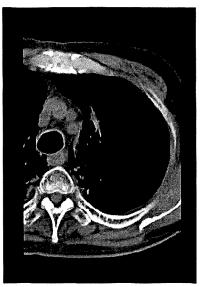


図 1 III 期肺腺癌に対する三次元照射例

左:治療前 CT 画像,中:放射線治療の線量分布(固定 5 門照射),カルボプラチン+パクリタキセル併用にて70 Gy/35 Fr,右:治療 2 年後 CT 画像

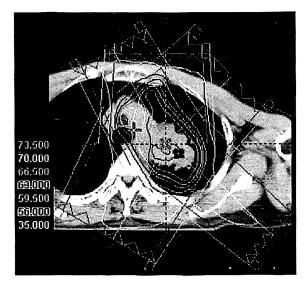


図 2 局所進行肺癌に対する強度変調放射線治療 法 (IMRT) 図 1 の症例に対する IMRT (5 門) 70 Gy/35 Fr の 治療計画

PCI の追加が推奨されている2)。

●成績

1 非小細胞肺癌

I, II 期症例に対する従来型放射線単独治療では, 5年生存率 20~40%と報告されており^{3,18,19)},手術成績に比べて不良である。しかし,対象に高齢、合併症などの理由で手術困難と判

断された症例が多く含まれており、他病死が多いのも事実である。一方、近年注目されている体幹部定位放射線治療に関しては、I期の5年生存率が、手術不能例でも50%前後、手術可能例では80%程度と、手術成績と比較して遜色のない良好な治療成績が報告されている^{4,5)}。また、近年、粒子線治療を用いた良好な治療成績も報告されている。

切除不能 III 期非小細胞肺癌では,近年の化学放射線療法により,生存期間中央値(MST)で16~22か月,5年生存率で15~20%と向上している²⁰⁾。また近年,予防的リンパ節領域照射を省略した限局照射野(IFRT)で高線量(68~74Gy)を投与した群と従来法で60~64Gyを投与した群を比較した臨床試験で,IFRT高線量群では,肺臓炎の頻度も低く,3年生存率も27%と従来法(19%)と比較して良好な治療成績が報告されている²¹⁾。

2 小細胞肺癌

適切な同時化学放射線療法により限局型小細胞肺癌では、MST 20~34 か月、5 年生存率 25~34%と向上している。また、予防的全脳照射を行うことで、脳転移発生率が著しく低下するばかりでなく、3 年生存率が 15%から 20%と有意に向上したと報告されている^{22,23)}。

62 (758)

3 合併症

照射領域内に食道が含まれる場合には放射線 性食道炎が生じる。化学療法同時併用の場合(特 にタキサン系抗がん剤)には強い傾向があり, 照射を休止せざるをえない場合もある。また, 骨髄抑制は化学療法同時併用の際に問題とな る。放射線肺臓炎は、照射直後(ときに照射中)~ 数か月後に照射領域に一致してみられる。画像 上の変化のみで無症状の場合には経過観察で十 分であるが、ときに、38℃以上の発熱や咳、呼 吸困難など症状を伴うものがあり、その場合に はステロイド投与などの適切な対処が必要とな る。化学療法同時併用時、喘息患者などではリ スクが高い。また、正常肺の線量・照射容積と の関係が明らかになってきており、放射線治療 単独例においては、20 Gy 以上照射される正常 肺の体積(V20)が正常肺全体の40%を超えな い(できれば 35%以下)ことが重要であり24, さ らに、化学療法併用例では V20 が 25%を超えな いように治療計画を立てることが望ましい²⁵⁾。

放射線性脊髄炎は最も避けなければならない 晩期有害事象である。脊髄への1回線量が2Gy を超えないことと、総線量としても、放射線単 独治療の場合には50 Gy 以下(できれば46 Gy 以下),化学療法併用時には40 Gy 以下に抑える よう十分に配慮する必要がある。心毒性として、 まれに心外膜炎による心嚢水貯留、不整脈、心 筋障害が問題となることがある。40 Gy 以上照 射される心臓の体積をできるだけ小さくすることが重要である。

● 将来展望

近年、肺癌放射線治療においては、放射線治療技術の著しい進歩とともに新規化学療法剤、分子標的薬の登場により新たなエビデンスが構築されつつある。今後、I期肺癌に関しては、定位放射線治療を軸にさらなる治療成績の向上が期待でき、また、局所進行肺癌に関しては、3D-CRT、IMRT、粒子線治療などの高精度放射線治療に化学療法剤、分子標的薬を加えた新たな治療戦略の確立が必要である。

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塩化ストロンチウム-89投与後に大腿骨頸部病的骨折を受傷し, 骨頭置換術を施行した,乳癌骨転移の1例

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塩化ストロンチウム-89投与後に大腿骨頸部病的骨折を受傷し、骨頭 置換術を施行した、乳癌骨転移の1例

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A CASE OF BONE METASTASES FROM BREAST CANCER WITH FEMORAL HEAD REPLACEMENT AFTER INJECTION OF STRONTIUM CHLORIDE (Sr-89)

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Abstract: We report a case of multiple bone metastases from breast cancer with femoral head replacement due to pathological fracture of the femoral head 81 days after injection of strontium chloride (Sr-89), radiopharmaceutical for bone pain palliation. Before replacement, the external radiation dose was estimated, and careful attention was paid to reducing the radiation from the exposed bones containing Sr-89 during the surgery. The calculated dose and measured dose with the portable dose rate meter were far below the exposure limits. We think this report will be informative for future occasions of such plastic surgeries.

Key words: Strontium chloride (Sr-89), Bone metastases, Breast cancer

はじめに

塩化ストロンチウム-89(以下、Sr-89)は、固形癌骨転移による疼痛緩和目的にて2007年11月より使用が開始されている放射性医薬品である。今回われわれは、Sr-89投与後に左大腿骨頸部骨折を受傷し、左大腿骨頭置換術を施行した乳癌骨転移の1 側を経験し、さらに術者の医療被ばくに関する線量評価を行ったので、報告する。

症例

症例は50歳代、女性、

左乳癌に対し乳房温存術を行い、その後補助療法を施行したが、3年後に多発骨転移と診断された. 診断当時は疼痛がなかったため、全身療法を優先し、化学療法にて治療が行われていた. しかし、再発診断より1年後、右そけい部の疼痛が増強したため、疼痛緩和目的にてSr-89による治療を行う方針となり、東京医科大学放射線科に紹介した. そのときの骨シンチグラムでは、骨転移と思われる集積像が全身の骨に多発性に認められ、疼痛部位である右坐骨部にも著明な集積が認められた(Fig.1).

疼痛緩和を目的に、74MBq(2MBq/kg)のSr-89が投与された。投与後、若干の疼痛の増悪を認めたものの、大きな変化は認められず推移した。この間、ゾレドロン酸の投与が

併用された。

しかし、1 カ月後に右臀部から右大腿部付近の疼痛が増強した。異常知覚を伴うことから、右仙腸関節より右坐骨の骨転移を原因とする神経因性疼痛が生じたものと考えられた。この部位の疼痛緩和を目的に、右仙腸関節・右坐骨を含む照射野にて、外部放射線治療30Gy/10frを施行した。同時にオピオイドによる疼痛緩和治療も行い、終了時には歩行可能な程度にまで回復した。

ところが,放射線治療終了より 3 日後に突然の左そけ い部の疼痛を訴え来院、左大腿骨頸部骨折と診断された (Fig. 2). 前述の骨シンチグラムにて、左大腿骨頸部に集 積を認めていたことから、病的骨折と診断された。 大腿骨 頭部に放射能を有していることが予想されたが、検討の 結果、想定される医療者の被ばく線量は基準を大きく下 回ると考えられたため(詳細は後述), Sr-89投与81日後に 左大腿骨頭置換術を施行した. 手術は支障なく終了し た. 手術時間は105分であり、大腿骨頭が露出していた時 間はおよそ 5 分であった。摘出した大腿骨頭を線量計(電 離箱式サーベイメータ:アロカ社製ICS-321B)にて、サー ベイメータのキャップをはずし、β線のウィンドウで測定 した際の測定値は17.0μSv/hであった(Table 1). 摘出され た大腿骨頭は東京医科大学病院に輸送し、同病院放射線 科で保管している、手術後、左大腿骨の疼痛は消失して いる.

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Fig. 1 Bone scintigraphy at injection of Sr-89.

考察

Sr-89は固形癌骨転移症例において、疼痛緩和目的で使用される放射線医薬品である。治療成績として、VAS、または鎮痛薬のいずれかの減少が72.5%で認められることが示されている¹⁾.

さて、今回、大腿骨頸部骨折を受傷したため、大腿骨頭 置換術を施行する方針となったが、手術施行前に、患者の 体内に残留するSr-89による影響が考えられた。今回、われ われが手術前に検討した事項をTable 2 に掲げる.

まず、術前に検討した、医療者への被ばく線量の推測について述べる。

患者体内に残存するSr-89の放射能についてであるが、英国の第 1 相臨床試験にて、Sr-85を用いて求めた全身保持率は、び漫性の骨転移を有する患者の $69\sim72$ 日後において81.4%であった $^{2)}$ 、これを参考に、物理的半減期(50.5日)に基づいて、投与からの放射能の減衰(81日後0.33)を考慮すると、体内に残存する放射能は74(MBq) × 0.814 × 0.33 = 20MBq程度と推定された

Sr-89は、 β 線(最大エネルギー 1.49MeV、平均エネルギー 0.61MeV)のみを放出する核種であり、その β 線の最大飛程はFeatherの式からTable 3 のように算出される。この表か

ら、その組織内(水中)飛程は平均0.20cm(最大飛程0.67cm) となる。このことから、一般的にSr-89が患者体内に留まっ ている状態においては、医療者への外部被ばくは考慮しな くてもよい範囲と考えて差し支えないと思われる。

しかし、空気中での飛程は平均エネルギーでも158cmを有することから、手術時に大腿骨が露出したときには、医療者への被ばくが懸念される。このβ線による被ばくは、医療者の体内への飛程を考慮すると、ほぼ皮膚表面に限定されると考えられる。

そこで、摘出した大腿骨から皮膚への外部被ばくの推定にあたり、まず、摘出した大腿骨(以下、骨頭部)へのSr-89の集積率を推定した。はじめに、Sr-89の全身骨での分布は、同症例の骨シンチグラムにおける放射能分布に比例すると仮定した。そこで、全身骨シンチグラムの前後面像に、全身、両腎、大腿部ならびに骨頭部に関心領域(ROI)を設定した。バックグラウンド補正を行った全身、両腎及び骨頭部のROIのカウントを前面像と後面像で相乗平均し、全身と両腎のカウントの差を全身骨に保持された放射能とし、これに対する骨頭部のカウントの比を求めたところ0.0321となった。したがって、摘出した骨頭部でのSr-89の残存放射能は約0.64MBq(20MBq×0.0321)と推定された。

Sr-89が残存する骨頭を半径 1cmの球状線源に相当すると 仮定すると、70μm線量当量率Ηπομmは「被ばく線量の測定・評価マニュアル」3 に基づき、以下の式にて示される.

$$H_{70\mu\mathrm{m}} = 10^{-2} \cdot A \cdot D(E_{\mathrm{max}}, h) \cdot C$$

ここで、A: 放射能面密度、D(Emax, h): β 線の最大エネルギーEmax及び線源から距離hに応じた単位放射能面密度あたりの皮膚の吸収線量率 $(mrad \cdot h^{-1}/\mu Ci \cdot cm^{-2})$, C: 皮膚の吸収線量から線量当量への線質係数(=1)である。

Aは、骨頭部にSr-89が0.64MBq集積した半径 1cmの球状 線源と仮定すると、

 $0.64 \times 10^6 \text{Bg/}37000/(4\pi \times 1^2) = 1.38 \mu \text{Ci/cm}^2$

Dは、 β 線の最大エネルギー 1.49MeV、線源と皮膚の距離を10cmとして、『被ばく線量の測定・評価マニュアル』 3 (図 4.3-4)から読み取り、13(mrad・ h^{-1}/μ Ci・cm)とすると、 $H_{70\mu m}$ は、

 $H_{70\mu\text{m}} = 0.01 \text{ (mrad/mGy)} \times A(\mu\text{Ci/cm}^2) \times D(E\text{max, h}) \times C$ = 0.01 × 1.38 × 13 × 1

= 0.18mSv/h

このように、今回のように露出した骨頭部を線源として 10cmの距離で、1時間作業したとしても、皮膚への線量当 量は0.18mSvと推定され、皮膚等価線量限度500mSv/年をは るかに下回る値であると考えられた。

実際に今回摘出した大腿骨頭より10cm離れてのサーベイメータの指示値は $17.0 \mu Sv/h$ であった。このサーベイメータは 1cm線量当量率サーベイメータであり、 β ウィンドウを使用することで β 線感度を有する(ただし、指示値の保証はな



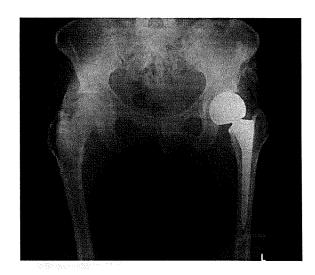


Fig. 2 A pelvis radiograph. Left femoral head replacement for pathological fracture of the femoral head.

- (a) Before surgery.
- (b) After surgery.

a t

Table 1 The value measured by survey meter (ICS-321B, ALOKA) during surgery

手術開始時(大腿骨頸部まで約 1m)	0.5μSv/h
大腿骨頸部切断時(同,約 lm)	2.3μSv/h
切除後の大腿骨頭(同、約10cm)	17.0μSv/h
手術終了時(置換部位より約 lm)	0.1μSv/h

Table 2 The list of subjects considered before surgery

	・医療者への被ばく線量の推測
	・手術室内でのβ線の測定
	・医療者への、骨の取り扱いに関する周知
Wild William Assessment Suppose	・摘出した骨の保管・管理

Table 3 Feather's method

 $R = (0.542E_{\text{max}} - 0.133)(g/\text{cm}^2)/密度(\text{cm}^3)(ただし、<math>E_{\text{max}} > 0.8\text{MeV})$ $R = (0.407E_{\text{max}})/(g/\text{cm}^2)/密度(\text{cm}^3)(ただし、<math>0.8 > E_{\text{max}} > 0.15\text{MeV})$

	エネルギー(MeV)	飛程(cm)							
		空気中	上質紙	ポリエチレン	水中	アクリル			
密度(g/cm³)		0.00129	0.7	0.93	1.0	1.20			
最大エネルギー	1.49	523	0.96	0.73	0.67	0.56			
平均エネルギー	0.61	158	0.29	0.22	0.20	0.17			
	n + (24 x)	飛程(cm)							
	エネルギー(MeV)	ガラス	コンクリート	アルミニウム	鉛	タングステン			
密度(g/cm³)		2.50	2,40	2.70	11.3	19.3			
最大エネルギー	1.49	0.27	0.28	0.25	0.060	0.035			
平均エネルギー	0.61	0.082	0.085	0.076	0.018	0.011			

い)が、この測定により、実際の β 線放出が確認され、 β 線による被ばくに対する配慮が必要であることが確認された。なお、Schramlら 4 は、Sr-89 162MBq投与 5 日後に病理解剖を行ったところ、病理医の線量計はカウントできない程度であったと報告している。

一方、制動放射線による外部被ばくについて、当該患者から lmの距離における実効線量率は、Sr-89のβ線のター

また、Sr-89の適正使用マニュアルでは、Sr-89の生物学的半減期を100日(実効半減期33.6日)とし、141MBq投与された 患者から 1mの距離で、1 日 8 時間、週 5 日滞在した場合の 年間の外部被ばくは0.046mSv/年と算出されている⁶⁾.

手術時には、骨露出後摘出まではアルミニウム箔を二重にして遮蔽し、摘出後速やかに lcm以上厚みのあるアクリル製の容器に収容した、術者、助手、直接介助の看護師は、手袋を二重に装着した。また、手術時に骨片が飛散する可能性があり、吸入による内部被ばくを防止するため、術者、助手、直接介助の看護師だけではなく、麻酔科医師、間接介助の看護師にもガウンテクニックを行い、マスクを二重にして装着した。

この大腿骨頭の医療用放射性汚染物としての廃棄措置は、放射性同位元素によって汚染された物の廃棄の委託を受けた業者として国から指定を受けている。日本アイソトープ協会への引き渡しが考えられるが、このように、人体からの排泄物や血液などの体液が付着したものは、バイオハザードの面で集荷できないとされている。また、オムッと同様に取り扱うことの是非についても判断できなかった。そこで、Sr-89を投与していただいた東京医科大学病院で保管することとした。

結 語

今回、Sr-89治療後の病的骨折に対し、大腿骨頭置換術を施行した症例を経験したので、報告した、今後、緩和医療目的にSr-89の使用は増加すると考えられ、Sr-89治療後に骨折等の治療のために、観血的に骨の手術を行う症例も今後

増加していくと推察される。今回,可能な限り,『有痛性骨 転移の疼痛治療における塩化ストロンチウム-89治療の適正 使用マニュアル第三版』。に則ったが、現行のマニュアルで は対応困難な部分もあり、マニュアルのさらなる充実が必 要であると考えられる。

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要旨:今回われわれは、疼痛緩和目的に、塩化ストロンチウム-89(Sr-89)を投与した後に大腿骨頭部病的骨折を受傷し、投与81日後に大腿骨頭置換術を施行した乳癌多発骨転移の症例を経験したので、報告する。手術施行にあたっては、事前に放射線量を推定し、Sr-89を含む骨からの被ばくを減らすため、十分な注意を払った。術前に推定した線量ならびに、線量計を用いて計測した線量は、ともに線量限度に比べ、低値であった。今回のわれわれの報告は、今後の同様の症例に対し、参考になる報告であると考えられる。

Patterns of Radiation Treatment Planning for Localized Prostate Cancer in Japan: 2003–05 Patterns of Care Study Report

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Objective: The purpose of this study is to identify the treatment planning process for Japanese patients with localized prostate cancer.

Methods: The Patterns of Care Study conducted a random survey of 61 institutions nationwide. Detailed information was collected on prostate cancer patients without distant metastases who were irradiated during the periods 2003–05. Radiation treatment planning and delivery were evaluated in 397 patients who were treated radically with external photon beam radiotherapy.

Results: Computed tomography data were used for planning in $\sim 90\%$ of the patients. Contrast was rarely used for treatment planning. Simulations and treatments were performed in the supine position in almost all patients. Immobilization devices were used in only 15% of the patients. Verification of the treatment fields using portal films or electric portal imaging devices was performed in most of the patients. However, regular or multiple verifications in addition to initial treatment and/or portal volume changes were performed in only 30% of the patients. Typical beam arrangements for treatment of the prostate consisted of a four-field box. Three-dimensional conformal techniques were applied less frequently in non-academic hospitals than in academic ones. Modernized multilear collimators with leaf widths ≤ 10 mm were used in about two-thirds of the patients. Although the total doses given to the prostate were affected by the leaf widths, there were no significant differences between leaf widths of 5 and 10 mm.

Conclusions: The results of the survey identified certain patterns in the current treatment planning and delivery processes for localized prostate cancer in Japan.

Key words: prostate cancer - treatment planning - Patterns of Care Study

INTRODUCTION

Recent years have seen rapid modernization in the development of new radiotherapy equipments and techniques, and great growth in their availability in Japan. Accordingly, radical radiotherapy has been accepted as an option for the curative treatment of prostate cancer (1,2), and a number of patients with prostate cancer have been treated with not only three-dimensional conformal radiotherapy (3DCRT), but also with intensity-modulated radiotherapy (IMRT). However, as with any newly arrived medical technology, the treatment planning process and methods are critical factors to affect the treatment results. Therefore, it was deemed very important to examine the structures and processes of treatment planning and delivery for localized prostate cancer in Japan.

The Japanese Patterns of Care Study (PCS) national survey is a retrospective study designed to investigate the

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national practice processes of radiotherapy for selected malignancies over certain periods of time (3). In the PCS survey, detailed information about the structures, processes and outcomes of radiation treatment was collected. The 2003–05 PCS, which is the most recent PCS, included questionnaires designed to assess treatment planning practices currently in use. The goal of this current report is to identify the treatment planning process for patients with localized prostate cancer in Japan.

PATIENTS AND METHODS

The methods used in data collection for the PCS have been described previously (1-3). From a stratified Facilities Master List, 34 hospitals were randomly selected from A institutions (university hospitals/cancer centers) and 27 hospitals from B institutions (non-academic hospitals) (Table 1). Between August 2006 and September 2008, each of the chosen facilities was visited by member physicians of the PCS group. A total of up to 10 medical records from each institution were randomly selected and reviewed. The following eligibility criteria were used in the process survey. The patients were required to have been diagnosed with adenocarcinoma of the prostate without evidence of distant metastases; they had to have been treated with radiotherapy between 2003 and 2005; and the patients must not have been diagnosed with any other malignancy nor have been previously treated with radiotherapy. From a total of 592 eligible cases (Table 1), 397 patients were evaluated who had been treated radically with external photon beam radiotherapy. Patients who were treated after surgery or after progression from hormonal therapy were excluded.

In this paper, we focused on the patterns of radiation treatment planning and delivery for localized prostate cancer. The data were stratified according to whether the treatment took place in academic or non-academic facilities, and compared on this basis. For statistical analysis, the differences between proportions were tested by the χ^2 test. A P value <0.05 was considered to indicate a statistically significant difference.

Table 1. The number of patients examined in this analysis

	No. of facilities	No. of total prostate patients	No. of patients in this study
A institutions (university hospita	als and cance	er centers)	
A1 (≥410 patients per year)	17	180	111
A2 (<410 patients per year)	17	164	105
B institutions (non-academic hos	spitals)		
B1 (≥130 patients per year)	15	148	117
B2 (<130 patients per year)	12	100	64
Total	61	592	397

RESULTS

TREATMENT PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION

The computed tomography (CT) simulation usage rates are shown in Table 2. CT data were used for planning in $\sim\!\!90\%$ of the patients. The majority of the CT data were obtained from dedicated CT scanners in A institutions, but almost half of the CT data were obtained from diagnostic CT scanners in B institutions. X-ray simulation was used more frequently in B institutions. Contrast was rarely used for treatment planning.

Verification of the treatment fields using portal films or electric portal imaging devices was undertaken in most of the patients. However, regular or multiple verifications in addition to initial treatment and/or portal volume changes were performed in only 30% of the patients.

Position and Immobilization of Patients

Simulations and treatments were performed in the supine position in almost all patients (Table 3). Immobilization devices were used for only 15% of the patients.

TREATMENT TECHNIQUES

Treatment techniques are shown in Table 4. The most commonly used photon energy was 10 MV. In B institutions, lower energies <10 MV were used more frequently.

Table 2. Treatment planning and implementation

	Stratification	Stratification ^a		
	A	В		
Simulation			0.021	
CT simulation with/without X-ray simulation	203 (94.0%)	158 (87.3%)		
Dedicated CT	171 (79.2%)	82 (45.3%)		
Diagnostic CT	32 (14.8%)	76 (42.0%)		
X-ray simulation only	13 (6.0%)	23 (12.7%)		
Contrast used for treatment planning			0.871	
None	213 (98.6%)	179 (98.9%)		
Rectal barium	0	2 (1.1%)		
Urethrogram	1 (0.5%)	0		
Both	1 (0.5%)	0		
Portal verification			0.031	
None	9 (4.2%)	0		
Initial treatment or field change only	147 (68.1%)	128 (70.7%)		
Regular or multiple intervals	60 (27.8%)	53 (29.3%)		

CT, computed tomography.

^aBecause some data were missing, the total numbers of patients may be less than the actual numbers.

Table 3. Position and immobilization of patients

	Stratification	P value	
	Α	В	
Position			0.403
Supine	216 (100%)	179 (98.9%)	
Prone	0	2 (1.1%)	
Immobilization			0.434
None	174 (80.6%)	158 (87.3%)	
Cast ^a	24 (11.1%)	14 (7.7%)	
Body frame ^b	9 (4.2%)	9 (5.0%)	
Others/unknown	9 (4.2%)	0	

a 'Cast' was defined as a firm body support system, such as vacuum pillows.
b 'Body frame' was defined as an immobilized system, such as a system using a base plate and body shells.

The typical beam arrangement for treatment of the prostate consisted of a four-field box. Treatment plan included a moving field in one-third of the patients. 3D conformal techniques including IMRT were generally applied less frequently in B institutions than in A institutions (A1, 97.3%; A2, 53.3%; B1, 59.8%; and B2, 37.5%). Modernized multileaf collimators (MLC) with leaf widths \leq 10 mm were used in about two-thirds of the patients.

Total Dose

The median dose given to the prostate was 70 Gy (A1, 70 Gy; A2, 70 Gy; B1, 67.8 Gy; and B2, 66 Gy). Figure 1 shows the distributions of doses delivered to the prostate according to the leaf width of MLC. Although the doses were affected by the leaf width, there were no significant differences between the dosages delivered at 5 mm and those delivered at 10 mm MLC leaf width (P = 0.12).

DISCUSSION

This is the first detailed survey report focusing on the radiation treatment planning for prostate cancer in Japan. This report provides a clear picture of the present practices relating to treatment planning in this country. Because few reports exist on treatment planning practices for prostate cancer (4,5), these data will serve as a baseline for future surveys as well as for the multicenter trials including radiotherapy.

The results in this study show that contrast was rarely used for treatment planning in Japan. In the 1989 US PCS (4), contrast was used in the bladder and rectum in 25% and 34% of the patients, respectively. However, only 51% of the patients had CT data for planning in the 1989 PCS (4). It is recommended that rectal or bladder dye should be utilized to

Table 4. Treatment techniques

	Stratification		P value
	Α	В	
Energy (MV)			0.0000
4-5.9	10 (4.8%)	13 (7.4%)	
6-9.9	8 (3.9%)	42 (24.0%)	
10-14.9	149 (72%)	113 (64.4%)	
≥15	40 (19.3%)	7 (4.0%)	
Field arrangement for the prostate			0.0000
2-field	36 (16.8%)	15 (8.4%)	
3-field	7 (3.3%)	2 (1.1%)	
4-field	49 (22.9%)	71 (39.7%)	
5-field	33 (15.4%)	4 (2.2%)	
≥6-field	26 (12.2%)	12 (6.7%)	
Rotational	21 (9.8%)	16 (8.9%)	
Pendulum	41 (19.2%)	54 (30.2%)	
3DCRT/IMRT technique			0.0000
3DCRT-dynamic	64 (29.6%)	54 (29.8%)	
3DCRT-static	87 (40.3%)	38 (21.0%)	
IMRT-step and shoot	13 (6.0%)	2 (1.1%)	
IMRT-sliding window	0	0	
None	52 (24.1%)	87 (48.1%)	
Width of multileaf collimator leaves			0.0000
5 mm	38 (17.6%)	53 (29.3%)	
10 mm	120 (55.6%)	52 (28.7%)	
20 mm	10 (4.6%)	19 (10.5%)	
Block	15 (7.0%)	31 (17.1%)	
None	26 (12.0%)	26 (14.4%)	
Unknown	7 (3.2%)	0	

3DCRT, three-dimensional conformal radiotherapy; IMRT, intensity-modulated radiotherapy.

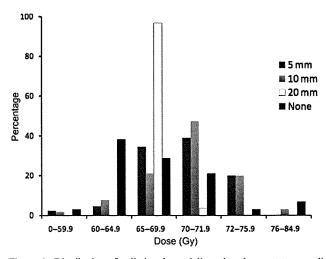


Figure 1. Distribution of radiation doses delivered to the prostate according to the leaf widths of multileaf collimators.