

radiotherapy between the different surveys. Shibamoto et al. [21] suggested the possible use of partial-brain radiation for solitary lesions, but such a policy has yet to spread nationwide. Reducing total as well as whole-brain radiation doses using chemotherapy has not become popular in Japan. The increased use of systemic chemotherapy and, in particular, MTX-based regimens appear to be a worldwide trend, as was also shown in our study.

The prognosis of PCNSL patients has improved recently. Improvement in supportive care may at least in part have contributed to these changes. The 5-year survival was 30.1 and 36.5 % in 1995–2004 and 2005–2009, respectively. However, relapse-free survival rates did not differ between these two periods, suggesting that although second-line treatment at recurrence has prolonged survival, the cure rate has not yet improved. This trend was also true for patients treated with high-dose MTX and radiation; no improvement was seen for the most recent period, suggesting that, in terms of cure, more than half of PCNSLs are resistant to currently available treatment. New treatments are therefore urgently needed.

Many prognostic factors of PCNSL, such as age, PS, and tumor multiplicity, have been reported [8, 11, 17, 19, 22], and the results of the univariate analyses we conducted in our study agree with previously published data. Consequently, we did not present the multivariate analysis data. In the most recent survey, we paid attention to sIL-2R as a prognostic marker and observed that patients with a high sIL-2R level tended to have a poorer prognosis. The prognostic value of sIL-2R has been reported for extracranial lymphoma [23, 24], but, to our knowledge, its role in PCNSL has not been reported. The serum sIL-2R level reflects the total amount of activated T lymphocytes and is correlated with disease activity [25]. It can also be elevated in cancers other than lymphoma, collagen disease, and infection [25, 26]. Since sIL-2R and LDH levels do not necessarily correlate with each other, sIL-2R may be another useful prognostic marker for PCNSL.

Very recently, a few Japanese groups have started to treat PCNSL patients with chemotherapy alone, following the trend set in Western countries. A randomized European study of chemotherapy alone versus chemotherapy + radiation indicated that chemotherapy alone was associated with a decreased progression-free survival, although overall survival was similar, partly due to the use of radiotherapy as a second-line treatment [27]. Since most studies are conducted in phase II settings, the data presented in our study may serve as a basis for studying the treatment and prognosis of PCNSL patients in Japan.

In conclusion, the results of our study reveal that recent trends in PCNSL are increased patient age, better PS, tumor multiplicity, avoidance of extensive tumor resection, more frequent use of high-dose MTX-containing

chemotherapy, and improved survival, with no improvement in relapse-free survival. Newer strategies are therefore necessary to further improve the prognosis of PCNSL patients, and the present data may serve as a basis for designing new studies.

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Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Effect of chemotherapy on survival after whole brain radiation therapy for brain metastases: a single-center retrospective analysis

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Abstract

Background and purpose Whether chemotherapy for systemic disease affects survival of patients with brain metastases or not has not been elucidated before. We performed comprehensive analysis of patients with newly-diagnosed brain metastases primarily treated with whole brain radiation therapy (WBRT) alone.

Materials and methods Data from 134 patients with newly-diagnosed brain metastases primarily treated with WBRT from 2007 to 2008 was retrospectively reviewed. Univariate and multivariate analyses were performed to identify significant prognostic factors.

Results Median survival time (MST) of this cohort from the start of WBRT was 5.7 months. MST of patients with RPA Class 1, 2 and 3 were 10.3, 7.8 and 2.2 months, respectively. Multivariate analysis revealed that karnofsky performance status (≥ 70 , $p < 0.0001$), gender (female, $p < 0.0001$), activity of extracranial disease (stable, $p = 0.015$), time to develop brain metastasis (< 3 months, $p = 0.042$) and use of chemotherapy after WBRT (multiple regimens, $p < 0.0001$) were independent prognostic factors for better survival.

Conclusions Systemic chemotherapy for chemo-responsive cancer prolongs survival despite the presence of treated brain metastases. Irradiated brain metastases will lose their prognostic significance in a large number of

patients. Systemic chemotherapy will be a treatment of choice for patients who have systemic disease after WBRT for brain metastases. These results should be validated in the future prospective clinical trials.

Keywords Brain metastasis · Brain metastases · Radiation therapy · Whole brain radiation therapy · Chemotherapy · Prognostic factors

Introduction

Brain metastasis affects 20–40 % of cancer patients (Soffietti et al. 2002). Brain metastasis is one of the major causes of morbidity in cancer patients. The prognosis of patients with brain metastasis is generally poor with a median survival time (MST) of 1–2 months with corticosteroids only (Weissman 1988; Lagerwaard et al. 1999).

The route of metastatic dissemination to the brain is often hematogenous, therefore, the entire brain can be seeded with micrometastatic focus. Traditionally, whole brain radiation therapy (WBRT) has been regarded as the standard treatment for patients with brain metastasis. Overall survival of the patients after WBRT ranges 3–6 months (Lagerwaard et al. 1999; Gaspar et al. 2010; Tsao et al. 2005). Various dose/fractionation schedules of WBRT were tested in clinical studies, which resulted in no significant difference in median survival time after WBRT (Tsao et al. 2005; Gaspar et al. 2010).

Recently, significant progress has been made for a subset of patients with single or few brain metastases and well controlled systemic disease. Surgical resection or stereotactic radiosurgery (SRS) combined with WBRT significantly prolonged survival (Patchell et al. 1990; Vecht et al. 1993; Andrews et al. 2004). Median survival of

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patients who received these aggressive therapies ranges 7–10 months. Unfortunately, patients who entered into these clinical trials represent only a small minority of the patients with brain metastases. For the majority of patients with multiple brain metastases and uncontrolled systemic disease, only WBRT is the standard treatment of choice.

The role of chemotherapy in brain metastasis has been limited because of the concern about the activity of chemotherapeutic agent to cross the blood–brain barrier (BBB). Recently, the activity of chemotherapy in brain metastasis is highlighted (Robinet et al. 2001; Walbert and Gilbert 2009; Mehta et al. 2010). Concurrent chemoradiation therapies with BBB permeable agents, such as Temozolamide or topotecan are currently under investigation in prospective clinical trials. Some investigators suggested that the permeability of BBB can alter after fractionated radiotherapy for brain metastasis (Yuan et al. 2006; Wilson et al. 2009). However, whether the use of chemotherapy affects survival of the patients with brain metastasis or not has not been elucidated before.

The primary aim of this study was to perform comprehensive analysis of 134 consecutive patients with newly-diagnosed brain metastases primarily treated by WBRT alone in a single institution. The secondary aim was to define independent prognostic factors associated with longer survival after WBRT. The final aim was to investigate the prognostic value of chemotherapy on survival after WBRT in patients with brain metastases.

Materials and methods

Patient characteristics

The database of patients who underwent radiotherapy for brain metastases at our institution was reviewed. A total of 264 patients were treated with WBRT between 2007 and 2008. Of these, 23 patients received WBRT as a salvage therapy after SRS. Another 39 patients received WBRT as an adjuvant therapy after resection of metastatic brain tumor. Forty-seven patients were metastases from radio-sensitive primary tumor such as leukemia, lymphoma or small cell carcinoma. Excluding these patients, we reviewed the medical records of 155 patients with newly diagnosed brain metastases treated with WBRT as a primary therapy. Of these, 19 patients presented with symptoms or radiographic findings of leptomeningeal metastasis. We excluded these patients with leptomeningeal metastasis because they are known to have extremely limited survival. Two patients were ineligible for evaluation because of allergy to contrast media. Finally, a group of 134 patients were subjected to extensive analysis. The clinical and image interpretation data from these patients

Table 1 Distribution of baseline patient and tumor characteristics

Parameters	n	%	Parameters	n	%
Median age (years)	60		Extracranial distant metastases		
Gender			Absent	11	8
Male	69	51	Stable	16	12
Female	65	49	Progressive	107	80
Karnofsky performance status (KPS)			Activity of extracranial tumor		
100–90	46	34	Absent/stable	20	15
80–70	49	37	Progressive	114	85
60–50	29	22	Time to diagnosis of brain metastasis		
40–0	10	7	<3 months	21	16
Neurologic status			3–12 months	33	25
0	45	34	1–2 years	22	16
1	27	20	≥2 years	58	43
2	34	25	Type of the diagnostic brain image		
3	21	16	MRI	106	79
4	7	5	CT	28	21
RPA criteria			Number of brain metastases		
Class 1	5	4	1–4	40	30
Class 2	91	68	5–10	39	29
Class 3	38	28	11–24	29	22
Site of primary tumor			≥25	26	19
Lung	75	56	Size of the largest lesion		
Breast	27	20	≤10	31	23
Upper gastrointestinal tract	11	8	11–20	46	34
Colorectum	10	8	21–30	34	25
Genitourinary tract	5	4	>30	23	17
Others	6	5	Chemotherapeutic regimens before WBRT		
Histological type			None	22	16
Adenocarcinoma	114	85	Single	28	21
Squamous cell carcinoma	9	7	Multiple	84	63
Others	11	8	Chemotherapeutic regimens after WBRT		
Primary tumor status			None	70	52
Absent	57	42	Single	31	23
Stable	25	19	Multiple	33	25
Progressive	52	39	Molecular targeted therapy after WBRT (>1 month)		
			No	100	74
			Yes	34	26

RPA recursive partitioning analysis, MRI magnetic resonance imaging, CT computed tomography, WBRT whole brain radiation therapy

were entered into database in December 2010. Distribution of baseline patient and tumor characteristics is shown in Table 1.

Imaging studies

Diagnosis of brain metastases was performed mainly with magnetic resonance images (MRI). In our institute, all patients with lung cancer routinely undergo brain imaging for initial staging or scheduled follow-up. Patients with other solid tumors underwent brain imaging when brain metastasis is clinically suspected. In this study, initial diagnostic brain images included MRI in 106 patients (79 %) and CT in 28 patients (21 %). Radiological features assessed included number, maximum tumor diameter and location. For follow-up brain images, change in size of the tumors and presence of new metastases were recorded. At least 20 % increase in diameter of the each preexisted tumor before WBRT, taking as reference on the smallest diameter after WBRT, was defined as local progression.

Treatment strategy

Treatment strategy for brain metastasis at our institution was previously described elsewhere (Narita and Shibui 2009; Hashimoto et al. 2011). Patients who received WBRT alone as a primary treatment for brain metastases were subjected for this study. Patients with brain metastases generally have extracranial systemic disease. After WBRT, patients with known systemic disease were indicated to start or continue chemotherapy if they still had active chemotherapeutic regimen with sufficient organ function and with Karnofsky performance status (KPS) of 70 or more. Salvage SRS was considered for recurrent brain metastases after WBRT. Some patients with known chemo-sensitive tumor continued palliative chemotherapy for recurrent brain metastases.

Consent for the treatment was obtained from each patient after the sufficient explanation of potential risks of treatment. All the patients provided written informed consent. Our institutional review board has approved this study.

Whole brain radiation therapy

One hundred and thirty-four patients were intended to receive WBRT. Of these, 128 patients were delivered to a dose of 30 Gy in 10 fractions. Another 3 patients were delivered to 37.5 Gy in 15 fractions, whereas one patient was delivered to 20 Gy in 5 fractions. Two patients discontinued irradiation course because of the deterioration of general condition at a dose of 12 and 24 Gy, respectively.

Retrospective analysis

All the medical charts of the eligible patients were reviewed. Information on potential prognostic factors (age,

gender, KPS, neurologic status, site of primary tumor, primary tumor status, activity of extracranial distant metastases, time to develop brain metastasis, number of brain metastases, size of the largest lesion, use of chemotherapy before or after WBRT) was collected.

Initial neurological function was classified into 4 categories (No symptoms: grade 0, Minor symptoms; fully active without assistance: grade 1, Moderate symptoms; fully active but requires assistance: grade 2, Moderate symptoms; less than fully active: grade 3, Severe symptoms; totally inactive: grade 4). Radiation Therapy Oncology Group's (RTOG) recursive partitioning analysis (RPA) classes were coded into 3 categories as follows: Class 1: Patients with KPS \geq 70, <65 years of age with controlled primary and no extracranial metastases; Class 3: KPS < 70; Class 2: all the others (Gaspar et al. 1997).

For the evaluation of extracranial disease status, if there were no evidence of residual tumor after therapy, the activity was coded as "absent". If any tumor existed and there is no increase in size of the tumor for more than 6 months, the activity was coded as "stable". A continuous use of same chemotherapeutic regimen didn't impair the coding of "stable". If any tumor existed with any situation other than "stable", the activity was coded as "progressive".

Patients whose brain metastases were detected at the same time or soon after the diagnosis of primary tumor (so-called "synchronous" brain metastasis) may have different prognosis. We defined "synchronous" brain metastasis as those detected at the same time or detected within 3 months of the initial diagnosis of primary tumor.

For the analysis of prognostic effect of chemotherapy before or after WBRT, three different cohorts were defined: none, single regimen and multiple regimens. If a patient received two or more different types of chemotherapeutic regimens, the status was coded as multiple regimens. Any type of hormonal therapy was regarded as a single regimen. The status of the use of molecular targeted therapy was defined as "yes", if a patient continued to receive a specific regimen for more than 1 month.

Statistical analysis

Overall survival from the start of WBRT was calculated with the Kaplan–Meier method. For univariate and multivariate analysis, all the variables were dichotomized according to the clinical relevance from previous literature. Univariate analyses were performed by using log-rank test. Possible confounded variables were excluded from multivariate analysis. A Cox's proportional hazards model was developed to identify significant factors influencing survival after WBRT. All the tests of hypotheses were

conducted at the alpha level of 0.05 with a 95 % confidence interval. All the statistical analyses were performed by using SPSS Statistics version 17.0 (SAS Institute, Tokyo, Japan).

Results

Outcomes for the entire group

Median survival time (MST) for the entire patients from the start of WBRT was 5.7 months. The 6 months, 1- and 2-year survival rate were 43, 28 and 12 %, respectively. MST of the patients with RTOG's RPA Class 1 ($n = 5$), 2 ($n = 91$) and 3 ($n = 38$) were 10.3, 7.8 and 2.2 months, respectively (Fig. 1). Median intracranial progression-free survival (PFS) were 4.7 months, with 6 months, 1- and 2-year PFS of 35, 14 and 4 %, respectively. A total of 49 patients developed intracranial recurrence after WBRT. The sites of first recurrence after WBRT were as follows: local only (regrowth of preexisted tumors): 25 (51 %); new metastasis only: 10 (20 %); both of local and new metastasis: 12 (24 %); and leptomeningeal dissemination: 2 (4 %). Median local progression-free duration and median intracranial new metastasis-free duration for the entire patients were 9.7 and 18.0 months, respectively. At the time of analysis, 5 patients were alive with disease. The causes of death were identified in 118 patients. Of these, 38 patients (32 %) were due to intracranial tumor progression, whereas 76 patients (64 %) were due to systemic disease. Four patients (3 %) died from intercurrent disease. None had died directly from toxicity of WBRT.

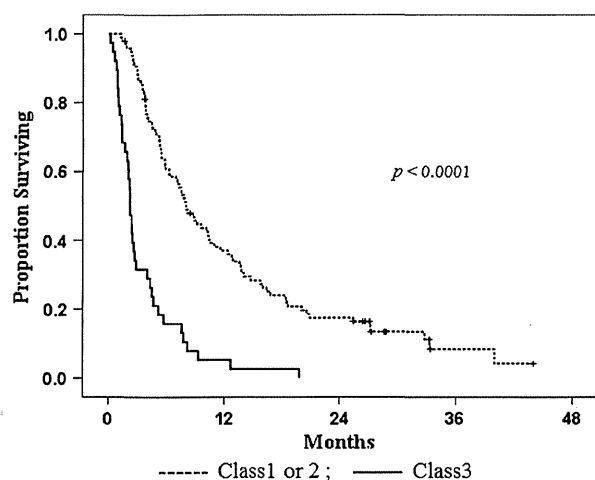


Fig. 1 Kaplan–Meier survival curve for overall survival by RPA criteria

Factors influencing survival after WBRT: univariate and multivariate analyses

Univariate analysis was performed on 12 different variables to evaluate their potential value on survival after WBRT. Univariate analyses identified 9 variables which significantly associated with good prognosis (Table 2).

Multivariate analysis was performed on 9 independent variables. Table 3 summarizes the result of the multivariate analysis for survival after WBRT. Multivariate analysis revealed that KPS (≥ 70 vs. 70, hazard rate (HR): 2.540, $p < 0.0001$), gender (female vs. male, HR: 2.293, $p < 0.0001$), activity of extracranial disease (absent/stable vs. progressive, HR: 2.134, $p = 0.015$), time to develop brain metastasis (< 3 vs. ≥ 3 months, HR: 1.926, $p = 0.042$), and use of chemotherapy after WBRT (multiple vs. none/single regimens, HR: 3.406, $p < 0.0001$) were independent prognostic factors for overall survival.

Survivals depending on chemotherapy after WBRT

After WBRT, only two patients had no evidence of extracranial tumor. The two patients didn't receive further chemotherapy until disease progression. Another 132 patient had known extracranial tumor including primary, nodal or distant sites. They were indicated to start or continue chemotherapy when it was clinically applicable. A total of 64 patients with extracranial systemic disease underwent chemotherapy after WBRT. Thirty-one patients (23 %) received only a single chemotherapeutic regime, and 33 patients (25 %) received multiple regimens. Figure 2 shows the survival curve by the use of chemotherapy after WBRT. The MST of the patients who received none, single and multiple regimens after WBRT were 3.3, 7.5 and 16.4 months, respectively ($p < 0.0001$). The use of multiple chemotherapeutic regimens after WBRT was found to be associated with better survival after WBRT in multivariate analysis ($p < 0.0001$). Among 95 patients with pre-irradiation KPS ≥ 70 , 59 patients (62 %) received chemotherapy, whereas 5 patients (13 %) with KPS < 70 received chemotherapy. Among patients with KPS ≥ 70 , the MST of the patients who received none, single and multiple regimens after WBRT were 4.5, 7.9 and 16.4 months, respectively ($p < 0.0001$). Overall, 95 % of the patients included in this study received chemotherapy either before or after WBRT.

The effect of molecular-targeted therapy after WBRT

A total of 34 patients (25 %) received molecular-targeted therapy after WBRT for 1 month or more. Of these patients, the sites of primary disease were lung in 28, breast

Table 2 Results of univariate analyses for survival after WBRT

Parameters	<i>n</i>	Median survival time (months)	6-months survival (%)	1-year survival (%)	2-year survival (%)	<i>p</i> value
Overall patients	134	5.7	43	28	12	–
Age						
<65	87	7.4	54	31	13	
≥65	47	4.9	38	22	11	0.31
Gender						
Male	69	4.5	32	17	6	
Female	65	9.1	66	40	20	0.0009
Karnofsky performance status						
≥70	95	7.9	62	39	17	
<70	39	2.2	15	3	0	<0.0001
Neurologic status						
0–1	72	7.9	58	44	22	
2–4	62	4.5	36	1	0	<0.0001
RPA criteria						
Class 1–2	96	7.9	61	37	18	
Class 3	38	2.2	16	5	0	<0.0001
Site of primary tumor						
Lung	75	7.4	55	39	21	
Others	59	4.5	39	14	2	0.001
Activity of extracranial tumor						
Absent/stable	20	9.1	60	40	25	
Progressive	114	5.2	46	26	10	0.015
Time to develop brain metastasis						
<3 months	21	16.9	75	65	40	
≥3 months	113	5.2	43	21	7	0.002
Number of brain metastasis						
1–4	40	5.1	39	21	10	
≥5	94	6.2	52	31	13	0.53
Size of the largest lesion						
<20 mm	69	7.4	53	36	16	
≥20 mm	65	5.1	42	20	8	0.11
Chemotherapeutic regimens before WBRT						
None/single	50	7.2	52	42	20	
Multiple	84	5.2	46	19	8	0.019
Chemotherapeutic regimens after WBRT						
None/single	101	4.0	33	13	4	
Multiple	33	16.4	94	73	36	<0.0001

RPA recursive partitioning analysis, WBRT whole brain radiotherapy

in 5 and kidney in 1. All of the histological diagnoses of lung primary patients were adenocarcinoma. Twenty-seven lung primary patients received epidermal growth factor

receptor-tyrosine kinase inhibitor (EGFR-TKI) for a median duration of 7 months. Figure 3 shows the survival curve by the use of molecular-targeted therapy after

Table 3 Results of multivariate analysis for survival after WBRT

Variables	Factors	Hazard rate (95 % CI)	<i>p</i> value
Karnofsky performance status	≥70 versus <70	2.540 (1.627–3.966)	<0.0001
Gender	Female versus male	2.293 (1.541–3.412)	<0.0001
Extracranial disease status	Absent/stable versus progressive	2.134 (1.160–3.928)	0.015
Time to develop brain metastasis	<3 versus ≥3 months	1.926 (1.025–3.620)	0.042
Number of chemotherapeutic regimens after WBRT	Multiple regimens versus none/single regimen	3.406 (2.013–5.761)	<0.0001

CI confidence interval, WBRT whole brain radiation therapy

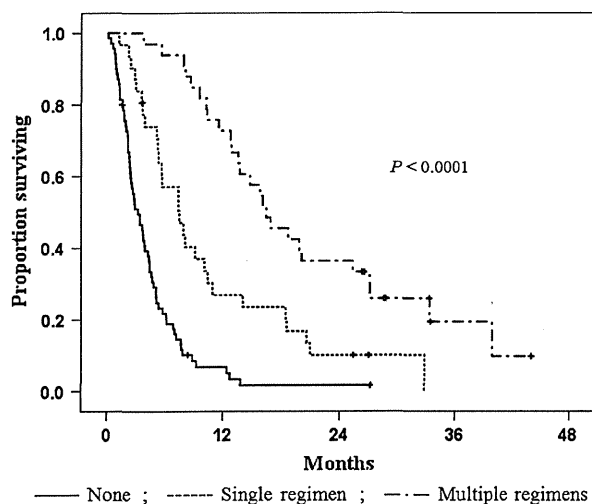


Fig. 2 Kaplan–Meier overall survival curve by the use of chemotherapeutic regimen after WBRT

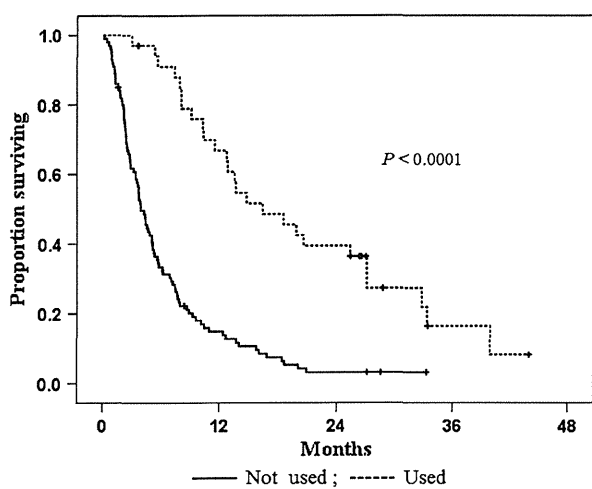


Fig. 3 Kaplan–Meier overall survival curve by the use of molecular-targeted therapy after WBRT

WBRT. The MST of the patients who received molecular-targeted therapy after WBRT was significantly longer than that of those who did not (16.4 vs. 4.0 months, $p < 0.0001$).

Discussion

Significant progress has been made over the last decades for a subset of patients with single or few brain metastases and well controlled systemic disease. In prospective randomized clinical trials, surgical resection or SRS combined with WBRT significantly prolonged survival in selected patients with single or few brain metastases (Patchell et al. 1990; Vecht et al. 1993; Andrews et al. 2004). MST of these patients who received combined therapy ranges 7–10 months. SRS alone in patients with one or few brain metastases was comparable to SRS combined with WBRT at least in terms of overall survival, with a MST of 8 months (Aoyama et al. 2006). Unfortunately, the patients who entered into these clinical trials represent only a small minority of patients with brain metastases. In clinical practice, it remains unclear whether these aggressive therapies have sufficient benefit for the majority of patients with uncontrolled systemic disease or numerous brain metastases. Currently, only WBRT is the standard treatment of choice for these patients. The indication of SRS for patients with brain metastases in clinical practice continues to be a matter of debate.

Various prospective and retrospective studies have shown that the treatment modality is the first most important prognostic factor on long-term survival, although the effect of patient selection bias is inevitable (Andrews et al. 2004; Lagerwaard et al. 1999; Patchell et al. 1990). To minimize the selection bias, we investigated only patients primarily treated with WBRT alone in this study. Numerous studies on prognostic factors in patients with brain metastases have been published previously. The results of this study re-confirmed the value of established prognostic factors reported in the literature. Multivariate analysis showed that good KPS, stable extracranial disease and female gender were independent predictors of better survival after WBRT, in line with previous literatures (Lagerwaard et al. 1999; Patchell et al. 1990; Aoyama et al. 2006; Gaspar et al. 1997; Swinson and William 2008). Dose these pretreatment characteristics fully determine the prognosis of patients with brain metastases?

Performance status is regarded as the second most important prognostic factor in patient's characteristics (Lagerwaard et al. 1999; Aoyama et al. 2006; Gaspar et al. 1997; Fleckenstein et al. 2004; 20). Generally, patients with low KPS are not indicated for aggressive therapy other than WBRT alone. In this study, the MST of the patients with KPS < 70 was only 2.2 months. The Performance status of the patients with brain metastases frequently deteriorated by extended intracranial disease. Additionally, patients with very low performance status were not indicated for further chemotherapy despite the existence of systemic disease. In this study, only 5 patients (13 %) with pre-treatment KPS < 70 received chemotherapy after WBRT. We conclude that poor survival time of the patients with low KPS is due to the systematic disease progression, as well as intracranial disease progression.

In line with our study, activity of extracranial primary disease is the third most important prognostic factor reported in the literature (Lagerwaard et al. 1999; Aoyama et al. 2006; Fleckenstein et al. 2004; 20). These finding suggests that survival of patients with brain metastases is in a large part, regulated by the extracranial status. Seventy-six patients (64 %) included in this study died due to systemic disease. This percentage is comparable to the reports of prospective clinical trials with SRS alone or SRS + WBRT for single or fewer numbers of brain metastases with well controlled systemic disease (Sneed et al. 1999; Andrews et al. 2004; Aoyama et al. 2006). This result highlights the modest effectiveness of WBRT on brain metastases. WBRT alone have adequate efficacy to avoid neurologic death for about two-thirds of patients with brain metastases. If we consider the high morbidity rate from systemic disease after WBRT, chemotherapy is the primary therapeutic approach for the control of extracranial disease. Therefore, systemic chemotherapy for chemoresponsive cancer prolongs survival despite the presence of treated brain metastases. Irradiated brain metastases will lose their prognostic significance in a large number of patients.

The role of chemotherapy in brain metastasis itself has been limited. Although there is some breakdown of blood–brain barrier (BBB) around brain metastases, the concentrations of most of the chemotherapeutic agents are still very limited within the lesion (Gerstner and Fine 2007). However, some chemotherapeutic agents are known to have activity of crossing BBB. Temozolomide (TMZ) is a third generation alkylating agent, and it can cross the BBB because of its small size and lipophilic properties (Ostermann et al. 2004). Some clinical trials suggest that single agent TMZ has some activity in patients with recurrent brain metastases (Christodoulou et al. 2001; Siena et al. 2010). Several Phase II clinical trials of TMZ combined with WBRT were performed with promising results

(Antonadou et al. 2002; Addeo et al. 2008). These trials proved improved response rate and neurologic function with addition of TMZ to WBRT. A phase III clinical trial of WBRT plus SRS with or without TMZ or Erlotinib in patients with brain metastases is now ongoing (Clinical-Trials.gov identifier: NCT00096265). Patients with 1–3 brain metastases from histologically confirmed non-small cell lung cancer, well circumscribed, maximum diameter of 4 cm or less, no metastasis within 10 mm of the optic apparatus, no metastasis in the brain stem and stable extracranial metastases are enrolled. Patients are randomized to three groups: Arm 1: WBRT + SRS, Arm 2: WBRT + SRS + TMZ, Arm 3: WBRT + SRS + erlotinib. Patients in Arm 2 and 3 begin TMZ or erlotinib on the first day of WBRT and continue up to 6 months. The primary endpoint is overall survival, and secondary endpoint includes time to CNS progression, performance status at 6 months, steroid dependence at 6 months, cause of death and effect of non-protocol chemotherapy.

Topotecan is a semi-synthetic analogue of the alkaloid camptothecin, which selectively inhibits topoisomerase I. Topotecan crosses the BBB, because of its low protein binding property (Baker et al. 1996). Single agent topotecan has positive activity in patients with brain metastases from small cell lung cancer (Korfel et al. 2002). A phase III multicentric clinical trial of topotecan and WBRT for patients with brain metastases from lung cancer was planned, however, was terminated because of low patient accrual (Neuhaus et al. 2009). This trial failed to show clear benefit of adding topotecan to WBRT. Another multicentric phase III clinical trial is ongoing (Clinical-Trials.gov identifier: NCT00390806). Patients with at least one brain metastasis from non-small cell lung cancer, who have received previous chemotherapy are enrolled. Patients are randomized to two groups: experimental arm: topotecan + WBRT, control arm: WBRT alone. The primary endpoint is overall survival, secondary endpoint includes response rate, time to response, time to progression, brain tumor symptom, safety and tolerability. We think that these clinical trials for brain metastasis should evaluate the effect of non-protocol chemotherapy on survival. In the next 5 years, the results of these phase III, multicentric clinical trials will become available to further define the role of these chemotherapeutic agents when combined with WBRT and SRS, or both.

Some investigators suggest that the permeability of BBB in brain tumors can alter during or ever after fractionated radiotherapy (Yuan et al. 2006; Wilson et al. 2009; Cao et al. 2005). After irradiation, the BBB may be partially disrupted so that some chemotherapeutic agents can reach a therapeutic level in the metastatic tumors. This is another explanation of the value of systemic chemotherapy after WBRT. In fact, subset analysis of this study showed that

the use of chemotherapy after WBRT was also an independent prognostic factor predicting longer local tumor progression-free duration (data not shown). We believe that some brain metastases become sensitive to chemotherapy after irradiation. Chemo-sensitivity of brain metastases can affect the survival of a part of patients with treated brain metastases. Therefore, systemic chemotherapy will be a treatment of choice for those who have systemic disease with irradiated brain metastases. If a patient have a plan of definitive chemotherapy for primary disease after the treatment of brain metastases, such patient can be a good candidate for more aggressive therapy for brain metastases.

Another topic of debate is whether molecular-targeted therapy has a significant role on brain metastasis or not. Some investigators advocated that EGFR-TKI has promising activity on previously untreated brain metastases from lung adenocarcinoma (Wu et al. 2007; Kim et al. 2009; Katayama et al. 2009). Another investigator reported activity of trastuzumab on brain metastasis from HER2-overexpressing breast cancer (Park et al. 2009). In this study, the MST of the patients who received molecular-targeted therapy after WBRT was significantly longer than that of those who did not. In the subset analysis of this study, use of molecular-targeted therapy after WBRT was also a significant predictor of longer local progression-free duration (data not shown). We believe that molecular-targeted therapy could have some activity on the local control of some brain metastases.

Patients with “synchronous” brain metastasis survived significantly longer than “metachronous” brain metastasis patients in this study. Short time to develop brain metastasis was marginally independent prognostic factor in multivariate analysis. This is in line with a literature of surgical removal or SRS for brain metastasis (Flannery et al. 2008; Bonnette et al. 2001; Hu et al. 2006). It is easy to assume that systematic disease of patients with “synchronous” brain metastasis would more likely to respond to the following chemotherapy. The “synchronous” brain metastasis may be more sensitive to radiotherapy, when compared to brain metastasis emerged after repeated chemotherapies. Also in agreement with some literature (Lagerwaard et al. 1999; Swinson and William 2008), female patients survived significantly longer than male patients. In particular, the prognosis of female patients with brain metastasis from lung primary has reported to be significantly better than that of male patients (Lagerwaard et al. 1999; Sánchez de Cos et al. 2009). We should further continue to investigate these clinical characteristics of brain metastases.

We acknowledge that the present study had certain limitations because of its retrospective nature. First, the results of this study might be highly influenced by patient’s selection bias. Patients with brain metastases which well

responded to WBRT may have more opportunity for receiving multiple chemotherapy after WBRT. Second, our cohort should deviate to patients with numerous brain metastases with uncontrolled systemic disease. Because we included only patients with brain metastases primarily treated by WBRT alone, patients with poor prognosis should be negatively selected for this study. Currently, we are investigating the patients with one or few brain metastases primarily treated by SRS alone, and it will be described in another report. Actual prognostic value of chemotherapy on survival after WBRT for brain metastases should be validated in future prospective clinical trials.

Conclusions

In addition to the confirmed prognostic factors previously reported in the literature, the use of multiple chemotherapeutic regimens after WBRT was associated with better survival. Systemic chemotherapy for chemo-responsive cancer prolongs survival despite the presence of treated brain metastases. Irradiated brain metastases will lose their prognostic significance in a large number of patients. Systemic chemotherapy will be a treatment of choice for patients who have systemic disease after WBRT for brain metastases. These results should be validated in future prospective clinical trials.

Conflict of interest None.

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PHASE I STUDY OF CONCURRENT HIGH-DOSE THREE-DIMENSIONAL CONFORMAL RADIOTHERAPY WITH CHEMOTHERAPY USING CISPLATIN AND VINOURELBINE FOR UNRESECTABLE STAGE III NON-SMALL-CELL LUNG CANCER

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Purpose: To determine the maximum tolerated dose in concurrent three-dimensional conformal radiotherapy (3D-CRT) with chemotherapy for unresectable Stage III non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC).

Patients and Methods: Eligible patients with unresectable Stage III NSCLC, age ≥ 20 years, performance status 0–I, percent of volume of normal lung receiving 20 Gy or more (V_{20}) $\leq 30\%$ received three to four cycles of cisplatin (80 mg/m² Day 1) and vinorelbine (20 mg/m² Days 1 and 8) repeated every 4 weeks. The doses of 3D-CRT were 66 Gy, 72 Gy, and 78 Gy at dose levels 1 to 3, respectively.

Results: Of the 17, 16, and 24 patients assessed for eligibility, 13 (76%), 12 (75%), and 6 (25%) were enrolled at dose levels 1 to 3, respectively. The main reasons for exclusion were $V_{20} > 30\%$ ($n = 10$) and overdose to the esophagus ($n = 8$) and brachial plexus ($n = 2$). There were 26 men and 5 women, with a median age of 60 years (range, 41–75). The full planned dose of radiotherapy could be administered to all the patients. Grade 3–4 neutropenia and febrile neutropenia were noted in 24 (77%) and 5 (16%) of the 31 patients, respectively. Grade 4 infection, Grade 3 esophagitis, and Grade 3 pulmonary toxicity were noted in 1 patient, 2 patients, and 1 patient, respectively. The dose-limiting toxicity was noted in 17% of the patients at each dose level. The median survival and 3-year and 4-year survival rates were 41.9 months, 72.3%, and 49.2%, respectively.

Conclusions: 72 Gy was the maximum dose that could be achieved in most patients, given the predetermined normal tissue constraints. © 2012 Elsevier Inc.

Lung cancer, Chemotherapy, Radiotherapy, High dose, Conformal.

INTRODUCTION

Approximately one third of patients with non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC) present with locally advanced Stage III disease at the initial diagnosis (1). Of this category, Stage IIIA disease with bulky N2 and Stage IIIB disease without pleural effusion are characterized by a large primary lesion and/or involvement of the mediastinal or supraclavicular lymph nodes. In addition, the majority of these patients have occult systemic micrometastases. Concurrent thoracic radiotherapy and chemotherapy has been the standard care

for these patients with unresectable disease (2, 3). A platinum doublet with a third-generation anticancer agent combined with thoracic radiotherapy was reported to yield a median overall survival time (OS) of more than 2 years and long-term survivors (4–6), but the effect of platinum-based chemotherapy has reached a plateau.

The failure pattern in patients with Stage III NSCLC treated by concurrent chemoradiotherapy was roughly local recurrence alone in one third of the patients, both local and distant recurrence in another third of patients, and distant metastasis without local failure in the remaining third of patients (2, 5).

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Thus, improvement of local control and suppression of distant metastasis are essential for prolongation of patient survival.

The conventional total dose of thoracic radiotherapy in patients with inoperable NSCLC has been 60 Gy administered in 30 fractions. This dose was established in 1987 by randomized Radiation Therapy Oncology Group trials that demonstrated better 3-year survival with a radiation dose of 60 Gy than with lower doses (7). In these trials, two-dimensional treatment planning was used, wherein the tumor volume was defined on kilovoltage radiographs (7). Thereafter, the standard initial target volume included the primary tumor, metastatic lymph nodes, and adjacent uninvolved ipsilateral hilar and mediastinal regions (elective nodal irradiation: ENI). Except for selected patients, excessive toxicity hampered an increase of the total dose to over 60 Gy in patients with locally advanced NSCLC.

It is, however, time now to reconsider the optimal dose of thoracic radiotherapy using new techniques in patients with locally advanced NSCLC, for the following reasons. First, positron emission tomography (PET) provides more accurate diagnosis of mediastinal lymph node metastases (8) and more accurate quantification of the tumor volumes, especially when atelectasis is present (9). Second, three-dimensional conformal radiation therapy (3D-CRT) enables radiation oncologists to delineate the tumor and adjacent normal tissue more sharply and to choose beam angles to maximize tumor coverage with minimum irradiation of normal tissues (10). Third, omission of the ENI resulted in improvement of radiation-associated toxicity without worsening the local control rate of the tumor (11, 12). Thus, by use of these new techniques, the optimal dose of thoracic radiation could exceed the conventional 60 Gy.

Two dose escalation studies in patients with locally advanced NSCLC showed that the total dose of thoracic radiotherapy could be increased up to 90 Gy in concurrent chemoradiotherapy using the 3D-CRT technique combined with weekly carboplatin and paclitaxel chemotherapy (13, 14). In these trials, chemoradiotherapy was administered after induction chemotherapy. However, it remained unclear whether these doses could be delivered safely to the majority of patients with locally advanced NSCLC, because it is not known how many patients were screened for the trials and how many of them were actually registered, and because some of the registered patients were excluded from the chemoradiotherapy phase after induction chemotherapy. The total number of patients evaluated in the two trials was also limited. Furthermore, chemotherapy other than weekly carboplatin and paclitaxel has not been evaluated in the setting of combined chemotherapy with high-dose thoracic radiotherapy, to our knowledge. The objectives of the current study were (1) to evaluate the toxicity of concurrent high-dose 3D-CRT without ENI with cisplatin and vinorelbine for unresectable Stage III NSCLC, (2) to determine the maximum tolerated dose (MTD) of thoracic radiotherapy, and (3) to observe the antitumor effects of this regimen.

PATIENTS AND METHODS

Study design

This study was designed as a Phase I study at the National Cancer Center Hospital. The protocol and consent form were approved by the Institutional Review Board of the National Cancer Center on July 28, 2005. We planned to treat 12 patients at a dose level and follow them up at least 6 months, and then escalate to the next level if 67% of the patients did not experience dose-limiting toxicity (DLT). We followed widely accepted normal tissue dose constraints. Patients with percent volume of the normal lung receiving 20 Gy or more (V_{20}) of greater than 30% were excluded and treated outside the study. Other dosimetric constraints were applied at the discretion of the treating radiation oncologist. Maximum doses exceeding 50 Gy to the spinal cord, 66 Gy to the esophagus, or 66 Gy to the brachial plexus were generally excluded.

Patient selection

Previously untreated patients with locally advanced NSCLC without effusion were screened for entry into this study. The eligibility criteria were (1) histologically or cytologically proven NSCLC, (2) unresectable Stage IIIA or IIIB disease confirmed by both computed tomography (CT) and PET, (3) no previous treatment, (4) measurable disease, (5) $V_{20} \leq 30\%$, (6) age ≥ 20 years, (7) Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group performance status (PS) of 0 or 1, and (8) adequate bone marrow function (white blood cell [WBC] count $\geq 4.0 \times 10^9/L$, hemoglobin ≥ 9.5 g/dL, and platelet count $\geq 100 \times 10^9/L$), liver function (total bilirubin ≤ 1.5 mg/dL and transaminase ≤ 80 IU/L), renal function (serum creatinine ≤ 1.5 mg/dL), and pulmonary function ($PaO_2 \geq 70$ Torr under room air). Patients were excluded if (1) they had malignant pleural or pericardial effusion or (2) they had a concomitant serious illness such as uncontrolled angina pectoris, myocardial infarction in the previous 3 months, heart failure, uncontrolled diabetes mellitus, uncontrolled hypertension, interstitial pneumonitis or lung fibrosis identified by a chest x-ray, infection, or other diseases contraindicating chemotherapy or radiotherapy, or (3) they were pregnant or breast feeding. All patients gave their written informed consent.

Pretreatment evaluation

The pretreatment assessment included a complete blood cell count and differential count, routine chemistry determinations, creatinine clearance, blood gas analysis, electrocardiogram, lung function testing, chest x-rays, chest CT scan, brain CT scan or magnetic resonance imaging, abdominal CT, and PET.

Treatment schedule

Chemotherapy consisted of cisplatin 80 mg/m² on Day 1 and vinorelbine 20 mg/m² on Days 1 and 8, repeated every 4 weeks for three to four cycles. Cisplatin was administered by intravenous infusion for 60 minutes with 2,500 to 3,000 mL of intravenous fluid for hydration and prophylactic antiemetic therapy consisting of a 5-hydroxytryptamine-3 antagonist on Day 1 and a corticosteroid on Days 1 to 5. Vinorelbine, diluted in 50 mL of normal saline, was administered intravenously.

Radiation therapy started on Day 1 of the first cycle of chemotherapy and was delivered with megavoltage equipment (6–10 MV) once daily for 5 days a week. The total dose was 66 Gy in 33 fractions at level 1, 72 Gy in 36 fractions at level 2, and 78 Gy in 39 fractions at level 3. All patients underwent a 3D treatment planning CT 3 to 7 days before the start of the treatment, and the eligibility was finally confirmed based on evaluation using the

dose–volume histogram (DVH). The gross tumor volume (GTV) was defined as the primary tumor delineated on pulmonary windows of the chest CT or on the diagnostic PET scans. Atelectasis or secondary changes in the peripheral lung region of the primary tumor were not included. Metastatic lymph nodes defined as nodes of 1 cm or larger visualized on mediastinal windows of the CT images or PET-positive lymph nodes were also included in the GTV. The clinical target volume (CTV) was equivalent to the GTV. Uninvolved mediastinum or supraclavicular fossae were not included in the CTV. The planning target volume (PTV) was determined as the CTV plus 1.0 cm for the anterior, posterior, medial, and lateral margins and a 1.0 to 2.0 cm for the superior and inferior margins, taking account of setup variations and internal organ motion. The spinal cord dose was typically limited to 44 Gy, but a maximum of 50 Gy was allowed. The lung V_{20} was limited to 30% in all patients. The maximum dose to the brachial plexus and esophagus did not exceed 66 Gy. The 100% dose was prescribed to the reference point located in the central part of the PTV, and the entire PTV was covered with 95–107% of the prescribed dose principally, but variation of $\pm 10\%$ was allowed. Lung heterogeneity corrections using the equivalent path length algorithm were applied in all patients.

Toxicity assessment and treatment modification

Complete blood cell counts and differential counts, routine chemistry determinations, and a chest x-ray were performed once a week during the course of treatment. Toxicity was graded according to the Common Terminology Criteria for Adverse Events (CTCAE v3.0). The lung toxicity grade was defined as the highest grade among cough, dyspnea, obstruction/stenosis of airways, pneumonitis/pulmonary infiltrates, and pulmonary fibrosis in the pulmonary/upper respiratory section (15).

Vinorelbine administration on Day 8 was omitted if any of the following were noted: WBC count $<3.0 \times 10^9/L$, neutrophil count $<1.5 \times 10^9/L$, platelet count $<100 \times 10^9/L$, Grade 2–3 elevation of the serum hepatic transaminase level or total serum bilirubin levels, Grade 2–3 infection, Grade 2–3 pneumonitis, other \geq Grade 3 nonhematologic toxicity, body temperature $\geq 38^\circ C$, or PS of 2–3. Subsequent cycles of cisplatin and vinorelbine chemotherapy were delayed if any of the following toxicities were noted on Day 1: WBC count $<3.0 \times 10^9/L$, neutrophil count $<1.5 \times 10^9/L$, platelet count $<100 \times 10^9/L$, serum creatinine level ≥ 1.6 mg/dL, Grade 2–3 elevation of the serum hepatic transaminase level or total serum bilirubin levels, Grade 2–3 infection, Grade 2–3 pneumonitis, other \geq Grade 3 nonhematologic toxicity, body temperature $\geq 38^\circ C$, or PS of 2–3. If these toxicities did not recover within 6 weeks from Day 1 of the previous cycle of chemotherapy, subsequent cycles of chemotherapy were stopped. The dose of cisplatin was reduced by 25% in all subsequent cycles if the serum creatinine level rose to 2.0 mg/dL or higher. The dose of vinorelbine was reduced by 25% in all subsequent cycles if any of the following toxicities were noted: WBC count $<1.0 \times 10^9/L$, platelet count $<25 \times 10^9/L$, or Grade 3 infection or liver dysfunction. Thoracic radiotherapy was suspended if any of the following were noted: body temperature $\geq 38^\circ C$, Grade 3 esophagitis, PS of 3, or suspected radiation pneumonitis. Thoracic radiotherapy was terminated if any of the following were noted: Grade 4 esophagitis, Grade 3 or 4 pneumonitis, PS of 4, or duration of radiotherapy of over 62 days (level 1), 67 days (level 2), or 70 days (level 3). Any protocol-defined treatments were terminated if Grade 4 nonhematologic toxicities other than transient electrolyte disturbances or a PS of 4 was noted.

Dose-limiting toxicity and maximum tolerated dose

The DLT was defined as the following toxicities observed during a 6-month period from the start of treatment: (1) Grade 3 esophagitis, lung toxicity, myelitis, dermatitis associated with radiation, and cardiac toxicity associated with radiation, (2) Grade 4 nonhematologic toxicity, or (3) treatment termination due to prolonged toxicity. Twelve patients were enrolled at each dose level. All patients were followed up for at least 6 months to evaluate DLT. During the period, if none to 4 of the 12 patients experienced DLT, the next cohort of patients was treated at the next higher dose level. If 5 or more of the 12 patients experienced DLT, that level was considered to be the MTD. The recommended dose for Phase II trials was defined as the dose preceding the MTD.

Response evaluation

Objective tumor response was evaluated according to the Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumors (RECIST) ver. 1.0 (16).

Follow-up

Patients who completed the protocol therapy were followed up to monitor toxicity, response, and recurrence. CT of the chest was performed every 2 to 4 months for 1 year, every 6 months for 2 years, and then yearly for 2 years. The relapse pattern was categorized into (1) local alone, including relapse from the primary site or the hilar, mediastinal, or supraclavicular lymph nodes, (2) distant metastasis alone, including pleural dissemination, pleural and pericardial effusions, and distant metastases, and (3) local and distant.

Statistical analyses

Progression-free survival time (PFS) and OS were estimated by the Kaplan-Meier method. The PFS was measured from the date of registration to the date of disease progression or death resulting from any cause or date of last follow-up. The OS was measured from the date of registration to the date of death resulting from any cause or date of last follow-up. Patients who were lost to follow-up without events were censored at the date of their last known follow-up. A confidence interval (CI) for the response rate was calculated by the method used for exact binomial CIs. The Dr. SPSS II 11.0 software package for Windows (SPSS Japan Inc., Tokyo, Japan) was used for the statistical analyses.

RESULTS

Registration and characteristics of the patients

From August 2005 to September 2008, 57 patients were deemed to initially be eligible. Of these, 3 patients were excluded because idiopathic interstitial pneumonitis ($n = 1$) and anemia ($n = 2$) developed. Explanation of the study using the consent form was given to 54 patients, and informed consent was obtained in 51 patients. The 51 patients underwent 3D treatment planning, and eligibility was finally confirmed in 31 patients. Those 31 were enrolled into this study. A total of 20 patients were excluded as a result of the DVH evaluation: because of V_{20} higher than 30% in 10 patients, overdose to the esophagus in 8 patients, and overdose to the brachial plexus in 2 patients. Eventually, of 17 patients assessed as to their eligibility for dose level 1, 16 patients for dose level 2, and 24 patients to dose level 3, 13 (76%), 12 (75%), and 6 (25%) patients were actually enrolled into levels 1 to 3, respectively (Fig. 1).

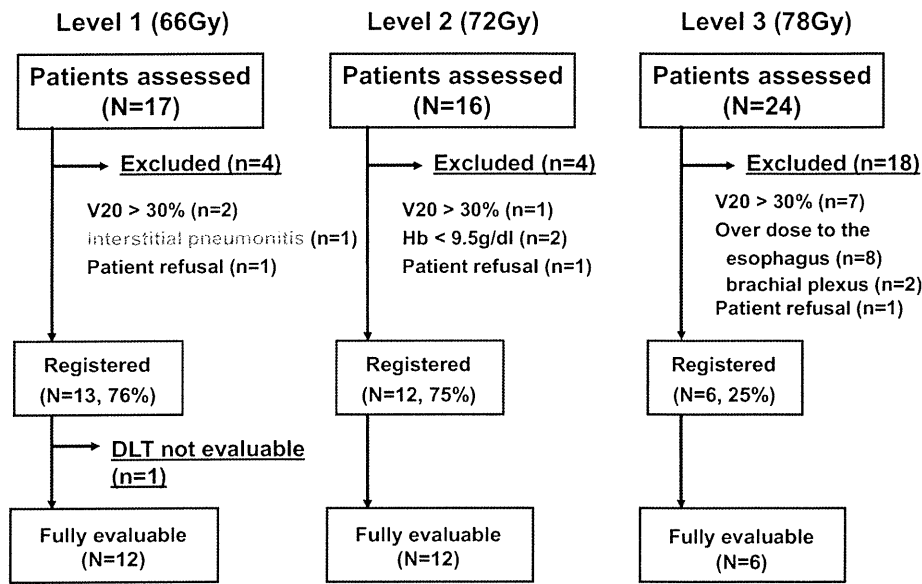


Fig. 1. Algorithm illustrating the flow of the patients. Of the 17, 16, and 24 patients assessed for eligibility, 13 (76%), 12 (75%), and 6 (25%) were actually enrolled at dose levels 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

The pretreatment characteristics of the patients enrolled in this trial are shown in Table 1. The majority of the patients were in good general condition, with a PS of 0 in 25 (81%) and no weight loss in 26 (84%) patients. Adenocarcinoma was the predominantly encountered histological characteristic, seen in 23 (74%) patients.

Treatment delivery

The treatment delivery to the patients was fairly good (Table 2). The planned dose of radiotherapy was administered to all patients of all the three dose levels. More than 80% of the patients received three to four cycles of chemo-

therapy without or with only one omission of vinorelbine on Day 8, regardless of the dose levels.

Toxicity and DLTs

The hematologic toxicity was comparable to that of other concurrent chemoradiotherapy (Table 3). Grade 4 septic shock was encountered during the fourth cycle of chemotherapy in 1 patient enrolled at dose level 1, but it was manageable by standard care with antibiotics. Other nonhematologic toxicities were mild and acceptable.

Table 1. Patient characteristics

Characteristic	n	(%)
Sex		
M	26	(84)
F	5	(16)
Age (y)		
Median (range)	60	(41–75)
Performance status		
0	25	(81)
1	6	(19)
Body weight loss (%)		
0	26	(84)
0.1–5.0	2	(6)
≤5.0	3	(10)
Histology		
Adenocarcinoma	23	(74)
Squamous cell carcinoma	4	(13)
NSCLC, not otherwise specified	4	(13)
Stage		
IIIA	20	(65)
IIIB	11	(35)

Abbreviation: NSCLC = non-small-cell lung cancer.

Table 2. Treatment delivery

	Level 1 (n = 13)	Level 2 (n = 12)	Level 3 (n = 6)
Radiotherapy			
Total dose (Gy)			
66	13 (100)	–	–
72	–	12 (100)	–
78	–	–	6 (100)
Delay (days)			
≤5	11 (85)	5 (42)	5 (83)
6–10	2 (15)	6 (50)	0
11–15	0	1 (8)	1 (17)
Chemotherapy			
No. of cycles			
4	6 (46)	6 (50)	4 (67)
3	6 (46)	4 (33)	2 (33)
2	0	1 (8)	0
1	1 (8)	1 (8)	0
No. of VNR omissions			
0	10 (77)	7 (58)	2 (33)
1	2 (15)	4 (33)	3 (50)
2	0	0	1 (17)
3	1 (8)	1 (8)	0

Abbreviation: VNR = vinorelbine administered on Day 8.

Table 3. Toxicity

Toxicity	Grade											
	Level 1				Level 2				Level 3			
	2	3	4	(n = 13) (3+4 %)	2	3	4	(n = 12) (3+4 %)	2	3	4	(n = 6) (3+4 %)
Leukopenia	4	6	2	(62)	1	3	8	(92)	1	3	2	(83)
Neutropenia	4	4	4	(62)	0	1	10	(92)	1	3	2	(83)
Anemia	8	2	2	(31)	7	3	1	(33)	2	2	0	(50)
Thrombocytopenia	0	0	0	(0)	1	1	0	(8)	0	0	0	(0)
Febrile neutropenia	—	1	0	(8)	—	3	0	(25)	—	1	0	(17)
Infection	0	0	1	(8)	0	1	0	(8)	2	0	0	(0)
Esophagitis	1	1	0	(8)	2	1	0	(8)	0	0	0	(0)
Lung toxicity	2	0	0	(0)	0	0	0	(0)	0	1	0	(17)
Anorexia	3	0	0	(0)	2	2	0	(17)	0	0	0	(0)
Nausea	3	0	0	(0)	3	0	0	(0)	0	0	0	(0)
ALT elevation	1	1	0	(8)	0	0	0	(0)	1	0	0	(0)
CRN elevation	7	0	0	(0)	4	0	0	(0)	0	0	0	(0)

Abbreviations: ALT = alanine aminotransferase; CRN = creatinine.

Of the 13 patients at dose level 1, one was excluded from the analysis of the DLT because he received only one cycle of chemotherapy as a result of the development of cisplatin-induced renal toxicity. Two (17%) of the remaining 12 patients at this dose level developed DLT: Grade 3 esophagitis in 1 patient and Grade 4 septic shock in the other. At dose level 2, two (17%) DLTs were noted: Grade 3 esophagitis in 1 patient and treatment delay by more than 15 days in the other. One (17%) of the 6 patients at dose level 3 developed Grade 3 bronchial stenosis without local recurrence of the disease. This was considered to be a Grade 3 lung toxicity and was counted as DLT. No other DLTs were noted. Thus, inasmuch as the incidence of DLT was below 33% at all dose levels, MTD was not reached.

Preliminary efficacy results

Objective responses and survival were evaluated in the 31 patients. Two patients showed complete responses and 27 showed partial responses, which represented a response

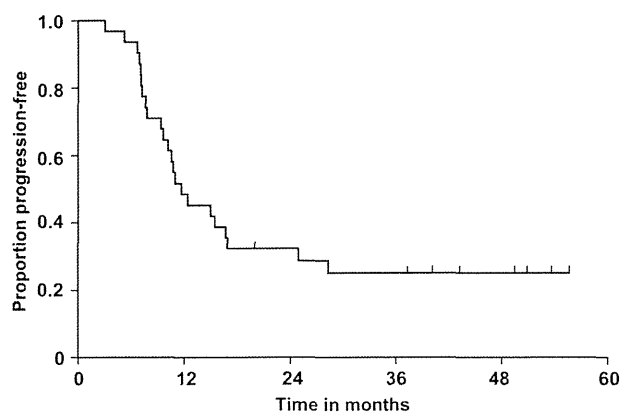


Fig. 2. Progression-free survival ($n = 31$). The median progression-free survival was 11.6 months, with a median duration of follow-up of 30.5 months (range, 9.0–49.5 months).

rate (95% CI) of 94% (79–99). Disease progression was noted in 23 patients, and the median PFS was 11.6 months with a median duration of follow-up of 30.5 (range, 9.0–49.5) (Fig. 2). The first relapse sites are summarized in Table 4. Brain metastasis alone as the first relapse site was noted in 7 (23%) patients. The median OS was 41.9 months, and the 2-, 3-, and 4-year survival rates (95% CI) were 83.6% (65.0–92.8), 72.3% (51.9–85.2), and 49.2% (26.2–68.7), respectively (Fig. 3).

DISCUSSION

This study showed that concurrent 3D-CRT to the thorax with cisplatin plus vinorelbine chemotherapy was safe even up to 78 Gy in patients with unresectable Stage III NSCLC. This does not mean, however, that doses as high as 78 Gy can be given to all patients with this disease, because the safety in this study was shown only in highly selected patients by a PET/CT and DVH evaluation and by the standard staging procedure. Twenty-five of the 33 patients met the eligibility criteria for enrollment at dose levels 1 and 2, whereas only 6 of the 24 patients could be enrolled at dose level 3 in this study—that is, only one fourth of the patients could be treated with 78 Gy. Thus, this study showed that 72 Gy was the maximum dose that could be achieved in most patients given the predetermined normal tissue constraints, which forced three quarters of the enrolled patients at the 78-Gy level to not

Table 4. First relapse sites ($n = 31$)

Sites	<i>n</i>	(%)
Local recurrence alone	6	(19)
Local and distant metastasis	6	(19)
Distant metastasis alone	11	(35)
Brain alone	7	(23)
No relapse	8	(26)

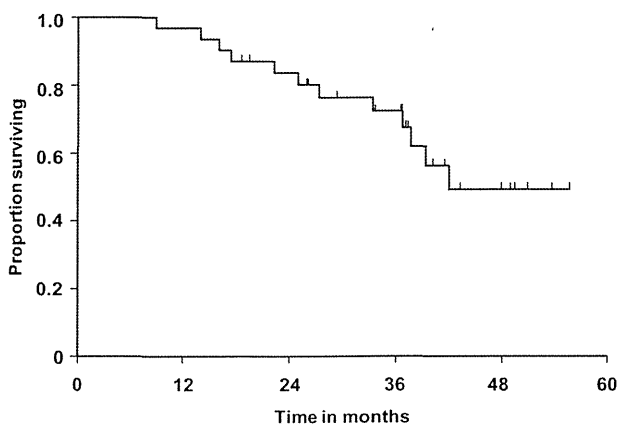


Fig. 3. The median overall survival was 41.9 months, and the 2-, 3-, and 4-year survival rates (95% CI) were 83.6% (65.0–92.8), 72.3% (51.9–85.2), and 49.2% (26.2–68.7), respectively.

be eligible on the basis of those normal tissue constraints, and that the maximum tolerated dose was not determined because of this issue.

One obstacle to enrolling patients at dose level 3 was that the lung V_{20} often exceeded 30% when the total dose was increased to 78 Gy. This lung V_{20} dose constraint might have been too strict. According to a recent review, it is prudent to limit V_{20} to ≤ 30 –35% with conventional fractionation, but there is no sharp dose threshold below which there is no risk for severe radiation pneumonitis (17). This is partly because DVH-based parameters will change at specific phases of the respiratory cycle when CT images for DVH evaluation have been obtained, there is uncertainty regarding how much of the bronchus should be defined as lung, and the lung edges may vary with the CT window level setting. In addition, patient-associated factors such as age, smoking status, lung function, and preexisting lung damage may influence the incidence and severity of radiation pneumonitis (18). If the threshold of V_{20} were set at higher than 30% (e.g., 35%), then more patients would meet the eligibility criteria, but safety might not be guaranteed. Given that the definite threshold cannot be determined, a strict constraint should be introduced. This study showed that the lung toxicity was acceptable when the V_{20} was kept within 30%; therefore, we decided to use this eligibility criterion for concurrent chemotherapy and high-dose radiotherapy for a subsequent Phase II study.

Another obstacle was overdose to the esophagus and brachial plexus, which were close to the subcarinal (No. 7) and

supraclavicular lymph nodes, respectively, that were frequently involved in patients with advanced NSCLC; therefore, the volume of these serial organs were included, in part, in the PTV in many patients with Stage III disease. The radiation tolerance doses of these organs have been defined as no higher than 72 Gy when one third of the organs are included in the irradiation volume (19). However, few data are available on the radiation tolerance doses of normal organs in humans; therefore, whether or not radiation doses above 72 Gy may be tolerated is unknown, especially when only small percentages of the organs are actually included in the irradiation volume. Notwithstanding, we do not agree that the radiation dose can be increased close to the intolerable level, because serious radiation toxicity to these serial organs could be irreversible, frequently leaves severe sequelae, and is fatal in some cases.

The toxicity observed in this trial was comparable to that in our previous study of concurrent chemoradiotherapy with vinorelbine and cisplatin chemotherapy plus thoracic radiation at a total dose of 60 Gy administered in 30 fractions: Grade 3–4 neutropenia in 77% and 67% of patients, Grade 3–4 esophagitis in 6% and 12% of patients, and Grade 3–5 lung toxicity in 3% and 7% in the current and previous studies, respectively (5). This suggests that patient selection using PET/CT and DVH evaluation may be useful to keep the toxicity associated with high-dose thoracic radiation within the range of toxicity induced by conventional-dose thoracic radiation.

In this study, a remarkably high proportion (74%) of subjects had adenocarcinoma, which may provide an explanation for the high rate of subsequent brain metastases. Patient selection also affects the treatment efficacy considerably; therefore, it is difficult to compare it between the current and previous studies. However, the median PFS of 11.6 months and median OS of 41.9 months sound promising. We are conducting a Phase II study of concurrent 3D-CRT at a total dose of 72 Gy and chemotherapy with cisplatin and vinorelbine.

In conclusion, concurrent 3D-CRT with cisplatin and vinorelbine chemotherapy was feasible up to 72 Gy, in patients with unresectable Stage III NSCLC. At the level of 78 Gy, however, only 25% of the patients assessed for eligibility were found to be actually eligible. Thus, 72 Gy in 36 fractions was the maximum dose that could be achieved in most patients given the predetermined normal tissue constraints when administered concurrently with cisplatin and vinorelbine.

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High-dose rate brachytherapy alone in postoperative soft tissue sarcomas with close or positive margins

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ABSTRACT

PURPOSE: In the management of soft tissue sarcomas, perioperative radiation therapy has been used to reduce the risk of local recurrence after resection. However, a significance of postoperative high-dose rate brachytherapy (HDRBT) remains to be studied. Retrospective analysis was performed to elucidate the role of postoperative HDRBT.

METHODS AND MATERIALS: Twenty-five patients with 26 soft tissue sarcoma lesions underwent postoperative HDRBT using ¹⁹²Ir remote afterloader without external beam radiation therapy. Ninety-two percent of the lesions were Grade 2 or 3 malignancies, and 50% were resected with positive surgical margins. The remaining 50% had very close margins. Fourteen lesions were treated for local recurrences after previous resections. Applicators of HDRBT were placed during the operation to include only the tumor bed excluding surgical scars. Applied dose was mainly 36 Gy/6 fractions/3 d b.i.d.

RESULTS: Five-year local recurrence-free survival was 78.2% in all the 26 lesions. Recurrences were not seen within the treated volume of HDRBT. Two groups were defined according to the marginal status and number of previous operations. Group 1 was the lesions with a positive margin and foregoing resections. The remaining lesions were classified as Group 2. Five-year local recurrence-free survival was 43.8% and 93.3% in Group 1 and Group 2, respectively with a statistically significant difference ($p = 0.004$).

CONCLUSIONS: Postoperative HDRBT was effective in controlling local lesions; but in Group 1 lesions, addition of a wide field external beam radiation therapy seems to be necessary to improve the local control rate. © 2010 American Brachytherapy Society. Published by Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

Keywords: High-dose rate brachytherapy; Soft tissue sarcoma; Postoperative radiation

Introduction

In the management of soft tissue sarcomas (STSs), surgical resection is the mainstay of treatment. However, local recurrence is seen frequently, especially in the patients with positive surgical margins, a large tumor, and/or recurrence after foregoing surgery (1, 2). Post- or preoperative radiation therapy has been demonstrated to

be effective in reducing the risk of local recurrence (2–4). Furthermore, the combination of surgery and perioperative radiation therapy has changed the management policy of the STSs from a mutilating radical amputation to limb-sparing therapy. External beam radiation therapy (EBRT) is the most frequently used method of radiation therapy, whereas postoperative radiation therapy using low-dose rate brachytherapy (LDRBT) has been reported to be also effective in lowering the local recurrence rate (3, 5). In contrast, postoperative high-dose rate brachytherapy (HDRBT) of STS has been published only sporadically and its clinical significance in the management of STSs remains to be studied (6–10). In National Cancer Center Hospital, HDRBT has been used without EBRT in the postoperative radiation therapy of patients with STSs, whose

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removal seemed to result in a resection with positive or close margins. In this study, the role and significance of postoperative HDRBT alone in the management of STS is analyzed retrospectively.

Methods and materials

From 1995 to 2008, 25 patients with 26 STS lesions underwent postoperative HDRBT alone in National Cancer Center Hospital. There were 10 men and 15 women. In a male patient with malignant fibrous histiocytoma, the lesion was managed with operation and postoperative HDRBT and the tumor recurred proximal to the original site. The recurred tumor was resected and postoperative HDRBT was administered repeatedly (Table 1). Median age was 60.7 years ranging from 9 to 76 years. Primary sites of the tumors were upper extremity with 12 lesions and lower extremity with 11 lesions. Primary truncal STS was seen in three lesions. As for pathology, malignant

fibrous histiocytoma was most frequently seen in 12 lesions followed by leiomyosarcoma in three lesions. Eighty-eight percent of lesions were diagnosed as Grade 2 or 3 in three-tiered grade classification. Surgical margins were microscopically positive for sarcoma cells in 13 lesions; whereas in 13 lesions, resection margins were very close (less than 5 mm) to the tumor because vicinity of the tumor to the functionally important structures, such as major neurovascular bundles, made it difficult to attain adequate surgical margins. The maximal tumor size in the pathologic specimen was 9 cm in a mean with a range between 1.2 cm and 22 cm. Included in the present study were also the STSs, which recurred after previous surgeries. Fourteen lesions were treated by resections and HDRBTs for recurrences after the previous surgeries. Number of the foregoing surgeries ranged from one to eight.

Indication of the postoperative HDRBT was determined preoperatively by a joint meeting of orthopedic surgeons and radiation oncologists. Postoperative HDRBT was used to preserve major neurovascular bundles or major muscles, which are indispensable to maintain the functional integrity of extremities. During the operation, resection margins close to or contaminated by tumor were confirmed by both orthopedic surgeons and radiation oncologists. Surgical clips were placed to delineate the tumor bed as well as the resection margins very close to the lesion. The flexible applicator tubes of HDRBT were placed to cover the tumor bed with 1–2 cm margins in a parallel fashion with 1–1.5 cm intervals between the tubes. Applicator tubes have a closed end and were sutured to the tumor bed. The open ends of tubes were pulled through the skin and connected to the remote afterloading machine. Muscular or adipose tissue flaps of about 5 mm thickness were used to cover major nerve and/or vascular bundles to avoid direct contact of the applicators. The tubes were removed after completion of the HDRBT. Radiation therapy planning was performed by Plato (version 14.3.7; Nucletron, Veenendaal, The Netherlands). The coordinates of the tube applicators were digitized using orthogonal x-rays and/or CT images. The dwell positions of HDRBT source were located to cover tumor bed encircled by the surgical clips. No special efforts were exerted to include all the scar and drainage sites. Geometric optimization was used to calculate dwell times with a reference point of 5 mm lateral to the midportion of the central tube applicator. For HDRBT, ¹⁹²Ir afterloading machine was used (microSelectron HDR; Nucletron, Veenendaal, The Netherlands). All the lesions but one were irradiated with a fractional dose of 6 Gy, and the remaining one was treated by 4.5 Gy because neighboring nerve could not be adequately protected by the flap. The HDRBT was done b.i.d. with an interval between the fractions of at least 6 h. Six fractions were administered in all but one lesion, which was treated with four fractions because of the accidental early slip out of the applicators. In 24 lesions, applied dose was 36 Gy, 30 Gy, and 27 Gy each in one lesion (Table 2). Interval

Table 1
Age and sex of the 25 patients and characteristics of the 26 lesions undergoing postoperative high-dose rate brachytherapy for soft tissue sarcomas

Characteristics	Number
Median age (y)	60.7 (range, 9–76)
Sex	
Male:female	11:15
Primary Site	
Upper extremity	12
Lower extremity	11
Trunk	3
Histopathology	
Malignant fibrous histiocytoma	12
Leiomyosarcoma	3
Synovial sarcoma	3
Liposarcoma	2
Rhabdomyosarcoma	2
Others	4
Malignant grade	
1	2
2	9
3	15
Tumor size	
Mean	9 cm (range, 1.2–22)
<5 cm	9
>5 cm	17
Number of previous operations	
0	12
>1	14
Status of surgical margin	
Positive	13
Negative	13
Chemotherapy	
Yes	12
No	14