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ALIMTA[®] pemetreksed



BUILD A TREATMENT STRATEGY FROM SURVIVAL

SKRAJŠAN POVZETEK GLAVNIH ZNAČILNOSTI ZDRAVILA

Ime zdravila ALIMTA 100 mg prašek za koncentrat za raztopino za infundiranje in ALIMTA 500 mg prašek za koncentrat za raztopino za infundiranje. **Kakovostna in količinska sestava** ALIMTA 100 mg: vsaka viala vsebuje 100 mg pemetrekseda (v obliki dinatrijevega pemetrekseda). Po pripravi vsebuje vsaka viala 25 mg/ml pemetrekseda. Pomozne snovi: Vsaka viala vsebuje približno 11 mg natrija, manitol, klorovodikova kislina, natrijev hidroksid. ALIMTA 500 mg: vsaka viala vsebuje 500 mg pemetrekseda (v obliki dinatrijevega pemetrekseda). Po pripravi vsebuje vsaka viala 25 mg/ml pemetrekseda. Pomozne snovi: Vsaka viala vsebuje približno 54 mg natrija, manitol, klorovodikova kislina, natrijev hidroksid. **Terapevtske indikacije:** ALIMTA je v kombinaciji s cisplatinom indicirana za zdravljenje bolnikov z neresektabilnim pleuralnim mezoteliomom, ki jih še nismo zdravili s kemoterapijo. ALIMTA je v kombinaciji s cisplatinom indicirana kot zdravljenje prvega izbora za bolnike z lokalno napredovalim ali metastatskim nedrobnoceličnim pljučnim karcinomom, ki nima pretežno ploščatocelične histologije. ALIMTA je indicirana kot monoterapija za zdravljenje lokalno napredovalga ali metastatskega nedrobnoceličnega pljučnega karcinoma, ki nima pretežno ploščatocelične histologije pri bolnikih, pri katerih bolezen ni napredovala neposredno po kemoterapiji na osnovi platine. ALIMTA je indicirana kot monoterapija za zdravljenje drugega izbora bolnikov z lokalno napredovalim ali metastatskim nedrobnoceličnim pljučnim karcinomom, ki nima pretežno ploščatocelične histologije. **Odmernjevanje in način uporabe:** Odmernjevanje: ALIMTO smemo dajati le pod nadzorom zdravnika, usposobljenega za uporabo kemoterapije za zdravljenje raka. ALIMTA v kombinaciji s cisplatinom Priporočeni odmerek ALIMTE je 500 mg/m² telesne površine (TP), dan kot intravenska infuzija v 10 minutah prvi dan vsakega 21-dnevnega ciklusa. Priporočeni odmerek cisplatina je 75 mg/m² TP infundiran v dveh urah približno 30 minut po zaključku infuzije pemetrekseda prvi dan vsakega 21 dnevnega ciklusa. Bolniki morajo prejeti zadostno antiemetično zdravljenje, pred in/ali po prejemanju cisplatina jih moramo tudi ustrezno hidrirati. ALIMTA kot samostojno zdravilo Priporočeni odmerek ALIMTE je 500 mg/m² TP, dan kot intravenska infuzija v 10 minutah prvi dan vsakega 21 dnevnega ciklusa. **Režim premedikacije:** Da zmanjšamo incidenco in resnost kožnih reakcij, dajemo kortikosteroid dan pred dajanjem pemetrekseda, na dan dajanja pemetrekseda in naslednji dan. Kortikosteroid naj ustreza 4 mg deksametazona, danega peroralno dvakrat dnevno. Za zmanjšanje toksičnosti morajo bolniki dnevno jemati tudi peroralno folno kislino ali multivitaminski pripravek, ki vsebuje (350 do 1000 mikrogramov). V sedmih dneh pred prvim odmerkom pemetrekseda morajo vzeti vsaj pet odmerkov folne kisline, odmerjanje pa morajo nadaljevati ves čas zdravljenja in še 21 dni po zadnjem odmerku pemetrekseda. Bolniki morajo prejeti tudi intramuskularno injekcijo vitamina B12 (1000 mikrogramov) v tednu pred prvim odmerkom pemetrekseda in enkrat vsake tri cikluse zatem. Kasnejše injekcije vitamina B12 lahko dajemo isti dan kot pemetreksed. **Kontraindikacije:** Preobčutljivost za zdravilno učinkovino ali katerokoli pomožno snov. Dojenje. Sočasno cepljenje proti rumeni mrzlici. **Posebna opozorila in previdnostni ukrepi:** Pemetreksed lahko zavre delovanje kostnega mozga, kar se kaže kot nevropenija, tromboticpenija in anemija (ali pancitopenija). Mielosupresija običajno predstavlja toksičnost za omejiteljv odmerka. Pri bolnikih, ki pred zdravljenjem niso prejeli kortikosteroidov, so poročali o kožnih reakcijah. Uporabe pemetrekseda pri bolnikih z očistkom kreatinina < 45 ml/min ne priporočamo. Bolniki z blagim do zmernim popuščanjem delovanja ledvic naj se izogibajo jemanju nesteroidnih protivnetnih zdravil (NSAID), denimo, ibuprofena in acetilsalicilne kisline 2 dni pred dajanjem pemetrekseda, na dan dajanja in še 2 dni po dajanju pemetrekseda. Vsi bolniki, ki jih lahko zdravimo s pemetreksedom, naj se izogibajo jemanju NSAID-ov z dolgimi razpolovnimi časi izločanja vsaj 5 dni pred dajanjem pemetrekseda, na dan dajanja in še vsaj 2 dni po dajanju pemetrekseda. Poročali so o resnih ledvičnih primerih, vključno z akutno ledvično odpovedjo, s pemetreksedom samimi ali v povezavi z drugimi kemoterapevtiki. Pri bolnikih s klinično pomembno tekočino tretjega prostora moramo razmisliti o drenaži telesa pred dajanjem pemetrekseda. Kot posledico toksičnosti pemetrekseda v kombinaciji s cisplatinom za prebavila so opažali hudo dehidracijo, zato moramo bolnike pred prejemanjem terapije in/ali po njej ustrezno hidrirati, prejeti morajo zadostno antiemetično zdravljenje. Občasno so v kliničnih študijah pemetrekseda, običajno ob sočasnem dajanju z drugo citotoksično učinkovino, poročali o resnih srčnožilnih dogodkih, vključno z miokardnim infarktom in možganskožilnimi dogodki. Odsvetujemo uporabo živih oslabiljenih cepiv. Spolno zreli moški morajo v času zdravljenja in še 6 mesecev zatem, priporočamo ukrepe proti zanositvi ali vzdržnost. Zaradi možnosti, da zdravljenje s pemetreksedom povzroči trajno neplodnost, naj se moški pred začetkom zdravljenja posvetujejo o shranjevanju semen. Ženske v rodni dobi morajo v času zdravljenja s pemetreksedom uporabljati učinkovito kontracepcijo. Poročali so o primerih radiacijske pljučnice pri bolnikih, ki so jih zdravili z radiacijo pred, med ali po zdravljenju s pemetreksedom. Poročali so o radiacijskem izpuščaju pri bolnikih, ki so se zdravili z radioterapijo pred tedni ali leti. **Medsebojno delovanje z drugimi zdravili in druge oblike interakcij:** Sočasno dajanje nefrotoksičnih zdravil (denimo, aminoglikozidov, diuretikov zanke, spojin platine, ciklosporina) lahko potencialno povzroči zakasnjeni očistek pemetrekseda. Sočasno dajanje snovi, ki se tudi izločajo s tubulno sekrecijo (denimo, probencid, penicilin), lahko potencialno povzroči zakasnjeni očistek pemetrekseda. Pri bolnikih z normalnim delovanjem ledvic lahko visoki odmerki nesteroidnih protivnetnih zdravil (NSAID), denimo, ibuprofenom in acetilsalicilna kislina v visokih odmerkih zmanjšajo eliminacijo pemetrekseda in tako lahko povečajo pojavnost neželenih učinkov pemetrekseda. Pri bolnikih z blagim do zmernim popuščanjem delovanja ledvic se moramo izogibati sočasnemu dajanju pemetrekseda z NSAID-i (denimo, ibuprofenom) ali acetilsalicilne kisline v visokih odmerkih 2 dni pred dajanjem pemetrekseda, na dan dajanja in še 2 dni po dajanju pemetrekseda. Sočasnemu dajanju NSAID-ov z daljšimi razpolovnimi časi s pemetreksedom se moramo izogibati vsaj 5 dni pred dajanjem pemetrekseda, na dan dajanja in še vsaj 2 dni po dajanju pemetrekseda. Velika različnost med posamezniki v koagulacijskem statusu v času bolezni ter možnost medsebojnega delovanja med peroralnimi antikoagulacijskimi učinkovinami ter kemoterapijo proti raku zahtevata povečano pogostost spremljanja INR. **Kontraindicirana sočasna uporaba:** Cepivo proti rumeni mrzlici. Tveganje za smrtno generalizirano bolezen po cepljenju. **Odvetovana sočasna uporaba:** Živa oslabiljena cepiva (razen proti rumeni mrzlici). Tveganje za sistemsko, potencialno smrtno bolezen. **Neželeni učinki** Klinične študije malignega pleuralnega mezotelioma Zelo pogosto: znižani nevтроfilci/granulociti, znižani levkociti, znižani trombociti, nevropatija-senzorna, diareja, bruhanje, stomatitis/faringitis, slabost, anoreksija, zaprtje, izpuščaj, alopecija, povišan kreatinin, znižan očistek kreatinina, utrujenost. Pogosti: dehidracija, motnje okusa, konjunktivitis, dispneja. Klinične študije nedrobnoceličnega pljučnega karcinoma - ALIMTA monoterapija, zdravljenje 2. izbora: Zelo pogosti: znižan nevтроfilci/granulociti, znižani levkociti, znižan očistek kreatinina, utrujenost. Pogosti: stomatitis/faringitis, slabost, anoreksija, zaprtje, izpuščaj, alopecija, povišana telesna temperatura. Klinične študije nedrobnoceličnega pljučnega karcinoma - ALIMTA v kombinaciji s cisplatinom, zdravljenje 1. izbora: Zelo pogosti: znižan hemoglobin, znižani nevтроfilci/granulociti, znižani levkociti, znižani trombociti, slabost, bruhanje, anoreksija, zaprtje, stomatitis/faringitis, diareja brez kolostomije, alopecija, izpuščaj/luščenje, povišan kreatinin, utrujenost. Pogosti: nevropatija-senzorična, motnje okusa, dispneja/zgaga. Klinične študije nedrobnoceličnega pljučnega karcinoma - ALIMTA monoterapija, vzdrževalno in nadaljevalno zdravljenje: Zelo pogosti: znižan hemoglobin, slabost, anoreksija, utrujenost. Pogosti: znižani levkociti, znižani nevтроfilci, nevropatija-senzorična, bruhanje, mukozitis/stomatitis, povišanje ALT (SGPT), povišanje AST (SGOT), izpuščaj/luščenje, bolečina. Občasno so v kliničnih študijah pemetrekseda poročali o primerih resnih srčnožilnih in možganskožilnih dogodkih, vključno z miokardnim infarktom, angino pektoris, cerebrovaskularnim insulantom in prehodnimi ishemičnimi atakami; primerih kolitisa ter o primerih intersticijske pljučnice z respiratorno insuficienco, primerih edema, o ezofagitisu/ radiacijskem ezofagitisu in o primerih sepe. Redkeje pa o primerih potencialno resnega hepatitisa in pancitopenije. Po uvedbi zdravila na trg so poročali o primerih akutne odpovedi ledvic s pemetreksedom samimi ali v povezavi z drugimi kemoterapevtiki, primerih radiacijske pljučnice pri bolnikih, ki so jih zdravili z radiacijo pred, med ali po njihovem zdravljenju s pemetreksedom, primerih radiacijskega izpuščaja pri bolnikih, ki so se v preteklosti zdravili z radioterapijo, o primerih periferne ishemije, ki je včasih vodila v nekrozo okončin, redkih primerih buloznih stanj, kot sta Stevens-Johnsonov sindrom in toksična epidermalna nekroliza, ki so bila v nekaterih primerih usodna in o redkih primerih hemolitične anemije. **Imetnik dovoljenja za promet** Eli Lilly Nederland B.V., Grootslag 1 5, NL 3991 RA, Houten, Nizozemska. Datum zadnje revizije besedila 24.10.2011. **Način izdaje zdravila:** H. SAMO ZA STROKOVNO JAVNOST.

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Eli Lilly Farmaceutvska družba, d.o.o.

Brnčičeva 41G, 1231 Ljubljana - Črnuče, Slovenija

Telefon: +386 (0)1 5800 010

Faks: +386 (0)1 5691 705



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Editorial office

Radiology and Oncology

Zaloška cesta 2

P. O. Box 2217

SI-1000 Ljubljana

Slovenia

Phone: +386 1 5879 369

Phone/Fax: +386 1 5879 434

E-mail: gsersa@onko-i.si

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Vida Kološa

Secretary

Mira Klemencič

Zvezdana Vukmirović

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Double BioDisk: a new bioprosthetic device for transcatheter closure of atrial septal defects - a feasibility study in adult sheep

Dusan Pavcnik¹, Kurt Tekulve², Barry T. Uchida¹, Zhong-Huo Luo¹, Miran Jeromel^{1,4}, William G. Van Alstine³, Frederick S. Keller¹, Josef Rösch¹

¹ Dotter Interventional Institute, Oregon Health Sciences University, Portland, Oregon, USA

² Cook Medical Incorporated, Bloomington, Indiana, USA

³ School of Veterinary Medicine, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana, USA

⁴ Institut of Radiology, University Clinical Center, Ljubljana, Slovenia

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Correspondence to: Prof. Dusan Pavcnik, M.D., Ph.D., Dotter Interventional Institute, Oregon Health Sciences University, L342, 3181 SW Sam Jackson Park Road, Portland, Oregon, 97201, USA. Phone: (503) 494-3669; Fax: (503) 494-4258; E-mail: pavcnikd@ohsu.edu

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Background. To evaluate the long-term effectiveness and safety of a new Double BioDisk (DBD) device for closure of atrial septal defect (ASD).

Materials and methods. ASD was created with transeptal needle (TS) followed by balloon dilatation in 12 sheep weighing 40.1 to 64 kg (mean 55.2 ± 7.1). The ASD diameters were measured after creation and two weeks later before DBD implantation. The DBDs consists of two nitinol rings 18 to 28 mm in diameter connected with small cannulas and covered with a porcine small intestinal submucosa (SIS). They were implanted via a 10 Fr sheath. DBD effectiveness was evaluated by angiocardiology and by intra-cardiac echogram (ICE) with Doppler studies. Two animals were acute, two were followed for 6 weeks, three for 3 months, three for 6 months and two for 12 months.

Results. TS punctures were successful in 10 sheep. In two sheep ASD was created by existing PFO dilation. The ASD size ranged from 13-15 mm (mean 14.1 ± 0.73 mm) after initial balloon dilation and from 9-13 mm (mean 10.06 ± 1.37 mm) after two weeks. In all animals none of the successfully implanted DBDs spontaneously embolized on release or on follow up. ICE demonstrated no shunting around the DBDs during follows ups. Macroscopic and histologic evaluation of the 6, 12, 24 and 52 weeks animals showed that DBDs were well incorporated in the atrial septum with complete shunt closure. The SIS showed progressive remodeling with the host cells, including endothelialization of the DBD devices.

Conclusions. ASD closure with the Double BioDisk is safe and effective in adult sheep.

Key words: atrial septal defect; transcatheter closure; small intestinal submucosa; biomaterial; embolism; heart septal defects

Introduction

Since King and Mills reported percutaneous treatment of an atrial septal defect (ASD) in the 1970s, many transcatheter ASD closure devices have been developed.¹⁻⁵ These ASD closure devices have been also used for patent foramen ovale (PFO) closure. We developed and tested a single disk device cov-

ered with porcine small intestinal submucosa (SIS) – BioDisk (BD) - for the closure of PFO in a piglet model.⁶ For closure of ASD in large animals we developed a Double BioDisk (DBD) covered with SIS. We report on the feasibility, long-term effectiveness and safety of DBD application in adult sheep with percutaneously created ASD. Sheep were used for testing, since the DBD biological cover is of a porcine origin.

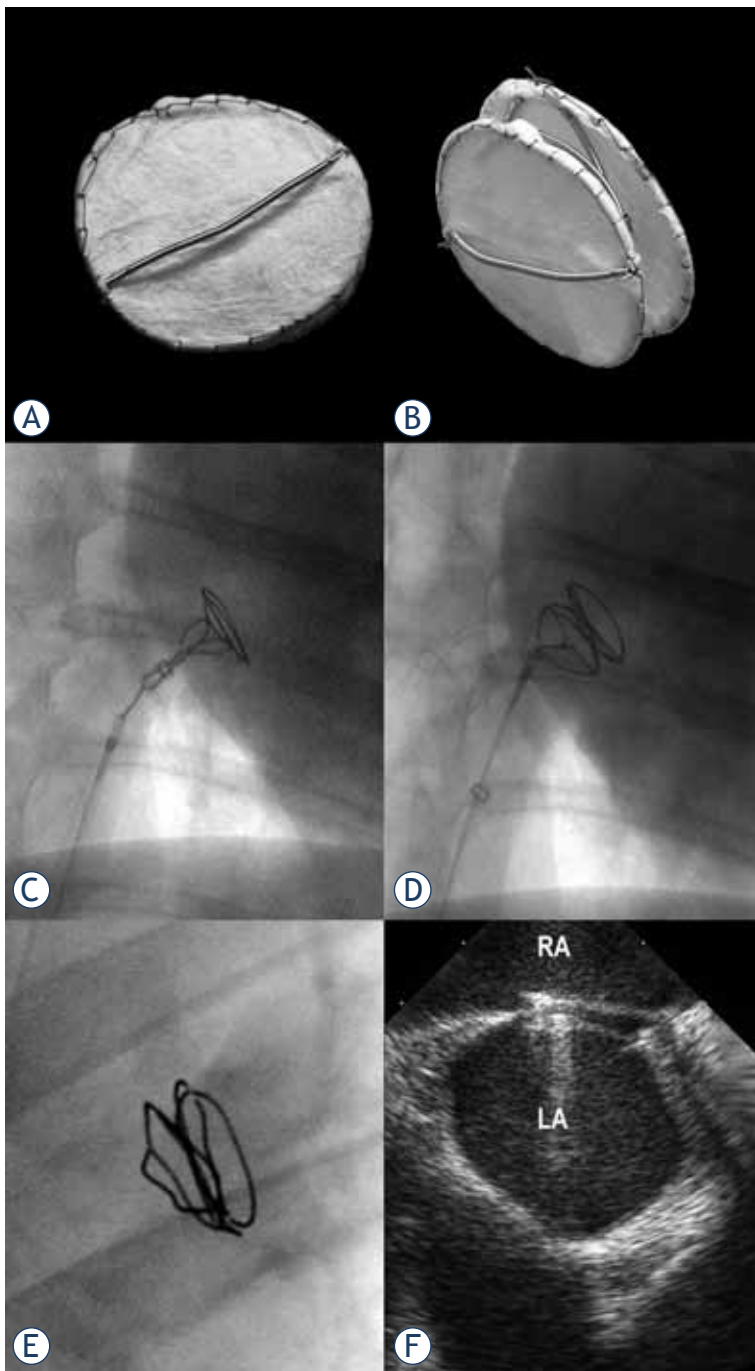


FIGURE 1. The double BioDisk (DBD) ASD occlusive device 18 mm in diameter.

- A. Right atrial side with delivery bar.
- B. Oblique projection.
- C. Deployment of the left atrial DBD disk.
- D. Deployment of DBD across ASD with delivery bar still attached to the delivery wire.
- E. X-ray of DBD at 3 months.
- F. Intracardiac echocardiogram 6 months after DBD deployment shows device with thickened discs. No shunting was seen.

Material and methods

The study protocol was approved by the institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. Twelve adult weighing 40.1 to 64 kg (mean 55.2 ± 7.1 kg) were used for testing the DBD device. A cardiac mobile system (GE/OEC 9800; GE Medical Systems, OEC, Salt Lake City, UT) with digital imaging was used for fluoroscopy and angiocardiography. Angiocardiography was performed with an injector (Medrad Mark Plus, Medrad, Inc. Warrendale, PA). For intracardiac echocardiographic (ICE) studies, the AcuNav System (Acuson, Siemens Inc., Mountain View, California) was used.

Percutaneous transcatheter creation of ASD

Preparation of animals and their anesthesia were described in previous paper.⁷ Electro cardiogram (EKG), heart rate, oxygen saturation and end tidal CO₂ were monitored during the procedure. After induction of general endotracheal anesthesia, the sheep were secured with their back on the radiographic table with their hind limbs in moderate abduction. The neck and the right groin were shaved and prepped. 6 F vascular sheath was percutaneously placed into the right jugular vein and a short 14 F sheath into the right femoral vein. The jugular vein sheath was used for physiologic monitoring, the femoral vein sheath for procedure performance.

The ASDs were created percutaneously with modified transeptal needles (TS) followed by 14 mm balloon dilatation (Cook Medical, Bloomington, IN) as previously described.⁸ The stretched ASD diameter was then measured with a Coda balloon catheter (Cook Medical). The animals were then recovered and returned to the Department of Comparative Medicine (DMC) for monitoring by veterinarians. Fourteen days after ASDs creation, the sheep were restudied by angiocardiography, ICE study and Coda balloon measurement of the shunts. DBDs were then implanted.

Double BioDisk (DBD) device

The DBD were constructed as a joint effort between Cook Medical and the Dotter Institute specifications. The DBD consisted of two nitinol rings covered with platinum coil. Both flexible rings were connected with small cannulas and covered with SIS. The cross bar of the right atrial disk was the delivery bar. SIS was sutured with Prolene 6.0 to the radio-opaque rings (Figure 1AB). The DBD was lyophilized and

then preloaded by the manufacturer into a 10 Fr cartridge. The delivery system was similar to the system used in the jugular Tulip filter delivery system (Cook Medical). The DBD is self-expanding and self-centering device. The DBD sizes for this study were 18 mm, 23 mm and 28 mm in diameter. Device to defect ratio of 1.8 or larger was used.

DBD closures of ASD

Preparation of animals, their anesthesia and sheaths placements were similar as for ASD creation. The animals received heparin in dose of 100 IU/kg of body weight. Intravenous saline was administered as needed and respiration rate, expired carbon dioxide, oxygen saturation and EKG were monitored during the procedure. A 5 Fr multipurpose catheter (Cook Medical) was introduced through the femoral vein sheath into the right atrium to catheterize the ASD. A 0.035" Road Runner guide wire (Cook Medical) was used to advance the catheter under fluoroscopy into the left atrium. The Road Runner was then replaced with a long, 0.035" stiff Amplatz wire (Cook Medical). To measure diameter of the ASD, a Coda balloon (Cook Medical) was used. An hourglass appearance of the Coda balloon was indicative of ASD size. No attempts were made to dilate the ASD. After the Coda balloon was removed, a 10F Flexor sheath (Cook Medical) was advanced across the ASD into the left atrium.

The preloaded DBD was first rehydrated with injection of 10-20 ml of heparinized saline into the cartridge. The delivery bar of the right atrial disk of the DBD was then connected to a hook of a stiff introducing wire. The DBD was introduced into the Flexor delivery sheath and advanced through the ASD into the left atrium. The left atrial disk was then delivered by holding the DBD and by withdrawing the delivery sheath (Figure 1CD). Since the disk is self expanding, it assumed its original rounded shape in the left atrium after exiting the sheath. The DBD was then pulled back against the septum while the other disk connected to the delivery bar was still inside the Flexor sheath in the right atrium. Before releasing the device, the sheath was pulled back to expose the right atrial disk with delivery bar still connected to the hook. Prior to deployment, the DBD position was assessed by contrast injection into the right atrium in the RAO view. When no reflux into the left atrium was found, delivery bar of the DBD was released from the holding catheter. The DBD sizes used for ASD closure were 18 mm in 5 sheep, 23 mm in 4 sheep and 28 mm in one sheep.

After DBD deployments angiocardiograms in left anterior oblique and lateral views followed to document the position of the DBD and its effectiveness in occluding the ASD. The delivery catheter and 10 Fr sheath were then removed and replaced with an ICE catheter to evaluate DBD effectiveness with Doppler studies. Two animals were acute; two were followed for six weeks, three for 3 months, three for 6 months and two for 12 months.

Acute studies

In two acute animals, DBD repositioning and removal were tested prior to delivery catheter removal. First the DBD was expanded and then retracted into the delivery sheath. Then the entire DBD was deployed, but not released. Afterwards it was pulled back into the sheath and redeployed into the ASD. To test its retrievability, the DBD was removed from its ASD position and intentionally embolized into the right atrium. Both the Amplatz gooseneck snare and vascular forceps were used for the retrieval of the embolized DBDs. After retrieval a new DBD was deployed and after 3 hours observation, the acute animals were euthanized. The harvested hearts were cut longitudinally and photographs of the atrial septums were made.

Follow-up studies

Ten chronic animals were recovered after the procedure and returned to the DMC where veterinarians checked them on a daily basis.

Follow-up angiocardiograms of the right atrium and ICE with Doppler studies were done at 6 weeks (n=2), 3 months (n=3), 6 months (n=3) and 12 months (n=2) after DBD placement under the same procedure protocol as in initial studies. After satisfactory views of the DBD effectiveness for ASD closure were obtained, the animals were euthanized and their hearts harvested. After photographs of the atrial septa, the hearts were preserved in buffered formalin and were sent for detailed histological evaluation. Each DBD specimen was embedded in methylmethacrylate blocks. Four cross sections of each device were processed using plastic embedding. All slides were stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H and E) stain using routine methods.

Results

The ASDs were created safely in all 12 sheep and did not lead to any complications. In 10 sheep ASD

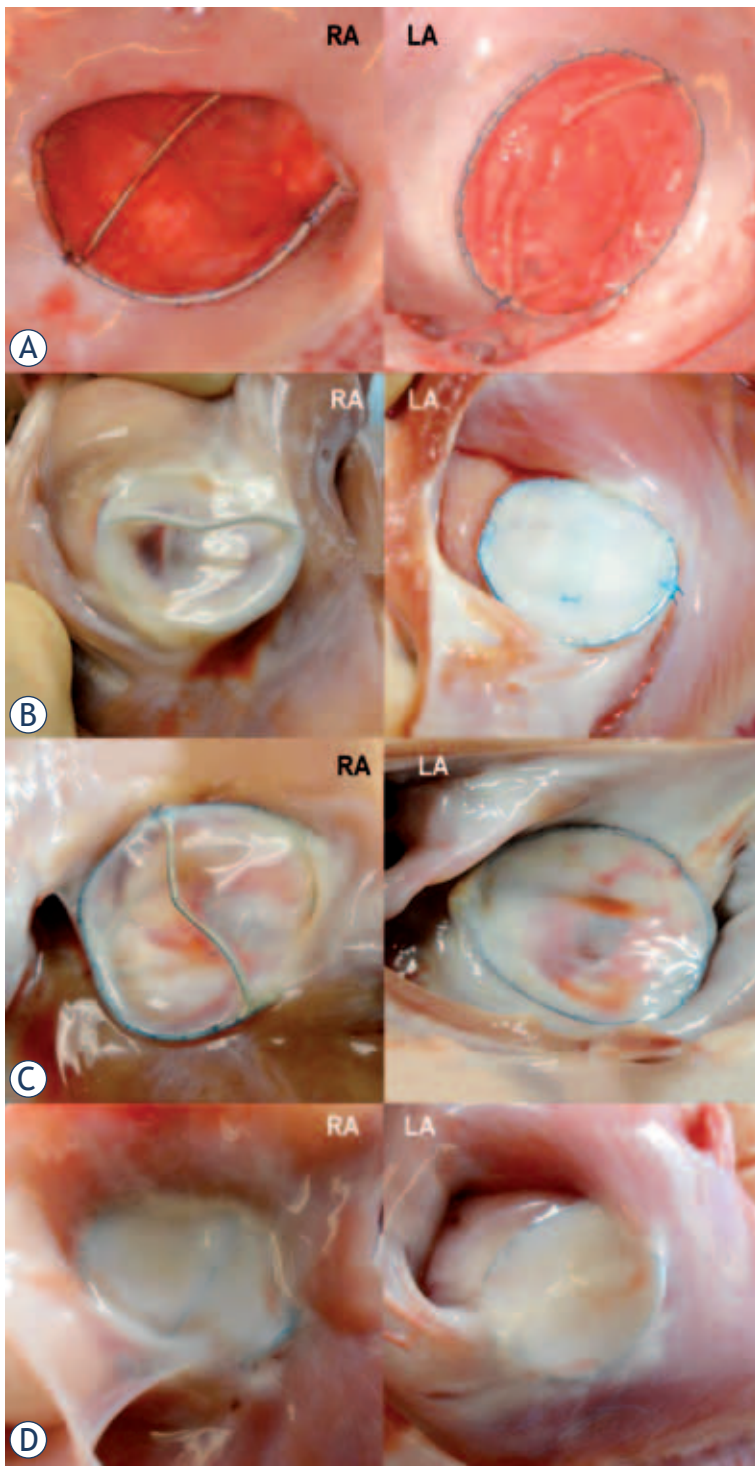


FIGURE 2. Gross specimens of the deployed double BioDisks into the adult sheep ASDs.

- Three hours after deployment, thin layers of early thrombus cover right and left atrium disk of the 28 mm device.
- At 3 months, the 18 mm DBD is almost completely incorporated into myocardium. Glistening disk surfaces indicate complete endothelialization.
- At 6 months, the DBD is almost completely incorporated into myocardium of the right and left atrium.
- At 12 months, the DBD is completely incorporated into myocardium of the right and left atrium.

were created by puncture and balloon dilation at the fossa ovalis, in the other 2 sheep by balloon dilation of the existing PFO. The stretched ASD size immediately after balloon dilation ranged from 13 to 15 mm (mean 14.1 ± 0.73 mm). At 2 weeks prior to DBD placement the ASD size ranged from 9 -13 mm with a mean 10.06 ± 1.37 mm (Table1).

All DBDs were successfully implanted and none spontaneously embolized on release or on follow up. In the first two acute animals, the DBDs were easily retracted into the delivery sheath after their partial or full deployment and redeployed into the ASD. The two intentionally embolized DBDs into the right atrium were safely retrieved and new DBDs were placed into the ASD. Angiocardiograms after DBD deployment showed good placement and absence of shunting. ICE evaluation with Doppler studies did not reveal any shunting around the DBDs. EKGs did not demonstrate any arrhythmias. In the chronic studies, the DBDs were highly visible on x-ray (Figure 1E). There were no fractures of the device frame. Follow up angiocardiograms and ICE Doppler studies documented complete closures of the ASDs and no shunting in all 8 sheep (Figure 1F).

Gross examination

The implanted DBDs in all animals, acute and chronic, were well self-centered and attached to the ASDs with good apposition to the interatrial septum and adjacent myocardium (Figure 2). Both discs were flattened against the intra-atrial septum and held in place by the connection between the DBD. The DBDs did not obstruct blood flow in to coronary sinus or pulmonary veins nor did it compromise mitral or tricuspid valves. In two acute animals euthanized 3 hours after DBD placement both discs were covered by thin red layer of early thrombus (Figure 2A). In two animals euthanized at 6 weeks, the SIS surfaces on both disks were shiny, transparent and without thrombus. Disks were partially incorporated into the myocardium. In three animals sacrificed at 12 weeks, DBD rings were almost completely incorporated into the myocardium wall. The SIS of the left and right atrium disks were well apposed to the myocardium excluding the ASD opening. The SIS was glistening and shiny indicating endothelialization (Figure 2B). The SIS was less transparent than that at 6 weeks. At 24 weeks and 52 weeks DBDs were free from adjacent important cardiac structures in all of the specimens. The SIS membranes of the DBDs were positioned with a good apposition across the ASD

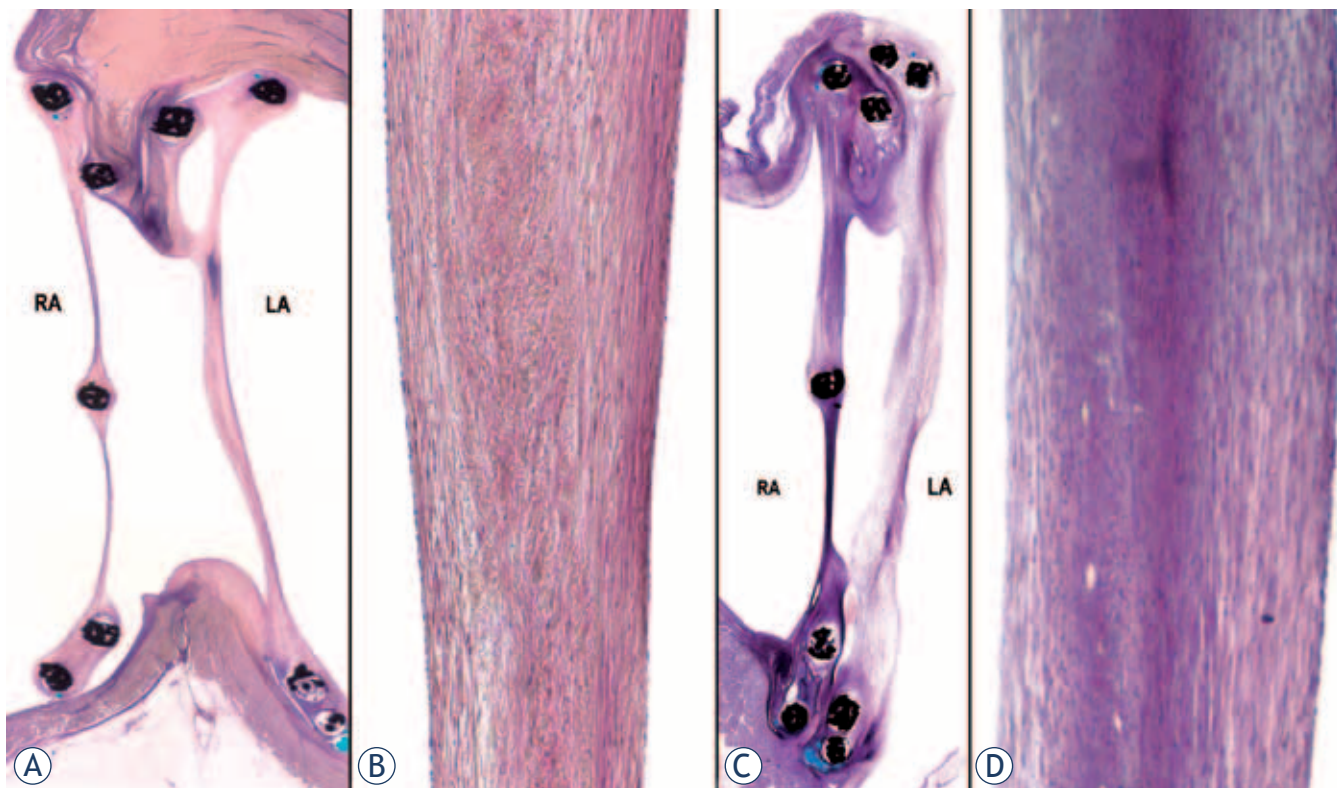


FIGURE 3. Histologic cross sections of the deployed double BioDisks into the adult sheep ASDs.

- A. At 3 months, the right atrial disk of the 18 mm device is apposed and the left atrial disk is incorporated into myocardium. The crossbar is incorporated into the right disk. The disk thickness ranges between 0.1 to 0.25 mm at the right atrial disk and between 1 to 2 mm at the left atrial disk. (Low magnification Hand E)
- B. At 3 months the center of the left disc is partially remodeled into neointima/connective tissue and contains no inflammatory cells. Remnant SIS is visible in the core of the leaflet. (H and E stain, 40x)
- C. At 6 months, the 18 mm disks are completely imbedded into myocardium and the distance between them ranges from 2 to 3 mm. The crossbar is incorporated into the right disk. Right atrial disk thickness ranges from 0.4 to 0.8 mm and left atrial disk thickness from 1.5 to 3 mm. (Low magnification Hand E)
- D. At 6 months the center of the right atrial disk is remodeled into mature neointima/connective tissue and contains no inflammatory cells. Remnant SIS is not visible. All luminal surfaces are lined by endothelium (H and E stain, 40x).

TABLE 1. Results of percutaneous atrial septal defect closure

| Animal No | Weight kg | Stretched ASD diameter mm | | DBD size mm | Placement successful Yes or No | Follow Up Weeks | ICE Follow Up |
|-----------|-----------|---------------------------|--------|-------------|--------------------------------|-----------------|---------------|
| | | day 1 | day 14 | | | | |
| 1 | 49.8 | 15 | acute | 28 | Y | acute | no shunt |
| 2 | 57.6 | 13 | acute | 23 | Y | acute | no shunt |
| 3 | 60.7 | 14 | 11 | 23 | Y | 6 | no shunt |
| 4 | 61.6 | 14 | 10 | 23 | Y | 6 | no shunt |
| 5 | 44.3 | 15 | 9 | 18 | Y | 12 | no shunt |
| 6 | 47.4 | 14 | 9.5 | 18 | Y | 12 | no shunt |
| 7 | 53.2 | 14 | 9 | 18 | Y | 12 | no shunt |
| 8 | 46.3 | 13 | 10 | 18 | Y | 24 | no shunt |
| 9 | 64.0 | 15 | 13 | 23 | Y | 24 | no shunt |
| 10 | 46.2 | 14 | 9 | 18 | Y | 24 | no shunt |
| 11 | 40.1 | 14 | 9.2 | 18 | Y | 52 | no shunt |
| 12 | 52.2 | 15 | 9 | 18 | Y | 52 | no shunt |

ASD=atrial septal defect, DBD=Double BioDisk, Y=yes, ICE= Intra-cardiac Echogram

and fused together with myocardium (Figure 2C). At 12 months, the disks apposition and incorporation into adjacent myocardium was complete, in the right and in the left atrium (Figure 2D). Glistening SIS surfaces were seen in all specimens. The delivery crossbars of the DBDs were covered with shiny tissue and partially fused with device.

Histological evaluation

Histological sections through the center of the DBDs exhibited well covered ASDs by the device disks. At follow up, there was progressive device apposition and incorporation of disks with adjacent myocardium, progressive SIS remodeling into neointima-connective tissue and progressive SIS endothelialization. At six weeks follow up, almost 85% of the rings on the right and 50% on the left atrial side were incorporated into the myocardium and surrounded by fibrous tissue less than 200 microns thick. The residual ring parts not embedded in the myocardium were surrounded by fibrous connective tissue and lined by endothelium. The SIS thickness ranged from 0.1 mm in the center to 2.5 mm near the rings and was covered by spindle shaped cells forming a neointima. Flat endothelium covered most of the SIS. The crossbars were surrounded by fibrous tissue. Only minimal inflammatory changes with a few lymphocytes were seen. At 3 months, approximately 95% of the rings on the right side and 60% on the left side were embedded into adjacent myocardium and surrounded by fibrous tissue less than 0.1 mm thick. The SIS showed progressive remodeling into fibrous connective tissue. The SIS disks were 0.1-0.5 mm thick at their centers and 1.5- 3 mm at their periphery. The right disk was thinner than the left disk (Figure 3AB). All discs surfaces were covered by mature endothelium. Crossbars were surrounded by neointima and incorporated into disks. At 6 months, the disks apposition and incorporation into adjacent myocardium was almost complete, 96% in the right atrium and 85% in the left atrium (Figure 3C). The ring wires not embedded into the myocardium were surrounded by neointima lined by endothelium. The SIS discs were composed of mature neointima consisting of fibrous connective tissue. SIS collagen fibers were not observed indicating complete remodeling (Figure 3D). The disks were 0.4-0.9 mm thick at the center and 1.5-3mm at the periphery. The crossbars were incorporated into the disk (Figure 3C). All lumen surfaces of the discs and crossbars were covered by flat mature endothelium.

Discussion

Adult sheep were used to test the DBD for several reasons. We reported several minimally invasive studies in sheep and we are familiar with this model.^{9,10} The size of their heart size approximates the size of the human heart and allows large closure devices to be tested. Adult sheep have a stable body size and when compared to swine that continue to grow and put on weight.^{6,11} They allow for long-term follow-up. In addition, the sheep coagulation and fibrinolytic systems are closer to that of humans compared to those in canine or swine.¹² Since the DBD cover is composed of swine origin, SIS is a xenogenic biomaterial to sheep.¹³ The cardiac anatomy of sheep with a more anteriorly positioned heart has a significantly steeper interatrial septum compared to humans that can be challenging for TS puncture. A long TS needle was developed corresponding to the length of sheep body with a curved needle tip allowing TS punctures to be easily and safely accomplished in all of our animals.⁸ We always punctured and established the ASDs in the area of the fossa ovalis because it allows for a mature stable ASD size. Two weeks after its creation, the ASD size in our animals decreased slightly from a mean 14.1 ± 0.73 mm to a mean 10.06 ± 1.37 mm. The ASD creation was not attempted in the septum secundum because in sheep this structure is significantly thicker than it is in humans. Previous experience showed us that punctures followed by dilations at the septum secundum do not lead to stable ASDs. They heal in two weeks.⁸

This is our third generation device for cardiac septal closure. The first one, the Monodisk, was developed in the early nineties.⁴ It consisted of a stainless steel ring covered with two layers of nylon mesh that was positioned on the left atrial ASD side. Three coiled stainless steel wires on the back side of the Monodisk served for its delivery and anchoring at the right atrial ASD side. A 9F introducing sheath was used for its delivery. Six months follow-up studies in canines showed it was effective for closure of ASD 8-10 mm in size. However problems with the Monodisk were its rigid frame, complex delivery, difficult post delivery retrieval and our inability to find a FDA approved nylon mesh alternative.

The second generation of the disk closure device – the Biodisk – was developed about 15 years later after we gained experience with nitinol and SIS. The nitinol that was used as a pliable material for the disk frame and the biomaterial SIS was used for the covering. The Biodisk was intended for closure

of PFO. It consisted of one disk inserted into the left atrial ASD side. Nitinol wires of the disk were covered by platinum coil and a crossbar attached to the disk was used for delivery and for anchoring on the right atrial ASD side. An 8F sheath was used for Biodisk delivery. Initial testing in piglets showed its easy delivery, good retrievability and long-term effectiveness for closure of PFO measured with the 10-14 mm balloons.⁶

The DBD with two disks was developed for closure of ASD. The Biodisk with only one disk would not be sufficient for the occasional complex anatomy and large size of ASDs. The DBD feasibility study demonstrated that this new bioprosthetic device has excellent potential for ASD closures. The DBD was easy to deploy, it self-centered during deployment and covered the entire ASD without encroachment on structures in both atria. When needed, the DBD could be repositioned or retrieved if released inappropriately or lost as shown after its intentional embolization. The DBD showed excellent effectiveness for ASD closures and no residual shunting was seen at ICE examinations with color Doppler studies. The gross studies showed good apposition of the disks to the septum and myocardium without compromise of valves and other cardiac structures. At 3 hours after DBD placement, a thin layer of early thrombus covered the SIS disks as initial the phase of neointimal formation. Otherwise, no thrombus was found on the follow-up studies as the DBDs rapidly endothelialized. The histologic follow-up studies then revealed progressive apposition leading to full incorporation of the DBD disks with adjacent myocardium, progressive SIS remodeling into connective tissue and complete DBD endothelialization. These healing processes were well demonstrated on the histologic DBD cross sections. The space between the disks, originally separated by thick septum secundum and residual septum primum progressively decreased by neointimal formation and some atrophy of residual septum. The neointimal formation started at the disks periphery, extended to the center of the disks. It was more pronounced on the left atrial SIS disks. The 6 and 12 months follow-up showed complete SIS remodeling into the heart connective tissue.

The DBD feasibility study did not compare the biomaterial SIS with septal occluders covered with synthetic fabrics. This was done in detail by Jux *et al.* in 2006.¹⁴ They compared the first septal occluder device with biodegradable matrix, the Biostar covered with the purified intestinal collagen layer (ICL) with the Starflex covered with a knitted pol-

yester fabric. The ICL, similar to SIS, originated from porcine small intestinal mucosa and both had similar thickness between 150-200 microns. A 10F sheath was used for deployment of both the Biostar and DBD. The study by Jux *et al.* in young sheep that from 7 days to 2 years showed distinct advantages of the biomaterial matrix. Biostar had decreased thrombogenicity, particularly when the device was heparin coated. It showed accelerated healing with early endothelialization and low immune response with fast ICL remodeling into connective cardiac tissue. Because of these positive results, the Biostar has already been applied successfully in treatment of ASD in children and adults.^{15,16,17}

Conclusions

Long term both right and left atrial SIS disks were remodeled into the heart connective tissue, so that only a minimal amount of metal spring material has been left behind. ASD closure with the Double BioDisk is safe and effective in adult sheep.

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Outcome of MRI-guided vacuum-assisted breast biopsy - initial experience at Institute of Oncology Ljubljana, Slovenia

Marta Zebic-Sinkovec¹, Kristijana Hertl¹, Maksimiljan Kadivec¹, Mihael Cavlek¹, Gasper Podobnik¹, Marko Snoj²

¹ Department of Radiology, Institute of Oncology Ljubljana, Ljubljana, Slovenia

² Department of Surgery, Institute of Oncology Ljubljana, Ljubljana, Slovenia

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Correspondence to: Marta Zebič-Šinkovec, MD, Department of Radiology, Institute of Oncology Ljubljana, Zaloška 2, 1000 Ljubljana, Slovenia. Phone: +386 1 5879 940; Fax: +386 1 5879 407; E-mail: mzebic@onko-i.si

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Background. Like all breast imaging modalities MRI has limited specificity and the positive predictive value for lesions detected by MRI alone ranges between 15 and 50%. MRI guided procedures (needle biopsy, presurgical localisation) are mandatory for suspicious findings visible only at MRI, with potential influence on therapeutic decision. The aim of this retrospective study was to evaluate our initial clinical experience with MRI-guided vacuum-assisted breast biopsy as an alternative to surgical excision and to investigate the outcome of MRI-guided breast biopsy as a function of the MRI features of the lesions.

Patients and methods. In 14 women (median age 51 years) with 14 MRI-detected lesions, MRI-guided vacuum-assisted breast biopsy was performed. We evaluated the MRI findings that led to biopsy and we investigated the core and postoperative histology results and follow-up data.

Results. The biopsy was technically successful in 14 (93%) of 15 women. Of 14 biopsies in 14 women, core histology revealed 6 malignant (6/14, 43%), 6 benign (6/14, 43%) and 2 high-risk (2/14, 14%) lesions. Among the 6 cancer 3 were invasive and 3 were ductal carcinoma in situ (DCIS). The probability of malignancy in our experience was higher for non-mass lesion type and for washout and plateau kinetics.

Conclusions. Our initial experience confirms that MRI-guided vacuum-assisted biopsy is fast, safe and accurate alternative to surgical biopsy for breast lesions detected at MRI only.

Key words: breast cancer; MRI; MRI guided vacuum assisted biopsy

Introduction

Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is a method for the detection of many cancers.^{1,2} Contrast-enhanced magnetic resonance imaging (CE-MRI) is currently the most sensitive additional imaging method for the detection of invasive breast carcinoma and seems to be able to detect ductal carcinoma in situ (DCIS), especially high grade DCIS without necrosis.³ Compared with studies of MRI performance published in the 1990s, the specificity of breast MRI has gradually improved, mostly be-

cause of improved technology and increased reader experience.⁴

Suspicious MRI detected lesions are not always detectable by mammography and ultrasound. Positive predictive value for lesions detected by MRI alone ranges between 15% and 50% and it depends upon patient selection and MR interpretation algorithm.⁵⁻⁸ MRI guided procedures (needle biopsy, presurgical localisation) are mandatory for lesions visible at MRI only, when they look suspicious and have potential influence on therapeutic decision.⁹ MRI-guided vacuum assisted biopsy

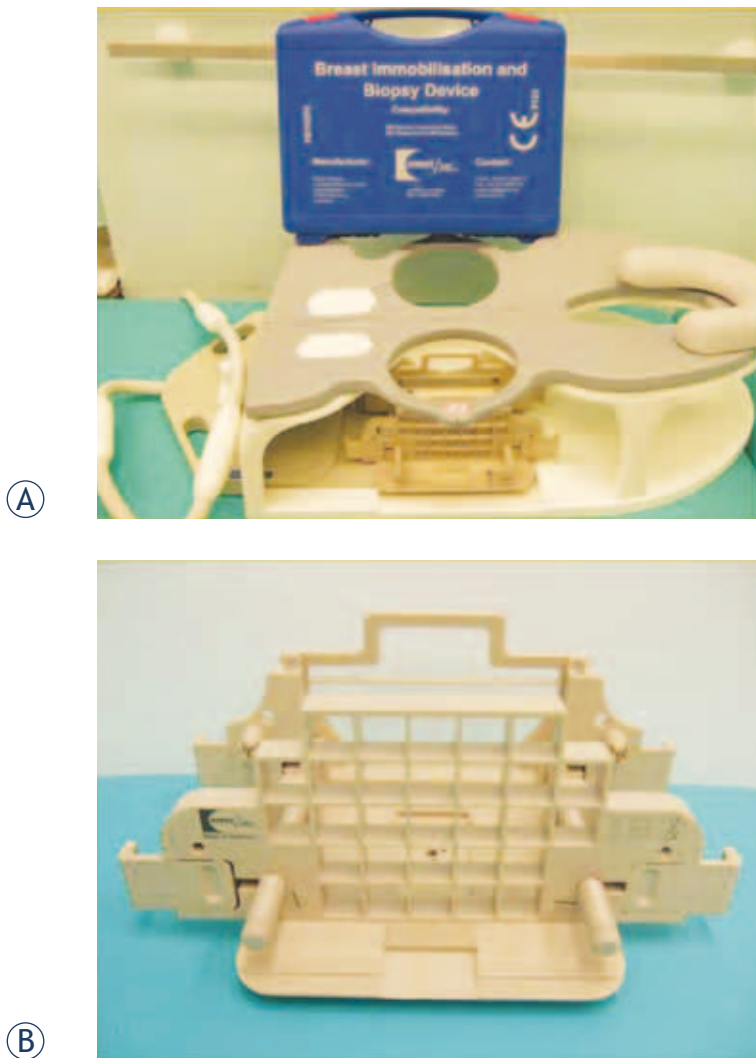


FIGURE 1 A,B. Biopsy coil device. Photographs show a four-channel breast biopsy coil with positioning device (A) and a grid-positioning device (B).

(MR-VAB) was pioneered by Sylvia H. Heywang-Köbrunner and first described in 1999.¹⁰

Since then, the technique has been optimized and its reproducibility proven in an European multicenter study.¹¹ Some other authors have published their experience with this method and also with other vacuum devices.^{12,13} In 2006 there was an interdisciplinary consensus conference in Nordestedt, Germany.¹⁴ The purpose of this meeting was to determine technique and optimize quality assurance protocols. MR-VAB was first time performed at our institution in 2008 and since then it has become routinely used in our practice.

The aim of the present retrospective study was to evaluate the initial clinical experience with MRI-guided vacuum-assisted breast biopsy as an alternative to surgical excision and to investigate the

outcome of MRI-guided breast biopsy as a function of the MRI features of the lesions.

Patients and methods

Patients and lesions

The selection criteria for the MR-guided biopsy were the presence of Breast Imaging Reporting and Data System (BI-RADS) 5, BI-RADS 4 and BI-RADS 3 lesions that were visible by CE-MRI only. Initially, fifteen patients with 15 lesions had been referred for MR-VAB. In 1 patient the lesion could not be reproduced on the preinterventional planning MRI because of the technical problem. The median age of patients was 51 years (range, 35-71 years). In 6 patients mammography performed before biopsy showed dense breast or benign changes, in 2 patients asymmetry was described, in three cases there was architectural distortion only in one projection, in two cases mammographic and MRI findings were discordant and one patient was too young to perform mammography. In 7 patients sonography performed before biopsy failed to reveal a sonographic correlate and in 4 others sonography and MRI findings were discordant. In 3 patients sonography was not performed at the discretion of the radiologist because the possibility of identifying a sonographic lesion was presumed to be very low.

MRI findings before biopsy

Except the MRI examinations of 2 women who underwent MRI at another institution, breast MRI was performed using a 1.5-T magnet (Magnetom Avanto, Siemens Medical Solution, Erlangen, Germany) with a dedicated bilateral breast surface coil with a prone position. The imaging protocol and parameters were as follows: axial T1-weighted image (TR/TE, 593/13) and short time inversion recovery (STIR) (TR/TE/TI, 12390/76/130) of both breasts were obtained with 3 mm slice thickness. Next, T1-weighted images were acquired using a 3D fast low-angle shot pulse sequence (FLASH) through both breasts (TR/TE 7, 8/4, 72, flip angle 25°). Precontrast images were obtained over a 313 × 448 matrix in the axial plane with a slice thickness of 1.0 mm with distance factor 20% before administration of the contrast agent. Then, contrast-enhanced dynamic imaging was performed with an injection of 0.1 mmol per kilogram of body weight of gadopentetate dimeglumine (Magnevist, Schering, Berlin, Germany); five se-

quential contrast-enhanced images were acquired at every 1 min 23 s. The precontrast images were then subtracted from the corresponding postcontrast images on a pixel-by-pixel basis with the use of the standard software subtraction function available on our console. Two radiologists reviewed all imaging studies in consensus. The BI-RADS MRI lexicon was used.

MRI-guided biopsy

MRI-guided vacuum-assisted breast biopsy was performed using a 1.5-T magnet (Magnetom Avanto, Siemens, Erlangen, Germany) with MRI-supported Breast Immobilization and Biopsy System with the 4-channel breast coil (Noras MRI products GmbH, Höchberg, Germany) in prone position. Marker Block filled with diluted gadolinium contrast agent was used for reference point. The positioning device has medial and lateral compression plates for moderate compression.

An axial T1-weighted images were acquired using a 3D FLASH through both breasts (TR/TE 7, 6/4, 72, flip angle 25°). Precontrast images were



FIGURE 2. 1.5 T Magnetom Avanto (Siemens, Erlangen, Germany). Patient lie face down on the exam table. Breast is moderately compressed in the mediolateral direction.

obtained over a 256×320 matrix in the axial plane with a slice thickness of 1.0 mm with distance factor 20% before administration of the contrast agent. Twenty seconds after contrast agent had been in-

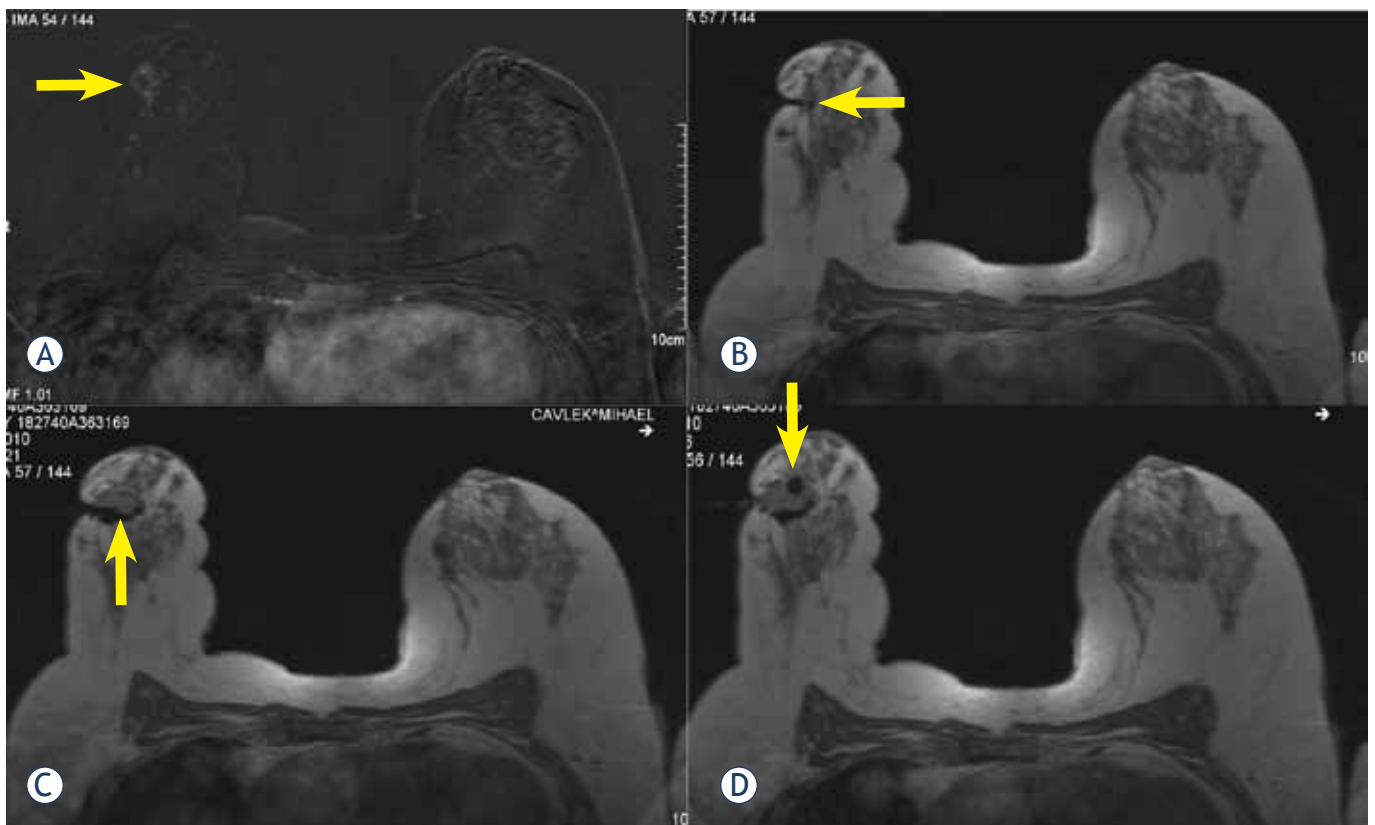


FIGURE 3A-D. MRI-guided biopsy using axial, contrast-enhanced FLASH 3D T1W images. The pre-biopsy fat-suppressed image (A) shows an enhancing lesion in the right breast. The biopsy needle (B) is seen after localization, along with the lesion. Following the biopsy (D) the small magnetic susceptibility artefact due to the clip in situ is seen.



A



B

FIGURE 4. MRI-guided biopsy device (a) is inserted into breast to acquire tissue specimens (b)

jected; another axial T1-3D FLASH sequence was performed. 0.1 mmol per kilogram of body weight of gadopentetate dimeglumine (Magnevist, Schering, Berlin, Germany) was injected with a rate of 2 ml/s using an automated injector (CT/MRI injector Mississippi, Ulrich medical, Ulm, Germany). The volume of interest was selected to include the compression device and a Marker Block.

Biopsies were performed with a 9-gauge MRI compatible vacuum-assisted biopsy device (ATEC, Suros Surgical Systems, Indianapolis, USA). CAD stream diagnostic and interventional guidance tool, Version 4.1 (Confirma, Washington, USA) was

used to target coordinates for biopsy. An axial T1-3D FLASH sequence was performed to control the needle placement.

The biopsy device was then placed into the breast through the coaxial needle. Multiple samples were obtained by turning the needle clockwise and around its axis. The biopsy site was marked with a titanium clip (ATEC TRI mark TD 13 – MR Biopsy Site Marker). “Postclip” axial 3D FLASH was performed to assess clip deployment. After biopsy, the breast is compressed with ice, sterile strips are applied, and a sterile gauze bandage is applied.

MRI-guided wire localization

The procedure for wire placement was the same as that for breast biopsy. After localizing the lesion, a cannula with a wire loaded into it was inserted to the required depth. After confirming the position on axial images, the wire was placed into the lesion and the position was verified with a repeat axial scan. The wire gives a thin linear magnetic susceptibility artefact, and the lesion can be seen near the tip of the wire. It was then fixed with a lock at the skin surface to prevent dislodgement. The same positioning device for lesion localization with an MRI-compatible needle with a hooked wire, made of a special alloy for easy and safe penetration of the solid tumour tissue (TULOC, Somatex, Germany) were used. It has a diameter of 0.95 mm and it is 90 mm long. The wire was fixed into the lesion with the hooks at the end of the wire and onto the skin with a lock which prevents any dislodgement of the wire.

Indication for MRI and MRI-VAB

The indications for MRI were classified into a screening setting and a diagnostic setting.

The indications for (MR-VAB) were:

MRI only seen lesions - targeted » second look« ultrasound and/or mammography showed normal or benign findings or findings that were not concordant with MRI findings.

Ultrasound was not performed at the discretion of radiologist, because the probability that lesion would be seen by ultrasound was very low.

Management, follow-up, data collection, analysis

The MR-VAB was presumed to be adequate if imaging performed immediately after biopsy showed

TABLE 1. MRI findings of 14 targeted lesions and the probability of malignancy

| Features | No. of Lesions/ Total No. of Lesions (%) | No. of Malignant Lesions/ No. of Lesions (%) |
|--|---|---|
| Lesion type | | |
| Focus | 0 | 0 |
| Mass | 5/14 (36) | 1/5 (20) |
| Nonmass | 9/14 (64) | 5/9 (55) |
| Total | 14/14 (100) | 6/14 (43) |
| Morphology | | |
| Margin of mass | | |
| Smooth | 2/14 (14) | 0/2 (0) |
| Nonsmooth | 3/14 (21) | 1/3 (33) |
| Distribution of Nonmass | | |
| Regional | 1/14 (7) | 1/1 (100) |
| Segmental | 1/14 (7) | 1/1 (100) |
| Ductal | 6/14 (43) | 2/6 (33) |
| Focal areas | 1/14 (7) | 1/1 (100) |
| Total | 9/14 (64) | 5/9 (55) |
| Kinetic feature | | |
| Persistent | 1/14 (7) | 0/1 (0) |
| Plateau | 6/14 (43) | 2/6 (33) |
| Washout | 7/14 (50) | 4/7 (57) |
| Total | 14/14 (100) | 6/14 (43) |
| Signal intensity T2-weighted images | | |
| High | 4/14 (23) | 2/4 (50) |
| Intermediate | 8/14 (57) | 3/8 (37) |
| Low | 2/14 (14) | 1/2 (50) |
| Total | 14/14 (100) | 6/14 (43) |

a cavity that unequivocally included the area of highest suspicion. Two view mammograms were also performed after biopsy to confirm clip localization. Surgical follow-up was recommended for all malignant lesions, for one high-risk lesion, and in one case, when the benign lesion was judged to have pathology result that was discordant with imaging findings. 6 of the 6 malignant lesions and 1 of the 2 high-risk lesions were operated upon at our institution and confirmed by operative histology. In 4 cases breast ablation and in 3 cases sentinel node and occult lesion localization (SNOLL) under X-ray guidance and surgical excision was performed. The reference standards were core biopsy results and postoperative histology. Medical records were reviewed for patient age, personal history of breast cancer, indication for MR mammography, radiologic results, histopathologic results and follow-up results. Histopathologic re-

sults were examined on the basis of pathologic report of MR-VAB and postoperative histology. The probability of malignancy for an MRI abnormality was calculated as the ratio between the number of lesions with pathologically proven malignancy and the number of biopsied lesions. We investigated the probability of malignancy for MRI abnormalities according to the MRI features of the lesions.

The retrospective study was carried out according to the Helsinki Declaration.

Results

The biopsy was technically successful in 14 (93%) of 15 women. Median age was 51 years (range, 35-71 years). In 1 woman the biopsy was deferred because of a technical problem.

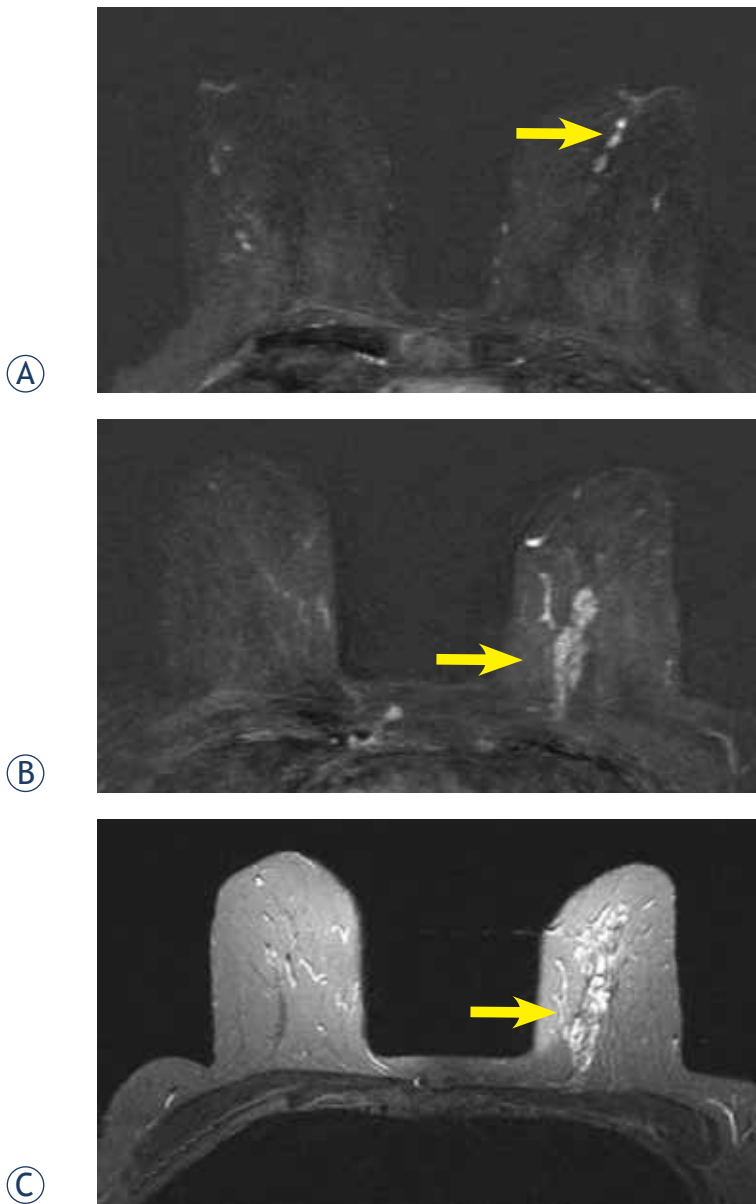


FIGURE 5A-C. 65 year old woman with a history of nipple-discharge in her left breast. Mammographic asymmetry. Ultrasound images showed dilated empty ducts, ductography was suspicious for papilloma. Axial T1-weighted subtracted image after Gadolinium injection (2nd minute) .(a) small round sharply circumscribed masses within a duct sistem–papillomas.(b) segmental, clumped, asymmetric enhancement, fast initial increase and postinitial wash out. (c) high signal intensity on T2 –weighted image - BI-RADS 5. Pathologic diagnosis through MRI-guided vacuum-assisted biopsy was massive DCIS with foci of microinvasion.

Fourteen lesions underwent biopsy, among them 4 lesions were categorized as BI-RADS 5, 8 lesions as BI-RADS 4 and 2 as BI-RADS 3. The median size of these 14 lesions was 2 cm (range, 0.8-6 cm). Among those 14 lesions, 4 were located between lower quadrants, 2 in lower outer quadrant, one between outer quadrants, 3 in upper out-

TABLE 2. The characteristics of the malignant lesions

| | | |
|--|--------------------------|---|
| Site of the lesion | Right | 2 |
| | Left | 4 |
| Type of the lesion | MLE | 1 |
| | NMLE | 5 |
| T2-weighted images Signal intensity | High | 2 |
| | Intermediate | 3 |
| | Low | 1 |
| Kinetics | Rapid-plateau | 2 |
| | Wash-out | 4 |
| Size | 2.6cm (range; 0.8 – 6) | |
| Histologic type Of cancer | Invasive lobular | 2 |
| | Invasive tubular | 1 |
| | DCIS | 3 |

MLE = masslike enhancement; NMLE = nonmasslike enhancement; DCIS = ductal carcinoma in situ

er quadrant, 3 between upper quadrants and one in upper inner quadrant. For 13 of the 14 lesions a single skin incision was made; for one lesion, a second incision was required for repositioning the stylet before biopsy. The median number of specimens obtained per lesion was 8 (range, 4-17). In 11 lesions, only a single round of tissue acquisition was necessary, in 3 lesions the MRI after the first round of tissue acquisition did not ensure lesion sampling, and a second round of tissue acquisition was performed. Clip placement was attempted in 14 lesions and was successful in 13 (93%). The median time to perform MRI-guided vacuum-assisted biopsy, from the original axial localizing images to the final images obtained after clip deployment was 39 min (range, 28-60 min). A complication was encountered in 1 of 14 patients (7%). The complication was a clinical haematoma.

Cancer was found in 6 of 14 lesions and in 6 of 14 women, based on the review of vacuum-assisted biopsy and surgical histology. Six were benign lesions and 2 were high-risk lesions. In two cases MR-VAB was considered uncertain according to the correlation of imaging and histopathology, therefore surgical biopsy and re-biopsy were performed.

Among these 6 cancers (Figures 1-6) 3 were invasive cancers (2 invasive lobular carcinoma and 1 invasive tubular carcinoma) and other 3 were DCIS (1 massive DCIS with foci of well differentiated invasive carcinoma). Three of 6 cancers were found in women with personal history of breast carcinoma. The median size of the MRI lesions in

these 6 cancers was 2.6 cm (range 0.8-6.0 cm). MRI-guided vacuum-assisted biopsy revealed 2 high-risk lesions, in one case there was atypical ductal hyperplasia and in other papilloma. Papilloma was operated on and was proved to be benign.

MRI review suggested that the MRI target might have been excised at vacuum-assisted biopsy in one of these cancers and was sampled in five. Surgery was performed in our institution on 6 of the 6 malignant lesions on 1 of the 2 high-risk lesions and on 1 lesion with discordant result. Finally, 6 of the 14 biopsy lesions were malignant the overall probability of malignancy for an MRI abnormality was 43% (6/14).

The MRI features of the lesions and the probabilities of malignancy according to lesion features are summarized in Table 1. The characteristics of malignant lesions are summarized in Table 2.

Discussion

MRI-guided-vacuum assisted biopsy has many advantages compared with other biopsy methods for the diagnosis of MRI-detected lesions. In our initial experience with this method, the technical success rate was 93%. In 57% of women MR-VAB yielded benign results and spared most women with MRI-detected lesions the need for the surgical excision. With MR-VAB a continuous suction and acquisition of larger tissue volume is possible. Only MR-VAB allows good visualisation of the cavity and/or direct visualisation of the size reduction of the enhancing lesion. It retrieves larger volume of tissue, so we have fewer inadequate specimens. If a lesion is deemed to be not accessible to MR-VAB, MR-guided needle localization followed by surgery can be performed. Our results are in agreement with previous findings in literature.¹⁵⁻¹⁹

MR-VAB can be performed quickly.²⁰ Average time to perform biopsy of a single lesion was 39 min in our study. Lesion visibility decreases rapidly over time during the biopsy, due to wash out of contrast in the lesion. The lesion must be identified immediately after the contrast injection. Sampling is dependent on identification and immobilizing the lesion. Lesions that underwent MR-VAB were rated by 2 experienced radiologists in consensus. The BI-RADS MRI lexicon was used. The publication of BI-RADS MRI lexicon in 2003 was an important step toward a standardized approach on the lesion description, but should be regarded as work in progress. Since then some studies have been published about the value of the BI-RADS lexicon

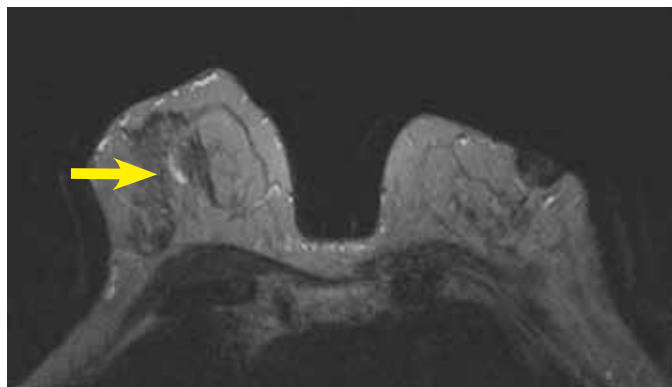
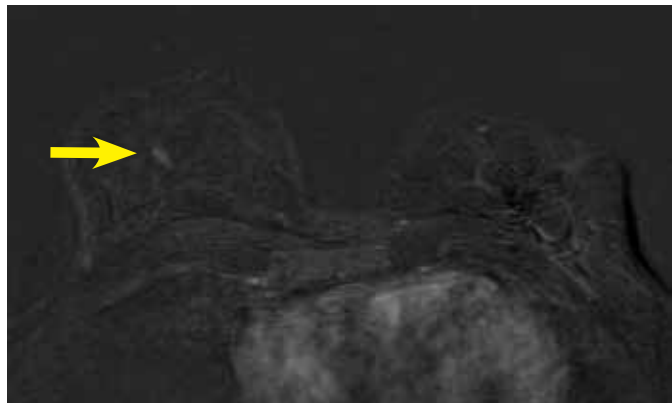


FIGURE 6AB. 47 year old woman with history of invasive breast carcinoma 10 years ago in her left breast. Retraction of mamma on the right, mammographic dense breast and benign calcifications. First look and second look ultrasound images showed a cyst. Axial T1-weighted subtracted image after Gadolinium injection (2nd minute). (A) 8x3 mm ductal - linear homogenous, asymmetric enhancement, fast initial increase with postinitial plateau (B) high signal intensity on T2-weighted images, categorization BI-RADS 4. MRI-guided vacuum-assisted biopsy revealed high-grade DCIS without microcalcification.

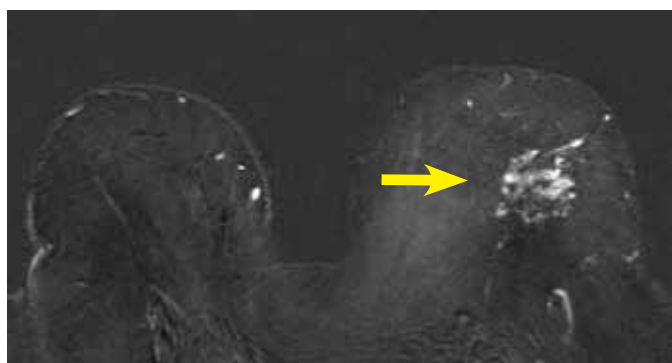


FIGURE 7. 64-year old woman with history of invasive breast carcinoma in her right breast 10 years ago. Mammography and ultrasound images showed discrete architectural distortion in the left breast. US-guided core biopsy was inconclusive. Axial T1-weighted subtracted image after Gadolinium injection (2nd minute) shows regional, heterogeneous, asymmetric, non-mass like enhancement, fast initial increase, post initial wash-out, intermediate signal intensity on T2-weighted images - BI-RADS 5. Pathologic diagnosis through MRI-guided vacuum-assisted biopsy was DCIS.

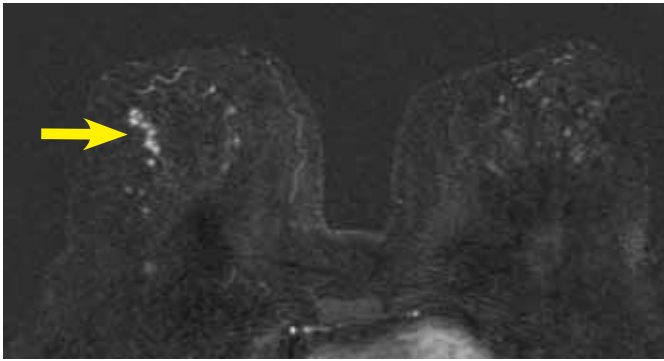


FIGURE 8. 57-year old woman, US-guided fine needle biopsy performed at another institution was suspicious for papillary carcinoma. Mammographically dense breast, first and second look ultrasound images at institute of oncology showed simple cyst. Axial T1-weighted subtracted image after Gadolinium injection (2nd minute) shows ductal, reticular- dendritic, asymmetric, non-mass like enhancement, fast initial enhancement with post initial plateau. Intermediate signal intensity on T2-weighted images. BI-RADS 4. MRI-guided vacuum-assisted biopsy revealed invasive tubular carcinoma.

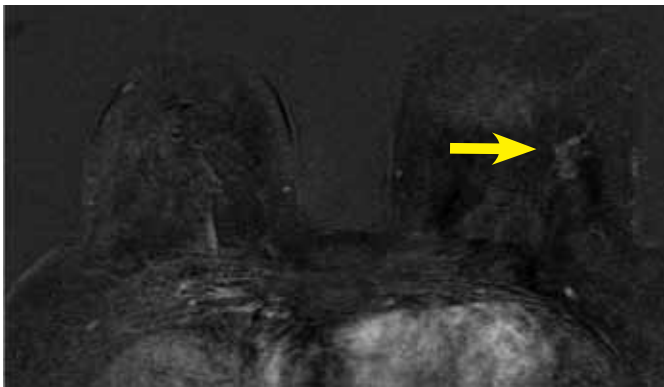
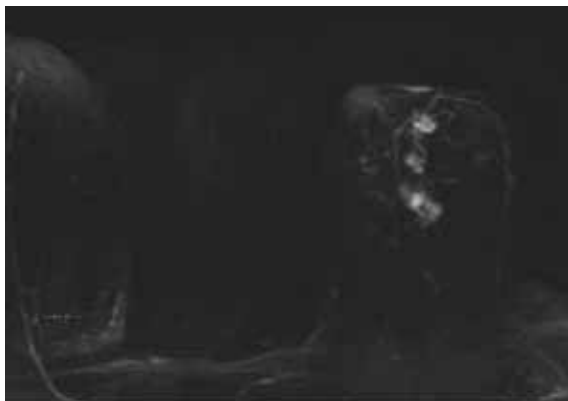


FIGURE 9. 63-year old woman with history of invasive ductal carcinoma in her right breast 8 years ago. Clinical exam revealed enlarged lymph node in the left axilla. Fine needle aspiration biopsy showed metastatic lymph node. Mammographically discrete architectural distortion only in one projection in the left and postoperative changes in the right breast. Ultrasound was not performed at the discretion of the radiologist. Axial T1-weighted subtracted image after Gadolinium injection (2nd minute) shows focal, heterogeneous, asymmetric, non-mass like enhancement in the left breast, the kinetic curve shows fast initial enhancement with post-initial wash out, low signal intensity on T2-weighted images – BI-RADS 4. MRI –guided vacuum-assisted biopsy revealed invasive lobular carcinoma.



and some new predictors for the differentiation of benign from malignant non-mass lesions have been suggested.²¹⁻²⁴ Most of the patients in our series underwent mammography and sonography before MRI-VAB. Only in 3 patients sonography was not performed at the discretion of radiologist. This criteria increased the relative number of non-mass lesions in our study (9/14, 64%) and the number of lesions that are 1cm or smaller in size (6/14, 43%). These lesions are by their nature not well shown by sonography or mammography. Among the cancers, the lesions had non-mass like enhancement characteristics in 5 of 6 cases (83%) and 2 of 6 cancers were smaller than 1cm. Among 5 patients with non-mass like enhancement pattern and proved malignancy, 3 had personal history of breast carcinoma – should be MRI screening a part of an annual follow-up for patients diagnosed with breast cancer.²⁵

On T2-weighted images one cancer showed low signal intensity, three intermediate and 2 high signal intensities. Among 5 non-mass like enhancing lesions there was one lesion with low signal intensity on T2 weighted image, 2 lesions with intermediate and 2 lesions with high signal on T2 weighted images. Both lesions with high-signal were DCIS, one with ductal, homogenous enhancement smaller than 1 cm and the other one with segmental clumped enhancement 6 cm in size. As published in literature, the permeability of the basement membrane of DCIS-containing ducts, is increased, allowing gadolinium chelates to penetrate the membrane and accumulate within the DCIS-filled milk ducts. That is proposed to be the explanation for enhancement of purely DCIS on breast MR Images.²⁶⁻³¹

In some cases, after MRI-VAB, benign histology offers no explanation for a contrast-enhancing lesion. The radiologic/pathologic mismatch is more problematic for MRI-VAB than for mammographically-guided interventions because no specimen radiography can be used to verify appropriate core biopsy. If any doubt persists, early post-biopsy breast MRI is performed in our practice but not earlier than after 6 months.³² There were 2 cases, where after 6-months follow up the lesions were

FIGURE 10. 71-year old woman, MR mammography performed in the other institution. Axial T1-weighted subtracted image after Gadolinium injection (2nd minute) shows 3 round masses in her left breast, with spiculated margins, rim like enhancement, intermediate signal intensity on T2-weighted images. Kinetic curve shows fast initial enhancement with post-initial wash out. Lesions were categorized as BI-RADS 5. Pathologic diagnosis through MRI-guided vacuum-assisted biopsy was invasive lobular carcinoma.

unchanged in size and morphology. In one case the surgical excision revealed radial scar. In the other one re-biopsy was done and the lesion proved to be benign.

Our study has some limitations. Our series is small and represents our initial experience. Because this study is retrospective, the lesion descriptions in a few cases did not use terms from the BI-RADS MRI lexicon, thus, we modified them as much as possible. Two patients underwent MRI before biopsy at other institution and we could not analyze morphologic and kinetics, only the reports were available. In one case, where discordant findings were showed, we had incomplete follow-up data.

In conclusion, MRI-guided vacuum-assisted breast biopsy in our initial experience proved to be a fast, save and accurate method. The cancer rate of women who underwent MR-VAB was 43% in our cohort. The morphologic pattern of non-mass like enhancement and washout or plateau kinetics showed a higher cancer rate than mass like enhancement and persistent kinetics.

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Differentiation of malignant and benign lung lesions with diffusion-weighted MR imaging

Sevtap Gümüştas¹, Nagihan Inan¹, Gür Akansel¹, Ercüment Çiftçi¹, Ali Demirci¹, Sevgiye Kaçar Özkara²

¹ Department of Radiology, ² Department of Pathology, School of Medicine, University of Kocaeli, Turkey

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Correspondence to: Sevtap Gümüştas, Kocaeli Uni. Tıp Fak Radyoloji AD, 41380 Umuttepe Kocaeli, Turkey. Phone: +90 262 3037126; Fax: +90 262 303 80 03; E-mail: svtgumustas@hotmail.com

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Background. The aim of the study was to evaluate the role of diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance imaging in the differential diagnosis of lung lesions.

Patients and methods. Sixty-seven patients with lung lesions (48 malignant, 19 benign) were included in this prospective study. Signal intensities (SIs) were measured in diffusion-weighted MR images that were obtained with $b=0$, 500 and 1000 s/mm² values. Apparent diffusion coefficient (ADC) maps were calculated by using images with $b=0$ and 1000 s/mm² values. The statistical significance was determined using the Student-t test.

Results. The SIs of malignant lesions were significantly higher than those of benign lesions ($p<0.004$ for $b=0$ s/mm² and $p<0.000$ for the other b values). Using $b=500$ s/mm², $SI\geq 391$ indicated a malignant lesion with a sensitivity of 95%, specificity of 73% and positive predictive value of 87%. Using $b=1000$ s/mm², $SI\geq 277$ indicated a malignant lesion with a sensitivity of 93%, specificity of 69% and positive predictive value of 85%. There was no significant difference between malignant and benign lesions regarding ADC values ($p=0.675$). There was no significant difference in SIs or ADC values between small cell carcinoma and non-small cell carcinoma. When comparing undifferentiated with well- partially differentiated cancers, SIs were higher with all b values, but the difference was statistically significant only with $b=1000$ s/mm² ($p<0.04$).

Conclusions. Diffusion-weighted MR trace image SI is useful for the differentiation of malignant versus benign lung lesions.

Key words: pulmonary lesions; diffusion-weighted imaging; apparent diffusion coefficient; magnetic resonance imaging

Introduction

Lung cancer is one of the leading causes of death.¹ It usually arises as a solid nodule or mass on chest radiography or computed tomography (CT). Although many well known characteristics have been described for nodule differentiation on CT, it remains a challenge for radiologists to differentiate lesions as malignant or benign.²⁻⁵ In recent years, fluorine-18 fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography (PET) has been used for this purpose. Both CT and PET deliver high doses of radiation. In addition PET has been known to give false-positive results in inflammatory masses.⁶⁻⁹ For these reasons, an accurate and safe alternative method is

still desirable for the determination of malignant versus benign pulmonary lesions.

Recent advances in fast imaging techniques like echo-planar imaging, makes magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) more suitable for chest applications.¹⁰⁻¹² There are reports using dynamic contrast MRI of lung masses.^{13,14} Diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance imaging (DWI), initially used in the central nervous system, has been increasingly applied in other body areas, such as the mediastinum¹⁵, pancreas¹⁶, and liver.^{17,18}

The aim of our study was to determine whether quantitative analysis of DWI could be helpful in the differentiation of malignant and benign pulmonary lesions.

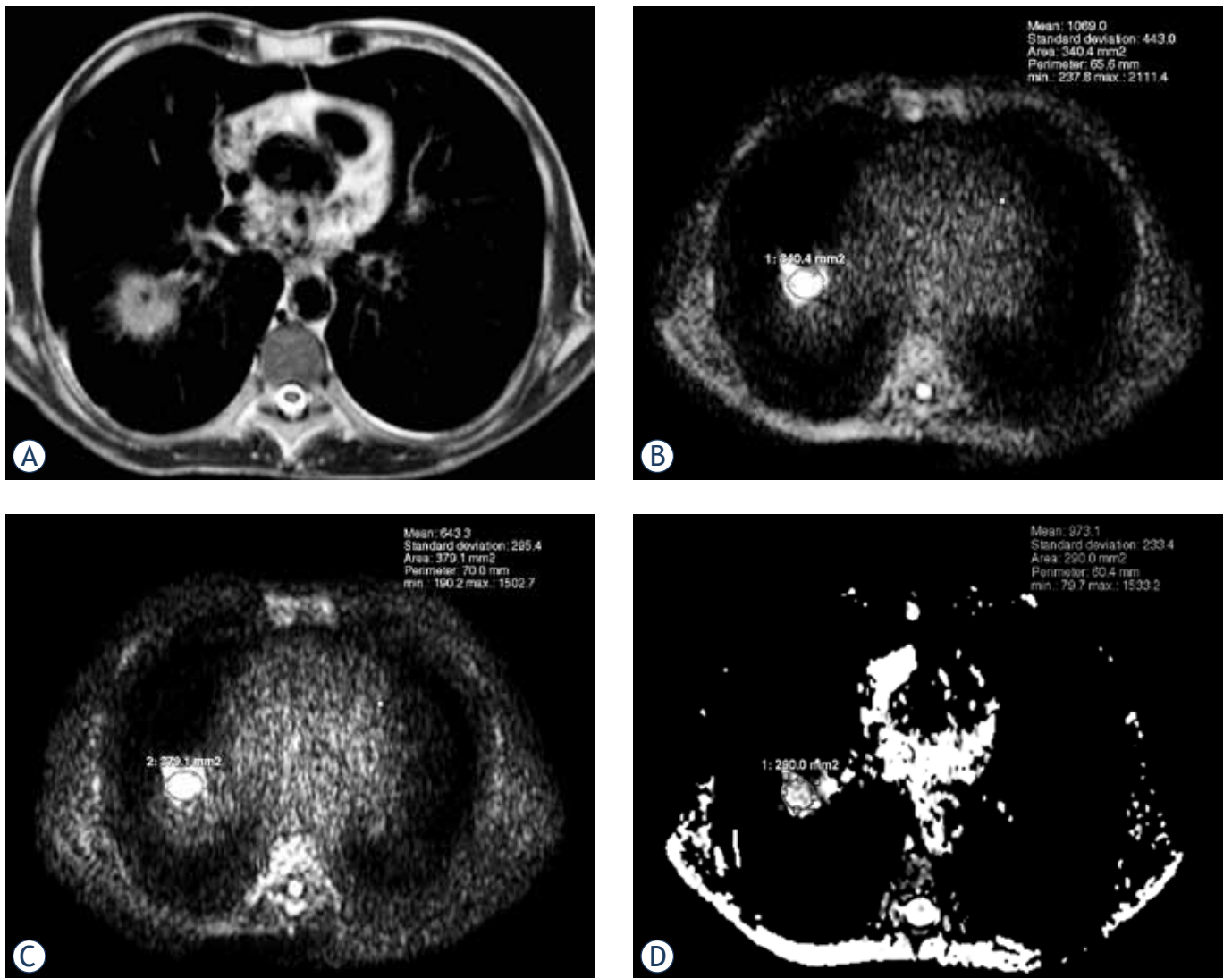


FIGURE 1. A 56-year-old man with poorly-differentiated non-small cell carcinoma. (A) Axial T2-weighted MR image shows mass in the right lung. (B) diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance image with b value of 500 sec/mm² shows hyperintense mass (SI = 1069). (C) diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance image with b value of 1000 sec/mm² shows hyperintensity of the mass is still remarkable (SI = 643). (D) ADC map shows ADC value is (0.97x10⁻³) sec/mm².

Patients and methods

Patients

The study was approved by our institutional review board and protocol review committee. Because the tests used were a part of the routine clinical workup of these patients, the informed consent was not required by the review board. We obtained a blanket consent from all patients for the use of their findings for research and educational purposes, with patient privacy secured.

From March 2009 to July 2010, 66 consecutive patients (49 males, 17 females) with 67 lung lesions found on CT were included in this prospec-

tive study according to our entry criteria. The entry criteria were: (a) presence of a solid pulmonary lesion. In the case of ground glass opacity (GGO) with the solid part on CT images, the GGO part was avoided to the extent possible and the solid part was measured on DWI with the reference of CT images, since air itself in GGO might reduce the true apparent diffusion coefficient (ADC) value of the lesion.¹⁸ Lesions containing large amounts of necrosis and calcification were also excluded; (b) lesion size >10 mm in diameter in view of the limited planar resolution of DWI; (c) presence of a specific proven diagnosis of the lesion either histopathologically or by using clinical, radiologi-

cal and laboratory data or based on at least 1-year radiological follow-up; (d) no current administration of chemotherapeutic or radiotherapeutic treatment; (e) absence of any contraindications for MRI; and (f) ability of patients to lie still and hold their breath approximately 26 seconds in the MRI unit.

Biopsies of lung lesions were carried out by the radiologist (EÇ) in the interventional radiology department of the same hospital. MRI was performed on these patients on the same day but before the percutaneous biopsy in order to avoid hemorrhage-related distortions.

The study was carried out according to the Helsinki Declaration.

MR Imaging

All patients were examined with a 1.5 Tesla MR unit (Gyrosan Intera; Philips Medical Systems, Eindhoven, The Netherlands) using a four-element phased-array body coil. This system had a maximal gradient strength of 30 mT/m and a slew rate of 150 mT/m/msec. All patients were examined initially with the routine MRI protocol for the thorax that included: precontrast axial T1-weighted (W) breath-hold spoiled gradient echo (fast field echo: FFE) (TR/TE/FA/NEX:169/4.6/80/1) and coronal and axial T2-W single-shot turbo spin-echo (TR/TE/NEX/TSE factor: 700/80/1/72). Subsequently, three series of axial single-shot spin-echo echo-planar (SS-SE-EPI) DWI (1,000/81; echo-planar imaging (EPI) factor, 77; sensitizing gradients in *x*, *y*, and *z* directions) were acquired using *b* = 0, 500 and 1000 s/mm² values. ADC maps were reconstructed from the *b* = 0 and *b* = 1000 s/mm² images. MRI, including DWI, consisted of a multisection acquisition with a slice thickness of 6 mm, an intersection gap of 1 mm, and an acquisition matrix of 128 × 256. All sequences were acquired using a partially parallel imaging acquisition and SENSE (sensitivity encoding) reconstruction with a reduction factor (*R*) of 2. The scanning time of the acquisition of each DWI series during a single breath-hold was 26 seconds.

Quantitative analysis

Quantitative measurements were made using a dedicated Workstation (Dell Workstation Precision 650, with the View Forum software platform provided by Philips Healthcare). All images were assessed by two radiologists (SG, NI) who were blinded to the clinical history of the patients. First, CT images were evaluated in order to assess the calcification, necrosis and GGO components. CT

TABLE 1. Histopathological and clinical diagnosis of lesions

| Diagnosis | |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Benign lesions (n=19) | Chronic inflammatory changes (n=9) |
| | Sarcoidosis (n=3) |
| | Acute bacterial pneumonia (n=2) |
| | Tuberculosis pneumonia (n=2) |
| | Romatooid nodule (n=1) |
| | Granuloma (n=1) |
| Malignant lesions (n= 48) | Hamartoma (n=1) |
| | SCLC (n=6) |
| | NSCLC (n=42) |
| | NSCLC subgroup; |
| | Adenocarcinoma (n=13) |
| | Squamous cell carcinoma (n=5) |
| | Large cell carcinoma (n=2) |
| | Nonidentified NSCLC (n=22) |

SCLC = small cell lung cancer, NSCLC = non-small cell lung cancer

scans were also evaluated for contour characteristics of the lesions (irregular or smooth) and concomitant interstitial findings were recorded. Those findings were compared with the DWI findings. The range of interval between the CT and MRI examinations was 0-10 days (mean, 5.6 days). Then, the lesion was visualized once more on the conventional T1-W and T2-W MRI in terms of location, size and content of cystic-necrotic parts to detect interval changes since the time of the CT scan. These conventional images were only used for the lesion identification and not for the analysis. Afterwards, signal intensity (SI) of the lesion was measured for each *b* value (0, 500 and 1000 s/mm²) on DWI using a round or elliptical region of interest (ROI). The ROI was placed centrally, and the size of the ROI was kept as large as possible, covering at least two-thirds of the lesion, yet avoiding the interference from the surrounding lung tissue, necrotic parts and major blood vessels. ADCs were then calculated from the ADC maps that were reconstructed from *b* = 0 and *b* = 1000 s/mm² values.

Statistical analysis

SIs and ADCs were compared between the groups. The fitness of numeric data set to normal distribution was determined using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. The data were normally distributed, so the differences in SIs and ADCs were analyzed using the Student-t test. A *p* value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant. To evaluate the diagnostic performance of the quantitative tests for differentiating malignant and benign lesions and to describe the sensitivity and specificity

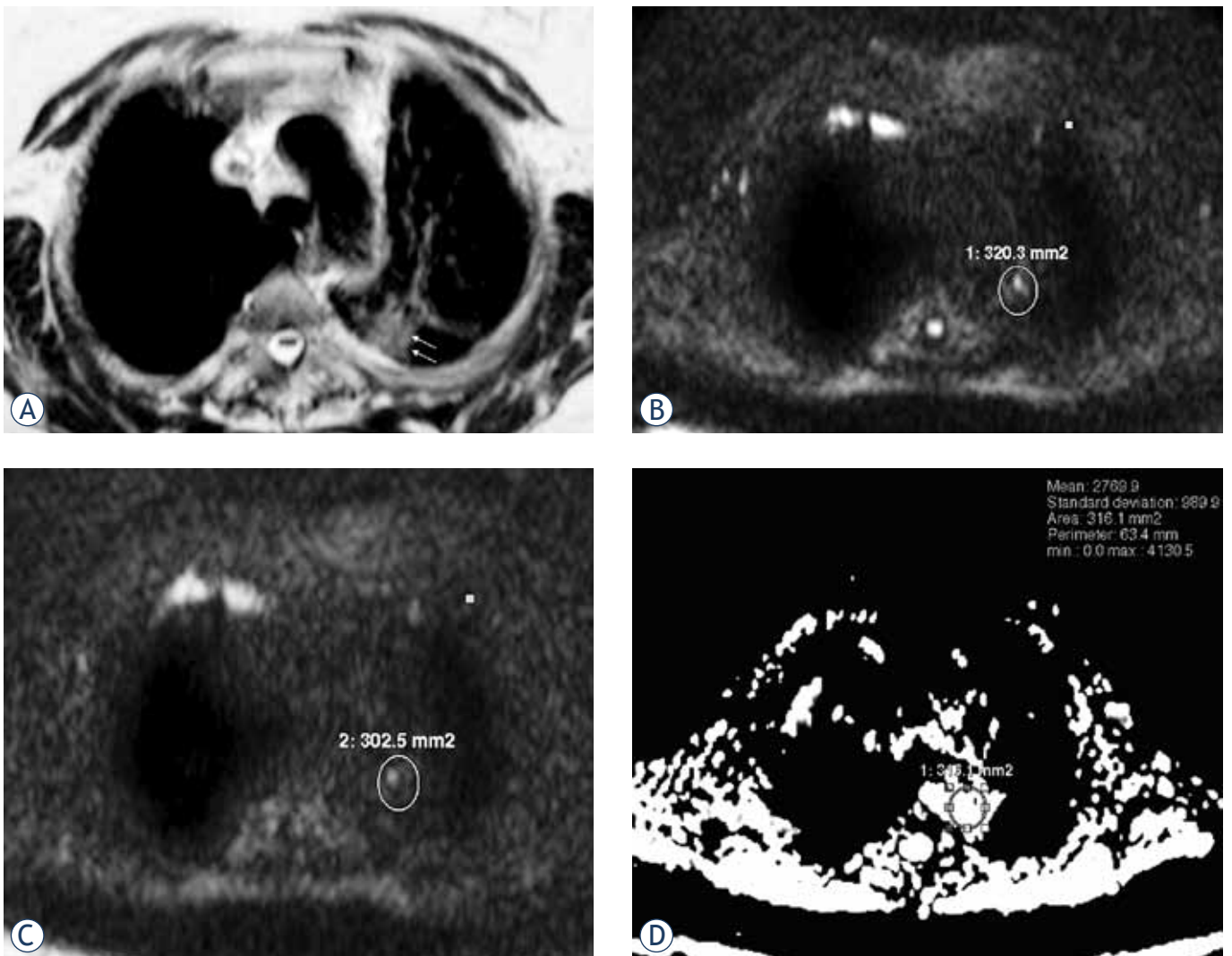


FIGURE 2. A 32-year-old woman with bacterial pneumonia. (A) Axial T2-weighted MR image shows ill-defined peripheral mass in the superior segment of the lower lobe of the left lung (arrows). (B) diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance image with b value of 500 sec/mm² shows minimal hyperintense mass (SI = 203). (C) diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance image with b value of 1000 sec/mm² shows hyperintensity of the mass is less remarkable (SI = 162). (D) ADC map shows ADC value is (2.76x10⁻³) sec/mm².

city of the tests, receiver operating characteristic (ROC) analysis was performed. The optimum cut-off value was determined as the value that best discriminates between the two groups in terms of maximum sensitivity and minimum number of false-positive results. All statistical analyses were performed using the statistical software SPSS.¹⁵

Results

The mean age of all patients was 64 ± 21 years (range: 41-83 years). The mean age of the patients in the benign group was 61 ± 19 years (range: 41-72 years) and in the malignant group was 66 ± 21 years

(range: 44-83 years). The difference in age between groups was not statistically significant ($p = 0.5$).

The mean diameter of masses for the entire group was 33 ± 18 mm. The mean diameter of malignant lesions was 37 ± 19 mm (range: 20-130 mm) and of benign lesions was 25 ± 15 mm (range: 15-60 mm), respectively. The difference in diameter between groups was statistically significant ($p = 0.005$). Except for one patient who had two nodules (the primary tumor and its pulmonary metastasis), one lesion was measured in the remaining patients.

Of the 67 lesions, 48 were malignant and 19 were benign (Table 1). The malignant lesions consisted of 42 non-small cell lung cancers (NSCLCs) and 6 small cell lung cancers (SCLCs). NSCLC subgroups

TABLE 2. Quantitative analysis of diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance imaging (mean \pm SD) of malignant and benign lesions (b=0, 500, 1000 sec/mm² and ADC values)

| b and ADC values | malignant lesions (n=48) | benign lesions (n=19) | P |
|---|--------------------------|-----------------------|-------|
| b 0 (sec/ mm ²) | 1500.40 \pm 820 | 960.31 \pm 550 | 0.004 |
| b 500 (sec/ mm ²) | 611.32 \pm 343 | 247.10 \pm 124 | 0.000 |
| b 1.000 (sec/ mm ²) | 371.00 \pm 194 | 175.68 \pm 94 | 0.000 |
| ADC (x10 ⁻³) mm ² /sec | 1.65 \pm 0.90 | 1.75 \pm 0.70 | 0.675 |

TABLE 3. Quantitative analysis of diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance imaging (mean \pm SD) of poorly-differentiated and medium- well differentiated malignant lesions (b=0, 500, 1000 sec/mm² and ADC values)

| b and ADC values | poorly-differentiated (n=11) | medium-well differentiated (n=31) | P |
|---|------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------|
| b 0 (sec/ mm ²) | 1646 \pm 787 | 1453.3 \pm 837 | 0.497 |
| b 500 (sec/ mm ²) | 751.4 \pm 440 | 568.87 \pm 304 | 0.245 |
| b 1.000 (sec/ mm ²) | 517.27 \pm 273 | 323.67 \pm 135 | 0.044 |
| ADC (x10 ⁻³) mm ² /sec | 1.5 \pm 0.5 | 1.8 \pm 0.8 | 0.240 |

TABLE 4. Quantitative analysis of diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance imaging (mean \pm SD) of non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) and small cell lung cancer (SCLC) (b=0, 500, 1000 sec/mm² and ADC values)

| b and ADC values | NSCLCs (n=42) | SCLCs (n=6) | P |
|---|------------------|-----------------|-------|
| b 0 (sec/ mm ²) | 1110.8 \pm 209 | 1705 \pm 873 | 0.001 |
| b 500 (sec/ mm ²) | 468.6 \pm 238 | 646.9 \pm 350 | 0.186 |
| b 1.000 (sec/ mm ²) | 366 \pm 177 | 379.1 \pm 197 | 0.881 |
| ADC (x10 ⁻³) mm ² /sec | 1.9 \pm 0.8 | 1.5 \pm 1.0 | 0.464 |

included 13 adenocarcinomas, 5 squamous-cell carcinomas, 2 large-cell carcinomas, and 22 unidentified NSCLCs that could not be subgrouped in any of these. Eleven of the malignant lesions were poorly-differentiated, the others were medium- or well- differentiated. The benign lesions consisted of 9 chronic inflammatory changes, 3 sarcoidosis, 2 acute bacterial pneumonias, 2 tuberculosis pneumonias, 1 rheumatoid nodule, 1 granuloma, and 1 hamartoma.

In 51 patients, the final diagnosis was made by histopathological confirmation on the basis of percutaneous biopsy, and included 48 primary lung cancers, 2 nonspecific inflammatory changes and 1 hamartoma. The diagnosis was confirmed with laboratory, radiological and clinical parameters in 3 sarcoidosis, 2 bacterial pneumonias, and 2 tuberculosis pneumonias. In sarcoidosis patients, the lesions regressed with a specific treatment. Two tuberculosis (*Mycobacterium tuberculosis*) and 2 bacterial pneumonia cases were diagnosed bacteriologically. In 9 patients (1 granuloma, 1 rheumatoid nodule and 7 chronic inflammatory changes)

lesions remained stable on follow-up CT for 12 months or more.

We could obtain DWI SI and an ADC value for all lesions. The results of the quantitative analysis of SIs and ADC values are reviewed in Table 2. The mean SI of malignant lesions was higher than that of benign lesions (Figure 1, 2). The difference between malignant and benign lesions was significant for all b values ($p < 0.004$ for $b = 0$ s/mm² and $p < 0.000$ for the other b values) (Figure 3). The area under the ROC curve was 0.933 ± 0.031 for the SI on images with $b = 500$ s/mm². Using $b = 500$ s/mm², a SI ≥ 391 indicated a malignant lesion with a sensitivity of 95%, specificity of 73% and positive predictive value of 87%. Six among 48 malignant lesions (4 NSCLCs and 2 SCLCs) revealed SIs < 391 , which could be confused as benign.

For the SI on images with $b = 1000$ s/mm², the area under the ROC curve was 0.831 ± 0.055 . A SI ≥ 227 with $b = 1000$ s/mm² indicated a malignant lesion with a sensitivity of 93%, specificity of 69% and positive predictive value of 85%. Seven among 48 malignant lesions (6 NSCLCs and 1 SCLCs) re-

vealed SIs <227 which could be confused as benign. Among the benign lesions, 1 sarcoidosis and 1 acute bacterial pneumonia had SI higher than the cut-off value on DWI with both $b = 500$ and $b = 1000$ s/mm². A patient with a chronic inflammatory lesion had a SI higher than the cut-off value only for $b = 1000$ s/mm². Although the mean ADC of the malignant lesions (1.5×10^{-3} mm²/sec) was lower than of the benign group (1.9×10^{-3} mm²/sec), the difference was not statistically significant ($p < 0.675$).

The results of the subgroup quantitative analysis are reviewed in Table 3. When we analyzed the malignant lesions in accordance with the histologic differentiation, the SI of poorly-differentiated cancers was higher for all b values, but statistically a significant difference was observed only with $b = 1000$ s/mm² ($p < 0.04$). Although the ADC of poorly-differentiated lesions was lower than of the medium-well differentiated lesions, the difference was not statistically significant ($p < 0.240$). A comparison of the NSCLCs and the SCLCs demonstrated that the SIs of SCLCs were higher than those of NSCLCs. Although the ADC value of the SCLCs was lower than the ADC value of the NSCLCs, the difference was not statistically significant ($p < 0.464$) (Table 4).

When we compare CT images with the DWI, all of the malignant lesions had irregular contours on CT images. Of the benign lesions 16 had also irregular contours but 3 (1 rheumatoid nodule, 1 granuloma, and 1 hamartoma) had smooth contours. The difference was not statistically significant ($p = 0.3$). Lymphangitic tumoral spread as irregular septal thickening was detected as a concomitant interstitial finding in 6 of the malignant masses on CT images.

Discussion

The aim of DWI is to evaluate the diffusion process *in vivo*. ADC values are quantitative expressions of the diffusion characteristics of tissues. These characteristics are related to several factors such as tissue cellularity, cell density and extracellular-intracellular components.¹⁶ DWI has been an important diagnostic tool for neuroradiology, especially for ischemic events of the brain.¹⁹ Although DWI has been used to differentiate malignant and benign lesions in several other locations, there are few studies about the intrathoracic lesion characterization.^{20,21-27}

In our study, we found SIs of malignant masses on diffusion trace imaging were significantly high-

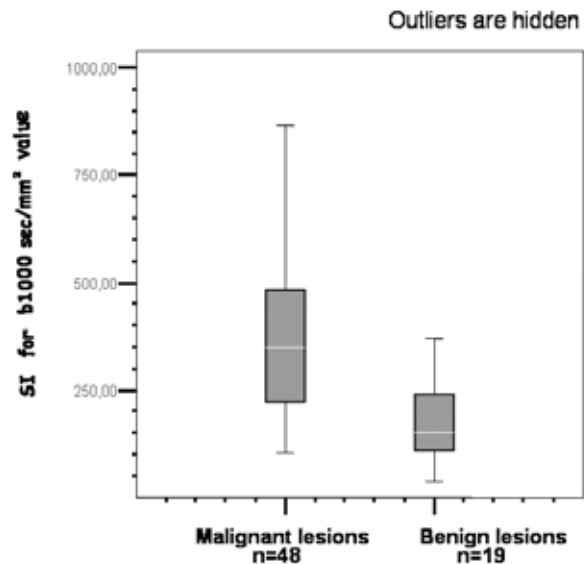


FIGURE 3. Comparison of SI with b value of 1000 s/mm² in malignant and benign lesions. The SIs of malignant lesions were significantly higher than those of benign lesions.

er than of benign masses with low ($b = 500$ s/mm²) and high ($b = 1000$ s/mm²) b values. In the study of Uto *et al.* the SI ratio of malignant lesions to the spinal cord was found higher than that of benign lesions.²¹ Satoh *et al.* also found a higher qualitative score in SI of malignant versus benign masses but they did not measure quantitatively.²² In our study, the patient population was larger than in these two studies.

Although malignant lesions showed lower ADC values than benign masses in our study, the difference was not significant. One reason may be the use of fixed TRs, due to which the DW series were acquired in different phases of the cardiac cycle. Therefore, DW images of different patients may have been affected differently by the pulsatile motion. Another reason may be the distortion artifacts, which limited the reliability of the ADC measurements for small and low-lateral segmental lesions. In the literature, some studies did not evaluate ADC values probably because of susceptibility artifacts.^{22,25} Uto *et al.* found no significant difference between malignant and benign lesions by means of ADC.²¹ Mori *et al.* found a significant difference between malignant and benign lesions by using an ADC cut-off value of 1.1×10^{-3} mm²/sec.²³ The large number of patients may be the explanation for this result. Liu *et al.* reported that ADC values in malignant lesions were significantly lower than in benign lesions.²⁴ In the same study, there was no significant difference between malignant and benign lesions in DWI SIs.

Histopathologically, tumoral cellularity of SCLC is high, and these tumoral cells have very large nuclei and almost no cytoplasm.²⁸ All these features were expected to restrict the tissue diffusion and reduce ADC values. In our study, the SI of SCLC lesions was higher than of the NSCLC subgroup but the difference was significant only with $b = 0 \text{ s/mm}^2$. Thus, hyperintensity of lesions may be related to the T2 shine-through effect. Although ADCs were lower in the SCLC subgroup, the difference was not statistically significant. This may be because of the limited number of patients ($n=6$). In their study of tissue characterization in lung cancers, Abdel Razek *et al.* found significantly lower ADC values for SCLC when comparing with NSCLC groups in a similar patient population.²⁶ Liu *et al.* also found lower ADC values for the SCLC than the NSCLC group.²⁴ However, Koyama *et al.* found no significant differences between subtypes of lung cancers.²⁷

In our study, SI of poorly- differentiated malignant masses was higher than of medium-well differentiated masses on all trace images and the difference with b value of $1,000 \text{ s/mm}^2$ was statistically significant. ADC values were lower in the poorly-differentiated subgroup although the difference was not statistically significant. Histologically, tumor cellularity is higher in the poorly-differentiated cancers which could explain the low ADC values.²⁹ Similar results of significantly lower ADCs in poorly-differentiated adenocarcinomas compared medium-well- differentiated cancer types are reported in the literature and are in accordance with our findings.^{20,26,30,31}

When compared with CT images, contour characteristics of the lesions cannot be assessed with DWI but it does not seem to be a significant disability because contour characteristics are not reliable in differentiating malignant and benign lesions. On CT images lymphangitic tumoral spread was detected as a concomitant interstitial finding in some of the malignant masses. This finding is very helpful to estimate the malignant character of the lesion. The sensitivity and specificity achieved by DWI suggest it could be used for malignant versus benign differentiation. However, the inability of MRI to properly assess the interstitium and lymphangitic tumoral spread is a limitation for predicting malignancy. In addition, although just primary lung cancers are involved into our study, it must be kept in mind that calcified metastases such as those from osteosarcoma may be difficult to detect because of relatively lower proton density resulting in low signal intensity.

Our study had some technical limitations. The use of DWI in the thorax was hindered by certain limitations such as physiologic motion artifacts (respiration and cardiac motion), low signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of the low lung proton density and the susceptibility artifacts caused by air-tissue interfaces.¹⁸ We used the EPI sequence with high b values, which had a lower SNR, thus resulting in greater image distortion. In addition, we obtained DW images using a breath-hold echo-planar sequence with SENSE and this made the measurements vulnerable to susceptibility effects. We did not use pulse-triggered DWI, known to reduce the accuracy of ADC measurements.¹⁸ Finally, the patient population, especially the benign subgroup, was relatively small, which might compromise the accuracy of the results.

In conclusion, DWI may be used to differentiate malignant and benign lung lesions in addition to other radiologic imaging techniques even with high b values such as $b = 1000 \text{ s/mm}^2$. DW trace image SI, together with ADC measurements is useful for the differentiation of malignant versus benign lung lesions.

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Evaluation of penile erection rigidity in healthy men using virtual touch tissue quantification

Xiaozhi Zheng, Ping Ji, Hongwei Mao, Jing Wu

Department of Ultrasound, The Fourth Affiliated Hospital of Nantong University (The First People's Hospital of Yancheng), 14 Yuehe Road, Yancheng 224006, Jiangsu Province, P.R. China.

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Correspondence to: Jing Wu, Department of Ultrasound, The Fourth Affiliated Hospital of Nantong University (The First People's Hospital of Yancheng), 14 Yuehe Road, Yancheng 224006, Jiangsu Province, P.R. China; Phone: +86 0515 88508717; Fax: +86 0515 88500299; E-mail: wujingzxz@163.com

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Background. The aim of the study was to describe the shear wave velocity (SWV) values of the penis by virtual touch tissue quantification (VTTQ) and to examine the clinical usefulness of this procedure in evaluation of the rigidity changes in penile erection.

Patients and methods. VTTQ was performed in 37 healthy volunteers. In the course of erection, SWV values of glans penis, corpus penis and radix penis were quantified and grades of erection were documented. The SWV values at different grades of erection were compared.

Results. The axial and radial SWV values of glans penis, corpus penis and radix penis all significantly decreased from Grade 0 to Grade 4 of erection. At Grade 4, they were less than one-third of that at Grade 0 (axial direction: 0.79 ± 0.13 vs. 2.79 ± 0.32 for glans penis, $P < 0.001$; 0.77 ± 0.19 vs. 2.84 ± 0.30 for corpus penis, $P < 0.001$ and 0.76 ± 0.15 vs. 2.81 ± 0.34 for radix penis, $P < 0.001$; radial direction: 0.82 ± 0.15 vs. 2.83 ± 0.31 for glans penis, $P < 0.001$; 0.79 ± 0.18 vs. 2.81 ± 0.27 for corpus penis, $P < 0.001$ and 0.81 ± 0.16 vs. 2.82 ± 0.33 for radix penis, $P < 0.001$).

Conclusions. VTTQ can provide numerical measurements of penile rigidity and can effectively and sensitively indicate the axial and radial rigidity changes in penile erection, which provide a new approach to assessing the erectile function.

Key words: virtual touch tissue quantification; axial and radial rigidity; erection; shear wave velocity.

Introduction

Penile erection rigidity is one of the key factors for successful sexual intercourse, as well as an important index in the diagnosis and treatment of erectile dysfunction (ED). Ideally, the evaluation of ED should include the measurement of axial rigidity and radial rigidity. This requires special devices, such as RigiScan, Digital Inflexion Rigidometer. However, each device has its pros and cons, related to availability, convenience, validity and costs. For example, RigiScan is the most widely utilized device for measuring penile radial rigidity¹⁻⁵, but this device does not directly determine axial rigidity.^{3,6,7} On the contrast, Digital Inflexion Rigidometer is a

useful device for measuring penile axial rigidity^{3,8,9}, but it does not directly determine radial rigidity. Complete erection rigidity assessment needs a combinatorial use of RigiScan and Digital Inflexion Rigidometer, which increased the cost and inconvenience. Alternative methods for penile erection rigidity assessment are needed.

Ultrasound is widely used for clinical imaging^{10,11}, and virtual touch tissue quantification (VTTQ) is a new, promising implementation of the ultrasound acoustic radiation force impulse (ARFI) imaging, which can effectively and objectively detect the tissue rigidity by measuring the shear wave velocity (SWV) values.¹²⁻¹⁴ Due to the non-invasive and easily accessible nature of VTTQ, this tech-

nology makes it possible to conduct a thoroughly evaluation of erectile rigidity at any portion and any direction in the penis without any discomfort and special preparation. Recently, VTTQ has been used to quantify the rigidity of the liver, kidneys, pancreas, spleen, prostate and breast.¹²⁻¹⁹

In our recent study, in order to provide a supplementary approach to assess the penile erection rigidity, we described the normal axial and radial SWV values of the penis by VTTQ and examined the clinical usefulness of this procedure in evaluation of the rigidity changes in penile erection.

Patients and methods

Study Population

Our study was approved by the local human research ethics committee and free informed consent was obtained from all the subjects. 37 healthy men with a mean age of 34.6 years (range: from 18 to 63 years) were recruited. All the subjects were evaluated by means of clinical and physical assessment, detailed sexual history, laboratory data (glucose, cholesterol, and triglycerides serum levels), and endocrine assays (testosterone, prolactin, follicular stimulation hormone, and luteinizing hormone), electrocardiogram, radiology, ultrasonographic (US) examinations and computer tomography. The inclusion criteria were: absence of any history of focal or diffuse disease at any of the examined organs. The subjects with risk factors for ED, such as diabetes mellitus, hypertension, ischemic heart disease, neurogenic injury to the spinal cord, and with psychogenic factors were excluded from the study.

Examination protocol

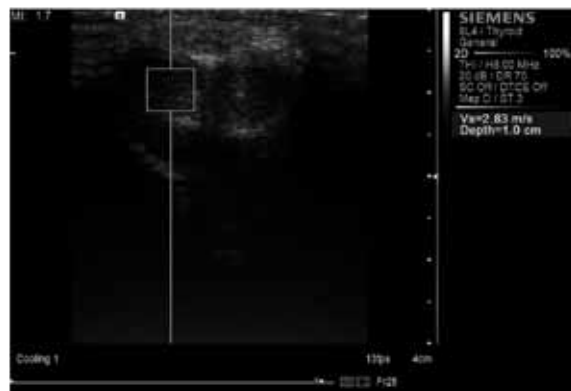
Two urologists with 10 years of experience in diagnosing and treating ED performed clinical assessments. Erectile response was induced by masturbation one hour after 100 mg sildenafil citrate (Pfizer, New York, NJ, USA) administration, and it was evaluated and judged by the urologist and subject at the same time. Penile erection was categorized into four grades using the following criteria.^{20,21} Grade 0 (G0), flaccid; Grade 1(G1), mild tumescence; Grade 2(G2), moderate tumescence but inadequate rigidity for vaginal penetration; Grade 3(G3), full tumescence with moderate rigidity allowing vaginal penetration with some difficulty; and Grade 4(G4), full tumescence and full rigidity allowing vaginal penetration without difficulty.



A



B



C



D

FIGURE 1. Shear wave velocity measurement in the penis with virtual touch tissue quantification during the erection (A and C: Grade 0; B and D: Grade 4) from the axial direction (A and B) and radial direction (C and D), respectively.

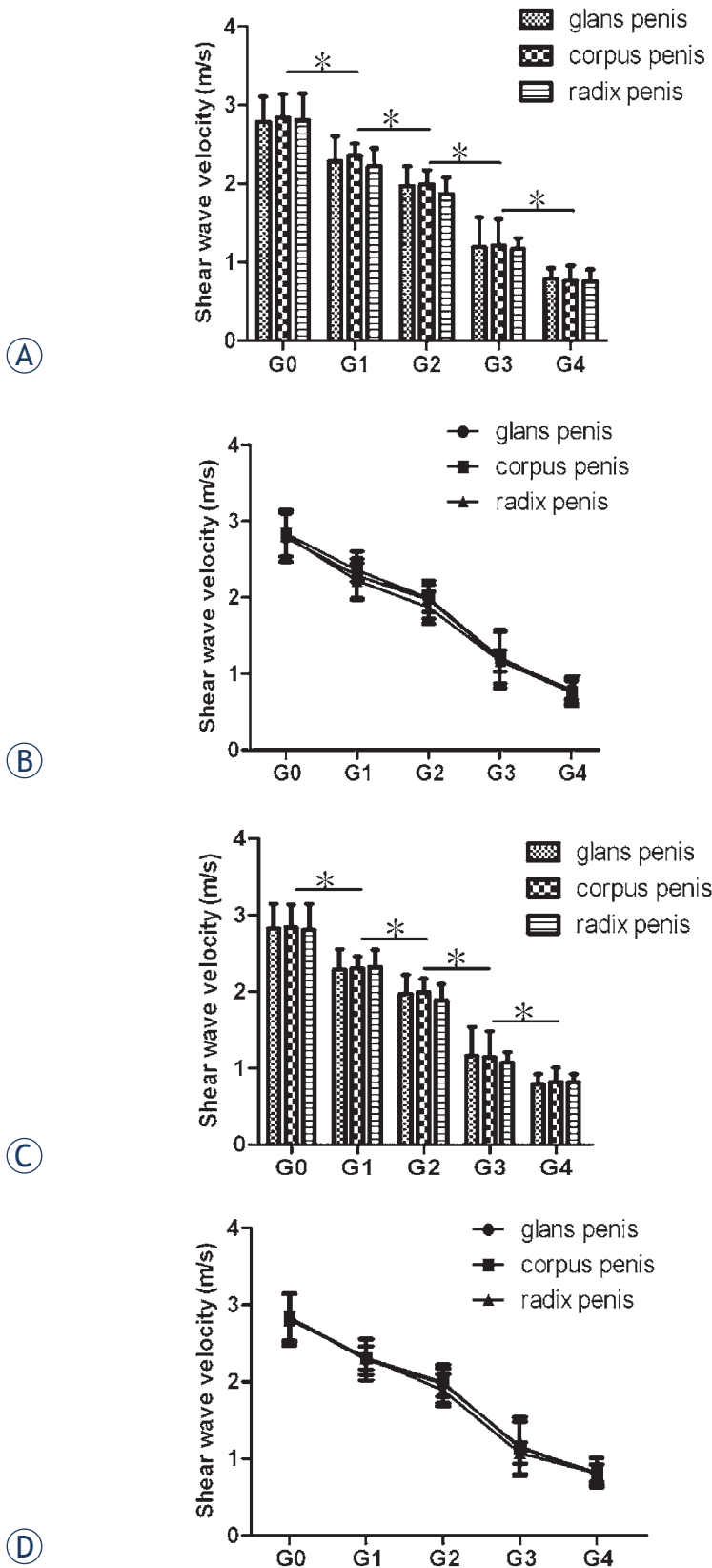


FIGURE 2. Comparison of penile shear wave velocities among different grades of penile erection. A and B: axial direction; C and D: radial direction. Error bars indicate SD, and asterisks indicate significant differences (* $P < 0.05$).

All US examinations were performed by two radiologists with 15 years of experience in US examinations. A Siemens ACUSON S200 0 US system (Siemens, Germany) equipped with a linear array transducer (9L4) was used in this study. A mechanical index of 1.0 and tissue harmonic imaging of 8 MHz were chosen. VTTQ was performed with the preliminary identification of a target region of interest (ROI) (box with fixed dimension of 6×5mm) on a conventional US image. Then, an acoustic push pulse was transmitted immediately on the right side of the ROI where the SWVs were calculated and expressed with a numerical value (metre/second, m/s) as a result of multiple measurements made for the same spatial location.

For the penis study, an optional cavernous body was chosen. Firstly, the long axis view was obtained. Three SWV measurements (anterior, center and posterior, *i.e.*, axial direction) at glans penis, corpus penis and radix penis in the course of erection were performed, respectively. Secondly, the short axis view was obtained. Three SWV measurements (left, center and right, *i.e.*, radial direction) at glans penis, corpus penis and radix penis in the course of erection were performed, respectively (Figure 1). Finally, the average SWV values of each portion were obtained.

Reproducibility

Intraobserver variability was assessed in 15 subjects by repeating the measurements on two occasions (7 days apart) under the same basal conditions. To test the interobserver variability, the measurements were performed on the same subject by a second observer who was blinded to the first observer’s results. Variability was calculated as the mean percentage error, derived as the difference between the two sets of measurements, divided by the mean observations.

Statistical analysis and ethical consideration

Data were expressed as the mean ± SD. Differences between the mean values of the two groups were analyzed by unpaired t tests. Differences were considered significant at $p < 0.05$. SPSS version 13.0 (SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA) was used for all statistical analysis.

The study was carried out according to the Declaration of Helsinki.

TABLE 1. Intraobserver and interobserver variability for shear wave velocity measurements.

| Sites | Intraobserver variability(%) | Interobserver variability(%) |
|-------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Axial direction | | |
| Glans penis | 2.2±1.3 | 2.6±1.5 |
| Corpus penis | 1.9±1.4 | 1.9±1.7 |
| Radix penis | 2.4±1.5 | 2.3±1.6 |
| Radial direction | | |
| Glans penis | 2.3±1.1 | 2.5±1.4 |
| Corpus penis | 1.9±1.6 | 1.9±1.5 |
| Radix penis | 2.4±1.6 | 2.6±1.7 |

Results

As shown in Figure 2, the axial and radial SWV values did not differ at the same portion, neither did they among the glans penis, corpus penis and radix penis at the same grades of erection. They all significantly decreased from Grade 0 to Grade 4 grades of erection. At Grade 4, they were less than one-third of that at Grade 0 (axial direction: 0.79 ± 0.13 vs. 2.79 ± 0.32 for glans penis, $P < 0.001$; 0.77 ± 0.19 vs. 2.84 ± 0.30 for corpus penis, $P < 0.001$ and 0.76 ± 0.15 vs. 2.81 ± 0.34 for radix penis, $P < 0.001$; radial direction: 0.82 ± 0.15 vs. 2.83 ± 0.31 for glans penis, $P < 0.001$; 0.79 ± 0.18 vs. 2.81 ± 0.27 for corpus penis, $P < 0.001$ and 0.81 ± 0.16 vs. 2.82 ± 0.33 for radix penis, $P < 0.001$).

Intraobserver and interobserver variability for shear wave velocity measurements are shown in Table 1. They were all smaller than 5%.

Discussion

The results presented here indicate that VTTQ can provide numerical measurements of penile rigidity and can effectively and sensitively indicate the rigidity changes in penile erection, which provide a new approach to assessing the erectile function.

ARFI imaging is a new ultrasound imaging modality to evaluate the stiffness of tissues by short-duration acoustic radiation forces that produce localized displacements in a 'pushed' ROI,^{13,22,23} where shear waves (transverses wave propagating perpendicular to the direction of tissue displacement) are generated without the need for external compression.²⁴ The induced displacements are indicative of local tissue mechanical properties¹⁴, and the velocities of shear waves are proportional to tissue rigidity. Fundamentally, SWV is positively correlated with the major mechanical properties

indicating material rigidity assuming the material is a linear, isotropic, elastic body.²⁵ The stiffer the tissue, the faster the shear wave will be propagated. However, our study showed that the greater the grades of erection, the smaller the SWV values were measured, *i.e.*, the stiffer the penis, the slower the shear wave would be propagated. In our study, SWV was negatively correlated with penile rigidity. This finding can be explained by the fact that cavernous body of penis is not a linear, isotropic, elastic body and the penile erection is a multiple neurovascular event as follow²⁶: 1) nerve impulses cause the release of neurotransmitters and relaxing factors; 2) relaxation of smooth muscle in the arteries and arterioles supplies the erectile tissue; 3) several times increase in the blood flow to the penis; 4) relaxation of the trabecular smooth muscle increases the compliance of the sinusoids, facilitating rapid filling and expansion of the sinusoidal system; 5) venular subtunical plexes are compressed between the trabeculae and the tunica albuginea, resulting in almost total occlusion of venous outflow. In the process of penile tumescence, erectile tissue within the ROI gradually decreased and the blood flow within the ROI gradually increased. So the penile SWV values accordingly decreased from Grade 0 to Grade 4 of erection, because a low SWV value, even a "XXXX/0" value is always obtained from the fluids such as blood, water.¹³

In our study, axial rigidity and radial rigidity was separately assessed at the long axis view and the short axis view of the corpora cavernosa by measuring the SWV values. They did not differ at the same portion, neither did they among the glans penis, corpus penis and radix penis at the same grades of erection, because they share a common dependency upon intracavernosal pressure. As a surrogate measure of erection, both axial rigidity and radial rigidity assessed by the SWV values are the most accurate one.

Although VTTQ can potentially be an important quantitative tool for erectile function, there are some limits in the present study. For example, the specimens of subjects are limited. Not all subjects have a satisfactory erectile response to the induction of masturbation after sildenafil citrate administration. Semiquantitative clinical grading of an erection is not very accurate. In the further study, a comparison of VTTQ and RigiScan or Digital Inflexion Rigidometer for the evaluation of penile erection rigidity should be done. There are also some problems with the use of VTTQ for the penile erection rigidity assessment. The fixed box dimension (6×5mm) of the target ROI and the sensitivity to movement artifacts may become obstacles to the extensive application of this new technology.

Conclusion

This is the first study on the evaluation of penile erection rigidity using VTTQ. Our study indicates that VTTQ can simultaneously provide numerical measurements of penile axial rigidity and radial rigidity at a precise image-based anatomical location, and can effectively and sensitively indicate the rigidity changes in penile erection. Although several limitations mentioned above, this method still holds considerable clinical promise for the assessment of erectile function

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Lucifer Yellow uptake by CHO cells exposed to magnetic and electric pulses

Leila Towhidi^{1,3}, Seyed Mohammad P Firoozabadi¹, Hossein Mozdarani², Damijan Miklavcic³

¹ Tarbiat Modares University, Department of Medical Physics, Tehran, Iran

² Tarbiat Modares University, Department of Medical Genetics, Tehran, Iran

³ University of Ljubljana, Faculty of Electrical Engineering, Ljubljana, Slovenia

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Correspondence to: Prof. Seyed Mohammad P Firoozabadi, Tarbiat Modares University, Jalal Ale Ahmad Highway, PO Box 14395-587 Tehran Iran. Phone: +98(21) 88011001, ext 3821; Fax: +98(21) 88006544; E-mail: pourmir@modares.ac.ir

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Background. The cell membrane acts as a barrier that hinders free entrance of most hydrophilic molecules into the cell. Due to numerous applications in medicine, biology and biotechnology, the introduction of impermeant molecules into biological cells has drawn considerable attention in the past years. One of the most famous methods in this field is electroporation, in which electric pulses with high intensity and short duration are applied to the cells. The aim of our study was to investigate the effect of time-varying magnetic field with different parameters on transmembrane molecular transport.

Materials and methods. 'Moreover, a comparison was made between the uptake results due to magnetic pulse exposure and electroporation mediated uptake.' at the end of Background part. The Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells were exposed to magnetic pulses of 2.2 T peak strength and 250 μ s duration delivered by Magstim stimulator and double 70 mm coil. Three different frequencies of 0.25, 1 and 10 Hz pulses with 112, 56 and 28 number of pulses were applied (altogether nine experimental groups) and Lucifer Yellow uptake was measured in each group. Moreover, maximum uptake of Lucifer Yellow obtained by magnetic pulses was compared to the measured uptake due to electroporation with typical parameters of 8 pulses of 100 μ s, repetition frequency of 1 Hz and electric field intensities of 200 to 600 V/cm.

Results and conclusions. Our results show that time-varying magnetic field exposure increases transmembrane molecular transport and this uptake is greater for lower frequencies and larger number of pulses. Besides, the comparison shows that electroporation is more effective than pulsed magnetic field, but the observed uptake enhancement due to magnetic exposure is still considerable.

Key words: electroporation; electro-endocytosis; time-varying magnetic field; transmembrane molecular transport.

Introduction

The cell membrane acts as a barrier that hinders free entrance of most hydrophilic molecules into the cell. Effects of electromagnetic fields on biological systems have been intensively investigated for possible damaging, diagnostic and therapeutic effects¹⁻³ considering the cell membrane as the primary site of interaction.⁴ One of the interesting aspects of electromagnetic exposures is the incorporation of impermeant molecules such as macromolecules, drugs and proteins into biological cells without af-

fecting cell physiological functioning and viability which can have numerous applications in medicine and biology. This has been mainly achieved, both *in vitro* and *in vivo* by electroporation⁵⁻⁸, a process in which cells are exposed to a short duration (μ s -ms) high intensity electric pulses (hundreds of V/cm).⁸⁻¹⁰ Electroporation is nowadays widely used in biotechnology^{11,12} and in the medical applications such as electrochemotherapy¹³⁻¹⁶ and gene electrotransfer.^{5,17-21} The suggested mechanism for this phenomenon is a structural change in plasma membrane resulting in pores formation.^{6,22}

However, train of pulsed low electric field with a field strength value as low as 2.5-20 V/cm, frequency of a few hundred Hz and total exposure time of 1-10 min has been shown to be effective in enhancing uptake of large molecules into the cells. In this technique the pulse amplitude is not high enough to create pores and, assumingly, there are different pathways of molecular transport (*i.e.* electro-endocytosis).²³⁻²⁵ Furthermore, it was previously shown that the 900 MHz continuous sine wave and Global System for Mobile Communications (GSM) electromagnetic field increased *in vitro* molecular uptake by cells.²⁶ The considered GSM were square pulses with a low frequency envelope of 217 Hz and high frequency carrier sine wave of 900 MHz. In that study it was also demonstrated that pulsed electric field of low intensity (2.6 V/cm), duration of 580 μ s and with the frequency of the applied GSM (217 Hz) produced the same effect on LY uptake.²⁶ In another study, the activation of K⁺ and Na⁺ pumping by an oscillating electric field (20 V/cm, 1 KHz) has been reported.²⁷

Despite intensive studies on uptake increase due to different exposures, the possible effect of magnetic pulses on cell membrane permeability has not yet been tested. We hypothesize that pulsed magnetic field exposure, which induces electric field, will increase the molecular uptake of biological cells. In this paper, we present results of an experimental study of the effect of magnetic pulses on the cellular uptake. We determined the uptake of fluorescent dye Lucifer Yellow into adherent Chinese Hamster Ovary (CHO) cells due to time-varying magnetic field exposure. The uptake of fluorescent dye was determined for different frequencies and number of pulses. In addition, a comparison between the molecular uptake due to magnetic pulse exposure and the "conventional" electroporation was performed.

Materials and methods

Cells

Chinese hamster ovary cells (CHO-K1) (Pasteur Institute, Iran) were grown in HAM-F12 (Dulbecco's modification of the Eagle's Minimum Essential Medium – EMEM) containing 8% foetal calf serum, 160 μ g/ml L-glutamine (all from Invitrogen-GIBCO BRL, Grand Island, NY, USA), 100 units/ml penicillin and 16 μ g/mg gentamicin and incubated in 5% CO₂ at 37°C. The cells were plated in 35 mm Petri dishes at 10⁶ cells per dish and incubated in HAM-F12 the day before the ex-

periments. At the time of the experiments, the cells cover the surface of Petri dish completely in the form of monolayer. Just before applying the pulses, the culture medium in Petri dishes was replaced with 2 ml (2 mm media height in the dish) pulsing buffer (consisting of 250 mM sucrose, 10 mM KH₂PO₄/K₂HPO₄ and 1 mM MgCl₂) containing 500 μ M Lucifer Yellow (Invitrogen-Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR, USA).

Magnetic pulse exposure

The magnetic pulse generator used in this study was Magstim (Magstim Rapid, Magstim Company, Withland, UK) which is usually used for non-invasive transcranial magnetic stimulation of human tissue.²⁸⁻³⁰ Such devices consist of a stimulating coil connected to a high-voltage discharge system which produces a very strong and short discharge current resulting in induced time varying magnetic fields. Based on Maxwell-Faraday equation, this strong pulsed magnetic field induces an electric field of the order of tens of volts per centimetre in the space around the coil.^{31,32}

It has been demonstrated that figure-of-eight coils allow for a more focused and greater peak electric field than simple round coils.^{31,33} Moreover, the smaller coils induce higher magnetic field intensities than larger coils but the field falls off much more rapidly with distance.^{31,33} The optimum coil for our experiments in order to deliver the most intense fields with larger decay time constant was a 70 mm figure-of-eight coil with 100% energy transfer (Figure 1A). The magnetic field strength decreases rapidly with the distance from the stimulating coil so that the field strength is peaked close to the coil surface.^{31,34} Therefore, the Petri dishes containing the cells were placed under the coil where two windings meet and attached to the coil in order to expose cells to the strongest possible magnetic field. The geometry of the coils, the Petri dish in the experiments and direction of current flow through each winding of the coil are shown in Figure 1B.

During the exposures, the cells were attached at the bottom of the Petri dishes with radius of 17.5 mm and height of 10 mm. In previous studies, the distribution of magnetic and induced electric fields for different coils including the chosen coil in our experiments (70 mm figure-of-eight)^{31,35} are obtained. Considering results of these studies and the dimensions of the Petri dishes, the spatial distribution of field delivered to cells was approximately uniform at the Petri dish location. The strength

and duration of pulses in all experiments were the same and investigated parameters were pulse repetition frequencies (0.25, 1 and 10 Hz) and number of pulses in each train of pulses (112, 56 and 28 pulses). The main frequency considered in this study was 0.25 Hz in order to have several minutes exposure time before warming up the device and the coil. In this frequency, the maximum possible number of delivered pulses was about 112. Then, to demonstrate the effect of number of pulses, half and a quarter of 112 (*i.e.* 56 and 28 pulses) for each pulse repetition frequency were also studied.

Electric pulse exposure

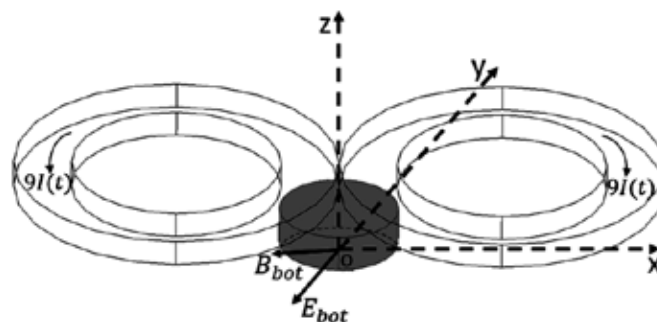
A pair of parallel Pt/Ir wire electrodes with 0.8 mm diameter and 25 mm length spaced 5 mm from each other was positioned at the bottom of Petri dishes. Electric pulses were generated by a Cliniporator device (IGEA s.r.l., Carpi, Modena, Italy). The electroporation results depend on pulse parameters such as pulse shape, frequency, duration and number of pulses.^{8,10,35} We have chosen some typical electroporation parameters of 8 pulses of 100 μ s and repetition frequency of 1 Hz. Based on previous electroporation studies on suspension and attached biological cells^{10,36,37}, the voltages delivered to the electrodes were selected to be between 100 and 300 V (*i.e.* voltage-to-distance ratios of 200 to 600 V/cm) with increment of 50 V (*i.e.* voltage-to-distance ratio incrementing by 100 V/cm).

Determination of Lucifer Yellow uptake

Lucifer yellow (LY) is an impermeant fluorescent dye³⁸ which in case of penetrating through the membrane, stays inside the cell and does not affect the cell viability due to its non-toxicity.³⁹ Thus using a standard protocol⁴⁰, the quantity of Lucifer Yellow taken up by the cells can be measured at given time after the exposure of cells to magnetic or electric pulses. In our experiments, after the exposure of cells to the magnetic or electric pulses, the cells were incubated at room temperature for 40 minutes to allow resealing of the plasma membrane.^{8,41} The cells were then washed four times with phosphate buffer saline (PBS, Life Technologies, Paisley, UK) to remove Lucifer Yellow from extracellular medium. Cells were then broken down by adding diluted HCl for 12 hours and then the total fluorescence taken up by the cells was measured in arbitrary units on a spectrofluorometer (Shimadzu RF-5000, Japan). The excitation and emission wavelengths were set at 418 and 525 nm, respectively.



(A)



(B)

FIGURE 1. (A) Photograph of a 70 mm figure-of-eight coil used in the magnetic pulse exposure experiments. (B) Schematic of Petri dish location under figure-of-eight coil during magnetic field exposure. The direction of current passing through each winding is shown. The direction of resulted electric and magnetic field at the bottom of the Petri dish are displayed.

As the electroporation electric pulses were applied to the cells via two electrodes separated 5 mm and positioned at the bottom of the Petri dishes, only the cells located between these two electrodes are exposed to the electric field ($25 \times 5 \text{ mm}^2$). But in the case of time-varying magnetic field exposure, the magnetic pulses are applied to all the cells in the Petri dish located under the coil ($\pi \times 35^2 / 4 \text{ mm}^2$). Thus to make the obtained data comparable, the ratio of exposed area was taken into account. This has been accomplished via multiplying the measured fluorescence with the ratio of the Petri dish area and the area between two electrodes.

The laboratory temperature during the experiments was about 25°C. Results were given as a percent of control. The procedures for the control group samples were identical to exposed cells (*i.e.* Lucifer Yellow was added to their medium) except that no pulses were delivered. All results are given as average of 4 to 13 repetitions and are presented

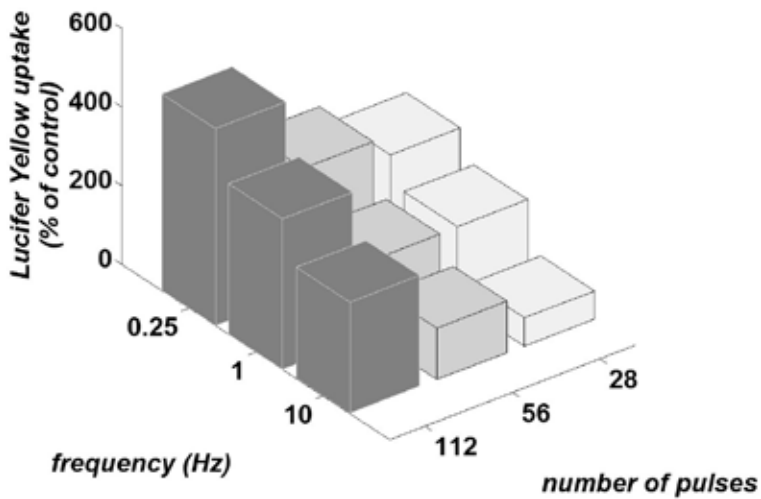


FIGURE 2. Dye uptake of attached CHO cells for three different frequencies 0.25, 1 and 10 Hz with three different numbers of pulses 112, 56 and 28 for each chosen frequency. Attributed number to the control group was chosen 100 and the fluorescence of other groups was computed as the percent of control fluorescence.

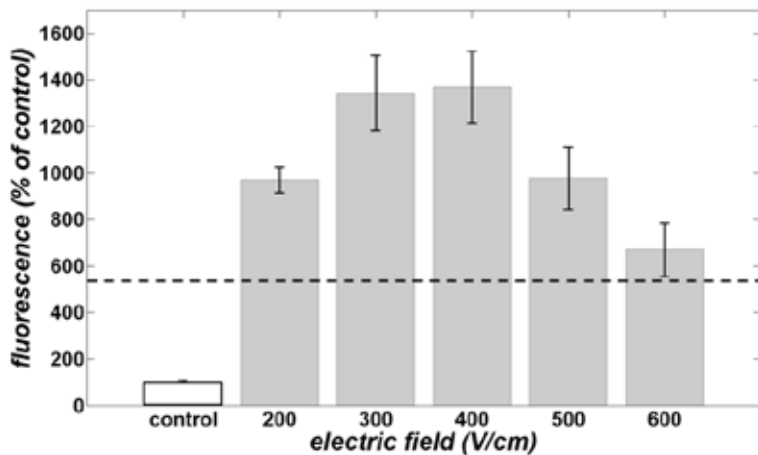


FIGURE 3. Dye uptake of attached CHO cells. The white bar shows the control group normalized to 100. The fluorescence of other groups was computed as the percent of control fluorescence. The gray bars show uptake attributed to different electric field exposure amplitudes of 8 pulses of 100 μ s and 1 Hz for electroporation experiments. The dashed line demonstrates the greatest uptake of cells due to magnetic field exposure (112 pulses of 0.25 Hz). Vertical bars represent standard deviation of the mean.

in bar graphs. In order to perform a statistical analysis, Mann-Whitney Rank-Sum test was used.

Results

Figure 2 shows the uptake of Lucifer Yellow for 9 different sets of parameters of magnetic field exposure (three different frequencies of 0.25, 1 and 10 Hz pulses for 112, 56 and 28 pulses). The value of the control group fluorescence was considered

as 100 and the fluorescence of experimental groups was normalized to the control group. The comparisons of the uptake between the control group and exposed groups and also between exposed groups were performed using the Mann-Whitney Rank-Sum test. The P-value for the significance level of distinct groups was set equal to 0.05.

The statistical results show that for all frequencies of 0.25, 1 and 10 Hz, exposure of 112 pulses is significantly more efficient in comparison with a control group, 56 and 28 pulses. Moreover, for none of the 0.25, 1 and 10 Hz frequencies, one can observe any significant difference between 28 and 56 pulses groups. For 10 Hz group, there is even no significant difference between the last two groups and the control group.

Exposure to 112 of pulses and frequency of 0.25 Hz result in the highest uptake of Lucifer Yellow. The same number of pulses delivered at frequencies of 1 and 10 Hz shows, however, no significant difference. With 56 pulses, 0.25 Hz frequency is more effective than the two other frequencies while frequency of 10 Hz shows no significant difference with the control group. With 28 number of pulses, 0.25 and 1 Hz make no significant difference at 28 pulses, but they are more efficient relative to the control group; between 10 Hz group and the control group, however, no difference was observed.

Based on above observations, we may state that the dye uptake is greater for lower frequencies and larger number of pulses.

In order to compare cell exposure to magnetic pulses with the conventional method for membrane permeability increase (*i.e.* electroporation), the uptake enhancement of attached CHO cells due to determined applied electric pulses were also investigated. The cells were exposed to 8 pulses of 100 μ s duration and 1 Hz pulse repetition frequency of five different electric field intensities (200 to 600 V/cm with 100 V/cm increment). The resulted value for cellular uptake of LY due to electroporation with different pulse amplitudes are displayed in gray in Figure 3. For an easier comparison, the highest measured fluorescence of cells due to the magnetic pulse exposure (112 pulses of 0.25 Hz) is shown with dashed line. The control group is illustrated in white. The comparisons of the uptake between the control group, groups exposed to electric pulses and groups exposed to magnetic pulses were performed using the Mann-Whitney Rank-Sum test. The results of this comparison show that with selected parameters of electric and magnetic exposures, both give rises to the uptake enhancement and have a significant difference with the

control group. Although the results show that all the electric pulse exposure groups, except the one with 600 V/cm field strength, were significantly more effective than magnetic pulse exposure groups (Figure 3).

Discussion

The results of the experimental study on exposing the cells by magnetic pulses show that magnetic pulses can efficiently increase Lucifer Yellow uptake by CHO cells. The amount of fluorescence measured for the control group not exposed to the pulses was ascribed to the remaining extracellular Lucifer Yellow after washings and also to the uptake due to normal endocytotic process. The results show that all experimental groups except groups exposed to 28 and 56 pulses at 10 Hz have the significantly higher uptake of Lucifer Yellow when compared to the control group. We thus conclude that generally applying magnetic pulses can enhance the uptake of molecules by cells. The results show (Figure 2) that magnetic pulses of the same number but different frequencies to the cells indicate that lower frequencies are more efficient. Furthermore, we observe that increasing the number of pulses enhances dye uptake. It is important to note that the total exposure time for different numbers of pulses used in experiments was different for different frequencies. For example total exposure time for 112 pulses of 0.25, 1 and 10 Hz frequencies were 467, 116 and 11 seconds, respectively.

In addition, the uptake of Lucifer Yellow due to exposure to magnetic pulses of 112 pulses of 0.25 Hz was compared to the exposure of cells electroporated by electric pulses of 1 Hz, duration of 100 μ s and electric field amplitudes usually used in electrochemotherapy protocols. The results of this comparison show that with the selected parameters of exposures, both give rises to the uptake enhancement and have a significant difference with the control group, although increase due to exposure of cells to magnetic field is considerably smaller when compared to "classical" electroporation (Figure 3).

The increased permeability in electroporation is believed to be due to exceeding of induced transmembrane voltage from a critical value of few hundred mV. Note that a transmembrane voltage of this amplitude can be by exposing cells to an electric field of few hundred V/cm.^{42,43} This high electric field, as suggested in literature, causes structural changes and pore formation in the cell

membrane which in turn give rise to an increase of permeability and cellular uptake.⁶ In magnetic pulse exposure, the induced electric field due to a time varying magnetic field at the cells position was about 6 V/cm.³¹ This field strength is by far much smaller than the electric field needed for electroporation⁴⁴ and is unable to form pores in the plasma membrane (although the exposure time in the latter is by far much larger *i.e.* 7 minutes in the latter, contrast to 8 seconds in the former). Therefore, we need to seek an alternative mechanism responsible for the observed increase of dye uptake by the cells in our experiment using magnetic pulses.

Previous studies have shown that long train of low pulsed electric field with a field strength value as low as 2.5-20 V/cm, frequency of a few hundred Hz and total exposure time of 1–10 minutes enhances the uptake of large molecules into the cells.^{24,25} The reason for the uptake increase was explained by the imbalance of charge distribution in the two opposite leaflets of the cell membrane due to the electric forces. This charge imbalance was stipulated to stimulate endocytotic-like process named electro-endocytosis. The efficiency of incorporation of macromolecules into the cells depended on the electrical parameters of exposure such as pulse amplitude, duration, frequency and total time of exposure.²⁵ In another study, the effect of mobile phone electromagnetic fields with envelope frequency of 217 Hz, carrier frequency of 900 MHz and pulse duration of 580 μ s were investigated and the uptake increase was reported.²⁶ Furthermore, it was also demonstrated that the electric component of electromagnetic fields was responsible for this increase. The associated pulsed electric field in their study featured low intensity electric field 1.2-8 V/cm, pulse duration from 75 to 580 μ s, frequency from 50 to 400 Hz and total exposure duration from 5 to 90 min.²⁶ It was demonstrated that the dye uptake in both cases increased due to fluid-phase endocytosis. The exposure of cells to such electric fields results in mV range induced transmembrane voltage – similar to studies reporting electro-endocytosis. In other studies on electroporation, it was proposed that the tangential component of the field on the external leaflet of the membrane may result in electrophoretic mobility of the charges, proteins and lipids of the membrane, enzyme fluctuation or ruffling. This in turn may induce endocytosis which might last for about one hour after applying pulses.⁴⁵⁻⁴⁸

We now discuss the case of magnetic pulse exposure. Pulsed magnetic field induces an electric field. This electric field is circular and tangential

in the intercellular region. The order of the electric field is comparable with low amplitude electric field in foregoing studies. Thus, the attributed cellular uptake increase can be convincingly explained based on the suggested above mentioned mechanisms with exerting electrophoretic mobility on the outer leaflet of the membrane and inducing endocytosis. We, thus, suggest that electro-endocytosis might facilitate the passage of external substances into the cell.

On the other hand, it is suggested in a survey that magnetic field pulses might create metastable cell membrane pores via interaction with membrane-attached magnetic particles and ubiquitous ferromagnetic contaminant particles exist in solutions and media.⁴⁹ Therefore, another possible mechanism for the uptake enhancement due to magnetic pulse exposure is the interaction of transient magnetic field with these particles. This may cause some effects even creating membrane pores due to rotational motion of a membrane-bound particle and transferring enough energy and consequently increasing the cellular uptake.

The purpose of our study was to test enhanced molecular uptake by cells due to the exposure of cells to magnetic pulses. According to the results of our study, with applying time-varying magnetic field the uptake of extracellular molecules to the cells increases significantly. Our results show that this increase is more obvious for lower frequencies and larger number of pulses (also associated with longer time exposure). We also give plausible explanations of the underlying mechanisms. It remains, however, to determine exact mechanisms of this increased uptake of molecules and to test if this technique can be used also *in vivo* for example for the treatment of tumours like electroporation in electrochemotherapy. Considering the fact that magnetic fields *i.e.* transcranial magnetic stimulation are able to focus and pass unhindered through skin, muscle and bone, this approach can potentially be useful in treating deep-seated tumours noninvasively.

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The optimization of needle electrode number and placement for irreversible electroporation of hepatocellular carcinoma

Oyinlolu O. Adeyanju, Haitham M. Al-Angari, Alan V. Sahakian

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Correspondence to: Oyinlolu O. Adeyanju, PhD student with the Department of Biomedical Engineering, Northwestern University, 2145 Sheridan Rd., Evanston, IL 60208 USA. Phone: 847-467-2297; Fax: 847-491-4455; E-mail: lolu@northwestern.edu

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Background. Irreversible electroporation (IRE) is a novel ablation tool that uses brief high-voltage pulses to treat cancer. The efficacy of the therapy depends upon the distribution of the electric field, which in turn depends upon the configuration of electrodes used.

Methods. We sought to optimize the electrode configuration in terms of the distance between electrodes, the depth of electrode insertion, and the number of electrodes. We employed a 3D Finite Element Model and systematically varied the distance between the electrodes and the depth of electrode insertion, monitoring the lowest voltage sufficient to ablate the tumor, V_{IRE} . We also measured the amount of normal (non-cancerous) tissue ablated. Measurements were performed for two electrodes, three electrodes, and four electrodes. The optimal electrode configuration was determined to be the one with the lowest V_{IRE} , as that minimized damage to normal tissue.

Results. The optimal electrode configuration to ablate a 2.5 cm spheroidal tumor used two electrodes with a distance of 2 cm between the electrodes and a depth of insertion of 1 cm below the halfway point in the spherical tumor, as measured from the bottom of the electrode. This produced a V_{IRE} of 3700 V. We found that it was generally best to have a small distance between the electrodes and for the center of the electrodes to be inserted at a depth equal to or deeper than the center of the tumor. We also found the distance between electrodes was far more important in influencing the outcome measures when compared with the depth of electrode insertion.

Conclusions. Overall, the distribution of electric field is highly dependent upon the electrode configuration, but the optimal configuration can be determined using numerical modeling. Our findings can help guide the clinical application of IRE as well as the selection of the best optimization algorithm to use in finding the optimal electrode configuration.

Key words: hepatocellular carcinoma; irreversible electroporation; optimization, electrode configuration

Introduction

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), primary liver cancer, is a devastating cancer of the liver resulting in almost 700,000 deaths per year worldwide.¹ HCC is generally caused by hepatitis B or C virus and is secondary to liver cirrhosis, which is most commonly caused by alcoholism and hepatitis C in the West. Hepatitis C infections are rising in western countries, leading to a rise in HCC.² The majority of patients who contract HCC die within a year.³ Although HCC is curable with surgical re-

section, only 10-15% of patients can undergo surgical resection, and liver transplant waiting lists are prohibitively long.⁴

Many adjuvant therapies have been developed to treat liver tumors. Cryoablation works by freezing the tissue. Radiofrequency ablation (RFA) uses a high frequency (450-500 kHz) alternating current to oscillate cellular ions, inducing the generation of heat to treat the cancer, but RFA is limited in the amount of tissue that it can treat. RFA also suffers from a heat sink effect caused by the presence of blood vessels in the liver that convectively cool the

tissue and thus reduce RFA's efficacy.⁵ Also, thermal ablation damages connective tissue and blood vessels.⁶

Irreversible electroporation (IRE) is a novel ablation method to treat HCC.⁷ IRE works by applying brief, high amplitude electric pulses to cancerous tissue. The electric field acts on the cellular membrane, raising the cell's transmembrane voltage, which can open semi-permanent to permanent aqueous pores in the membrane through which water soluble substances and ions can traverse the membrane.⁵ The permeabilization of the cell membrane disrupts the cell's homeostatic mechanisms and can result in the death of the cell. An advantage of IRE is that it leaves intact large blood vessels, nerves, ducts, etc.⁸

The effectiveness of IRE is highly dependent upon the distribution of the electric field in the tissue^{9,10}, which in turn is dependent upon the configuration of electrodes and the amplitude of voltage applied. Miklavcic *et al.* demonstrated that tumor coverage with an adequate electric field is important for the effectiveness of the therapy.¹¹ Various studies have looked into the effects of varying the electrode configuration for reversible electroporation applications.^{5, 9, 10, 12-23} The majority of these were electrochemotherapy studies aiming to maximize the reversibly electroporated zones and to minimize the regions that were irreversibly electroporated. We are aware of only a few studies to date examining the effects of electrode configuration specifically for IRE therapy (Davalos *et al.* briefly reviewed some 2D simulated configurations in⁵ and Zupanic and Miklavcic looked at a treatment plan for IRE in²⁴ and²⁵), but the results for the reversible electroporation studies are useful in designing IRE treatments. Corovic *et al.* showed that the voltage, distance between electrodes, and the depth of electrode insertion were important parameters for the distribution of the electric field.¹⁸

There is a great deal of flexibility in terms of the configuration of electrodes. One could vary the number, shape, and size of electrodes, etc. as well as their placement. This study utilizes 3D finite element modeling studies to further develop knowledge in optimizing the needle electrode configuration for the purpose of treating liver cancer. We chose to study needle electrodes for their flexibility in placement and ability to treat both surface and deep-tissue tumors. That said, studies have shown that parallel plate electrodes may be more effective for surface tumors due to their ability to produce more uniform electric fields.²⁶ Although the results are specific to HCC, our hope is that the developed

electrode configuration results would be useful for the ablation of other types of cancer and for motivating the use of different optimization algorithms.

Materials and Methods

Finite Element Model

We employed a 3D Finite Element Model using COMSOL[®] 4.2 (COMSOL, Stockholm, Sweden) with MATLAB[™] on a 64 bit 2.61 GHz Dell Optiplex with an AMD[™] 64X2 Dual Core Processor 5200+ with 3.93 GB of RAM running Microsoft Windows XP Professional Version 2003 Service Pack 2. We modeled the liver as a 3D rectangular object with dimensions (18 cm width x 10 cm depth x 15 cm height), which was set to be the approximate dimensions of a human liver. The tumor was modeled as a sphere with a 2.5 cm diameter, which can be considered an average size for liver tumors²⁷. The electrical potential was calculated using the Laplace equation for potential distribution:

$$\nabla(\sigma \nabla \phi) = 0 \quad [1]$$

σ represents tissue conductivity and ϕ represents the electric potential. The electric field was calculated from the electric potential.

$$E = -\nabla \phi \quad [2]$$

E represents the electric field.

The boundaries of the cube were also set to be electrically insulating:

$$-n \cdot J = 0 \quad [3]$$

n represents the unit outward normal vector and J represents the current density. The tissue density was set to be 1050 kg/m³,²⁸ and the electrode conductivity was set to be 4x10⁶ S/m.²⁹ The active electrode(s) were set to an electric potential $\phi = \phi_0$, and the electrode(s) that were not active were set to ground. A bounding box around the tumor was used in the FEM simulations to improve the quality of the meshing and computations. The mesh consisted of 29,505 elements.

The electrodes modeled in the study were platinum-iridium (90%/10%) electrodes represented by cylinders with 2.0 cm exposed length and 1 mm diameter with insulated portions above the exposed regions of the electrode. The normal liver was given a relative permittivity of 8.2x10⁴, while the tumor relative permittivity was set to 9.9x10⁴.⁴³⁰ We modeled the nonlinear change in the electrical conductivity due to the process of membrane permeabilization with a sigmoid relationship depending upon the electric field magnitude as according to Sel *et al.*³¹ for the liver and Ivorra *et al.*³² for the tumor.

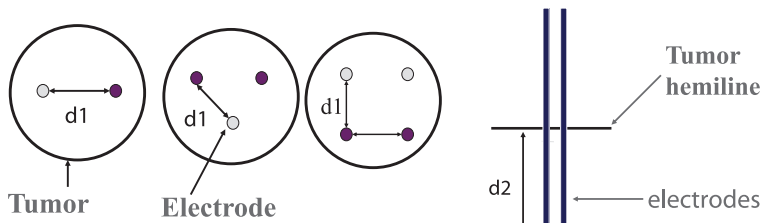


FIGURE 1. Depiction of the electrode configurations. (left) The purple circles represent active electrodes, and the lighter shaded electrodes are set to ground. The distance (d1) between electrodes and the depth of insertion (d2) was varied in the study.

The fit equation for the liver was:

$$\sigma(E) = 0.075 + (0.27 - 0.075) * \left(\frac{1}{1 + 10e^{(-1/3000*(E-58000))}} \right)$$

The fit equation for the tumor was:

$$\sigma(E) = 0.166(2.154 * \exp(-e^{(-0.001234*(E/100)-1500)}) + 1)$$

E represents the electric field in V/m. Since the liver model from Sel *et al.* was determined from rabbit data, we changed the baseline value to 0.075 S/m to coincide with human data derived from Haemmerich *et al.* 2009.³³ The fit equation for the tumor was derived from mouse data, so the baseline conductivity was selected from Laufer *et al.*³⁰ to be 0.166 S/m. The value from Laufer *et al.* was closer to the tumor fit equation's original baseline than the value from Haemmerich *et al.* for tumors, and conversely the chosen baseline value for the normal liver was closer to the original fit equation value from Sel *et al.* than that found in Laufer *et al.* It is well known that liver tumor conductivities tend to be higher than normal liver conductivities, and the ratio of 0.166/0.075≈2.21 is a reasonable ratio between the tumor and the liver.^{18,28, 34}

Mainly three different parameters of electrode configurations were analyzed for the study: 1) distance between electrodes 2) depth of electrode insertion 3) the number of electrodes. Basically, the parameter space for the distance between electrodes and the depth of electrode insertion was explored for three different electrode numbers: two, three, and four electrodes. The means of optimizing this was to increment the applied voltage at the active electrode(s) by 100 V intervals to the minimum value necessary to cover 95% of the tumor with an electric field sufficient to irreversibly electroporate the tumor tissue: V_{IRE} . This electric field was set at 680 V/cm, as derived from Davalos *et al.*⁵ The voltage was iterated, and the criterion for tumor ablation was determined via the MATLAB™ environment. Also, we were able to visualize the region of

irreversible electroporation (tissue ablation) using an isosurface plotted in the COMSOL® 3D environment. V_{IRE} was determined at several electrode distances and depths, and the results were tabulated for two, three, and four electrodes. The seven different distances between the electrodes that were measured were 1 cm, 1.5 cm, 2 cm, 2.5 cm, 3 cm, 4 cm, and 5 cm. A distance of 1.9 cm was used for three electrodes as opposed to 2 cm to allow meshing with the electrodes close to the tumor border. The depths of insertion of the electrodes, as measured from the tumor's spherical hemiline to the bottom of the electrodes, were 0.5 cm, 1 cm, 1.25 cm, and 1.5 cm (Figure 1). In previous studies (data not shown), we tested shallower depths, but they had exorbitantly large V_{IREs} and thus were not included for these experiments.

The applied pulse duration was selected to be 20 μ s, which is at the lower end of the spectrum of pulse durations.³⁵ This minimizes computational time and would also be useful for minimizing tissue resistive heating, which is directly related to pulse duration. A shorter pulse was not selected also because there should be an adequate amount of time to charge the membrane for IRE to be effective, and the membrane has a charge time of about 1 μ s.³⁶ There has been no rigorous study as of yet examining the use of shorter versus longer pulses in the irreversible electroporation ablation of liver cancer cells as far as monitoring the size of the ablation zone. However, ultra-short pulses have been employed with very high electric fields (up to 300 kV/cm) to induce apoptosis by irreversibly electroporating inner organelles of the cell.³⁷

The volume of normal (non-cancerous) tissue that was irreversibly electroporated—the Volume of Ablated Normal Tissue (V_{ANT})—was calculated in COMSOL® by integrating the volume of normal liver tissue in the simulated environment at or above 680 V/cm. V_{IRE} and V_{ANT} were plotted versus distance at several depths, and some summary statistics were determined (mean, min, max).

Results

V_{IRE}

The V_{IRE} results for two, three, and four electrodes are graphically depicted in Figure 2 A-C. The highest V_{IRE} values consistently occur at the largest distances for all three sets of electrodes. The two electrode data show a parabolic minimum at a distance of 2 cm. We can observe two regions from the results in Figure 2A, the first where the electrodes

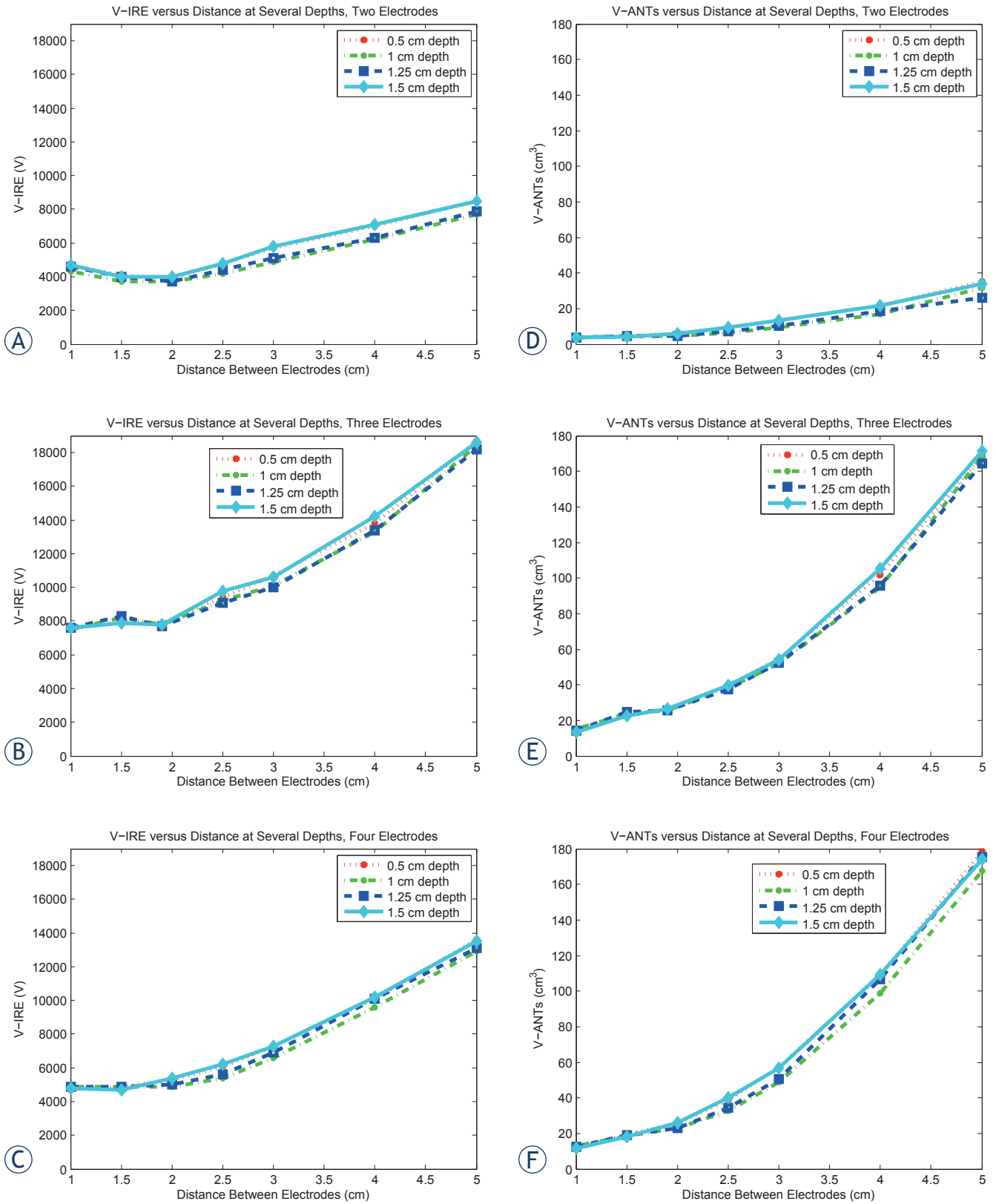


FIGURE 2 A-C. Graphical depiction of VIRE values upon distance at several depths. There appears to be a parabolic minima at 2 cm distance between the electrodes for the two electrode set, whereas the VIRE values for both three and four electrodes decrease linearly with the distance between the electrodes. D-F Graphical depiction of the dependence of the VANT values upon distance at several depths. The VANT values decrease with distance for all electrode setups. Two electrodes overall have the lowest VANT values, followed by four electrodes and then three electrodes.

TABLE 1: Summary statistics from the three V_{IRE} tables (V)

| Number of Electrodes | Minimum V_{IRE} | Mean V_{IRE} | Maximum V_{IRE} |
|---|-------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| Two | 3700 | 5296 | 8500 |
| Three | 7500 | 10761 | 18700 |
| Four | 4700 | 7279 | 13600 |
| summed V_{IRE} standard deviations while varying either distance or depth (V) | | | |
| Parameter varying | Two electrodes | Three electrodes | Four electrodes |
| Distance | 6343 | 16036 | 12873 |
| Depth | 2133 | 1616 | 1762 |

TABLE 2: Summary statistics from the three V_{ANT} tables (cm^3)

| Electrode # | Minimum | Mean | Maximum |
|---|----------------|------------------|-----------------|
| Two | 3.53 | 12.1 | 35.1 |
| Three | 13.2 | 60.5 | 171.3 |
| Four | 11.5 | 60.7 | 178.6 |
| summed V_{ANT} Standard Deviations while varying either Distance or Depth | | | |
| Parameter varying | Two electrodes | Three electrodes | Four electrodes |
| Distance | 41.2 | 221 | 236 |
| Depth | 11.4 | 12.5 | 20.0 |

are placed inside the tumor and the second where the electrodes are outside the tumor. The two-electrode data show a drop in the voltage as the distance increases from 1 cm, before it rises again near the tumor-tissue boarder at a distance of 2.5 cm. This behavior is observed for all electrode depths. The lowest V_{IRE} values occur at depths of 1 cm and 1.25 cm, which correspond to the center of the electrode overlapping with the center of the tumor. The higher V_{IRE} values generally occur at a depth of 1.5 cm and then 0.5 cm, indicating the highest V_{IRE} values are at the shallowest depth of insertion, and the deepest insertions (lower overlap) produce lower V_{IRE} values.

The lowest V_{IRE} values for three and four electrodes appear to occur at the shortest distances between the electrodes. However, the three-electrode configuration showed an increase in the voltage as the distance increased, before it dropped again near the tumor-tissue boarder. Again this observation is independent of the electrode depth.

For the four-electrode configuration, there was either no change in the voltage (with 1 cm and 1.25 cm depth), an increase (0.5 cm depth), or a

decrease in the voltage (with 1.5 cm depth) as a function of distance. When the electrodes were placed outside of the tumor, there was a monotonic increase in the required voltage for ablation as a function of distance for all of the electrode configurations and with all choices of depth. Overall, for all the different electrode configurations, there appears to be a smaller dependence of the V_{IRE} values upon the depth of electrode insertion as compared to the distance between electrodes.

To visualize the differing ablation zones for the different electrode configurations, we examined a cross section of the center of the tumor, demarcating regions that were greater than or equal to 680 V/cm for two, three, and four electrodes at a distance of 2.5 cm and a depth of 1 cm and plotted the ablation zones in Figure 3. Due to the asymmetric ablation shape with three-electrode configuration we tried moving the center of the electrode array and checked whether this would lower V_{IRE} and V_{ANT} (Figure 3D). In fact this, lowered V_{IRE} and V_{ANT} from 9200 V and 38.4 cm^3 to 4600 V and 16.3 cm^3 respectively when moving the center of the electrode array 1 cm to the right of the center of the tumor.

Summary statistics for V_{IRE} and influence of parameters (distance, depth) on V_{IRE}

Overall, the V_{IRE} values were lowest for two electrodes, followed by four electrodes and then three electrodes. Table 1 below shows some summary statistics concerning the three V_{IRE} tables as well as information about the influence of the different parameters upon the V_{IRE} . The minimum, mean, and maximum V_{IRE} were lowest for two electrodes followed by four electrodes and then three electrodes. The summed standard deviations for varying the distance were consistently greater for two, three, and four electrodes as compared to the summed standard deviations while varying the depth.

V_{ANT} results

The V_{ANT} results for two, three, and four electrodes are depicted in Figure 2 D-F. The V_{ANT} values increase monotonically with distance for all electrode configurations and show the same variation with depth of electrode insertion as with the V_{IRE} values where the depths of 1 cm and 1.25 cm consistently have the lower V_{ANT} values relative to depths of 0.5 cm and 1.5 cm. The two electrode setups have the lowest V_{ANT} values, followed by four electrodes and three electrodes. The summary statistics are shown for V_{ANT} values in Table 2. As with the V_{IRE} values, the summed standard deviations are greater, when varying distance as opposed to depth.

The best configuration for the a) two b) three and c) four electrode setups, as according the lowest V_{IRE} are: a) a distance of 2 cm and a depth of 1 cm ($V_{IRE} = 3700$ V) b) a distance of 1 cm and a depth of 1 cm ($V_{IRE} = 7500$ V) and c) a distance of 2 cm and a depth of 1 cm ($V_{IRE} = 4900$ V). The overall, global best choice for all electrode configurations was: the two-electrode configuration with a distance of 2 cm and a depth of 1 cm with $V_{IRE} = 3700$ V.

Discussion

The overall goal of our study was to find the optimal distance, depth, and number of electrodes for a simulated irreversible electroporation therapy of a subcutaneous HCC tumor. We systematically varied the distance and depth for three different sets of electrodes (two, three, and four electrodes) and looked at the outcome measures V_{IRE} and V_{ANT} . The currently used Angiodynamics™ system uses only two electrodes at a time, but our study helps explore the potential benefits of different electrode

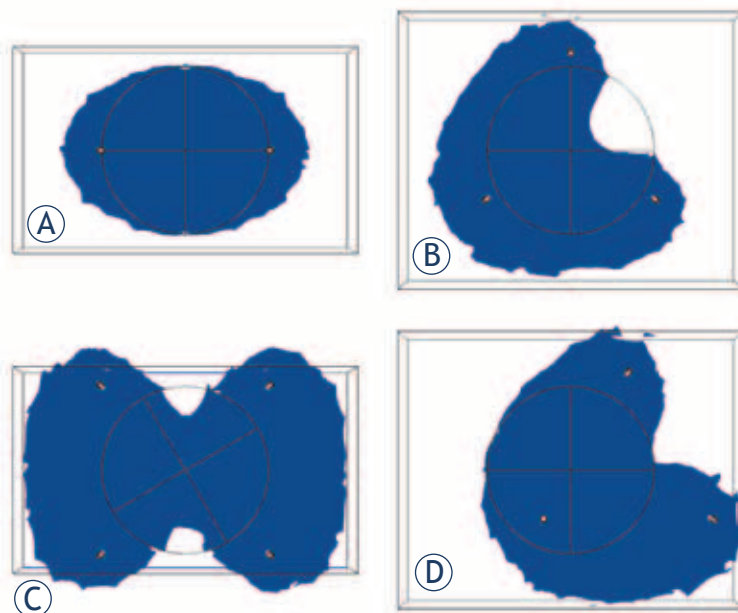


FIGURE 3. Cross section of the tumor (circle) and its ablation zone (blue) at an applied voltage of 5.05 kV, which corresponds to the V_{IRE} for two electrodes at a distance of 2.5 cm and depth of 1 cm for A) two electrodes B) three electrodes C) four electrodes D) three electrodes with the center of the electrodes shifted to the right 1 cm Note the asymmetry in B and the narrowing of the ablation zone in C. A bounding box around the tumor was used in the FEM simulations to improve the quality of the meshing and computations.

configuration patterns, particularly with the three electrode configurations.³⁵ Our study builds upon findings from Zupanic *et al.*¹⁶ in that we include the possibility of electrodes within the tumor in our 3D simulations, which is advantageous, because the electric fields are highest near the electrodes and rapidly drop off with distance (*i.e.*, the greatest amount of therapy occurs near the electrodes). It must be considered, however, that for some tumor cases it may not be possible to have the electrodes within the tumor.²²

In looking at V_{IRE} , two electrodes produced the lowest V_{IRE} at a value of 3700 V. It was unexpected that the two-electrode configuration produced the lowest outcome measure values (V_{IRE} and V_{ANT}) whereas the three electrode configurations produced the highest, and the four electrode configuration outcome measures were in the middle. We expected that the greater surface area provided by a higher number of electrodes would cause the four-electrode configuration to have the lowest V_{IRE} values. This observation could be explained by a number of factors that played a role in the simulated tumor ablation process: a) the number of electrodes clearly plays a role as exhibited in Figure 3 B) the high threshold of 95% tumor abla-

tion c) the symmetry of electrode positioning and d) the distribution of the electric fields between the electrodes that occurred in the study.

The number of electrodes alters the shape of the ablated zone, as exhibited in Figure 3 where we visualize the difference in the ablation zone for two, three, and four electrode setups at a distance of 2.5 cm and depth of 1 cm with the same voltage of 5050 V. For example, the two-electrode configuration in Figure 3A has an elliptic ablation shape while the three-electrode has the most asymmetric shape. Another factor to consider is the different rise in the conductivity of the tissue and tumor due to the different nonlinear response to the rise in the electric field. As the electrodes are placed outside and away from the tumor, the ablation shape has less effect as the whole tumor becomes more encompassed by the overall ablated zone, while the applied pulse has less effect on raising the tumor conductivity and more effect on raising the tissue conductivity.

The three-electrode configuration was the most asymmetric of the ones studied (relative to the tumor), as we used a symmetrical spherical tumor. Thus, it is reasonable to deduce that having an outcome whereby the tumor must be 95% ablated rather than 80% or 90% ablated can lead to using high voltages for configurations that use more than two electrodes. If one uses a threshold of 100% tumor ablation, the V_{IRE} values increase significantly. For example, the V_{IRE} becomes 4300 V instead of 3700 V for two electrodes with a distance of 2 cm and depth of 1 cm, and V_{IRE} becomes 16450 V instead of 4900 V for four electrodes with 2 cm distance and 1 cm depth. The asymmetric distribution of electrodes for three electrodes can more easily lead to incomplete tumor coverage (Figure 3B). This would explain why four electrodes, with greater symmetry of electrode patterning, would have lower outcome measures than that for three electrodes. The effect of moving the electrode center with respect to the tumor center in improving V_{IRE} and V_{ANT} make us consider this feature when searching for the optimum electrode position, especially for configurations that result in asymmetric ablation zones. We noted the appearance of slightly higher V_{IRE} values for three electrodes at 1.5 cm relative to the other nearby distances and reasoned that it may be caused by some effect due to both asymmetry and the nonlinear distribution of electric fields due to electrode positioning.

As for two electrodes versus four electrodes, we visualized the differing ablation zone shapes in Figure 3A,C. We saw that the four electrodes had

a narrowing of the ablation zone near the center of the tumor, which would account for the higher V_{IRE} values for the four electrodes as compared with the two electrodes. Also, the best choice for depth between 1 and 1.25 cm can be explained as more electrode surface area is facing the tumor with these depths. These findings suggest that clinicians applying IRE for subcutaneous tumors may find the use of two electrodes more beneficial. This information is also useful, because an increase in the number of electrodes can also lead to increased pain and discomfort for the patient and a greater risk of tumor seeding.^{38, 39}

The lowest V_{ANT} values occur roughly at the same distances and depths as the lowest V_{IRE} values. The monotonic increase in the V_{ANT} values as a function of distance is expected as more normal tissue volume experiences higher electric field intensities as the electrodes are placed further from the tumor. It is desirable in the application of IRE to minimize both the ablated normal tissue as well as the thermally ablated tissue, for the sake of preserving tissue structural elements (*e.g.*, extracellular matrix, blood vessels, *etc.*). There appears to be a curvilinear relationship between the V_{ANT} values and the distance between the electrodes, and thus clinicians should be careful to minimize the distance between the electrodes when applying the electric field across the tumor tissue to avoid the destruction of normal tissue.

We found that the distance between the electrodes held greater significance for determining what the optimal electrode configuration was, as compared with the depth of electrode insertion. This is apparent visually in Figure 2. Noting the greater influence of distance upon V_{IRE} and the volume of normal and thermally ablated tissue could allow for more leeway in the electrode positioning as far as the depth of electrode insertion as compared to the distance between electrodes. It appeared that the dependence of the outcome measures with depth was greater for two and four electrodes as compared with three electrodes. Also, it seemed that the optimal depth was to have the center of the electrodes inserted close to or deeper than the center of the tumor. This finding corroborates what Zupanic *et al.*¹⁶ However, we build upon Zupanic *et al.* in that we include configurations where the electrodes were inserted into the tumor, and we simulated a greater tumor size (Zupanic *et al.* used sizes: 2 mm, 4 mm, 8 mm radii).

It would be interesting to conduct similar studies with different tumor sizes and to explore the effects of tumor size on the results. However, a tumor

with a diameter of 2.5 cm is within the desired size range of <3.0 cm preferred by clinicians who apply the therapy⁴⁰, and it could be considered an average size.²⁷ Also, it may not be practical to record results for every feasible tumor size. However, these findings and similar studies, besides serving as a reference for clinicians, has the value of better informing the use of dedicated optimization algorithms. Rather than having one sole output from an optimization algorithm, one gains a better understanding of how the fitness function (V_{IRE}) changes over the parameter space. In other words, the plots of V_{IRE} over parameter space provide a better understanding of how the desired optimal value can vary with designated parameters. Thus, one can determine an optimization algorithm that best fits the fitness landscape, whether it is a gradient descent or genetic algorithm. Each algorithm has its strengths and weaknesses, and one could evaluate what the best optimization algorithm would be based upon these results. Also, by plotting the value of the objective function over the parameter space, one can know with greater certainty where the global minima versus local minima are. This is opposed to the use of an optimization method that would only output one or a limited number of values for the parameters, and one may not know if it is a local versus a global minima.

In the use of a dedicated optimization algorithm, it may be beneficial to relax the stringent standard of 95% ablation to 80-90% ablation to increase the diversity of potential solutions and utilize overlapping ablation zones. In clinical practice it may be better to attempt to ablate the tumor all at once to prevent future seeding. It would also be difficult to have overlapping IRE ablation zones due to the difficulty in visualizing the development of the ablation zone with high resolution in real time. Research in visualizing the ablation zone in real time has been done via electrical impedance tomography⁴¹, but significant advances must be made for this to become a reality. Some researchers have suggested that MRI may be a viable route for visualizing the ablation zone during IRE therapy.⁴²⁻⁴⁴

Limitations

The liver and tumor are assumed to be isotropic and homogenous. Future studies could also implement liver and tumor geometries from medical images. We do not account for the dependence of permeabilization on cell size, shape, and interaction with surroundings.³¹ Also, we did not study different electrode pulse sequence patterns or shapes,

which can have a significant impact on the efficacy of the therapy.⁴⁵ If electrode sequence activation patterns had been used, the four-electrode configurations could have been more efficacious, due to improved tumor coverage.⁴⁶ Adjustments of the voltage to reach V_{IRE} were done in increments of 50 V, and thus there is the possibility that some of the measurements were overestimated. Also, although we thought V_{IRE} to occur at 680 V/cm, it is possible that it occurs at a different cutoff value. However, the results would be expected to scale accordingly with a higher or lower threshold value for V_{IRE} .

The voltage amplitudes recorded from the study are higher than the maximum voltage supplied by NanoKnife (3000 V)³⁵, but the information gleaned from the efficacy of different positions would still be useful to clinicians, and hopefully as technology improves, the observed voltages would become more feasible. Our optimum electrode position with two electrodes and a distance of 2.5 cm and 1 cm depth would ablate 82% of the tumor at the maximum system voltage of 3000 V (data not shown). It would also be useful to know thermal information about the electrode configurations used, but IRE pulse sequences use somewhere on the order of 90-100 pulses⁴⁷, which would be impractical to examine for each electrode configuration with current computational capabilities.

Conclusion

We demonstrated that the optimal electrode configuration for applying IRE therapy for the ablation of HCC tumors could be determined using numerical modeling. We determined that it may be better to use two electrodes rather than three or four electrodes and that it is more important to be mindful of the distance between the electrodes rather than the depth of insertion of the electrodes to minimize the thermally ablated volume of tissue and the affected normal tissue. All of this information could serve as useful guidelines for physicians attempting to employ irreversible electroporation for the treatment of liver cancers. Although the model parameters we employed were specifically for liver cancer, the findings could be similar for other types of cancer e.g. kidney, breast, lung, etc. Our results corroborated previous findings that the distribution of the electric field in the tissue is highly dependent upon the electrode configuration, and future studies could further explore different electrode configurations with patient-generated tumor geometries and tissue properties.

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Improved survival after introduction of chemotherapy for malignant pleural mesothelioma in Slovenia: Population-based survey of 444 patients

Viljem Kovac¹, Matjaz Zwitter¹, Tina Zagar²

¹ Department of Radiotherapy, ² Cancer Registry of Republic of Slovenia, Institute of Oncology, Ljubljana, Slovenia

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Correspondence to: Viljem Kovač, MD, PhD, Institute of Oncology, Zaloška 2, 1000 Ljubljana, Slovenia. Phone: +386 1 5879 504; Fax: +386 1 5879 400; E-mail: vkovac@onko-i.si

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Background. Malignant pleural mesothelioma is a rare tumour with increasing frequency throughout the world. Due to long latency after exposure to asbestos, restrictions in the production and use of asbestos have not yet alleviated the burden of mesothelioma. During the last decade, several trials confirmed the benefit of systemic treatment with drugs such as doublets with cisplatin and gemcitabine or pemetrexed for carefully selected patients in good performance status. The purpose of this survey was to assess the impact of systemic treatment for the whole national population of patients with mesothelioma.

Patients and methods. A retrospective study included all patients in Slovenia with histologically confirmed diagnosis of malignant pleural mesothelioma in the period from 1974 till 2008. Data from the Cancer Registry of Slovenia were supplemented by review of clinical records of the Institute of Oncology in Ljubljana where virtually all non-surgical treatment for mesothelioma was performed. We analysed the incidence, treatment, and survival of patients treated in the era of infrequent chemotherapy (1974-2003, the first period) and after it (2004-2008, the second period).

Results. The survey included 444 patients, of whom 325 and 119 were diagnosed in the first and second period, respectively. Joinpoint regression analysis showed that after 1995 the trend in crude incidence rates increased more rapidly; the annual change was 0.03 per 100,000 per year before 1995 and 0.06 per 100,000 per year after. There was clear male predominance (70%) throughout the period covered by the survey. The proportion of patients above 65 years of age increased from 41.8% to 54.6% for the first and second period, respectively ($p = 0.02$). With a total of 52 (11.7%) operated patients, surgical treatment was rare and used only for selected patients with early disease and without comorbidity, leading to their relatively long median survival of 13.6 months. Chemotherapy was applied to 56 (17.2%) and to 96 (80.7%) patients during the first and second period, respectively. While a variety of older drugs were used in the first period, the most common regimen in the second period (applied to 91 patients) was doublet of low-dose gemcitabine in prolonged infusion and cisplatin. For the whole population of patients regardless the mode of treatment, median survival was 7.4 and 12.6 months (p -value = 0.037) for the first and second period, respectively.

Conclusions. Increasing incidence, male predominance and increased proportion of older patients confirm that the burden of mesothelioma persists in spite of a 15-years old ban in the production of asbestos. Modern chemotherapy, and in particular treatment with low-dose gemcitabine in prolonged infusion and cisplatin significantly prolonged median survival of patients with malignant pleural mesothelioma in Slovenia.

Key words: malignant pleural mesothelioma; incidence; survival; chemotherapy; gemcitabine in prolonged infusion

Introduction

Malignant pleural mesothelioma (MPM) is a rare and highly aggressive tumour arising from mesothelial surfaces of pleura.^{1,2}

After recognizing asbestos as the most important factor in the pathogenesis of mesothelioma, the production and use of asbestos were banned in most developed countries. However, due to the long latent period between exposure to asbestos and the development of the disease, the incidence of mesothelioma is expected to increase for at least another decade. Since the risk for development of mesothelioma persists for several decades after professional or environmental exposure, the burden of the disease will shift to the older population.²⁻⁶

In spite of all efforts to find an effective treatment, the prognosis of mesothelioma remains poor and over 90% of patients die from the disease.⁷ For the few patients in good performance status, without significant co-morbidity and with apparently limited disease, magnetic resonance (MR) and positron emission tomography-computerised tomography (PET-CT) are helpful in selecting patients with early stages for surgery and/or multimodality therapy with curative intent.⁸⁻¹² However, even most aggressive treatment rarely leads to cure. In several series of early-stage mesothelioma treated with multi-modality approach including surgery, median survival rarely exceeds two years. The optimal selection of the surgical procedure remains to be defined and the standard treatment for early stage of MPM remains unclear.¹²⁻¹⁵

At the time of diagnosis, most patients have advanced disease. In this situation, systemic treatment is the only modality with a potential to influence survival. Due to scepticism regarding clinical benefit of chemotherapy for patients with mesothelioma, a randomised clinical study was conducted in England, comparing chemotherapy with navelbine to best supportive care alone. While the trial did not confirm a statistical significant difference, it did show a clear trend for an improved survival for patients treated with chemotherapy, in comparison to the control arm.¹⁶

During the past 15 years, dozens of trials of chemotherapy for patients with mesothelioma have been reported. Since all these trials were performed on selected populations of patients and none of them included a control arm without chemotherapy, the real value of chemotherapy remains unknown. This is especially true for patients in poor performance status or with significant co-morbidity who are not eligible for large multi-center clinical trials.¹⁷

In Slovenia, we had two distinct periods of treatment of mesothelioma. Until 2003, occasional patients with early disease were treated with surgery, some patients received palliative irradiation, and very few patients received any form of systemic treatment. In 2003, we activated a Phase II clinical trial of low-dose gemcitabine in prolonged infusion and cisplatin.¹⁸ Due to the national policy of referral of all patients with mesothelioma to the Institute of Oncology Ljubljana, virtually all patients with mesothelioma eligible for treatment with platin-based chemotherapy were included in the trial.

So far, we found only one population-based report, which has been published to prove that chemotherapy can improve survival for patients with mesothelioma.¹⁹ We therefore did the following survey, aiming to evaluate the role of chemotherapy for pleural mesothelioma on a population basis in Slovenia.

Patients and methods

The survey included all patients with permanent residence in Slovenia with a diagnosis of malignant pleural mesothelioma in the period from 1974 till 2008 and reported to the Cancer Registry of Republic of Slovenia. Data were derived from individual hospital reports to the Cancer Registry. For patients who received any form of specific anti-cancer treatment, additional data were obtained from the clinical documentation of the Institute of Oncology Ljubljana. Eligible patients had biopsy-proven malignant mesothelioma regardless the histologic subtype. Almost all patients had thoracoscopy or CT-guided biopsy as well as US-guided needle biopsy.^{18,20,21} Stage of disease was not consistently recorded in the clinical documentation and was therefore omitted from the analysis. Data on surgery and on the type of chemotherapy were recorded. During the period covered by the survey, radiotherapy was exclusively applied for palliation, using a wide spectrum of fractionation schedules. Since palliative radiotherapy does not influence survival, data on radiotherapy were not included in the analysis.

The two periods of treatment were defined as the era of infrequent chemotherapy (1974-2003) and of frequent use of chemotherapy (2004-2008). These were further divided into 5-year periods. December 1, 2011 was the close-out date for data collection.

Overall survival time was calculated from the day of diagnosis to the death from all causes or

TABLE 1. Demographic data for malignant pleural mesothelioma, Slovenia 1974-2008

| | 1974-2003 | 2004-2008 | Total |
|---------------------------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|
| Males: number (%) | 223 (68.6%) | 91 (76.5%) | 314 (70.7%) |
| Females: number (%) | 102 (31.4%) | 28 (23.5%) | 130 (29.3%) |
| Age: range (mean) | 22-89 (61.7) | 33-87 (64.4)* | 22-89 (62.4) |
| Age above 65: number (%) | 136 (41.8%) | 65 (54.6%) | 201 (45.3%) |
| Total | 325 | 119 | 444 |

*p = 0.021

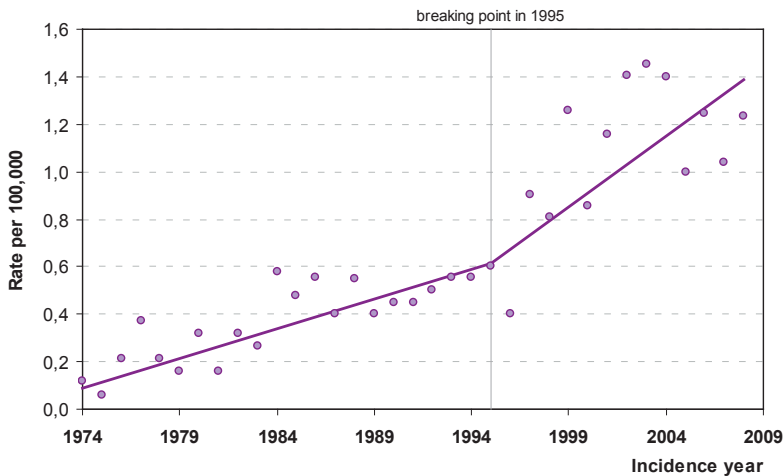


FIGURE 1. The crude incidence rates of patients with malignant pleural mesothelioma with results of trend analysis, Slovenia 1974-2008.

when censored. Kaplan-Meier method was used for estimation of survival and log-rank test was used to compare survival distributions between samples. A p-value lower than 0.05 was considered statistically significant. The data were analysed using SPSS statistical package (Release 13.0, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL).

The investigators strictly followed recommendations of the Helsinki Declaration (1964, with later amendments) and of the European Council Convention on Protection of Human Rights in Bio-Medicine (Oviedo 1997).

To assess trend in cancer rates, joinpoint regression analysis²² was performed with software Joinpoint Regression Program, Version 3.0.

Results

Patients

The survey included 444 patients, of whom 325 had the diagnosis of malignant pleural mesothelioma in the first period (January 1974 – December

2003) and 119 in the second period (January 2004 – December 2008). The incidence increased throughout the analyzed time period (Figure 1, Table 1). Joinpoint regression analysis showed that after 1995, the trend in crude incidence rates increased more rapidly. The annual change in crude rates was 0.03 per 100,000 per year for the 1974-1995 period and 0.06 per 100,000 per year for the 1995-2008 period. Both regression slopes and the difference between the slopes are statistically significant with p-values smaller than 0.05 (Figure 1).

Demographic data are presented in Table 1. Male predominance was obvious (70.7%). Difference in gender distribution in two periods 1974-2003 and 2004-2008 was not statistically significant (Pearson Chi-Square test gives p-value of 0.107). However, the mean age was statistically significant different between the two time periods (t-test gave p-value of 0.021, normal distribution for age was confirmed by Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test). Furthermore, the proportion of patients over 65 years of age at the date of diagnosis increased from 41.8% for the first half of the survey period to 54.6% for the later years.

Surgery was rarely used, except for one of the 5-year periods (1999-2003) when the surgical procedures were more frequent (Figure 2).

Fifty-six (17.2%) patients were treated by systemic therapy in the 1974-2003 period and 96 (80.7%) in the years 2004-2008 (Table 2, Figure 2). Two hundreds and sixty-two patients were treated neither by systemic therapy nor by surgery, while 22 patients were treated by both.

The choice of chemotherapy clearly depended on the period. Prior to 2003, only rare patients in unusually good performance status received mono-therapy or doublets with older drugs (cisplatin, doxorubicin, methotrexate, etoposide, or interferon). Exception was 5-year period 1999-2003, when we began with clinical trial and the first 10 patients were treated with a new approach. In the second

TABLE 2. Number of newly diagnosed malignant pleural mesothelioma cases, number of patients treated by chemotherapy and by surgery, Slovenia 1974-2008

| | No. of new cases | No. of treated by systemic therapy (%) | No. of treated by surgery (%) |
|--------------|------------------|--|-------------------------------|
| 1974-1978 | 18 | 6 (33.3%) | 1 (5.6%) |
| 1979-1983 | 23 | 4 (17.4%) | 4 (17.4%) |
| 1984-1988 | 50 | 1 (2.0%) | 6 (12.0%) |
| 1989-1993 | 47 | 2 (4.3%) | 2 (4.3%) |
| 1994-1998 | 65 | 4 (6.2%) | 6 (9.2%) |
| 1999-2003 | 122 | 39 (32.0%) | 25 (20.5%) |
| 2004-2008 | 119 | 96 (80.7%) | 8 (6.7%) |
| Total | 444 | 152 (34.2%) | 52 (11.7%) |

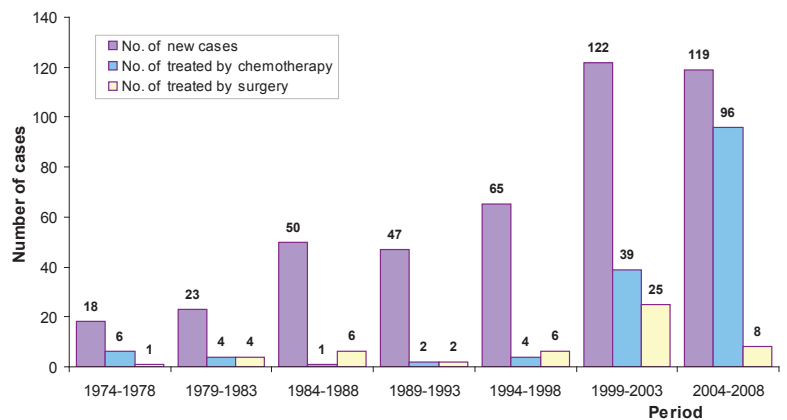
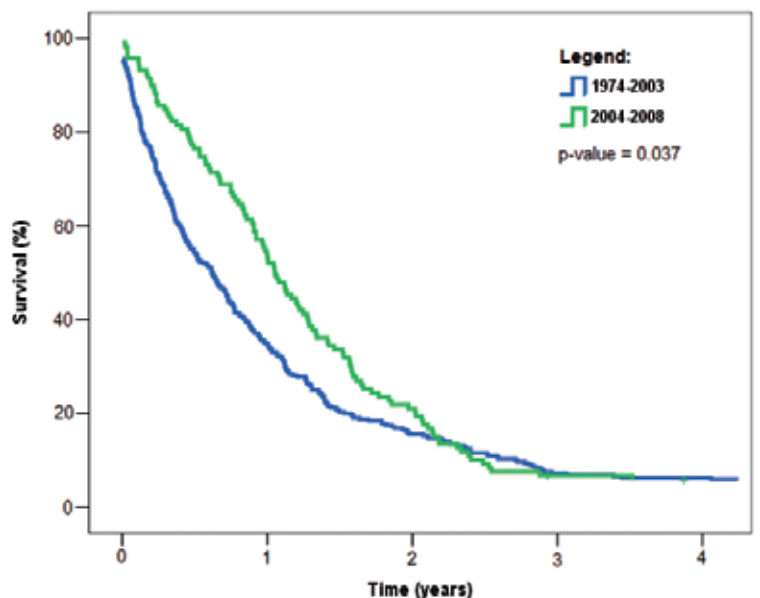
period, after 2003, 68 patients were enrolled in a Phase II clinical trial and received the doublet of low-dose gemcitabine in prolonged infusion (250 mg/m²/6 hours on days 1 and 8) and cisplatin (75 mg/m² on day 2). The similar schedule of treatment was given to 4 patients in another clinical trial Agili. Additional, 19 patients with impaired organ function or in poor performance status who did not meet the eligibility criteria for the trial received a modified treatment schedule. For these poor-risk patients, we usually applied gemcitabine at even a lower dose of 200 mg/m²/6 hours and either cisplatin at 60 mg/m² or carboplatin at AUC 5 and omitted gemcitabine on day 8 of a 3-weekly cycle. Finally, 5 patients treated in the last 5 year of survey received other forms of the first line chemotherapy, the doublet of pemetrexed and cisplatin.

Overall survival

Median survival increased from 7.4 months (95% confidence interval [CI] was 5.9-23.8) for the period of 1974-2003 to 12.6 months (95% CI 10.7-14.5) for the period 2004-2008. The difference between the two periods was statistically significant ($p = 0.037$) (Figure 3).

Regarding surgery, the median survival for surgical patients was 13.6 months (95% CI 10.6-16.7), as compared to 8.4 months (95% CI 7.0-9.9) for non-surgical patients ($p = 0.000$; Figure 4).

Patients treated by systemic therapy had significantly longer survival than those who did not receive chemotherapy. Median survival times for patients who did receive or did not receive chemotherapy were 14.5 months (95% CI 11.4-15.8) and 5.6 months (95% CI 3.9-7.3), respectively ($p = 0.000$; Figure 5).

**FIGURE 2.** Number of newly diagnosed malignant pleural mesothelioma cases, number of patients treated by chemotherapy and by surgery, Slovenia 1974-2008.**FIGURE 3.** Overall survival of Slovenian patients with malignant pleural mesothelioma by two time periods, 1974-2003 and 2004-2008. P-value refers to log-rank test used to compare survival distributions in the two periods.

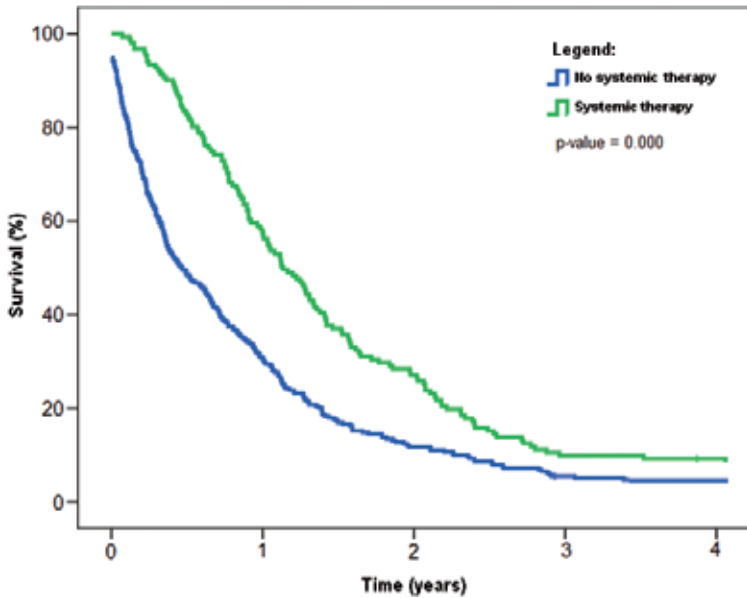


FIGURE 4. Overall survival of patients with malignant pleural mesothelioma with respect to surgery, Slovenia 1974-2008. P-value refers to log-rank test used to compare survival distributions between the two data samples.

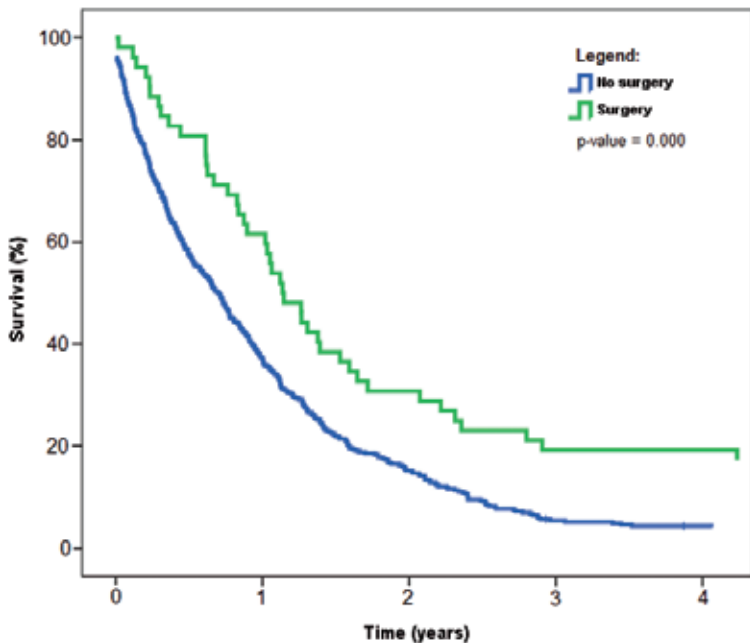


FIGURE 5. Overall survival of patients with malignant pleural mesothelioma with respect to systemic therapy, Slovenia 1974-2008. P-value refers to log-rank test used to compare survival distributions between the two data samples.

Discussion

Our survey is the first one, worldwide, to confirmed that systematic introduction of chemotherapy leads to longer survival for the national

population of patients with malignant pleural mesothelioma. The whole unselected population as the basis of our survey confirms the validity of the data and makes our survey distinct to reports on clinical trials which typically include only patients in good performance status and without significant co-morbidity.

Slovenia has the privilege of an excellent national cancer registry with a long tradition covering more than 60 years. Moreover, the country is compact, national health policy is well defined, migration of the population is relatively limited, and vital national statistics are complete and reliable. These circumstances further support the validity of the data presented in this survey.

In spite of a ban in the production and use of asbestos implemented in 1996, the incidence of mesothelioma in Slovenia is still rising. Joinpoint regression analysis showed that after 1995 the trend in crude incidence rates increased more rapidly (Figure 1). While better diagnostic possibilities in recent years might contribute to the observation of the rising incidence, we nevertheless believe that the data reflect a real persistent and increasing risk for the disease. Furthermore, our data support the concept of a long latency period between exposure to asbestos and development of mesothelioma. In this respect, we see a persistent and markedly increased risk in the local communities at close proximity to the former asbestos factory.¹⁸ Also notable is an increasing proportion of elderly patients with mesothelioma and clear male predominance in recent cohorts covered by our survey. At 73 years after the beginning of production of asbestos in Slovenia and 15 years after the facility closed its production of asbestos, these observations additionally indicate that the latency period from the exposure to asbestos to the development of disease is really long.

The other putative aetiological factor, Semian virus 40, was not implicated in pathogenesis of malignant pleural mesothelioma in Slovenia.^{23,24}

So far, all efforts to implement screening and early diagnosis of mesothelioma for the high-risk populations have failed, or are still in the investigative phase.² Our survey proves that very few patients are diagnosed at an early stage when multi-modality treatment with a curative intent is a realistic option. We believe that carefully selected patients do benefit from surgery; indeed, patients treated with surgery had significantly better survival than those who were not operated (p -value = 0.000) (Figure 4). In the interpretation of these data, one should consider that the surgical patients are usually those with good prognostic factors: good performance

TABLE 3. Effectiveness of different chemotherapy schemes in the treatment of the patients with malignant pleural mesothelioma

| Trial | Phase of study | Drugs | N | RR, % | MOS, months | MPFS, months | 1-year survival, % |
|---|----------------|---|-----|-------|-------------|--------------|--------------------|
| Byrne MJ <i>et al.</i> ³⁰ , 1999 | Phase II | Gemcitabine + cisplatin | 21 | 48 | 10.0 | NA | NA |
| Aversa SM <i>et Favaretto AG</i> ³¹ , 1999 | Phase II | Gemcitabine + carboplatin | 20 | 20 | NA | 4-21 | NA |
| van Haarst JMW <i>et al.</i> ³² , 2002 | Phase II | Gemcitabine + cisplatin | 32 | 16 | 9.6 | 6.0 | 36 |
| Nowak AK <i>et al.</i> ³³ , 2002 | Phase II | Gemcitabine + cisplatin | 52 | 17 | 11.2 | 6.4 | NA |
| Mikulski SM <i>et al.</i> ³⁴ , 2002 | Phase II | Ranpirnase | 105 | 5 | 8.3 | 3.4 | 34 |
| Vogelzang NJ <i>et al.</i> ²⁸ , 2003 | Phase III | Pemetrexed + cisplatin | 226 | 41 | 12.1 | 5.7 | 50 |
| | | cisplatin | 222 | 17 | 9.3 | 3.9 | 38 |
| Favaretto AG <i>et al.</i> ³⁵ , 2003 | Phase II | Gemcitabine + carboplatin | 50 | 26 | 14.7 | 8.9 | 53 |
| Andreopoulou E <i>et al.</i> ³⁶ , 2004 | Phase II | Mitomycin C + vinblastine + cisplatin | 150 | 15 | 7.0 | NA | 31 |
| van Meerbeeck JP <i>et al.</i> ³⁷ , 2005 | Phase III | Raltitrexed + cisplatin | 126 | 24 | 11.4 | 5.3 | 46 |
| | | cisplatin | 124 | 14 | 8.8 | 4.0 | 40 |
| Castagneto B <i>et al.</i> ³⁸ , 2005 | Phase II | Gemcitabine + cisplatin | 35 | 26 | 13.0 | 8.0 | NA |
| Berghmans T <i>et al.</i> ³⁹ , 2005 | Phase II | Epirubicin + cisplatin | 69 | 19 | 13.3 | NA | 50 |
| Jänne PA <i>et al.</i> ⁴⁰ , 2005 | Phase II | Pemetrexed+gemcitabine | 108 | 17 | 10.1 | 7.4 | 46 |
| Ceresoli GL <i>et al.</i> ⁴¹ , 2006 | Phase II | Pemetrexed + carboplatin | 102 | 19 | 12.7 | 6.5 | 52 |
| Obasaju CK <i>et al.</i> ⁴² , 2007 | Phase IV (EAP) | Pemetrexed + cisplatin | 728 | 21 | 10.8 | NA | 45 |
| Santoro A <i>et al.</i> ⁴³ , 2007 | Phase IV (EAP) | Pemetrexed + cisplatin or carboplatin | 861 | 22 | NA | NA | 64 |
| Castagneto B <i>et al.</i> ⁴⁴ , 2008 | Phase II | Pemetrexed + carboplatin | 76 | 25 | 14.0 | NA | NA |
| Kalmadi SR <i>et al.</i> ⁴⁵ , 2008 | Phase II | Gemcitabine + cisplatin | 50 | 12 | 10.0 | 6.0 | 30 |
| Hillerdal G <i>et al.</i> ⁴⁶ , 2008 | Phase II | Gemcitabine + carboplatin + liposomized doxorubicin | 173 | 32 | 13.0 | 8.6 | NA |
| Sørensen JB <i>et al.</i> ⁴⁷ , 2008 | Phase II | Vinorelbin + cisplatin | 54 | 30 | 16.8 | 7.2 | 61 |
| | | Vinorelbin | 136 | 16 | 9.5 | 6.2 | 34 |
| Muers M <i>et al.</i> ¹⁶ , 2008 | Phase III | Mitomycin + vinblastine + cisplatin | 132 | 10 | 7.6 | 5.6 | 31 |
| Ralli M <i>et al.</i> ⁴⁸ , 2009 | Phase II | Docetaxel + gemcitabine | 25 | 28 | 15.0 | 7.0 | NA |
| Sørensen JB <i>et al.</i> ⁴⁹ , 2011 | Phase II | Vinorelbin + carboplatin | 47 | 30 | 14.6 | 7.2 | 55 |
| Kovac V <i>et al.</i> ¹⁸ , 2012 | Phase II | Gemcitabine* + cisplatin | 78 | 50 | 17.0 | 8.0 | 67 |

N = number of patients included in the trial; RR = response rate; MOS = median overall survival; MPFS = median progression-free survival, NA = not available; EAP = expanded access program

* applied in low dose in 6-hours infusion

status, low comorbidity, low stage of disease, low weight loss and epitheloid subtype of mesothelioma.^{18,20,25,26} A bias in the selection for surgery precludes any comparison to other patients.^{18,20}

Our survey revealed a statistically superior survival for patients treated after 2004 when we introduced chemotherapy as a standard treatment modality for mesothelioma. Regarding this finding, two possible factors leading to a bias should be discussed. The first one is earlier diagnosis in recent cohorts of patients. This seems unlikely, since there was no program for early diagnostics of mesothelioma and since the number of patients with early operable stages remained constantly low. The second possible bias is improved supportive care

in recent years. While this possibility cannot be entirely rejected²⁷, we believe that better supportive care alone cannot be responsible for a prolongation of the median survival for more than 5 months. Hence, it seems reasonable to link improved survival to the new treatment policy and to introduction of chemotherapy.

After the trial conducted in England and discussed in the introduction¹⁶ and after our survey¹⁸, the question of benefit of chemotherapy for most patients with mesothelioma appears to be solved. However, the choice of a particular chemotherapeutic schedule is a distinct question. The three parameters determining the choice are efficacy; side effects, quality of life and convenience for the pa-

tients; and costs. We will first discuss the published experience with other scheduled of chemotherapy and later return to low-dose gemcitabine in prolonged infusion and cisplatin as our preferred combination during the last five years of our survey.

In 2003, Vogelzang published experience from a landmark trial which compared pemetrexed and cisplatin against monotherapy with cisplatin and demonstrated a statistically significant advantage for the doublet.²⁸ On the basis of this trial, pemetrexed was the first drug to be specifically registered for the treatment of mesothelioma, leading to its wide acceptance as the standard treatment. A critical look reveals that the superiority of pemetrexed may be attributable to suboptimal control arm: cisplatin alone is was never the standard treatment for mesothelioma, and certainly not at the turn of the century when several other drugs and their combinations were available. In that period, the doublet of gemcitabine and cisplatin or carboplatin was the most widely used systemic treatment for mesothelioma patients.²⁹ Pooled data of 7 studies lead to an estimated median survival of 11.7 months, which is comparable with median survival of 12.1 months in pemetrexed study.^{18,28} A large spectrum of other combinations from various Phase II clinical trials reported results which are at least comparable to the doublet of pemetrexed and cisplatin, and superior to cisplatin alone (Table 3).

Superior survival of the national pool of patients with mesothelioma during the last five years of our survey should be attributable to low-dose gemcitabine in prolonged infusion and cisplatin as our preferred combination. On the basis of a favourable experience in several trials for non-small cell lung cancer⁵⁰⁻⁵², we decided to use this combination also for patients with mesothelioma and included 78 patients in a Phase II clinical trial (10 patients in the 5-year period 1999-2003 and 68 patients in the 5-year period 2004-2008).¹⁸ In the last 5-year period, additional 19 patients in poor performance status or with organ dysfunction who were not eligible for the aforementioned trials received a less intensive modification of the same schedule. After completing a Phase II trial for mesothelioma, our research continues with an on-going randomised Phase II trial which compares this combination to the doublet of pemetrexed and cisplatin (Alimta vs. Gemcitabin In Long Infusion – AGILI trial).⁵³

During the last 5 years of the survey, treatment with low-dose gemcitabine in long infusion and cisplatin was applied to a total of 91 patients. This figure represents 94.8% of the total number of patients who received any form of chemotherapy and 76.5%

of the total number of patients with mesothelioma during this period (91 out of 119). Future clinical research on mesothelioma should address several important questions. One of them is to compare different chemotherapy schedules for their efficacy and tolerability, a question already addressed in our on-going AGILI trial.⁵³ The second one is the question of maintenance treatment. This concept got wide acceptance in the treatment of advanced non-small cell lung cancer.^{54,55} Regarding mesothelioma, several trials (including our Phase II trial of low-dose gemcitabine in prolonged infusion and cisplatin) showed that patients who responded to first-line treatment have fair chances to benefit either from re-induction of the same treatment, or from a different combination of drugs.^{18,56,57} Finally, research should focus on genetic polymorphisms which influence DNA damage⁵⁸, leading to individualised systemic treatment. A key issue in the development of individualized therapy is identification of biomarkers to predict chemotherapeutics' efficacy and toxicity.^{59,60} Thus, our research on patients with mesothelioma confirmed that the nucleotide excision repair (NER) pathway polymorphisms influence platinum-treatment efficacy and toxicity²⁶ and that ribonucleotide reductase subunit 1 (RRM1) polymorphisms as well as haplotypes are associated with gemcitabine treatment efficacy and toxicity.⁶⁰

In conclusion, our survey showed superior survival of patients with mesothelioma during the last five years when a new national policy was implemented and virtually all eligible patients received chemotherapy. Our success should be attributable to our preferred schedule of low-dose gemcitabine in prolonged infusion which proved to be effective, with acceptable toxicity also for patients in poor performance status, and linked to reasonable costs.

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Long term outcome after combined modality treatment for anal cancer

Irena Oblak, Primož Petric, Franc Anderluh, Vaneja Velenik, Peter Albert Fras

Department of Radiotherapy, Institute of Oncology Ljubljana, Ljubljana, Slovenia

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Correspondence to: doc. dr. Oblak Irena, MD, PhD, Department of Radiology, Institute of Oncology Ljubljana, Zaloška 2, 1000 Ljubljana, Slovenia. Phone: +386 1 5879 293; Fax: +386 1 5879 304; E-mail: ioblak@onko-i.si

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Background. The aim of the retrospective study was to evaluate the effectiveness and toxicity of radiochemotherapy in patients with squamous cell carcinoma of the anal canal treated at a single institution.

Patients and methods. Between 1/2003 and 9/2010, 84 patients were treated with radical radiochemotherapy at the Institute of Oncology Ljubljana, Slovenia. The treatment consisted of 3-dimensional conformal external beam radiotherapy with concurrent chemotherapy (5-fluorouracil and mytomycin C), followed by brachytherapy or external beam boost. The toxicity of therapy and its effectiveness were assessed.

Results. The treatment was completed according to the protocol in 79.8% of patients. The median follow-up time of 55 survivors was 53 months (range: 16-105 months). The 5-year locoregional control (LRC), disease-free survival (DFS), disease-specific survival (DSS), overall survival (OS) and colostomy-free survival (CFS) rates were 71%, 68%, 81%, 67% and 85%, respectively. No treatment-related mortality was observed. The most frequent acute side-effect of the treatment was radiodermatitis (grade 3-4 in 58.2% of patients). LENT-SOMA grade 3-4 late radiation side effects were observed in 15 (18%) patients. In patients with brachytherapy boost a trend of less late side effects was observed compared to patients with external beam boost ($P=0.066$). On multivariate analysis, complete clinical disease response was identified as an independent prognostic factor for LRC, DFS and DSS, the salvage surgery for LRC and DFS, whereas Hb below 120 g/l retained its independent prognostic value for OS.

Conclusions. Radiochemotherapy provides an excellent disease control and the survival with preserving anal sphincter function in majority of patients. Surgical salvage with abdominoperineal resection for persistent or recurrent disease has curative potential.

Key words: anal cancer; radiochemotherapy; salvage surgery; outcome

Introduction

Anal cancer is a relatively rare tumour, representing 2-4% of all cancers of colorectum and anus.¹ Women are more often affected than men. During the past decades, the incidence in developing countries has increased, mostly in young homosexual men, perhaps due to sexual transmission of human papilloma virus (HPV) and human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), which are known causal factors in this and other cancers.^{1,2} Anal cancer is predominantly a locoregional disease and distant metastases are found in 5-10% of the patients.^{1,3-8}

Following publications on organ preserving treatment in the eighties⁹, the treatment paradigm has shifted from abdomino-perineal resection (APE) with permanent colostomy to radical radiochemotherapy, resulting in sphincter preservation rates of around 80%, even in cases with locally advanced disease. Surgery is indicated only in cases of residual or recurrent tumour and for complications of radiotherapy.^{1,10}

Numerous trials have demonstrated complete response rates of 80-90%, with high local control, survival and sphincter preservation rates following radical radiochemotherapy.^{3,10-12} The purpose

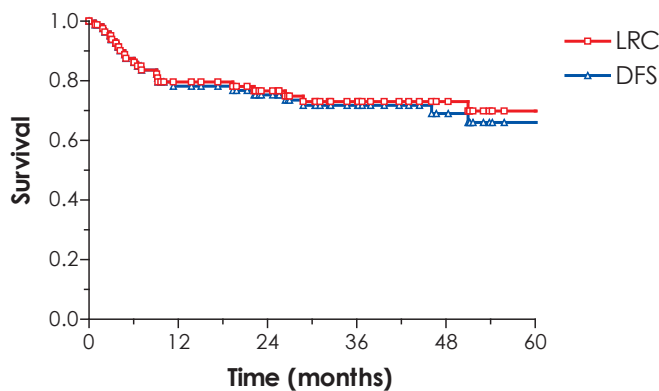


FIGURE 1. Locoregional control (LRC) and disease-free survival (DFS).

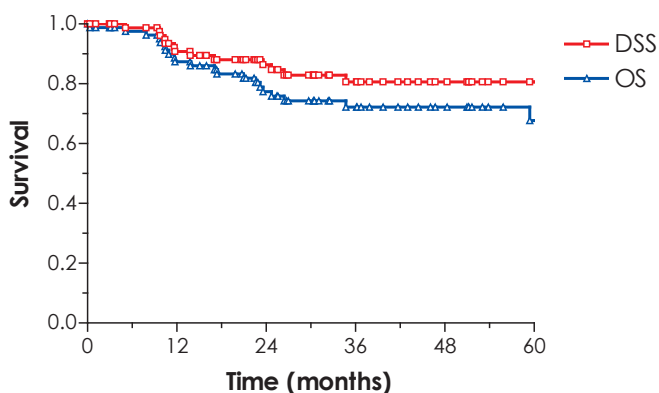


FIGURE 2. Disease-specific survival (DSS) and overall survival (OS).

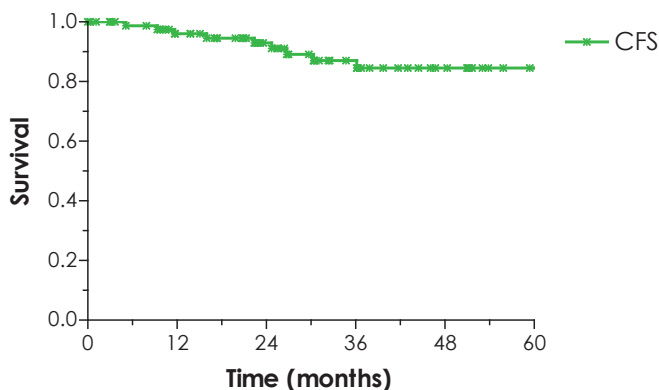


FIGURE 3. Colostomy-free survival (CFS).

of our retrospective study was to evaluate the effectiveness and toxicity of radiochemotherapy in a single-centre prospective cohort of patients with squamous cell carcinoma of the anal canal.

Patients and methods

Patients and tumour characteristics

Eighty-six patients with biopsy proven cancer of the anal canal were treated at the Institute of Oncology Ljubljana between January 2003 and September 2010. Two patients with distant metastases were treated with palliative intent and were excluded from present analysis. The remaining 84 patients (48 females and 36 males) were treated with curative intent. Mean age was 63 years (range: 34-87 years). According to the UICC TNM staging criteria, 6 (7.1%) patients had stage I, 48 (57.1%) stage II, 14 (16.7%) stage IIIA and 16 (19%) stage IIIB disease.¹³

Investigations before and during therapy

The multidisciplinary approach is the policy of treatment for all cancer patients at the Institute of Oncology Ljubljana¹⁴; therefore, all patients were presented to a multidisciplinary advisory team, consisting of a surgeon, radiation oncologist and medical oncologist, in order to assess the prospects of the treatment. All patients underwent a general clinical examination, blood tests, chest radiography and abdominopelvic computed tomography (CT). Locoregional extent of the disease was evaluated with anorectal examination (performed by a surgeon and a radiation oncologist), rectoscopy, endoscopic ultrasound (US) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) of the pelvis. In cases, suspicious for inguinal lymph node involvement, fine needle aspiration biopsy was performed. Detailed pre-treatment clinical drawings and photographs were taken and tumour borders tattooed on perianal skin for the purpose of brachytherapy (BT) treatment planning.

During the treatment, weekly clinical examination and blood tests were performed. The acute treatment related toxicity was assessed according to National Cancer Institute Common Toxicity Criteria (NCI-CTC) version 2.0.¹⁵

Treatment

A planned treatment schedule consisted of 3-dimensional (3D) conformal external beam radiotherapy (EBRT) with concurrent chemotherapy (ChT), followed by brachytherapy (BT) or EBRT boost. 3D conformal EBRT was delivered using a four-field box technique at a 15 MV linear accelerator. Clinical target volume (CTV) included the gross tumour volume with a safety margin of

1.5-2 cm in all directions and the regional lymph node areas. To arrive at a planning target volume (PTV), an additional margin of 0.7 cm in all directions was applied to the CTV. A nominal dose of 45 Gy (1.8 Gy daily fractions, five fractions a week) was prescribed to $\geq 95\%$ of the PTV. Prophylactic bilateral inguinal EBRT was given to 45-50 Gy by anterior photon beam and adequate additional electron beam complements of adequate energy to reach the deepest portion of these nodes. In cases with inguinal lymph node metastases, the involved areas were irradiated with separate electron fields to a total dose of 60 Gy.

Concurrent ChT was planned in all but stage I patients and patients with significant medical comorbidities. ChT consisted of two cycles of 5-fluorouracil (5-FU) (daily dose of 1000 mg/m² in 96-hours continuous infusion), given during weeks 1 and 5 of EBRT. Mitomycin C (10 mg/m² in bolus intravenous injection) was administered on day 1 of the first ChT cycle.

After delivery of 45 Gy of EBRT+/-ChT, a boost dose was planned. In tumours, larger than 5 cm or N2-3 disease, the boost was applied with EBRT, whereas in all other cases an interstitial pulsed-dose rate BT boost was delivered. CTV at the time of BT corresponded to initial tumour extension, as documented by pre-treatment clinical drawings, imaging examinations, photographs and tattooed markings of tumour borders on perianal skin. Metal needles were implanted through a perineal template homogeneously in the CTV, respecting the rules of the Paris system. The distance between needles and ano-rectal mucosa was kept above 5 mm. This was assured by palpation during the needle insertion and by transrectal US. The anal cylinder was inserted to displace uninvolved ano-rectal mucosa from the high dose region. Until 2006, treatment planning was based on two orthogonal radiographs. From then on, CT based treatment planning was introduced. A biologically equivalent dose of 15-30 Gy was prescribed to the reference isodose line, corresponding to the 85% of mean basal dose (linear quadratic model, assuming an α/β of 10 Gy and 3 Gy for the tumour and late reacting normal tissues, respectively, sublethal damage repair half time of 1.5 hours, reference dose rate of 0.5 Gy per hour). The prescribed dose was chosen depending on initial tumour burden and extent of regression during EBRT. After introduction of CT into treatment planning, subtle individualized 3D-optimization of dose distribution was performed to increase the dose to the CTV while respecting the normal tissues tolerance.

In cases of severe treatment-related toxicity, irradiation and/or ChT doses were modified and adapted to the patient's physical condition or laboratory findings. When necessary, ChT application was delayed, or EBRT was temporarily interrupted or terminated.

Follow-up after treatment

The first post-treatment follow-up visit was performed by a senior radiation oncologist 6 weeks after the completion of radiotherapy. A response to the treatment was evaluated by clinical examination, appropriate imaging studies (MRI, US) and biopsies, when indicated. In patients with clinical complete remission, follow-up investigations were carried out at 3 month-intervals thereafter. In cases of the incomplete response, the clinical evaluation was repeated every 6 weeks until the complete remission was recorded. In cases with evidence of progression or recurrence after the end of the treatment, surgery (APE) was recommended.

Late normal tissue side effects (events occurring 3 months or more after the end of the treatment) were assessed at time of each follow-up evaluation, employing the LENT-SOMA scoring system.¹⁶

Statistical analysis and ethical consideration

A statistical analysis was performed using personal computer and software statistical package SPSS, version 18 (SPSS Inc., USA).

The main endpoints of the study were as follows: response to therapy, locoregional control (LRC, the event was local or regional recurrence), disease-free survival (DFS, the event was local, regional or systemic recurrence), disease-specific survival (DSS, the event was death due to the carcinoma of the anal canal), overall survival (OS, the event was death from any cause) and colostomy-free survival (CFS, the event is need for colostomy).

The survival of patients was computed from the date of the treatment start to December 1, 2011 (close-out date). Survival probability was calculated using Kaplan-Meier estimate, and log-rank test was used to evaluate the influence of individual prognostic factors (age, performance status, T-, N- and overall stage, radiotherapy and chemotherapy dose), on the analysed endpoints.^{17,18} Independent prognostic values of the factors that appeared statistically significant on the univariate analysis, were tested by the multivariate Cox regression analysis model.¹⁹ Two-sided tests were used and

TABLE 1. Acute treatment toxicities

| Toxicity | NCI ¹² grade (%) | | | | | Total |
|-------------------|-----------------------------|----|----|----|---|-------|
| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | |
| Stomatitis | 61 | 19 | 12 | 8 | 0 | 100 |
| Nausea, vomiting | 82 | 10 | 6 | 2 | 0 | 100 |
| Diarrhoea | 61 | 18 | 11 | 9 | 1 | 100 |
| Radiodermatitis | 12 | 14 | 16 | 57 | 1 | 100 |
| Infection | 55 | 17 | 18 | 7 | 3 | 100 |
| Leucocyte count | 43 | 31 | 18 | 7 | 1 | 100 |
| Haemoglobin level | 46 | 46 | 7 | 0 | 1 | 100 |
| Platelet count | 69 | 27 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 100 |

the differences at $P < 0.05$ were considered as statistically significant.

The retrospective study was carried out according to the Declaration of Helsinki.

Results

Course of treatment

Median duration of EBRT and total treatment time was 36 days (range: 29-72 days) and 57 days (range: 30-98 days), respectively. Sixty-seven (79.8%) patients completed the treatment according to the protocol. Total EBRT dose of 45 Gy was applied in 82 (97.6%) patients. In two, due to acute side effects, EBRT was stopped at 18 and 25 Gy, respectively, but the treatment was completed with BT (TD: 30-35 Gy).

During EBRT, two cycles of 5-FU were administered as planned in 67 (79.8%) patients. Eight (14%) patients received one cycle only due to adverse side effects during the treatment. Concomitant capecitabine was administered in one patient who was primarily operated for locoregionally advanced colon carcinoma and in who during preoperative investigations synchronous anal carcinoma was found. Chemotherapy was omitted in 6 (7.1%) and 3 (3.6%) patients due to stage I disease and severe comorbidity, respectively.

Boost with the median dose of 14.4 Gy (range: 6-20 Gy) to the primary tumour was applied through reduced photon fields in 33 (39.3%) patients. Interstitial BT boost was performed in 49 (58.3%) patients after EBRT with a mean interval of 27 days (range: 6-57 days). Boost was omitted in two (2.4%) patients because of treatment side effects in one case and the other patient refused the further treatment.

Acute side effects

The treatment was well tolerated in the majority of patients and no treatment-related mortality was observed. Frequency and intensity of acute adverse side effects are listed in Table 1. The most frequent grade 3 side-effect was radiodermatitis, occurring in 48 (57%) patients during EBRT. One patient developed grade 4 radiodermatitis. All cases of radiodermatitis healed without consequences.

Outcome

Median follow-up time was 43 months (range: 8-105 months) in all patients and 53 months (range: 16-105 months) in survivors.

At the first follow-up evaluation, which was done 6 weeks after the treatment, the complete clinical remission of the tumour was found in 55 (65.5%) patients. At 18 weeks after the end of the treatment, complete remission, partial response and stable disease were recorded in 67 (79.8%), 12 (14.3%) and 4 (4.8%) patients, respectively. In one patient, there was evidence of tumour progression during the treatment.

Five patients with complete response later developed local or locoregional recurrence after a median period of 8 months (range: 4-26 months). In two patients with complete response, distant metastases without local recurrence occurred.

Of 24 (28.6%) patients with persistent disease or locoregional recurrence, 12 (14.3%) were treated surgically. In 11 patients, APE was performed and one patient had inguinal dissection due to a recurrence in inguinal lymph nodes. Other 12 (14.3%) patients had unresectable disease. Three of the operated patients died of the recurrent disease, others are alive without evidence of the disease.

TABLE 2. Univariate and multivariate analysis of survival

| Prognostic factor | N | Locoregional control | | | Disease free survival | | | Disease specific survival | | | Overall survival | | | Colostomy free survival | | |
|--|----------|----------------------|--------|--------------|-----------------------|--------------|--------|---------------------------|--------|--------------|------------------|---------|---|-------------------------|-----|---------|
| | | UVA | MVA | p-value | % | UVA | MVA | p-value | % | UVA | MVA | p-value | % | UVA | MVA | p-value |
| T-stage T1+2 T3+4 | 45 39 | 80.3 55 | 0.016 | 80.3 46.6 | 0.004 | 92.3 65.2 | 0.009 | 75 57.5 | 0.049 | 94.4 45.9 | 0.01 | | | | | |
| N-stage N0 N+ | 56 28 | 78.6 50.6 | 0.028 | 75 47.8 | 0.018 | 90.8 59.4 | 0.002 | 73.7 56.9 | 0.059 | 89.8 71.7 | 0.015 | | | | | |
| Overall stage Stage I+II Stage III | 54 30 | 78.5 50.8 | 0.031 | 74.9 48 | 0.02 | 90.8 59.4 | 0.002 | 73.6 56.9 | 0.061 | 89.8 71.7 | 0.015 | | | | | |
| PS 0 1+2 | 58 26 | 75.2 54.5 | | 75.2 43.4 | | 81.3 78.9 | | 77.9 39.4 | 0.041 | 84.4 84.7 | | | | | | |
| OTT <73 days ≥ 73 days | 70 14 | 73.4 56.3 | 0.043 | 69 56.3 | 0.062 | 83 67.5 | | 72.3 44.2 | 0.062 | 70.6 60.9 | 0.086 | | | | | |
| CR Yes No | 67 17 | 91.1 5.9 | <0.001 | 85.6 5.9 | <0.001 | 95.9 22.4 | <0.001 | 80 21 | <0.001 | 66.8 59.3 | 0.014 | | | | | |
| Hb < 120 g/l ≥ 120 g/l | 47 37 | 58.5 82.7 | 0.016 | 52.6 80 | 0.017 | 68 94 | 0.015 | 45.5 90.7 | 0.001 | 78.7 89.6 | 0.007 | | | | | |
| SS Yes No | 13 71 | 30.8 77.9 | <0.001 | 30.8 73.3 | <0.001 | 71.9 82.4 | 0.003 | 67.3 71.9 | <0.001 | 10.1 100 | <0.001 | | | | | |

N, number of patients; UVA, univariate analysis; MVA, multivariate analysis; PS, performance status; OTT, overall treatment time; CR, complete response; Hb, hemoglobin; SS, salvage surgery.

On the study close-out date, 55 (65.5%) patients were alive, 51 (92.7%) of them being disease free. Fifteen (17.9%) patients died from the anal canal cancer. One (1.2%) patient, who experienced locoregional recurrence, died from metachronous bronchus cancer, four (4.8%) patients died from metastatic breast cancer, metastatic colon cancer, metastatic bronchus cancer and metastatic malignant melanoma, six patients (7.1%) died from vascular events and in three (3.5%) patients the cause of death could not be determined.

The 5-year LRC, DFS, DSS, OS and CFS rates for all patients are 71%, 68%, 81%, 67% and 85%, respectively (Figure 1-3).

Late side effects

Grade 3-4 late radiation side effects according to the LENT-SOMA scoring system¹³ were observed in 15 (18%) patients. Three (4%) patients experienced post-treatment anal stenosis, requiring repeated dilatations and two (2%) developed chronic non-healing ulcer at the anal verge. Nine (11%) patients had grade 3 incontinence of anal sphincter. In one patient without disease recurrence, colostomy was performed due to severe anal sphincter dysfunction. In one patient with anal stenosis, hematuria was observed, as well. Forty-nine (58.3%) patients with BT boost on primary tumour had less late site effects compared to 33 (39.3%) patients with EBRT boost, but the difference was not significant ($P=0.066$).

Prognostic Factors

On the univariate analysis, patients with locally advanced disease (T3-4) and incomplete response had worse LRC and all studied survival endpoints when compared to their counterparts.

Patients with the involvement of lymph nodes and patients with overall disease stage III had worse LRC, DFS, DSS and CFS in comparison with patients with N0 and overall stage I or II and patients with Hb below 120 g/l had worse LRC, DFS, DSS and OS in comparison with patients with Hb 120 g/l or higher. In addition, patients with poor performance status (WHO 1 or 2) had worse OS and patients with overall treatment time over 73 days had worse LRC. The patients with salvage surgery (APE or nodal dissection) for residual disease or tumour and/or regional lymph node recurrence had worse LRC, DFS and CFS, but not DSS and OS compared to complete responders.

For other analysed factors (sex, age, treatment intensity and the method of radiotherapy boost) no impact on the outcome was found.

On the multivariate analysis, a complete clinical disease response was identified as an independent prognostic factor for LRC, DFS and DSS, the salvage surgery for LRC and DFS, whereas Hb below 120 g/l retained its independent prognostic value for OS, and for LRC it was on the threshold of statistical significance ($P=0.061$) (Table 2).

Discussion

Before Negro *et al.* in 1974 reported that a complete tumour response can be achieved with radiochemotherapy, APE was the standard of the treatment in patients with anal cancer.⁹ Nowadays, radiotherapy with concomitant ChT represents a standard treatment of anal cancer. Complete response rates and 5-year OS in patients with early stage disease range from 80-90% and 95-100%, respectively, and in patients with tumours larger than 5 cm from 50-75% and 35-70%.^{1,3,11,20} In our study the complete response was recorded in 67 (79.8%) patients, regardless of the stage. Results of our analysis compare favourably to other published studies.^{1,3,19,20-22} According to the data of the Cancer Registry of Slovenia, 24 (24%) patients were not referred to the treatment with radiotherapy in the period between 2003 and 2007.⁴⁻⁸ We can only speculate that these patients were treated with local excision and were not presented to multidisciplinary advisory board. It could be debated if all these patients had an appropriate treatment, since it is well known that the local excision should be reserved only for small, well differentiated mucosal or submucosal tumours (<2 cm) and without sphincter involvement.¹

Although in 24 (28.6%) patients the complete clinical response could not be achieved or they had recurrent disease, in only 12 (50%) patients salvage surgery was possible and only 8 (66.7%) of these operated patients were free of the disease. APE was performed in 11 patients and in one patient bilateral nodal dissection was carried out due to a solitary lymph node involvement. In one patient, APE was necessary due to severe sphincter incontinence after the end of the treatment. Our results on the salvage surgery rate are comparable to results of Ajani *et al.* and Peiffert *et al.* with salvage APE rate of 16% and 10%, respectively.^{22,23} In the study of Akbari *et al.*, where salvage surgery was performed in 57 patients with persistent

or recurrent disease, the 5-year OS for all patients was 33%, whereas in our study it was 67%.²⁴ As the median follow-up time in Akbari's study was 34.1 months, whereas in ours it was 43 months (range: 8-105 months), the direct comparison of reported results of these two studies could be misleading. However, the observed 75% rate of disease-free patients after salvage surgery is without doubt encouraging.

It is well known that patients with a complete tumour response following radiochemotherapy have a better local control and survival, which was demonstrated in our series, as well.^{3,23,25} We found out that a complete clinical disease response was an independent prognostic factor for LRC, DFS and DSS.

The patients who had salvage surgery had worse LRC and DFS but it is encouraging that no statistically significant difference in DSS and OS was found. We can conclude that patients in whom salvage surgery was performed had similar OS as patients with the complete tumour remission. In some, but not all series, they reported that residual or recurrent carcinoma of anal canal after radiochemotherapy was associated with poor outcome after the attempted salvage surgery.²⁵ Furthermore, they found out that APE is successful as salvage therapy in about 50% of patients with local disease only but salvage rate is very poor in patients that have nodal involvement or residual or recurrent carcinoma which is fixed to the pelvic sidewall.²⁶⁻²⁷

In our study Hb below 120 g/l was identified as an independent prognostic factor for OS. It is not surprising, because anaemia is namely a well known prognostic factor for the lower tumour control and the survival in patients who are treated with radiotherapy.²⁸ It may be related with hypoxia and consequent development of tumour cells' radioresistency.²⁹

At first evaluation at 6 weeks after the end of the treatment, the complete tumour remission was found in only 55 (65.5%) of patients, while another 12 (14.3%) patients reached the complete remission at 18 weeks post treatment. There are several other reports of very slow disease regression, with a complete response observed even up to 6-9 months after the treatment was completed.^{1,30,31} The evaluation recommendations suggest that if there is no progression of the disease, a careful »wait and see« policy with repeated biopsies may be advocated. However, in cases of persistent disease or tumour progression, APE is recommended following the histological confirmation of the presence of viable malignant cells.

In our study, the profile and frequency of acute and late treatment-related toxic side effects were comparable to reports of other researchers.^{2,10,32} The most frequently reported acute side effect was radiodermatitis with grade 3 or 4 occurring in 58% of patients during EBRT, whereas 15 (18%) patients experienced grade 3 or 4 late radiation side effects. Three (4%) patients experienced post-treatment anal stenosis, two (2%) developed chronic non-healing ulcer at the anal verge, 9 (11%) patients had grade 3 incontinence of anal sphincter and in one patient without disease recurrence, colostomy was performed due to the severe anal sphincter dysfunction. The rate of our late side effects is similar to other reports.^{3,11,22,32,33}

The patients with BT boost on primary tumour had less late side effects ($P=0.066$). We should emphasize that these patients had less advanced tumours and, correspondingly, smaller tissue volumes were irradiated during boost phase of the treatment. Furthermore, it is well known that patients with BT boost have less late toxicity when compared to EBRT boost, because the use of interstitial implant has the advantage of more focused escalation of irradiation dose, resulting in more efficient sparing of the surrounding normal tissues.³⁴

There are several possibilities for the improvement in the disease control and the survival in the future. In locally advanced disease, innovative approaches with 3D image-based BT boost and intensity modulated radiotherapy offer a potential for the individualised escalation of the target dose while respecting normal tissue tolerance.³⁵ For the treatment of unresectable recurrences and distant metastases, the development of more active new anti-cancer drugs, for example epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) inhibitors may represent an option. Finally, the majority of the anal cancers are causally connected to the persistent HPV infection, so it can be assumed that the HPV vaccines may become an important prevention measure against anal cancer in the future.

To conclude, radiochemotherapy provides an excellent disease control and the survival with preserving anal sphincter function in majority of patients which were evidenced also by our results. Surgical salvage with APE for persistent or recurrent disease should be considered whenever applicable as it can be curative in substantial proportion of such patients.

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The diffuse large B-cell lymphoma - where do we stand now in everyday clinical practice

Brigita Gregoric¹, Vesna Zadnik², Barbara Jezersek Novakovic¹

¹ Division of Medical Oncology and ² Department of Epidemiology, Institute of Oncology Ljubljana, Ljubljana, Slovenia

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Correspondence to: Assist. Prof. Barbara Jezeršek Novaković, MD, PhD, Department of Medical Oncology, Institute of Oncology Ljubljana, Zaloška2, SI-1000 Ljubljana, Slovenia. Phone: +386 15879280; Fax: +386 15879305; E-mail: bjezersek@onko-i.si

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Background. Due to superior results observed with the addition of rituximab into treatment of patients with the diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL), the R-CHOP (rituximab, cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin, vincristine, and prednisolone) regimen and its variants became the standard initial treatment of these patients. However, the treatment recommendations are based on results of clinical studies while the conditions of routine treatment are far different from the ones in clinical studies. The aim of this retrospective study was therefore to compare the treatment results of routinely treated patients with the DLBCL to results reported by some larger studies.

Patients and methods. Two hundred and ninety five patients with the DLBCL were treated between 2004 and 2008 according to the then protocol with R-CHOP or R-CHOP-like regimens at the Institute of Oncology Ljubljana. Treatment response was evaluated according to Cheson's criteria and the disease-free and overall survival by means of Kaplan Meier survival curves.

Results. Response to treatment in our evaluation diverged from the reported one predominately in the low risk group (international prognostic index [IPI] categorisation) and in the very good prognosis group (revised international prognostic index [R-IPI] categorisation). The determined complete response (CR) rates in other IPI and R-IPI groups were generally within expectations. Also in the disease-free survival the largest discrepancy occurred in the low-risk patient group (3 year disease-free survival rate of 75%) and in the very good prognosis group (4 year disease-free survival rate of 59%). In all other IPI risk groups, the disease-free survival at 3 years (low intermediate risk 76%, high intermediate risk group 57%, and high risk group 53%) agreed very well with the quoted ones. Slightly worse was the compliance of the 4 year disease-free survival rates (72% in the good prognosis and 51% in the poor prognosis group) with the results from the literature. The 3 year overall survival rates (low risk patients 87%, high intermediate risk 61% and high risk patients 51%) were somewhat worse than the reported ones in all IPI subgroups except in the low intermediate risk group (82%). On the other hand, the 4 year overall survival rates of the R-IPI categories (94% in the very good prognosis group, 80% in the good prognosis group, 56% in the poor prognosis group) were much better correlated with the data from the literature.

Conclusions. In total, the treatment outcomes of routinely treated patient with the DLBCL at our institute are quite encouraging when compared to results of some larger studies. There are probably no dilemmas about how to treat young good prognosis patients and patients aged over 60 years at present. However, the 5 year overall survival rate of 76% for the young poor prognosis group is unsatisfying and needs to be improved. At present, quite a few studies are underway to clarify which of the regimens will perform best in this population.

Key words: diffuse large B-cell lymphoma; R-CHOP; treatment result; routine treatments

Introduction

The diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL) is the most common histologic subtype of non-Hodgkin's lymphomas.^{1,2} However, the disease is quite

heterogeneous in terms of morphology, genetics, biologic behaviour, and consequently response to treatment and prognosis.¹ Beside histopathology and genetics, similar like in other malignancies, clinical parameters have been identified that

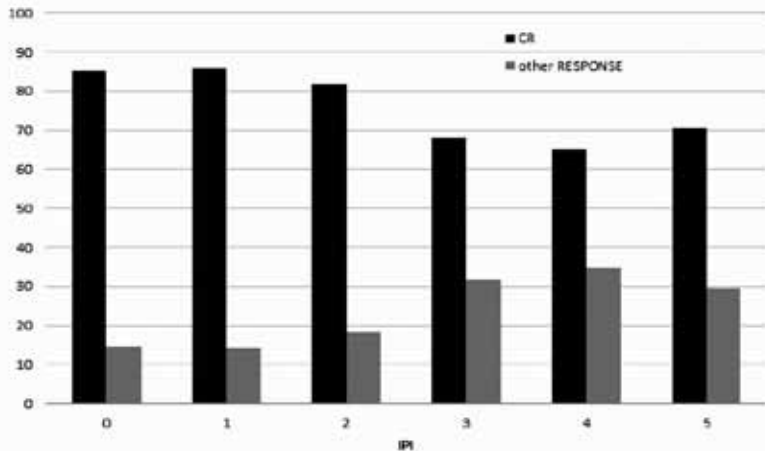


FIGURE 1. Percentage of patients achieving complete and other responses according to various IPI categories.

IPI = international prognostic index. CR = complete response

influence the prognosis of patients with DLBCL.³⁻⁵ Namely, the age above 60 years, serum lactate dehydrogenase concentration above normal, ECOG performance status of 2 or more, Ann Arbor stage III or IV and number of involved extranodal sites above 1 have been shown to correlate significantly with a shorter disease-free and overall survival of patients treated with anthracycline containing regimen. These five factors have been included in the original international prognostic index (IPI).³

The addition of rituximab to standard chemotherapy (cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin, vincristine, and prednisolone [CHOP] and CHOP-like) in patients with DLBCL has resulted in significant improvements of the disease-free and overall survival rates.⁶⁻⁸ Beside the original IPI that has been later on validated also in patients receiving rituximab containing treatment⁹ similarly the revised international prognostic index (R-IPI)¹⁰ has been proposed to predict outcome in patients with the DLBCL receiving R-CHOP or R-CHOP-like regimens. It is still unclear which of the two indexes is more appropriate for presentation of study results in this population.

Due to superior results with rituximab, the R-CHOP and variants have become the standard initial treatment of patients with the DLBCL.¹¹ However, the conditions of routine treatment are far different from the ones in clinical studies where the study population is highly selected, the histopathology and staging procedures are thoroughly revised and treatment and side effects are strictly controlled. The aim of our retrospective study was therefore to analyse and to compare the treatment results of routinely treated patients with the DLBCL at the Institute of Oncology Ljubljana to results reported by some larger studies.

TABLE 1. Distribution of patients according to the selected regimens

| | Number | % |
|----------------|--------|-------|
| R-ACVBP | 19 | 6.4 |
| R-CHOP | 253 | 85.8 |
| R-CHOP+MTX | 12 | 4.1 |
| R-CHOP/R-other | 11 | 3.7 |
| Total | 295 | 100.0 |

R-ACVBP = rituximab, doxorubicin, cyclophosphamide, vincristine, bleomycin, prednisolone; R-CHOP = rituximab, doxorubicin, cyclophosphamide, vincristine, prednisolone; R-CHOP+MTX = rituximab, doxorubicin, cyclophosphamide, vincristine, prednisolone, middle-dose methotrexate; R-CHOP/R-other = R-CHOP with reduced doses of doxorubicin + etoposide

Patients and methods

Two hundred and ninety five patients with the DLBCL were treated between 2004 and 2008 according to the then protocol with R-CHOP or R-CHOP-like regimens at the Institute of Oncology Ljubljana. The patients' characteristics, pathological diagnosis, disease stage, response to treatment and survival data were taken from patients' records. Treatment response was evaluated according to Cheson' criteria^{12,13} and the disease-free and overall survival by means of Kaplan Meier survival curves. For the determination of statistical differences the log rank test and Chi-square test were applied.

Results

Patients' characteristics and treatment

Among 295 patients, there were 132 males (44.7%) and 163 females (55.3%). Their median age was 64 years (range from 19 to 86 years). One hundred and sixteen patients (39.3%) were aged below 60 years and 179 patients (60.7%) were aged 60 or more years. Ninety three (31.5%) patients had limited disease (stage I or II) and 198 (67.1%) patients had advanced disease (stages III and IV) at presentation. The stage of disease could not be defined in 4 patients. According to the IPI categories, there were 34 (11.5%) patients with IPI 0, 63 (21.4%) patients with IPI 1, 66 (22.4%) patients with IPI 2, 69 (23.4%) patients with IPI 3, 46 (15.6%) patients with IPI 4 and 17 (5.7%) patients with IPI 5, respectively.

All patients were treated with R-CHOP or R-CHOP-like regimens (Table 1). The selection of regimen was influenced only by adverse prognostic factors (e.g. massive infiltration of bone marrow and/or bones where middle dose MTX was added to R-CHOP). In just few young poor-prognosis

TABLE 2. Response to treatment according to different IPI categories

| | All patients | | Low risk IPI=0,1 | | Low intermediate risk IPI=2 | | High intermediate risk IPI=3 | | High risk IPI=4-5 | |
|--------------|--------------|-------|------------------|-------|-----------------------------|-------|------------------------------|-------|-------------------|-------|
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| CR | 226 | 76,6 | 83 | 85,6 | 54 | 81,8 | 47 | 68,1 | 42 | 66,7 |
| CRu | 4 | 1,4 | 1 | 1,0 | 0 | 0,0 | 0 | 0,0 | 3 | 4,8 |
| PR | 36 | 12,2 | 10 | 10,3 | 4 | 6,1 | 14 | 20,3 | 8 | 12,7 |
| SD | 2 | 0,7 | 0 | 0,0 | 0 | 0,0 | 1 | 1,4 | 1 | 1,6 |
| PD | 13 | 4,4 | 1 | 1,0 | 4 | 6,1 | 4 | 5,8 | 4 | 6,3 |
| Unclassified | 14 | 4,7 | 2 | 2,1 | 4 | 6,1 | 3 | 4,3 | 5 | 7,9 |
| Total | 295 | 100,0 | 97 | 100,0 | 66 | 100,0 | 69 | 100,0 | 63 | 100,0 |

CR = complete response; CRu= complete response unconfirmed; PR = partial response; SD = stable disease; PD = progressive disease; unclassified – unclassified response to treatment; IPI = international prognostic index; N = number of patients

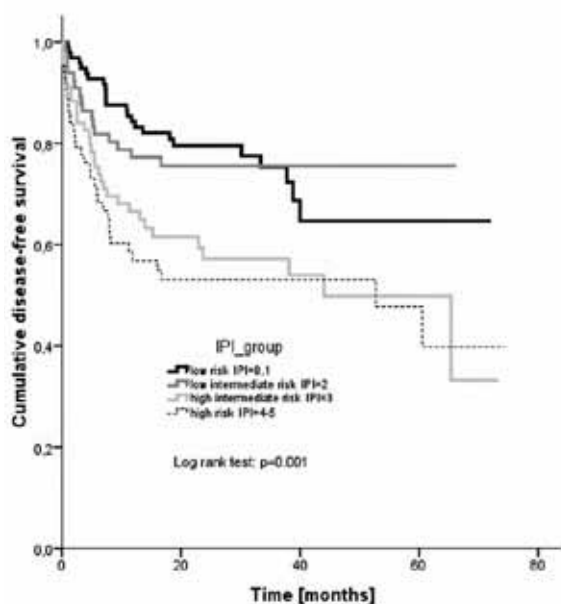


FIGURE 2. Disease-free survival according to different IPI risk groups. IPI = international prognostic index.

patients, the more dose-intensive R-ACVBP₂₁ regimen was used instead of the R-CHOP₂₁ regimen. The R-CHOP₁₄ regimen has never been applied. In patients with compromised cardiac function, reduced doses of anthracyclines were applied and were sometimes compensated for with the addition of etoposide (reduced intensity R-CHOEP). Patients with stage I or II of the disease received 6 cycles while patients with stage I.X, II.X, III and IV received 8 cycles of rituximab containing treatment. Patients treated with R-ACVBP received 6 cycles at maximum.

Response to treatment

The response to treatment for all patients and for distinct IPI categories is presented in Table 2. The

difference in response between the low risk group and low intermediate risk group was statistically insignificant as was the difference between the high intermediate and high risk groups. But the significant Chi-square for the entire table ($p=0,045$) indicates the significant difference between both low risk and both high risk groups.

The response to treatment is given also for distinct R-IPI categories (Table 3). In this case, the difference between the very good and good prognosis groups was statistically insignificant, as well as the entire table Chi-square p value ($p=0,088$). A statistically significant difference in the response was observed between the IPI 2 and IPI 3 categories which was detected by both indexes – namely by the IPI and the R-IPI and is also clearly presented in Figure 1.

The disease-free survival according to IPI and R-IPI categories

With the median observation period of 22 months, the estimated 3 year disease-free survival rates were 75.3% for low risk, 75.6% for low intermediate risk, 57.2% for high intermediate risk, and 53.1% for high risk group, respectively (Figure 2). The difference between the groups was statistically significant (log rank, $p = 0.001$).

The progression-free survival was plotted also according to the R-IPI categories - the estimated 4 year disease-free survival rates were 59.4% for very good prognosis, 71.6% for good prognosis, and 51.1% for bad prognosis group, respectively (Figure 3). Again, the difference between the groups was statistically significant (log rank, $p=0.000$).

The overall survival according to IPI and R-IPI categories

With the median observation period of 31 months, the estimated 3 year overall survival rates were

TABLE 3. Response to treatment according to different R-IPI categories

| | All patients | | Very good prognosis IPI=0 | | Good prognosis IPI=1,2 | | Bad prognosis IPI=3-5 | |
|--------------|--------------|-------|------------------------------|-------|------------------------|-------|-----------------------|-------|
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| CR | 226 | 76,6 | 29 | 85,3 | 108 | 83,7 | 89 | 67,4 |
| CRu | 4 | 1,4 | 0 | 0,0 | 1 | 0,8 | 3 | 2,3 |
| PR | 36 | 12,2 | 5 | 14,7 | 9 | 7,0 | 22 | 16,7 |
| SD | 2 | 0,7 | 0 | 0,0 | 0 | 0,0 | 2 | 1,5 |
| PD | 13 | 4,4 | 0 | 0,0 | 5 | 3,9 | 8 | 6,1 |
| Unclassified | 14 | 4,7 | 0 | 0,0 | 6 | 4,6 | 8 | 6,1 |
| Total | 295 | 100,0 | 34 | 100,0 | 129 | 100,0 | 132 | 100,0 |

CR = complete response; CRu= complete response unconfirmed; PR = partial response; SD = stable disease; PD = progressive disease; unclassified = unclassified response to treatment; R-IPI = revised international prognostic index; IPI = international prognostic index; N = number of patients

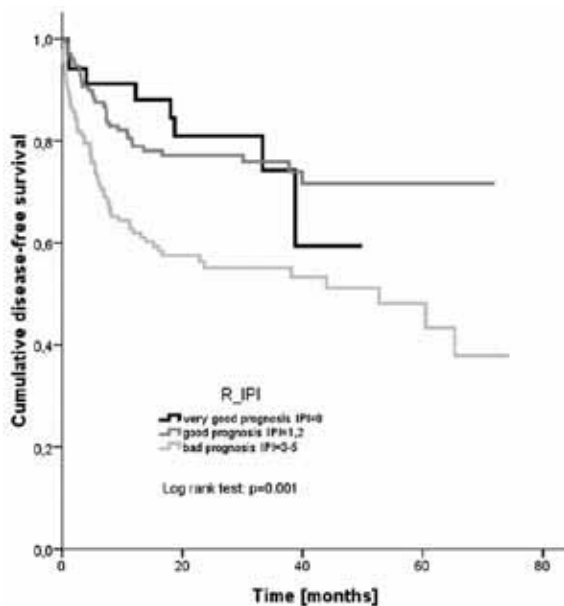


FIGURE 3. Disease-free survival according to different R-IPI risk groups. R-IPI = revised international prognostic index.

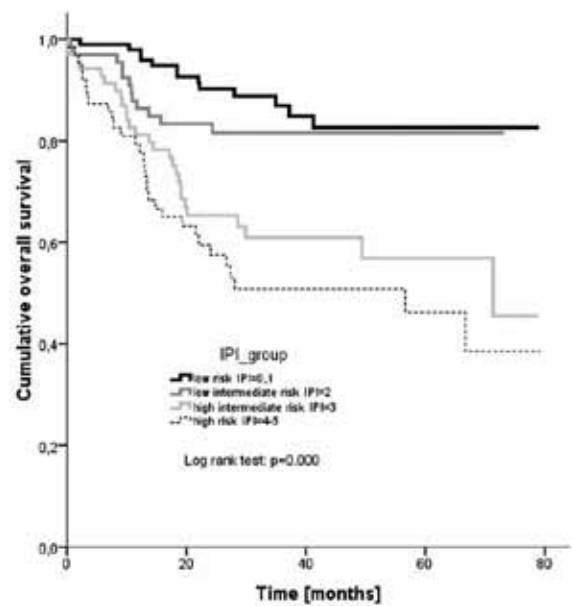


FIGURE 4. Overall survival according to different IPI risk groups. IPI = international prognostic index.

86.9% for low risk, 81.6% for low intermediate risk, 60.9% for high intermediate risk, and 50.9% for high risk group, respectively (Figure 4). The difference between the groups was statistically significant (log rank, $p = 0.000$).

The overall survival was plotted also according to the R-IPI categories - the estimated 4 year overall survival rates were 93.7% for very good prognosis, 79.5% for good prognosis, and 55.9% for bad prognosis group, respectively (Figure 5). Again, the difference between the groups was statistically significant (log rank, $p = 0.000$).

Treatment outcomes according to clinical categories of patients

Treatment outcomes were evaluated also according to clinical categories - namely, response to

treatment, disease-free survival and overall survival were followed separately for young good prognosis patients (younger than 60 years with IPI 0 or 1), young poor prognosis patients (younger than 60 years with IPI of 2 or more), and older patients (aged over 60 years regardless of IPI), respectively.

The response to treatment is given in Table 4, while the disease-free and overall survivals are plotted in Figures 6 and 7, respectively. The difference in the disease-free survival between all three groups was statistically significant (log rank, $p = 0.005$), but it was insignificant when only young good prognosis and young poor prognosis groups were compared ($p = 0.365$). Also the difference in the overall survival between all these groups was significant ($p = 0.000$) as was the difference between young good prognosis and young poor prognosis group ($p = 0.005$).

TABLE 4. Response to treatment according to different clinical categories. The difference among groups was insignificant ($p=0.150$)

| | All patients | | <60years, IPI=0,1 | | <60years, IPI>1 | | >60years | |
|--------------|--------------|-------|-------------------|-------|-----------------|-------|----------|-------|
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| CR | 226 | 76,6 | 58 | 85,3 | 34 | 70,8 | 134 | 74,9 |
| CRu | 4 | 1,4 | 1 | 1,5 | 0 | 0,0 | 3 | 1,7 |
| PR | 36 | 12,2 | 8 | 11,8 | 7 | 14,6 | 21 | 11,7 |
| SD | 2 | 0,7 | 0 | 0,0 | 1 | 2,1 | 1 | 0,6 |
| PD | 13 | 4,4 | 0 | 0,0 | 5 | 10,4 | 8 | 4,5 |
| Unclassified | 14 | 4,7 | 1 | 1,5 | 1 | 2,1 | 12 | 6,7 |
| Total | 295 | 100,0 | 68 | 100,0 | 48 | 100,0 | 179 | 100,0 |

CR = complete response; CRu = complete response unconfirmed; PR = partial response; SD = stable disease; PD = progressive disease; unclassified = unclassified response to treatment; IPI = international prognostic index; N = number of patients

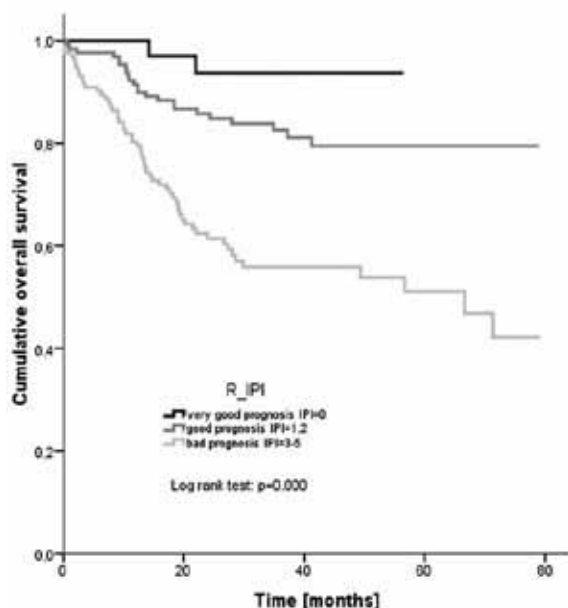


FIGURE 5. Overall survival according to different R-IPI risk groups. R-IPI = revised international prognostic index.

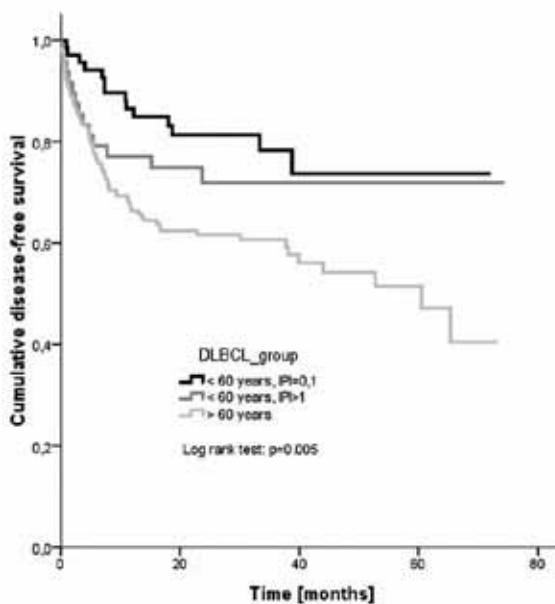


FIGURE 6. Disease-free survival of different clinical categories of patients. DLBCL = diffuse large B-cell lymphoma. IPI = international prognostic index.

Discussion

The treatment outcomes in patients with the DLBCL have been significantly improved with the addition of rituximab to standard anthracycline containing chemotherapies both in terms of the disease-free as well as the overall survival. This has been demonstrated by various researchers during the last decade¹⁴⁻²¹, which resulted in the introduction of rituximab into standard first-line treatment of these patients. However, it is somewhat difficult to compare the results of different studies due to variable study designs and regimens applied and therefore we are still uncertain about the optimal therapy for a given patient or for a given group of patients.²² Consequently, quite problematic is also the evaluation of treatment outcomes in patients

treated in everyday clinical practice. The introduction of the standard IPI by Shipp *et al.*³, its validation in patients receiving rituximab containing treatments by Ziepert *et al.*⁹ and the proposal of R-IPI by Sehn *et al.*¹⁰, beside determining the patients' prognosis at least partially facilitated the comparison of study results as well as the comparison of routine treatment outcomes with the study results.

Response to treatment in our evaluation diverged from the reported one predominately in the low risk group (CR rate of 85.6%) where it was even lower than the reported 87% CR rate in the original IPI study where patients received chemotherapy without rituximab.³ The same observation holds true for the very good prognosis group in the R-IPI categorisation in which a higher CR

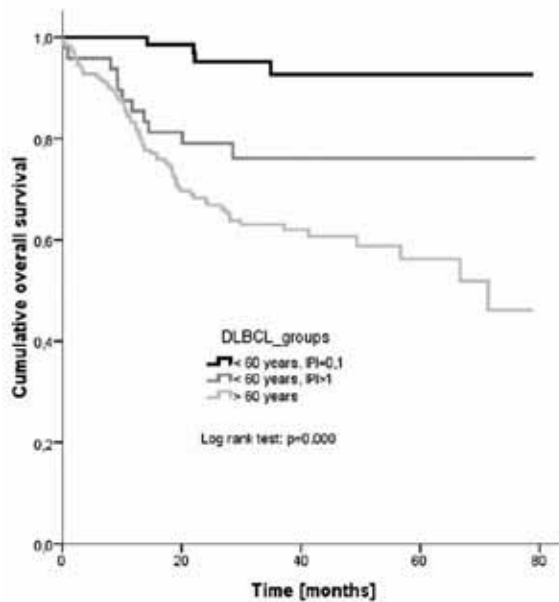


FIGURE 7. Overall survival of different clinical categories of patients. DLBCL = diffuse large B-cell lymphoma. IPI = international prognostic index

rate from the observed 85.3% could have been expected. The determined CR rates in other IPI and R-IPI groups were generally within expectations. The CR rates observed in the group of young good prognosis patients (86.8% of patients achieving CR or CRu) are completely in agreement with the results reported by Pfreundschuh *et al.* in the MInT study.¹⁹ However, the overall response rate of 88.3% achieved in our patients aged over 60 years was much better than the 77% overall response rate reported by Habermann *et al.*¹⁸

Regarding the duration of response given by the disease-free survival, again the largest discrepancy occurred in the low-risk patient group where the 3 year disease-free survival rate was 75% compared to 87% reported by Ziepert *et al.*⁹ In all other risk groups the disease-free survival at 3 years (low intermediate risk 76%, high intermediate risk group 57%, high risk group 53%, respectively) agreed very well with the reported ones (75%, 59% and 50%, respectively).⁹ An even larger discrepancy was noted in case of the R-IPI categories – namely, the 4 year disease-free survival rate was 59% in the very good prognosis, 72% in the good prognosis and 51% in the poor prognosis group, respectively, as compared to the reported 94%, 80%, and 53%, respectively.¹⁰ The 3 year disease-free survival of young good prognosis patients in our evaluation was 78% while Pfreundschuh *et al.*¹⁹ reported of 85% rate in equivalent population. On the other hand,

Habermann *et al.*¹⁸ achieved a 53% 3 year disease-free survival rate in older patients as compared to the 61% rate in our study.

The 3 year overall survival rate of the low risk patients (87%) in our analysis was somewhat worse than the 91% reported by Ziepert *et al.*⁹ Equivalent or slightly worse were also the 3 year overall survival rates of low intermediate risk, high intermediate risk and high risk patients (82%, 61%, 51%, respectively) as compared to the reported rates (81%, 65%, 59%, respectively).⁹ On the other hand, the 4 year overall survival rates of the R-IPI categories (94% in the very good prognosis group, 80% in the good prognosis group, and 56% in the poor prognosis group, respectively) were much better correlated with the reported ones of 94%, 79%, and 55%, respectively.¹⁰ The 3 year overall survival of young good prognosis patients in our evaluation was 93% which completely corresponds to the rate reported by Pfreundschuh *et al.*¹⁹ in equivalent population. Then again, Habermann *et al.*¹⁸ achieved a 67% 3 year overall survival rate in older patients (aged over 60 years) as compared to the 63% rate in our study.

The repeating pattern of worst results achieved in our low risk and/or the very good prognosis group raises the question of whether those patients have been in some way “understaged”. Another possible explanation is the existence of some not yet determined aspect that negatively influenced response to treatment, disease-free survival and to some extent also the overall survival of these patients. This aspect could be of pathohistological origin – *e.g.* the inclusion of patients with immunoblastic variants of the DLBCL which are no longer recognized as a separate entity in the WHO classification but have been associated with a worse outcome even after treatment with R-CHOP²³ or of genetic origin – namely patients with the activated B-cell type gene expression profile have a much worse 5 year overall survival compared to patients with the germinal centre type gene expression profile.^{24,25} It is, however, quite unlikely that patients with immunoblastic lymphomas or activated B-cell type lymphomas would have been gathered prevalently in the low risk and/or very good prognosis groups.

In total, the treatment outcomes of routinely treated patient with the DLBCL at our institute are quite encouraging when compared to results of some larger studies. There are probably no dilemmas about how to treat young good prognosis patients at present – it is with 6 cycles of R-CHOP.^{21,19} On the other hand, for patients aged over 60 years

the RICOVER-60 study reported the best results with 6 cycles of R-CHOP₁₄ (and total 8 applications of rituximab).²⁶ This regimen is unfortunately associated with serious toxicity and therefore not applicable in the routine setting. Regarding our results also the treatment with 6 or 8 cycles (considering the stage of the disease) of R-CHOP₂₁ will be appropriate for everyday management of the DLBCL in this fragile population. As for the young poor prognosis group – the 5 year overall survival rate of 76% is unsatisfying and needs to be improved. At present, quite a few studies are underway to clarify which of the regimens will perform best in this population. Most probably this will have to include routine determination of the gene expression profile in each patient in order to tailor his individual treatment.

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Effectiveness of L-thyroxine treatment on TSH suppression during pregnancy in patients with a history of thyroid carcinoma after total thyroidectomy and radioiodine ablation

Blaz Krhin¹ and Nikola Besic²

¹ Department of Laboratory Diagnostics, Institute of Oncology Ljubljana, Ljubljana, Slovenia

² Department of Surgical Oncology, Institute of Oncology Ljubljana, Ljubljana, Slovenia

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Correspondence to: Prof. Nikola Bešič MD, PhD, Dept. of Surgical Oncology, Institute of Oncology Ljubljana, Zaloška 2, SI-1000 Ljubljana, Slovenia. Phone: +386 1 5879 953; Fax: +386 1 5879400; E-mail: nbesic@onko-i.si

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Introduction. There are scarce data about the optimal increase of L-thyroxine dose during pregnancy in patients with a history of thyroid carcinoma. The first aim of the study was to find out if routine therapeutic measures enable adequate TSH suppression in pregnancy. The other aim was to find out the optimal dose of L-thyroxine for TSH suppression in pregnant women.

Patients and methods. In this retrospective observational study, we analysed 36 pregnancies of 32 women with a history of thyroid carcinoma. Before pregnancy, all of them underwent total thyroidectomy and radioiodine ablation of thyroid remnant, and they were on suppressive doses of L-thyroxine. Thyroid function tests were obtained before, during and after pregnancy.

Results. Mean L-thyroxine dose before pregnancy, in the first, second and, third trimester and after delivery was 149, 147, 155, 165 and 158 micrograms daily, respectively. TSH concentration remained suppressed in 9 pregnancies, it was within normal range in 22 and elevated in 5 pregnancies. The mean dose of L-thyroxine in patients with suppressed TSH before pregnancy, in the first, second and, third trimester and after delivery was 154, 154, 164, 160 and 161 micrograms daily, respectively. When the dose had to be changed, the mean increase of the dose was 31.5 micrograms daily.

Conclusions. The range of changes in TSH concentration during pregnancy in the patients who have been on suppressive L-thyroxine therapy before conception is quite wide. TSH was adequately suppressed in only 25% of pregnancies. The dose of L-thyroxine in patients with suppressed TSH in the first, second and third trimester was 154, 164 and 160 micrograms daily, respectively.

Key words: pregnancy; TSH suppression; L-thyroxine; thyroid carcinoma.

Introduction

Thyroid hormones are important for normal pregnancy and the foetal development.^{1,2} During pregnancy, maternal thyroid hormones requirements increase.^{3,4} It is well known that the reference values of TSH, free T₃ and free T₄ for healthy the non-pregnant population are not the same as during pregnancy. Dashe *et al.*⁵ published the data about the TSH concentration in 13,599 pregnancies. They found out that the normal physiological concen-

tration of TSH during the first trimester of pregnancy was as low as 0.1 mU/L. According to the trimester-specific reference ranges of serum, TSH concentrations above 2.3 mU/L in the first trimester and 3.1-3.5 mU/L in the second and third trimester may already be indicative of subclinical hypothyroidism.^{1,6} Safety of pregnancy during subclinical hyperthyroidism was reported by Casey *et al.*⁷ They found out that the subclinical hyperthyroidism was not associated with the adverse outcome of pregnancy.⁷

The patients having undergone thyroidectomy and radioiodine therapy are dependent on exogenous L-thyroxine.⁸ Some authors advocate that the increase of dose of L-thyroxine during pregnancy should be determined from the results of thyroid function tests⁸⁻¹¹, while others propose to increase L-thyroxine dose as soon as pregnancy is confirmed.^{12,13}

There are very limited data in the literature about the changes of TSH and thyroid hormones during pregnancy in patients with a history of thyroid carcinoma. To our knowledge, these studies included only a small number of patients^{8, 12-15} with the largest study group of 18 such cases reported by Loh *et al.*⁸ There are scarce data about the optimal increase of L-thyroxine dose during pregnancy in the patients with thyroid carcinoma after total thyroidectomy and radioiodine ablation of thyroid remnant. The first aim of the study was to find out if routine therapeutic measures enable adequate TSH suppression in pregnancy. The other aim was to find out the optimal dose of L-thyroxine for TSH suppression in pregnant women.

Material and methods

In this retrospective observational study we analysed 36 pregnancies of 32 women (mean age at conception 29.9 ± 0.6 years) with a history of thyroid carcinoma during the period from 2000 to 2009. T1, T2 and T3 tumour was diagnosed in 15, 7 and 10 patients, respectively. In 23 and 9 patients, the tumour stage was assessed as N0 and N1, respectively. None of the patients had distant metastases. All of them had no evidence of disease at conception and after delivery. Histopathology of bioptic specimen revealed the presence of Hashimoto's thyroiditis in 11/36 (=31%) of patients. Before pregnancy, all of them underwent total thyroidectomy and radioiodine ablation of the thyroid remnant and they were all on suppressive doses of L-thyroxine. All patients were advised to take L-thyroxine four hours before vitamins, iron or calcium drugs.

At conception, the age of patients was 22 to 37 years (mean age 29.9 ± 0.6 years). Among our patients, 28 women were pregnant once and four twice. Pregnancy passed without any events in 30 cases and with complications in six cases (premature delivery in two cases, preeclampsia in one, increased blood pressure in one, high serum glucose concentration in two, vaginal bleeding in the seventh month of gestation in one case).

Thyroid function tests were performed before, during and after pregnancy. The last test of thyroid function before pregnancy was done 1-12 (median 3) months before conception. During pregnancy, a clinical exam and thyroid function tests were performed every 6-8 weeks. When more than one set of tests was performed in any one trimester, the highest TSH concentration with the corresponding free T₃ and free T₄ concentrations were used in the statistical analysis in order to minimize any bias towards avoidance of dose change. The median number of thyroid function tests performed during pregnancy in each woman was four (range 3-6). L-thyroxine dose was modified to maintain serum TSH below 0.3 mU/L. Suppression dose was adequate if TSH was 0.01-0.29 mU/L and free T₃ was within normal range.

From 2000-2006, TSH was measured by the two-site immunoluminometric assay (sandwich principle) LIASON TSH (Byk-Sangtec Diagnostica, Dietzenbach, Germany). Free T₃ and free T₄ were measured by commercially available kits (LIAISON FT₃, LIAISON FT₄) with "LIAISON" Immunoassay System (Byk-Sangtec, Germany later DiaSorin, Italy). Reference values for TSH, free T₃ and free T₄ were 0.27-4.2 mU/L, 2.93-6.8 pmol/L and 7.7-23.2 pmol/L, respectively. From 2007 onwards, TSH, free T₃ and free T₄ were measured by commercially available kits (TSH, FT₃, FT₄) with "Modular Analytics E170" Immunoassay System (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany). Reference values for TSH, free T₃ and free T₄ were 0.27-4.20 mIU/L, 3.1-6.8 pmol/L and 12-22 pmol/L, respectively.

The study was reviewed by the appropriate medical ethics committee. The Institute's Protocol Review Board approved the study, which was performed in accordance with the medical ethics standards laid down in an appropriate version of the 1964 Declaration of Helsinki. The participants gave informed consent.

Statistical analysis

Changes in the results of thyroid-function tests, and L-thyroxine doses throughout pregnancy were analysed by repeated measures ANOVA or Friedman's test, followed by Wilcoxon signed rank test in case of non-normal data distribution. P-values of less than 0.05 were considered to indicate statistical significance. The software package SPSS 16.0 for Windows (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL USA) was used.

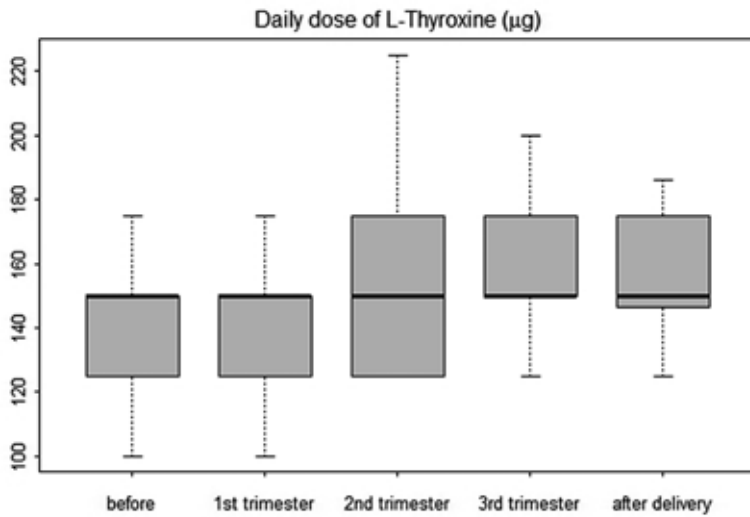


FIGURE 1. Changes of TSH during 36 pregnancies. The bottom and top of the box are the 25th and 75th percentile (the lower and upper quartiles, respectively), and the band near the middle of the box is the 50th percentile (the median). The ends of the whiskers represent the minimum and maximum of all the data.

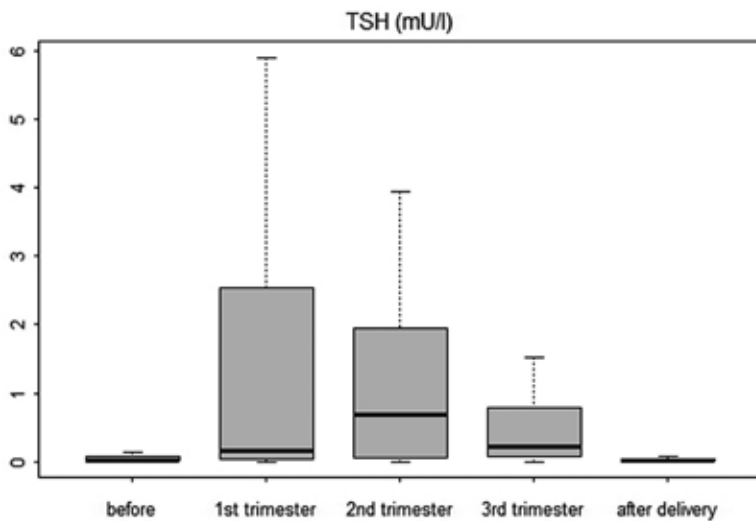


FIGURE 2. Changes of dose of L-thyroxine during 36 pregnancies. The bottom and top of the box are the 25th and 75th percentile (the lower and upper quartiles, respectively), and the band near the middle of the box is the 50th percentile (the median). The ends of the whiskers represent the minimum and maximum of all the data.

Results

The mean concentration of TSH, free T_4 and free T_3 before pregnancy, in the first, second and third trimester and after delivery are presented in Table 1. The concentration of TSH during the first, second and third trimester were higher in comparison to the TSH concentration before pregnancy ($p < 0.001$). The changes of TSH concentration during pregnancy are presented in Figure 1. In none

of our patients, a decrease of TSH was observed in the first 16 weeks of pregnancy.

The doses of L-thyroxine during the second and the third trimester were higher than the doses before pregnancy ($p < 0.05$). The changes of dose of L-thyroxine during pregnancy are presented in Figure 2. Obese patients had larger dose of L-thyroxine in comparison to patients with normal body mass index (BMI) or underweight patients before conception as well as during pregnancy. However, BMI had no impact on the proportion of patients with adequate TSH suppression during pregnancy. The time period from the last test before pregnancy to the first test in pregnancy did not differ in women with adequate TSH suppression and women with inadequate TSH suppression ($p = 0.377$).

Changes of the mean TSH concentration and dose of L-thyroxine before and during pregnancy and after delivery in patients with suppressed and not suppressed TSH concentration are presented in Table 2. The mean dose of L-thyroxine in patients with suppressed TSH before pregnancy, in the first, second and, third trimester and after delivery was 154, 154, 164, 160 and 161 micrograms daily, respectively.

In 36 pregnancies, the TSH concentration remained suppressed during 9 pregnancies. In 22 pregnancies the TSH concentration was within normal range, while in 5 pregnancies it was elevated. A dose of L-thyroxine was not changed in 14 pregnancies (mean dose 159 micrograms daily); TSH was suppressed in 5 pregnancies and within normal range in 9 pregnancies.

The dose of L-thyroxine had to be increased in 22 pregnancies. The TSH concentration in 22 pregnancies remained suppressed in 4, within normal range in 13 and elevated in 5 of them. TSH was over 5.0 mU/L during the first trimester and second trimester in 5/22 (23%) cases and 3/22 (14%) cases, respectively.

The dose of L-thyroxine was increased 30 times and decreased four times during the course of pregnancy. The dose was changed 9, 11 and 14 times in the second, third and the fifth month, respectively. The mean increase of L-thyroxine dose in these 22 cases was 32.15 (range 25-75) micrograms.

Discussion

According to the current American Thyroid Association and European Thyroid Association guidelines^{16,17}, the patients with a history of thyroid

TABLE 1. Mean L-thyroxine dose and mean TSH concentration before pregnancy, in the first trimester, the second trimester, the third trimester and after delivery.

| | Daily dose of L-thyroxine Mean (\pm SD; range) Micrograms | Mean TSH (\pm SD; range) mU/L | FT4 (\pm SD; range) pmol/L | FT3 (\pm SD; range) pmol/L |
|------------------|--|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Before pregnancy | 149 (\pm 32; 100-300) | 0.07 (\pm 0.12; 0.001-0.29) | 20.13 (\pm 5.08; 13.9-28.4) | 5.16 (\pm 0.86; 3.91-6.61) |
| 1. trimester | 147 (\pm 34; 100-300) | 1.96 (\pm 3.60; 0.001-14.54) | 16.72 (\pm 4.32; 9.29-27.6) | 4.15 (\pm 1.08; 2.41-7.6) |
| 2. trimester | 155 (\pm 35; 125-300) | 1.43 (\pm 1.96; 0.001-7.64) | 14.79 (\pm 3.39; 8.95-24.1) | 4.00 (\pm 0.85; 2.72-5.5) |
| 3. trimester | 165 (\pm 34; 125-300) | 0.63 (\pm 0.95; 0.001-4.60) | 14.04 (\pm 3.15; 5.07-23.1) | 3.83 (\pm 0.69; 2.52-5.2) |
| After pregnancy | 158 (\pm 34; 100-300) | 0.05 (\pm 0.11; 0.001-0.59) | 22.15 (\pm 3.94; 14.6-31.9) | 5.41 (\pm 1.08; 3.18-7.83) |

carcinoma are either on substitution or suppressive doses of L-thyroxine. Our study group consisted of 36 pregnancies in 32 patients with a history of thyroid carcinoma. Before conception they were treated by total thyroidectomy and radioiodine ablation of thyroid remnant and were on the suppressive dose of L-thyroxine. So, in all of our patients there was no viable thyroid tissue to produce thyroid hormones. These patients were, therefore, entirely dependent on exogenous L-thyroxine.

In healthy women, a transient decrement of serum TSH concentration occurs during the first two months of pregnancy, which is a result of the elevation of human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG) having similar molecular structure as TSH.^{1,18,19} In none of our patients, lower concentration of TSH was detected during the first two months of pregnancy. In the absence of viable thyroid tissue, there was no effect of elevated concentration of hCG on the synthesis and secretion of thyroid hormones from thyroid and on the consequent decrease of TSH concentration.

According to Endocrine Society Clinical Practice Guideline¹, L-thyroxine dose often needs to be increased within 4-6 weeks of gestation and may require a 30-50% addition of dosage.^{3,4} But we observed that there was no need to increase the dose during pregnancy in 25% of our cases who were on suppressive doses of L-thyroxine before conception. Also Loh *et al.*⁸ observed that there was no need to change the dosage in some of the patients with thyroid carcinoma who were on TSH suppression therapy before pregnancy. Based on our results, we believe that an increment of dose immediately after conception as advocated by some authors¹² is not appropriate for all the patients who are on suppressive doses of L-thyroxine. We agree with Loh *et al.*⁸ that these patients may be over treated by an empiric increase of L-thyroxine dose and may develop overt hyperthyroidism.

The other important finding of our study is that TSH suppression was not achieved in 75% of cases when thyroid testing was performed each 6-8 weeks. Furthermore, an elevation of TSH level above normal was observed in 14% of our patients. Possibly, this could be avoided, if thyroid function tests would be obtained every 4-6 weeks as recommended by Endocrine Society Clinical Practice Guideline¹, or every 4 weeks as recommended by Yassa *et al.*¹³ In a recent study Yassa *et al.*¹³ performed serum testing every two weeks until the 20th week of pregnancy and at the 30th week of pregnancy. If blood samples were obtained every four weeks, 92% of abnormal TSH concentrations were detected. But, if an every six week testing protocol had been followed, only 73% of abnormal TSH concentrations would have been detected.¹⁰ So, they concluded that the thyroid function tests should be repeated every four weeks during the first half of pregnancy.

It is still not known when it is most appropriate to increase the dose of L-thyroxine²⁰: before pregnancy²¹, immediately after conception^{12,13} or when elevation of TSH is observed.⁸⁻¹¹ Rotondi *et al.*²¹ suggested the increase of L-thyroxine dose to "partially suppressive" dose before pregnancy. The patients who underwent thyroidectomy because of multinodular goitre or Hashimoto's thyroiditis and who were on substitution therapy were randomized in two groups before conception: one group continued with substitution doses, while the other was on partially suppressive dose.²¹ Before conception, the average dose in the substitution group and the partially suppressive group of patients was 143 and 178 micrograms, while the average TSH was 1.84 and 0.48 (0.32-0.7) mU/L, respectively.²¹ TSH level above 3.5 mU/L was found to be more common in the substitution group in comparison to the "partially suppressive" group of patients (36% vs. 14%).

TABLE 2. Adequacy of suppression, mean L-thyroxine dose and mean TSH concentration before pregnancy, in the first trimester, the second trimester, the third trimester and after delivery.

| | Before preg- nancy | First trimester | Second tri- mester | Third trimester | After preg- nancy | |
|-------------------------------------|---|------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Adequately supressed | Daily dose of L-thyroxine Mean (\pm SD) Micrograms | 154 (\pm 32) | 154 (\pm 28) | 164 (\pm 47) | 160 (\pm 21) | 161 (\pm 33) |
| | Daily dose of L-thyroxine/kg Mean (\pm SD) Micrograms/kg | 2.37 (\pm 0.31) | - | - | 2.17 (\pm 0.30) | - |
| | Daily dose of L-thyroxine/BMI Mean (\pm SD) Micrograms/kg/m ² | 6.64 (\pm 0.90) | | | 6.03 (\pm 0.80) | |
| | Mean TSH (\pm SD) mU/L | 0.049 (\pm 0.07) | 0.07 (\pm 0.07) | 0.057 (\pm 0.07) | 0.12 (\pm 0.08) | 0.03 (\pm 0.06) |
| | Number of patients | 34 | 21 | 12 | 22 | 34 |
| Not adequately supressed | Daily dose of L-thyroxine Mean (\pm SD) Micrograms | 125 (\pm 0) | 154 (\pm 28) | 152 (\pm 27) | 173 (\pm 48) | 112 (\pm 18) |
| | Daily dose of L-thyroxine/kg Mean (\pm SD) Micrograms/kg | 1.88 (\pm 0.50) | | | 2.35 (\pm 0.36) | |
| | Daily dose of L-thyroxine/BMI Mean (\pm SD) Micrograms/kg/m ² | 5.13 (\pm 1.46) | | | 6.00 (\pm 0.90) | |
| | Mean TSH (\pm SD) mU/L | 0.5 (\pm 0.21) | 4.6 (\pm 4.4) | 2.2 (\pm 2.08) | 1.43 (\pm 1.13) | 0.49 (\pm 0.14) |
| | Number of patients (% of patients with TSH over 5 mU/L) | 2 (0%) | 15 (33%) | 24 (8%) | 14 (0%) | 2 (0%) |

Another approach, *i.e.* increment of the dose as soon as pregnancy is confirmed, was proposed by Alexander *et al.*¹² They studied precisely the timing and amount of L-thyroxine adjustment in 20 pregnancies in 19 women.¹² Eight patients had Hashimoto's disease, six thyroid carcinoma, three Graves disease and two were after the treatment for benign thyroid nodule. L-thyroxine requirements increased as early as the fifth week of gestation.¹² That is why they recommended an increase of L-thyroxine dose as soon as possible.¹² Their opinion is that the dose should be increased by about 30%.¹² Yassa *et al.*¹³ performed a prospectively randomized study in which women were receiving an increased L-thyroxine dose at the beginning of pregnancy. The dose in the first group was increased by 29%, and in the second group, by 43%. The mean dose before and after the change in the first and the second group was 112, 145, 109 and

156 micrograms, respectively.¹³ After the change of dose, TSH suppression was present in 32% of women from the first group and in 65% of women from the second group; but less than 0.1 mU/L of TSH was found in only one patient (8%) from the first group and in six patients from the second group (26%).¹³ They found out that a 29% increase of dose (from 112 to 145 micrograms) prevented maternal TSH elevation over 2.5 and 5.0 mU/L in 85% and 100% of patients, respectively. But the majority of their patients had Hashimoto's disease, while our patients had a history of thyroid carcinoma and were without any functional thyroid tissue. In our patients, the mean dose before pregnancy was 149 micrograms of L-thyroxine. When a dosage during pregnancy remained the same, the mean dose was 159 micrograms. This dosage prevented the elevation of TSH over 5.0 mU/L in all the cases. On the other hand, when a dosage during pregnancy had

to be changed, the mean dose before conception was 125 micrograms only. In the latter cases, TSH was over 5.0 mU/L during the first and second trimester in 23% of cases and 14%, respectively.

The third approach, increment of a dose based on thyroid function tests was reported by Loh *et al.*⁸ In 18 cases with a history of thyroid carcinoma, the average daily L-thyroxine dose before conception was 153 micrograms. During pregnancy they required an increase of dose by 26%.⁸ In our patients, the average dose was 149 micrograms before conception. But during pregnancy our patients required an increase of dose by 11% only. Obviously the range of changes in TSH concentration during pregnancy in the patients who have been on suppressive L-thyroxine therapy before conception is quite wide.

As a conclusion, the patients with thyroid carcinoma who are on high doses of L-thyroxine require close monitoring of thyroid function tests during pregnancy. TSH was adequately suppressed in only 25% of pregnancies. The dose of L-thyroxine in patients with suppressed TSH in the first, second and third trimester was 154, 164 and 160 micrograms daily, respectively. When the dose had to be changed, the mean increase of the dose was 31.5 (range 25-75) micrograms daily.

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What sampling device is the most appropriate for vaginal vault cytology in gynaecological cancer follow up?

Del Pup Lino¹, Canzonieri Vincenzo², Serraino Diego³, Campagnutta Elio¹

¹ Gynaecology Oncology Department,

² Pathology Department and

³ Epidemiology Unit, National Cancer Institute CRO, Aviano, PN, Italy

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Correspondence to: Del Pup Lino, Oncologia Ginecologica, Istituto Nazionale Tumori, Centro di Riferimento Oncologico, Aviano, Pordenone, Via F. Gallini 2, Aviano, Pordenone, Italy, Phone: +39 0434 659051; Fax: +39 0434 659439; ldelpup@cro.it

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Background. In women with cancer-related hysterectomy, the vaginal vault cytology has a low efficacy - when performed by conventional methods - for the early detection of vaginal recurrence. The amount of exfoliated cells collected is generally low because of atrophy, and the vaginal vault corners can be so narrow that the commonly used Ayres spatula cannot often penetrate deeply into them. This prospective study aimed at identifying the advantages obtained in specimens collection using the cytobrush, as compared to the Ayres's spatula.

Patients and methods. 141 gynaecologic cancer patients were studied to compare samplings collected with Ayre's spatula or with cytobrush. In a pilot setting of 15 patients, vaginal cytology samples obtained by both Ayre's spatula and cytobrush were placed at the opposite sites of a single slide for quali-quantitative evaluation. Thereafter, the remaining 126 consecutive women were assigned to either group A (spatula) or B (cytobrush) according to the order of entry. The same gynaecologist performed all the procedures.

Results. In all 15 pilot cases, the cytobrush seemed to collect a higher quantity of material. The comparative analysis of the two complete groups indicated that the cytobrush technique was more effective than the spatula one. The odds ratio (OR) for an optimal cytology using the cytobrush was 2.8 (95% confidence interval -C.I. 1.3-6.2; chi-square test, $p=0.008$).

Conclusions. Vaginal vault cytology with cytobrush turned out to better perform than the traditional Ayre's spatula to obtain an adequate sampling in gynecological cancer patients.

Key words: Ayre's spatula; cytobrush; female cancer; vaginal cytology

Introduction

The main aim of post-treatment surveillance in oncology is to improve the survival through early detection of recurrent tumours.¹ The cytopathologic examination is a one of the valuable method to detect an early recurrence of malignancy or new primary carcinoma during the follow-up of patients after the treatment of a different cancer.² However, the vaginal vault cytology is considered a surveillance method with low efficacy for the early detection of vaginal recurrence in patients with a ma-

lignancy-related hysterectomy.^{3,4} This is partially caused either by cytologic artefacts due to inflammation or by vaginal effects of previous chemotherapy, radiotherapy, or surgery. The amount of exfoliated cells collected is generally low because of atrophy. In addition, the vaginal vault corners can be so narrow that the commonly used Ayres spatula is often unable to penetrate deeply into them. These two latter factors could further reduce the probability of the early detection of a local recurrence, though they can be improved by different sampling methods.

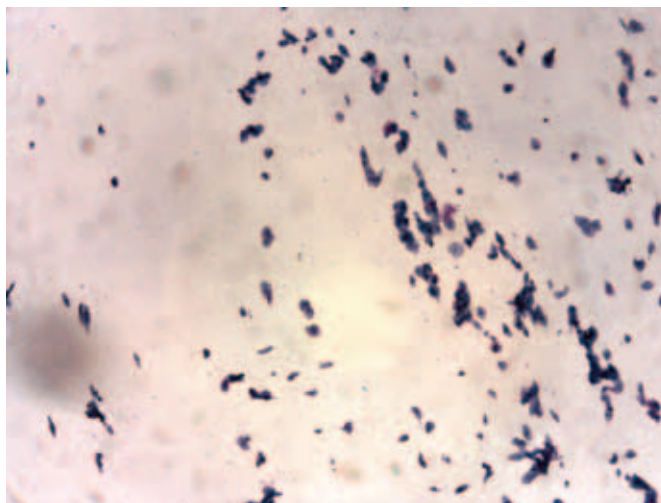
Extended-tip spatulas improve the collection of exfoliated cells, with a nearly 2-fold higher odds ratio (OR) -in comparison with Ayre's spatula. However, the available data refer to endocervical samples, not to vaginal vault cytology of hysterectomized cancer patients.⁵

To evaluate the best spatula for obtaining adequate vaginal samplings, we reviewed the available literature in PubMed using the following strategy: ("Vaginal Smears/instrumentation"[MeSH] OR "Vaginal Smears/methods"[MeSH] OR "Vaginal Smears/standards"[MeSH] OR "Vaginal Smears/utilization"[MeSH]) AND "Genital Neoplasms, Female"[MeSH] AND "Hysterectomy"[MeSH]. Then we searched for indications on the methods in Plumbed with the strategy: "Follow up" AND "Genital Neoplasms, Female"[Mesh] AND "Hysterectomy"[Mesh] as well as in the main guidelines. We could not find adequate randomized trials regarding the optimal method to perform vaginal vault cytology during the follow-up of hysterectomized women.

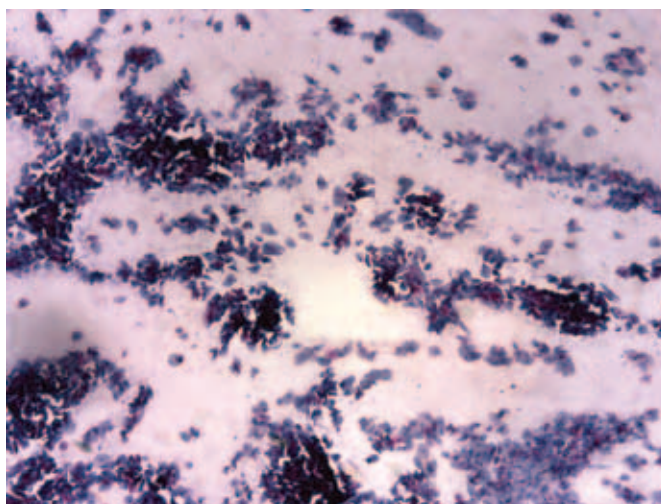
Patients and methods

At the Gynaecology Oncology Department of the National Cancer Institute "Centro di Riferimento Oncologico", Aviano, North East of Italy, 141 gynaecologic cancer patients in follow-up were included in prospective study. The study design complied with national regulations and institutional policies and the study was carried out according to the Helsinki Declaration.

The survey was conducted in two steps. In a preliminary study of 15 patients, we performed vaginal cytology with both Ayres and cytobrush and the cells samples were placed on the same slide, half of the slide area for each device. In order to prevent bias due to the greater amount of cells collected by the first device used, the first sample was obtained initially with Ayres spatula and subsequently with cytobrush. For every subsequent patient this order was changed. Cytobrush samples were placed on the half of the slide far from patient's identification data. Criteria of adequacy for vaginal vault cytology consisted in the evaluation of enough cellularity of squamous type. However, since the goal of our work was to identify the best method to collect more vaginal cells for smears, some differences in the amount of cells available for comparisons between the two studied methods were expected. This first step of the study aimed to describe the cytology differences between the two sampling



(A)



(B)

FIGURE 1. Cytological sample collected from vaginal vault with Ayre's spatula (A) and cytobrush (B) (Papanicolau; mag. 100X).

devices analysing the cells on the same slide. The study continued with a methodology that allowed an improved assessment of the differences.

In the second and most important step of the study, 126 consecutive hysterectomized cancer patients who underwent vaginal vault cytology were investigated. Fifty-nine (47%) of them had cervical cancer, 53 (42%) endometrial cancer, nine (8%) had ovarian cancer, four (3%) had vulvar cancer, and one uterine sarcoma. These women were alternatively assigned either to group A (*i.e.*, classical Ayres spatula) or B (*i.e.*, cytobrush) according to the order of entry, starting from group A. Vaginal vault cytology collection was performed in group A with the classical Ayres spatula and in group B with cytobrush. The same gynaecologist (DPL) performed all the procedures with exactly the

TABLE 1. Differences in cytologic adequate sampling (optimal and suboptimal) between the two sampling devices: Ayre's spatula and cytobrush

| | | Optimal | | Suboptimal | | Total |
|----------|----------------|---------|------|------------|------|-------|
| | | n | % | n | % | n |
| Group A: | Ayre's spatula | 23 | 35.9 | 41 | 64.1 | 64 |
| Group B: | Cytobrush | 38 | 61.3 | 24 | 38.7 | 62 |
| | | 65 | | 61 | | 126 |

(Chi square test, $p=0.008$)

same approach. Smears were immediately fixed by cytofix spray with uniform distribution over the smear without artifacts. Staining was conducted by standard Papanicolau method. One pathologist (CV), blinded to the sampling method, analysed all the samples. The cellularity was considered suboptimal when scanty and/or showing an unsuitable morphology for diagnosis. Criteria of adequacy for vaginal vault cytology consisted in the evaluation of adequate cellularity of squamous type. However, since the goal of the work was to establish the best method to collect more vaginal cells for smears, some differences in the amount of cells available for evaluation between the two methods were expected. The Chi-square test for heterogeneity, OR and their 95% CI were computed to assess statistical associations.

Results

All samples were accepted as adequate. In the preliminary study, fifteen specimens showed a higher cellularity using cytobrush (Figure 1). In the second part of the study, among patients where the vaginal cytology with Ayres spatula was performed, 41 patients had a suboptimal quantity of collected cells and 23 of them an optimal one. Among patients who underwent vaginal cytology with cytobrush, 24 had a suboptimal cytology and 38 an optimal one. This difference was statistically significant ($p=0.008$), while the OR for an optimal cytology using the cytobrush was 2.8 (95% C.I. 1.3-6.2) (Table 1). There were no side effects, such as bleeding, in both sampling groups.

Discussion

Our data suggested that the cytobrush is a more efficient sampling device than the traditional Ayre's spatula obtain from vaginal vault. Indeed, it allows collecting 2.8 times the amount of optimal specimen, as it enables more efficient cell scraping from

the vaginal epithelium, which is almost invariably atrophic in hysterectomized gynaecologic cancer patients. The cytobrush device carries also the advantage of a deeper sampling by reaching the narrow corners sometimes produced by surgical interventions in the vaginal vault. In these hidden spaces, an initial recurrence can also be difficult to be visualized or palpated. Furthermore, plastic materials tend to have a lower adherence than wooden spatulas, allowing more cells to be smeared to the slide for the analysis.

The Ayre's spatula is the device commonly used for cervical cytology and the one used in previous vaginal vault cytology studies that are summarized below. Vaginal vault cytology is generally performed during follow-up, after hysterectomy for cervical cancer. Only one patient, out of 79 completing a 15-year follow-up study⁶, had an abnormal smear and a vaginal intraepithelial neoplasia (VAIN) later diagnosed and no patient developed invasive vaginal carcinoma. A French study⁷, conducted over a 10-year period on 2152 patients, reported only four cases of invasive cancer of the vagina of which one occurring after radical hysterectomy for invasive cancer of the cervix and three after total hysterectomy for cervical intraepithelial neoplasia (CIN). The follow-up of endometrial cancer does not seem to improve the survival. A Canadian study⁸ concluded that the routine use of vaginal vault smears was not cost effective during the follow-up. A detection of each asymptomatic vaginal recurrence requires 1067 Pap-smear tests, producing benefits for only 0.5% of patients.⁹ Neither recurrence free nor the overall survival are improved in these cases compared to those detected at clinical presentation.^{10,11} Only in non-irradiated patients, a strong case can be made for regular follow-up to detect vaginal recurrence at the earliest opportunity, given the high salvage rate following radiotherapy.^{12,13} In a systematic review, the detection of asymptomatic recurrences of endometrial cancer ranged from 0% to 4% with vaginal vault cytology, as compared to 5% to 33% with physical examination.¹⁴

The effectiveness of vaginal vault cytology in the above mentioned studies could have been different, if performed with the cytobrush. We used both the cytobrush and the Ayre's spatula for vaginal vault sampling. Smear preparation was made according to standard pathological operative procedures. In our study, we did not use liquid based cytology to increase the whole number of collected cells because the main goal of the study was to compare two sampling methods conducted by means of two different devices.

In conclusion, our data revealed that, in women with gynecological cancers, vaginal vault cytology conducted with the cytobrush appeared more efficient than its conventional counterpart, the Ayre's spatula, as it allowed the collection of a more adequate sample.

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Dosimetric characterizations of GZP6 ^{60}Co high dose rate brachytherapy sources: application of superimposition method

Mohammad Taghi Bahreyni Toossi¹, Mahdi Ghorbani², Ali Asghar Mowlavi³ and Ali Soleimani Meigooni⁴

¹ Medical Physics Research Center, Medical Physics Department, Faculty of Medicine, Mashhad University of Medical Sciences, Mashhad, Iran

² North Khorasan University of Medical Sciences, Bojnurd, Iran

³ Physics Department, School of Sciences, Hakim Sabzevari University, Sabzevar, Iran

⁴ Comprehensive Cancer Center of Nevada, 3730 S. Eastern Avenue, Las Vegas, Nevada, USA

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Correspondence to: Mahdi Ghorbani, Vice Chancellery of Research and Technology, North Khorasan University of Medical Sciences, South Shariati No. 7, Bojnurd, North Khorasan, Iran. Phone: +98 584 2247124; Fax: +98 584 2247124; E-mail: mhdghorbani@gmail.com

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Background. Dosimetric characteristics of a high dose rate (HDR) GZP6 Co-60 brachytherapy source have been evaluated following American Association of Physicists in Medicine Task Group 43U1 (AAPM TG-43U1) recommendations for their clinical applications.

Materials and methods. MCNP-4C and MCNPX Monte Carlo codes were utilized to calculate dose rate constant, two dimensional (2D) dose distribution, radial dose function and 2D anisotropy function of the source. These parameters of this source are compared with the available data for Ralstron ^{60}Co and microSelectron ^{192}Ir sources. Besides, a superimposition method was developed to extend the obtained results for the GZP6 source No. 3 to other GZP6 sources.

Results. The simulated value for dose rate constant for GZP6 source was $1.104 \pm 0.03 \text{ cGy} \cdot \text{h}^{-1} \cdot \text{U}^{-1}$. The graphical and tabulated radial dose function and 2D anisotropy function of this source are presented here. The results of these investigations show that the dosimetric parameters of GZP6 source are comparable to those for the Ralstron source. While dose rate constant for the two ^{60}Co sources are similar to that for the microSelectron ^{192}Ir source, there are differences between radial dose function and anisotropy functions. Radial dose function of the ^{192}Ir source is less steep than both ^{60}Co source models. In addition, the ^{60}Co sources are showing more isotropic dose distribution than the ^{192}Ir source.

Conclusions. The superimposition method is applicable to produce dose distributions for other source arrangements from the dose distribution of a single source. The calculated dosimetric quantities of this new source can be introduced as input data to the GZP6 treatment planning system (TPS) and to validate the performance of the TPS.

Key words: brachytherapy; GZP6; TG-43; superimposition method; Monte Carlo simulation

Introduction

Recently, the GZP6 high dose rate (HDR) ^{60}Co brachytherapy unit, manufactured by Nuclear Power Institute of China (Chengdu, China), has been introduced for brachytherapy procedures.¹ Although not as common as ^{192}Ir source, ^{60}Co has been used in past as a brachytherapy source in the treatment of various malignancies²⁻⁴, and a brachy-

therapy technique remains a frequent treatment in clinical praxis.⁵ There are also potential logistical advantages for ^{60}Co sources for HDR systems over ^{192}Ir ⁶, including less frequency of source exchange which provides longer duration of clinical use and reduced operating costs. Different geometric designs of ^{60}Co radionuclide have been used in radiotherapy clinics in the past with limited traditional dosimetric information.^{7,8} Dose cal-

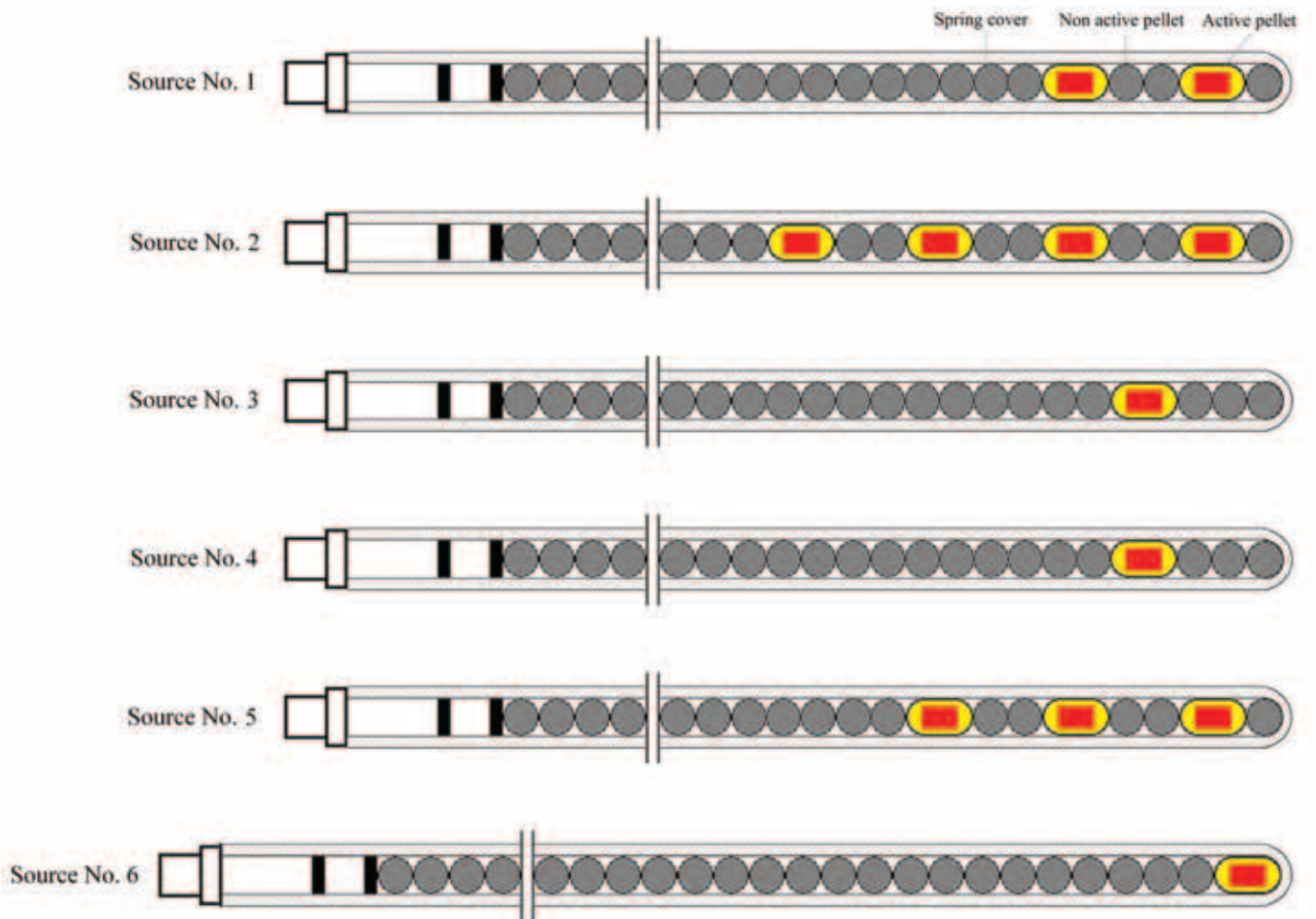


FIGURE 1. Schematic diagram illustrating six GZP6 source braids, containing active and nonactive pellets. Each source is allocated to one separate channel. The sources 1-5 are stationary while the source No. 6 is stepper.

culations around these implants were performed using the traditional dose calculation technique. However, presently, the Task Group 43 (TG-43) report of American Association of Physicists in Medicine (AAPM) has recommended determination of dosimetric parameters, such as radial dose function, anisotropy function (ANF), etc., of any brachytherapy source before its clinical use.⁹ Also according to the AAPM TG-56 such parameters are required as input data and for verification of the treatment planning system.¹⁰

The newly designed GZP6 HDR ^{60}Co brachytherapy unit has been recently employed for the clinical practice in Iran. Unlike the HDR ^{192}Ir systems, which contain one source, the GZP6 unit includes six different sources (Figure 1). Each source is designated to a separate channel in the HDR unit. Five of these six sources are stationary, and the 6th source (*i.e.* source number 6) has stepping (dwelling) capability that could be used for

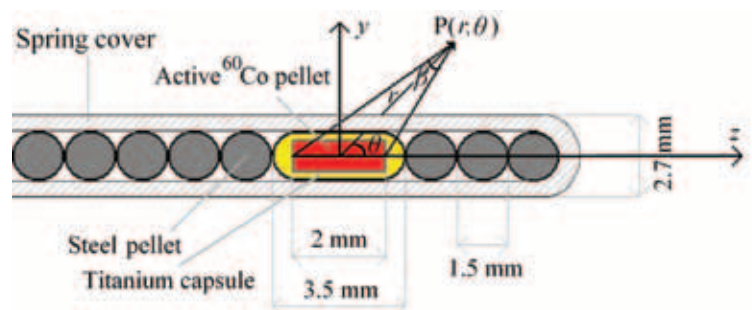


FIGURE 2. A schematic view of the GZP6 source braid number 3 illustrating the dimensions of active cylindrical ^{60}Co and non-active steel pellets as well as TG43U1 coordinate systems. This diagram is schematic and is not to scale.

treatment of patients with longer active length. As shown in Figure 1, each source is composed of a source-braid or packing, consist of 1, 2, 3 or 4 radioactive source pellets as well as a number of non active steel pellets. In order to make these source

geometries reproducible, at the same time flexible as it moves within the transfer tube and applicator, the active and non-active pellets are fitted within a steel spring cover. Dimensions and components of the active and non-active pellets of these sources are provided in the schematic diagram of source number 3 (Figure 2). In their first publication on this system, Mesbahi *et al.* measured the air kerma strengths of source numbers 1, 2 and 5.¹¹ In a separate investigation, Mesbahi has also calculated radial dose function for these three sources.¹² Naseri *et al.* have examined the accuracy of the dose distributions calculated by the GZP6 treatment planning system by Monte Carlo simulation of these sources.¹³ Monte Carlo simulation is widely used in radiophysics¹⁴, however, to our knowledge the GZP6 unit has not been studied before, based on a comprehensive determination of TG-43U1 dosimetric parameters.¹⁵ Since the GZP6 unit has six sources with different fixed configurations, each source has been individually evaluated for their clinical applications.

The goal of this project is to investigate the dosimetric parameters (*i.e.* dose rate constant, radial dose function and anisotropy function) of source number 3, which has not been studied before, following the TG-43U1 recommendation through Monte Carlo simulations. The results of these investigations will be compared with the corresponding data available for Ralston (type 2) ⁶⁰Co and microSelectron ¹⁹²Ir sources.^{4,16} The dose distribution for the source No. 3 is used to produce dose distributions for the other GZP6 sources using a superimposition method developed in this study.

Materials and methods

Radioactive source structure

The GZP6 high dose rate afterloading unit comprises of different six ⁶⁰Co sources affixed to six different channels in the system. In this study dosimetric characteristic of the source number 3 of the unit, which is a non-stepping source and includes one active cylindrical ⁶⁰Co pellet, is being evaluated. As illustrated schematically in Figure 2, this source braid consists of an active nickel-plated cobalt pellet and a number of inactive spherical pellets which are made of steel. The active ⁶⁰Co cylinder has a radius of 0.5 mm and length of 2 mm (including the nickel-plating), in which the ⁶⁰Co radionuclide was distributed uniformly throughout the core. The nickel plating has a thickness of 0.05 mm, which has not been illustrated in the Figure 2. The active

cobalt pellet is additionally encapsulated in a titanium capsule, with 0.25 mm in thickness and consisting of two hemispheres with 0.75 mm in radius at the two ends, sealed by Argon arc welding. The whole pellets are accommodated in a steel spring cover with an external diameter of 2.7 mm. ⁶⁰Co is emitting two gamma photons with 1.17 and 1.33 MeV energies and β^- particles with $E_{\max}=0.318$ MeV. It has a half-life of 5.271 years. The latter particle is attenuated effectively with the titanium capsule.

TG 43 formalism

The formalism of TG-43U1 was followed to compute the dosimetric parameters of the source.¹⁵ According to this formalism the dose rate at the point P(r, θ) from the source center is defined by the following equation (as illustrated in Figure 2):

$$D(r, \theta) = S_k \Lambda \frac{G(r, \theta)}{G(r_0, \theta_0)} g(r, \theta) F(r, \theta) \quad [1]$$

Where r is the radial distance (in cm) from the source center and θ is the polar angle. r_0 is the reference radial distance of 1 cm and θ_0 is the reference polar angle of 90°. S_k is air kerma strength of the source (in U, where 1 U = 1 μ Gy m²h⁻¹), Λ is dose rate constant, $G(r, \theta)$ is geometry function, $g(r, \theta)$ is radial dose function and $F(r, \theta)$ is two-dimensional (2D) anisotropy function.

The dose rate constant is the ratio of dose rate at the reference point (r_0, θ_0) and air kerma strength:

$$\Lambda = \frac{\dot{D}(r_0, \theta_0)}{S_k} \quad [2]$$

Dose rate constant has a unit of cGy h⁻¹U⁻¹.

In this study the line-source approximation was used for calculation of geometry function. By using this approximation, for the geometry function can be obtained from the following equation:

$$G(r, \theta) = (r^2 - L^2 / 4)^{-1} \quad [3]$$

If $\theta \neq 0^\circ$ the geometry function is obtained from equation [4]:

$$G(r, \theta) = \frac{\beta}{L r \sin \theta} \quad [4]$$

As denoted by Awan *et al.*¹⁷, considering the source active length L , the radial distance r and the angles θ and β as showed in the Figure 2, equation [5] can be resulted from the above equation:

$$G(r, \theta) = \frac{\tan^{-1}[(r \cos \theta + L/2)/r \sin \theta] - \tan^{-1}[(r \cos \theta - L/2)/r \sin \theta]}{L r \sin \theta} \quad [5]$$

Thus if $\theta \neq 0^\circ$, the geometry function can be calculated directly in terms of r and θ from equation [5].

TABLE 1. Mass density and composition of the materials used in the Monte Carlo simulations

| Material: description | Mass density (g/cm ³) | Composition (element/weight fraction) |
|--|-----------------------------------|--|
| Cobalt: source core | 8.85 | Co/1 |
| Nickel: source plating | 8.902 | Ni/1 |
| Titanium: source capsule | 4.54 | Ti/1 |
| Steel pellets: spacers in the source braid | 7.9 | Fe/0.71994, C/0.0005, Si/0.0072, Mn/0.0137, S/0.00011, P/0.00025, Cr/0.17, Ni/0.0822, Mo/0.0013, V/0.0006, Ti/0.0042 |
| Steel: spring cover | 6.999 | Fe/0.7416, Ni/0.069, S/0.0001, Cr/0.167, C/0.0006, Mn/0.0062, Cu/0.0026, Al/0.0062, Mo/0.0015, Si/0.0052 |
| Air | 0.001205 | C/0.000124, N/0.7555267, O/0.231781, Ar/0.012827 |
| Water: phantom material | 1 | H/0.111894, O/0.888106 |

TABLE 2. Two dimensional geometry function (f) for GZP6 source number 3

| r(cm) | θ (°) | | | | | | | | | |
|-------|--------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| | 0° | 10° | 20° | 30° | 40° | 50° | 60° | 70° | 80° | 90° |
| 0.5 | 1.037 | 1.036 | 1.031 | 1.024 | 1.016 | 1.008 | 1.000 | 0.994 | 0.990 | 0.988 |
| 0.75 | 1.016 | 1.016 | 1.014 | 1.011 | 1.007 | 1.003 | 1.000 | 0.997 | 0.995 | 0.995 |
| 1 | 1.009 | 1.009 | 1.008 | 1.006 | 1.004 | 1.002 | 1.000 | 0.998 | 0.997 | 0.997 |
| 1.5 | 1.004 | 1.004 | 1.003 | 1.003 | 1.002 | 1.001 | 1.000 | 0.999 | 0.999 | 0.999 |
| 2 | 1.002 | 1.002 | 1.002 | 1.002 | 1.001 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 0.999 | 0.999 |
| 2.5 | 1.001 | 1.001 | 1.001 | 1.001 | 1.001 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |
| 3 | 1.001 | 1.001 | 1.001 | 1.001 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |
| 3.5 | 1.001 | 1.001 | 1.001 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |
| 4 | 1.001 | 1.001 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |
| 4.5 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |
| 5 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |

The radial dose function, $g(r)$, and anisotropy function, $F(r, \theta)$ are defined as:

$$g(r) = \frac{\dot{D}(r, \theta_0) G(r_0, \theta_0)}{\dot{D}(r_0, \theta_0) G(r, \theta_0)} \quad [6]$$

$$F(r, \theta) = \frac{\dot{D}(r, \theta) G(r, \theta_0)}{\dot{D}(r, \theta_0) G(r, \theta)} \quad [7]$$

In which $\dot{D}(r, \theta)$ denotes the dose rate at the point $P(r, \theta)$ from the source.

Monte Carlo calculations

The MCNP-4C Monte Carlo code was employed to estimate absorbed dose towards obtaining TG-43U1 parameters.¹⁸ Since it has the option of defining the mesh grids, the MCNPX version 2.4.0 Monte Carlo code was also utilized to obtain 2D

dose distribution for the source.¹⁹ When this option is used it would be easier to score tally values in a large number of scoring volumes. Table 1 lists the mass density and chemical composition of the materials used in our Monte Carlo calculations.

In calculations of dose rate constant and 2D dose distributions, the value of air kerma strength was taken from our previous work.²⁰

The source braid was centered in a cylindrical water of dimensions $R=25$ cm and $L=50$ cm in the simulations. A cutoff energy of 10 keV was used for both photons and electrons. To speed up the Monte Carlo calculations, the absorbed dose was approximated as kerma to estimate dose at points where the electronic equilibrium exists. For a ⁶⁰Co source, the dose build up region affects only points in close vicinity from the ⁶⁰Co pellet. The f6 tally was used to score collision kerma (in MeV/g/photon). At the points in the vicinity of the source, in which the electronic equilibrium may not exist, dose was scored using *f8

TABLE 3. Dose rate constant (Λ) values for GZP6 ^{60}Co (number 3), Ralstron (type 2) ^{60}Co (Ref. 4) and microSelectron ^{192}Ir (Ref. 16) sources

| Source Type | GZP6 (This Study) | Ralstron (type 2) (Papagiannis <i>et al.</i> ⁴) | microSelectron (Karaiskos <i>et al.</i> ¹⁶) |
|---|----------------------|--|--|
| Λ (cGyh ⁻¹ U ⁻¹) | 1.104±0.03 | 1.101±0.005 | 1.116±0.006 |

tally (in MeV/photon). Toroid tally cells of 0.05 cm in thickness were used to score the tally values. The numbers of photon histories simulated were 1.6×10^7 , 1.6×10^7 and 1.45×10^8 respectively to obtain dose rate constant, radial dose function, and 2D anisotropy function. The corresponding statistical errors were respectively equal to 1.58, 0.5 and 0.88 percent for the Monte Carlo calculations in the used tally cells. Dose values at different radial distances and angles from the source (required for calculation of radial dose function and anisotropy function) were obtained through Monte Carlo simulations for a water phantom. The data for radial dose function and anisotropy function then were calculated respectively using equations [6] and [7]. Dose rate constant, radial dose function and 2D anisotropy function values for GZP6 source number 3 were compared with corresponding data for Ralstron (type 2) ^{60}Co source, reported by Papagiannis *et al.*⁴, and microSelectron ^{192}Ir source, reported by Karaiskos *et al.*¹⁶

To obtain 2D dose rate table, a cylindrical grid of 14 cm×14 cm in y - z plane, with resolution of 0.05 cm in both longitudinal and radial directions was overlaid on the geometry. The thin grid was used to reduce the Monte Carlo computation time. 3.5×10^8 photon histories were followed, resulting an average error of 0.44% over the mesh cells. MCNPX tally type 1 with the option of depth for photons was used to determine energy deposition per volume per photon in terms of per photon. The tally value then was converted to the dose rate per U by introducing the activity, air kerma strength of the source and appropriate conversion factors in the calculations.

Superimposition method

A superimposition algorithm was developed to produce the dose distributions of the GZP6 sources No. 1, 2 and 5 from the dose distribution data of the source No. 3. The algorithm was consisted of four steps:

(a) The dose distribution data for each pellet in the sources 1, 2 and 5 was obtained from the dose distribution matrix of source 3 through application of matrix shift method.²¹ The shifting distance was equal to the inter-pellets distance (6.5 mm).

(b) The dose distribution data for each pellet was multiplied by normalized activity of that pellet to the activity of source No. 3.

(c) A summation was then performed over the matrixes of all pellets in each source of 1, 2 and 5.

(d) Dose contours were plotted from the dose distribution matrix of sources 1, 2 and 5.

The results of the mentioned algorithm were verified to examine its accuracy. For this purpose the sources 1, 2 and 5 were simulated separately and the obtained dose distributions were compared by the dose distributions resulted from the above algorithm.

Results and discussion

TG-43 dosimetric parameters

The calculated values of geometry function for 0.5-5 cm radial distance and 0°-90° angles are presented in the Table 2. The calculated values for geometry function were equal to unity at 6-10 cm distance. To summarize the results, these values were not presented in the Table 2. The geometry function is symmetrical with reference to the angle of 90°. On the other hand the angular values of the on the either side of the 90° angle, for the angles 100°-180°, are mirror images of the values for 80°-0° angles.²² So as showed in Table 2, the two dimensional geometry function is presented only for angles 0°-90°.

Monte Carlo calculated value of air kerma strength is $S_{k=17240.01}$ cGyh⁻¹U⁻¹ as worked out earlier for the GZP6 source number three.²⁰ The value was used for the calculation of dose rate constant in the present study. Monte Carlo calculated dose rate constants for GZP6 and Ralstron (type 2) and microSelectron sources are presented in Table 3.

The dose rate results, in terms of cGyh⁻¹U⁻¹, in Cartesian away (y) and along (z) coordinates are presented in the Table 4. It should be noted that the source center is assumed to be in the origin of the Cartesian coordinates.

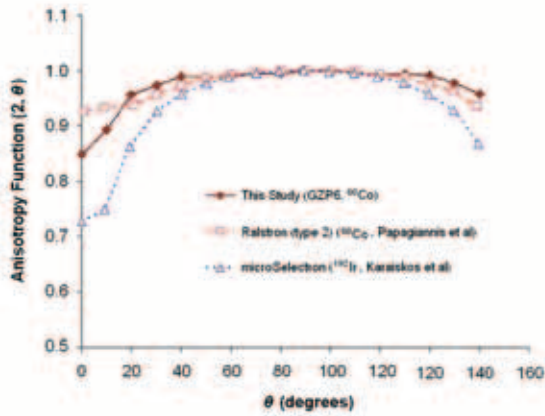
Radial dose function (RDF) computed values for GZP6 source number 3 are presented in Table 5. The tabulated $g(r)$ data presented in the Table 5 were fitted to a fifth order polynomial in form of:

$$g(r) = a_5 r^5 + a_4 r^4 + a_3 r^3 + a_2 r^2 + a_1 r + a_0, \quad R^2 = 0.9989 \quad [8]$$

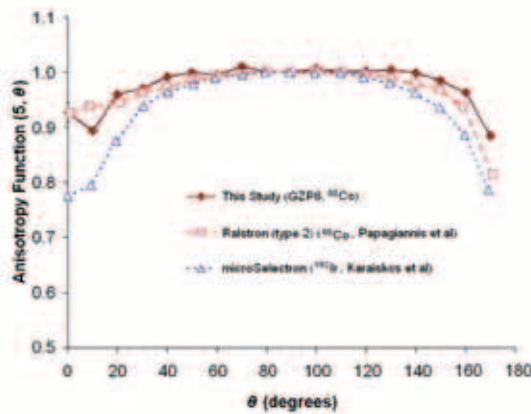
TABLE 4. Dose rate values (in cGyh⁻¹U⁻¹) for GZP6 source number 3

| z (cm) | y (cm) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------|---------|----------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| | 0 | 0.25 | 0.5 | 0.75 | 1 | 1.5 | 2 | 2.5 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 8 | 10 | 14 |
| 14 | 0.00366 | 0.00348 | 0.00349 | 0.00351 | 0.00355 | 0.00360 | 0.00362 | 0.00364 | 0.00361 | 0.00356 | 0.00346 | 0.00330 | 0.00293 | 0.00251 | 0.00179 |
| 10 | 0.00776 | 0.00747 | 0.00753 | 0.00762 | 0.00775 | 0.00782 | 0.00783 | 0.00779 | 0.00765 | 0.00731 | 0.00683 | 0.00627 | 0.00512 | 0.00408 | 0.00257 |
| 8 | 0.01268 | 0.01233 | 0.01242 | 0.01259 | 0.01268 | 0.01272 | 0.01271 | 0.01249 | 0.01216 | 0.01122 | 0.01007 | 0.00893 | 0.00679 | 0.00517 | 0.00301 |
| 6 | 0.02344 | 0.02289 | 0.02322 | 0.02358 | 0.02372 | 0.02358 | 0.02300 | 0.02212 | 0.02088 | 0.01808 | 0.01534 | 0.01284 | 0.00901 | 0.00640 | 0.00347 |
| 5 | 0.03438 | 0.03373 | 0.03461 | 0.03494 | 0.03486 | 0.03422 | 0.03282 | 0.03072 | 0.02829 | 0.02343 | 0.01902 | 0.01544 | 0.01029 | 0.00706 | 0.00369 |
| 4 | 0.05513 | 0.05436 | 0.05559 | 0.05558 | 0.05527 | 0.05295 | 0.04905 | 0.04425 | 0.03936 | 0.03047 | 0.02357 | 0.01838 | 0.01156 | 0.00768 | 0.00387 |
| 3 | 0.10007 | 0.09995 | 0.10120 | 0.10029 | 0.09802 | 0.08880 | 0.07717 | 0.06576 | 0.05547 | 0.03962 | 0.02874 | 0.02139 | 0.01277 | 0.00825 | 0.00404 |
| 2.5 | 0.14581 | 0.14691 | 0.14702 | 0.14424 | 0.13804 | 0.11895 | 0.09868 | 0.08070 | 0.06597 | 0.04472 | 0.03140 | 0.02291 | 0.01334 | 0.00848 | 0.00411 |
| 2 | 0.23037 | 0.23371 | 0.23087 | 0.22057 | 0.20321 | 0.16323 | 0.12726 | 0.09901 | 0.07780 | 0.04994 | 0.03406 | 0.02428 | 0.01382 | 0.00869 | 0.00416 |
| 1.5 | 0.41507 | 0.42096 | 0.40432 | 0.36373 | 0.31538 | 0.22747 | 0.16335 | 0.11957 | 0.09008 | 0.05494 | 0.03631 | 0.02549 | 0.01423 | 0.00886 | 0.00421 |
| 1 | 0.86404 | 0.95030 | 0.82069 | 0.65489 | 0.51070 | 0.31436 | 0.20414 | 0.14060 | 0.10142 | 0.05909 | 0.03812 | 0.02642 | 0.01452 | 0.00897 | 0.00424 |
| 0.75 | - | 1.64251 | 1.25332 | 0.90067 | 0.64913 | 0.36206 | 0.22361 | 0.14951 | 0.10613 | 0.06068 | 0.03887 | 0.02673 | 0.01461 | 0.00903 | 0.00426 |
| 0.5 | - | 3.24317 | 1.98378 | 1.22459 | 0.80260 | 0.40566 | 0.23943 | 0.15679 | 0.10993 | 0.06193 | 0.03931 | 0.02696 | 0.01469 | 0.00905 | 0.00427 |
| 0.25 | - | 7.37207 | 3.01733 | 1.55687 | 0.93343 | 0.43739 | 0.25079 | 0.16130 | 0.11215 | 0.06268 | 0.03962 | 0.02714 | 0.01475 | 0.00907 | 0.00427 |
| 0 | - | 12.32321 | 3.63819 | 1.71023 | 0.98796 | 0.44908 | 0.25446 | 0.16313 | 0.11306 | 0.06297 | 0.03976 | 0.02718 | 0.01481 | 0.00910 | 0.00427 |
| -0.25 | - | 7.37187 | 3.01661 | 1.55670 | 0.93376 | 0.43736 | 0.25056 | 0.16142 | 0.11212 | 0.06262 | 0.03961 | 0.02716 | 0.01476 | 0.00907 | 0.00427 |
| -0.5 | - | 3.24423 | 1.98345 | 1.22515 | 0.80214 | 0.40577 | 0.23968 | 0.15661 | 0.10981 | 0.06196 | 0.03935 | 0.02695 | 0.01470 | 0.00905 | 0.00426 |
| -0.75 | - | 1.64362 | 1.25309 | 0.90124 | 0.64938 | 0.36188 | 0.22361 | 0.14959 | 0.10621 | 0.06073 | 0.03882 | 0.02675 | 0.01466 | 0.00903 | 0.00425 |
| -1 | - | 0.95463 | 0.82232 | 0.65543 | 0.51092 | 0.31428 | 0.20416 | 0.14068 | 0.10151 | 0.05911 | 0.03812 | 0.02639 | 0.01452 | 0.00897 | 0.00424 |
| -1.5 | - | 0.41756 | 0.40609 | 0.36472 | 0.31569 | 0.22760 | 0.16345 | 0.11980 | 0.09005 | 0.05499 | 0.03636 | 0.02548 | 0.01421 | 0.00885 | 0.00420 |
| -2 | - | 0.22359 | 0.23240 | 0.22150 | 0.20379 | 0.16334 | 0.12738 | 0.09904 | 0.07777 | 0.04997 | 0.03406 | 0.02431 | 0.01383 | 0.00869 | 0.00416 |
| -2.5 | - | 0.13517 | 0.14677 | 0.14507 | 0.13834 | 0.11910 | 0.09893 | 0.08086 | 0.06605 | 0.04477 | 0.03147 | 0.02295 | 0.01334 | 0.00849 | 0.00411 |
| -3 | - | 0.08853 | 0.09925 | 0.10101 | 0.09848 | 0.08899 | 0.07729 | 0.06578 | 0.05563 | 0.03965 | 0.02878 | 0.02145 | 0.01280 | 0.00825 | 0.00405 |
| -4 | - | 0.04431 | 0.05223 | 0.05502 | 0.05557 | 0.05320 | 0.04907 | 0.04429 | 0.03938 | 0.03057 | 0.02360 | 0.01836 | 0.01156 | 0.00768 | 0.00388 |
| -5 | - | 0.02532 | 0.03133 | 0.03368 | 0.03451 | 0.03434 | 0.03291 | 0.03077 | 0.02835 | 0.02347 | 0.01907 | 0.01545 | 0.01028 | 0.00706 | 0.00369 |
| -6 | - | 0.01587 | 0.02029 | 0.02213 | 0.02306 | 0.02367 | 0.02307 | 0.02216 | 0.02090 | 0.01808 | 0.01534 | 0.01289 | 0.00902 | 0.00641 | 0.00348 |
| -8 | - | 0.00756 | 0.00999 | 0.01126 | 0.01192 | 0.01256 | 0.01270 | 0.01251 | 0.01219 | 0.01124 | 0.01008 | 0.00894 | 0.00683 | 0.00516 | 0.00302 |
| -10 | - | 0.00423 | 0.00571 | 0.00654 | 0.00701 | 0.00753 | 0.00771 | 0.00777 | 0.00768 | 0.00734 | 0.00683 | 0.00627 | 0.00511 | 0.00408 | 0.00257 |
| -14 | - | 0.00183 | 0.00244 | 0.00279 | 0.00305 | 0.00333 | 0.00346 | 0.00355 | 0.00358 | 0.00356 | 0.00347 | 0.00331 | 0.00293 | 0.00251 | 0.00178 |

(A)



(B)



(C)

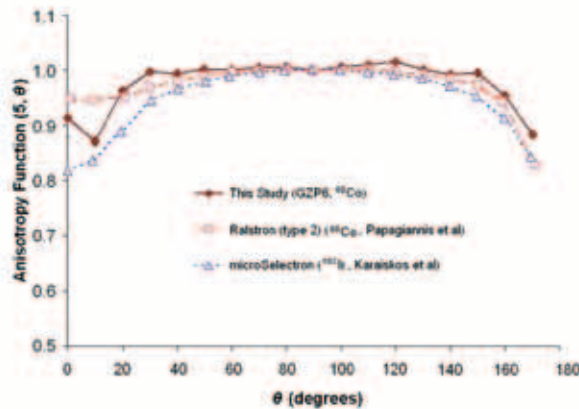


FIGURE 4. Anisotropy functions of GZP6 ⁶⁰Co (number 3), Ralstron (type 2) ⁶⁰Co (by Papagiannis *et al.*⁴) and microSelectron ¹⁹²Ir (by Karaiskos *et al.*¹⁶) sources: (A) for r=2 cm; (B) for r=5 cm; (C) for r=10 cm.

The parameters of the fitted polynomial are as follows:

$$a_5=1.000 \times 10^{-6}, a_4=-5.000 \times 10^{-5}, a_3=0.0007, a_2=-0.0039, a_1=-0.01, a_0=1.0087.$$

A graphical representation of $g(r)$ values for the GZP6 source is presented in Figure 3 and com-

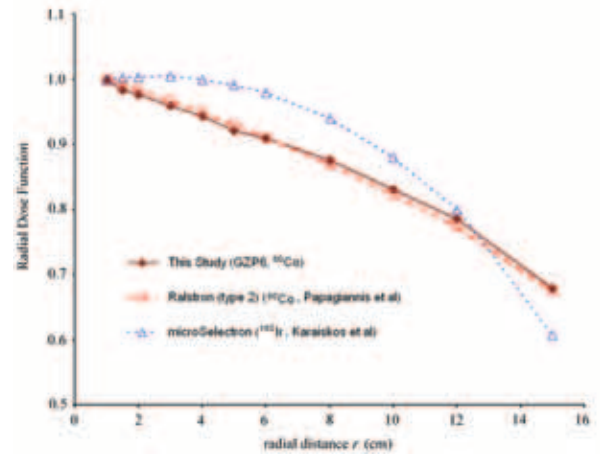


FIGURE 3. Radial dose function versus radial distance from the source for GZP6 ⁶⁰Co (number 3), Ralstron (type 2) ⁶⁰Co (by Papagiannis *et al.*⁴) and microSelectron ¹⁹²Ir (by Karaiskos *et al.*¹⁶) sources.

TABLE 5. Monte Carlo calculated radial dose functions of GZP6 source number 3

| Radial distance r (cm) | $g_r(r)$ |
|------------------------|----------|
| 1 | 1.000 |
| 1.5 | 0.983 |
| 2 | 0.976 |
| 2.5 | 0.968 |
| 3 | 0.959 |
| 3.5 | 0.950 |
| 4 | 0.943 |
| 4.5 | 0.932 |
| 5 | 0.921 |
| 6 | 0.909 |
| 7 | 0.890 |
| 8 | 0.876 |
| 9 | 0.851 |
| 10 | 0.831 |
| 12 | 0.785 |
| 13 | 0.767 |
| 15 | 0.679 |
| 20 | 0.539 |

pared with the corresponding data for the Ralstron (type 2) ⁶⁰Co source reported by Papagiannis *et al.*⁴ and microSelectron ¹⁹²Ir source reported by Karaiskos *et al.*¹⁶

Table 6 presents the anisotropy function data for GZP6 ⁶⁰Co source number 3. $F(r, \theta)$ values of the GZP6, Ralstron and microSelectron sources for distances of 2, 5 and 10 cm are presented in Figure 4 A-C.

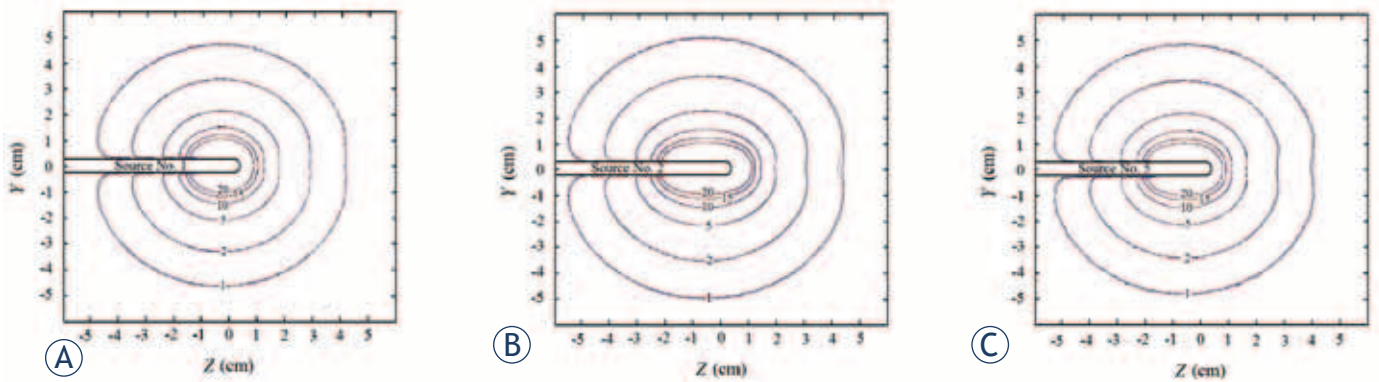


FIGURE 5. Dose distributions (Gy) obtained by MC simulations (blue lines) and superimposition method (red lines) for GZP6 sources: (a) source No. 1; (b) source No. 2 and (c) source No. 5. Isodoses of 1-20 Gy are contoured in the figure and since the contours by the two methods are overlapped in many points, are almost not distinguishable.

TABLE 6. 2D anisotropy functions for GZP6 ^{60}Co source (number 3) calculated by Monte Carlo code

| θ (degrees) | r (cm) | | | | | |
|--------------------|----------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 10 |
| 0 | 0.858 | 0.849 | 0.863 | 0.904 | 0.927 | 0.913 |
| 10 | ... | 0.893 | 0.898 | 0.901 | 0.893 | 0.870 |
| 20 | 0.990 | 0.956 | 0.957 | 0.957 | 0.959 | 0.963 |
| 30 | ... | 0.973 | 0.974 | 0.970 | 0.970 | 0.998 |
| 40 | 0.992 | 0.990 | 0.988 | 0.989 | 0.991 | 0.994 |
| 50 | ... | 0.989 | 0.986 | 0.990 | 0.999 | 1.002 |
| 60 | 1.011 | 0.990 | 0.985 | 0.982 | 0.995 | 1.001 |
| 70 | ... | 0.995 | 1.000 | 1.002 | 1.010 | 1.005 |
| 80 | 1.025 | 0.994 | 0.995 | 0.992 | 1.001 | 1.007 |
| 90 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |
| 100 | 0.995 | 1.000 | 1.004 | 1.004 | 1.007 | 1.006 |
| 110 | ... | 0.998 | 1.001 | 0.999 | 1.001 | 1.010 |
| 120 | 0.978 | 0.993 | 0.995 | 0.993 | 1.001 | 1.015 |
| 130 | ... | 0.995 | 0.998 | 0.998 | 1.004 | 1.000 |
| 140 | 1.019 | 0.992 | 0.992 | 0.990 | 0.998 | 0.993 |
| 150 | ... | 0.977 | 0.979 | 0.978 | 0.984 | 0.995 |
| 160 | ... | 0.958 | 0.958 | 0.956 | 0.963 | 0.954 |
| 170 | ... | ... | 0.881 | 0.876 | 0.884 | 0.883 |

Our results are indicating that the dose rate constant, radial dose function and anisotropy function for GZP6 and Ralstron (type 2) ^{60}Co sources are comparable. While the value of dose rate constant for the GZP6 and Ralstron (type 2) ^{60}Co sources are close to that for the microSelectron ^{192}Ir source (Table 3), radial dose function fall off for the ^{192}Ir source is less steep compared to the cobalt sources

especially for lower radial distances from the source (in Figure 3). It can be also noticed from the Figure 4 that the two cobalt sources have more isotropic anisotropy functions than the iridium source.

The dosimetric data presented in this study for GZP6 source (number 3) can be utilized in clinical practice of the source and towards the improvement of its treatment planning system.

Dose distributions from the superimposition method

The dose distributions for the GZP6 source No. 1, 2 and 5 which was obtained by MC simulations of the sources and the superimposition method described are presented in the Figure 5. The dose contours of 1, 2, 5, 10, 15 and 20 Gy were plotted. As it can be observed the dose distributions obtained by the two methods for the sources 1, 2 and 5 are equal.

The superimposition algorithm developed in this study is able to produce dose distributions for the GZP6 sources No. 1, 2 and 5 from the dose distribution of the source No. 3. The algorithm is also applicable for other brachytherapy units in which an arrangement of sources is used in the treatment process. These results may provide comprehensive dosimetric information that could be clinically more applicable for dose calculations around different implants by superimposition method.

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doi:10.2478/v10019-012-0029-8

Dvojni BioDisk: nov biološki pripomoček za znotrajžilno zapiranje defekta preddvornega pretina - raziskava pri ovcah

Pavčnik D, Tekulve K, Uchida BT, Luo ZH, Jeromel M, Van Alstine WG, Keller FS, Rösch J

Izhodišča. Z raziskavo smo proučevali dolgoročno učinkovitost in varnost novega dvojnega BioDiska (DBD), pripomočka za zapiranje defekta preddvornega pretina (ASD).

Materiali in metode. Pri 12-ih ovcah smo v raziskovalne namene izvedli ASD s pomočjo transeptalne (TS) igle ob dodatni balonski razširitvi. Telesna teža živali je bila od 40,1 do 64,0 kg, srednja vrednost pa $55,2 \pm 7,1$ kg. Premer ASD smo izmerili neposredno po posegu in čez 14 dni, preden smo vsadili DBD, ki sta ga sestavljala dva obroča iz nitinola. Velika sta bila 18 in 28 mm, povezana z majhnimi spoji in prekrita s submukozo tankega črevesa (SIS) prašiča. DBD smo vstavili preko žilnega uvajala velikosti 10 Fr. Učinkovitost DBD smo ocenjevali angiokardiografsko in z znotrajšrčnim dopplerskim ultrazvokom (ICE). Dve živali smo proučevali neposredno po vsaditvi, preostale pa v različnih obdobjih po vsaditvi (2 čez 6 tednov, 3 čez 3 mesece, 3 čez 6 mesecev in 2 čez 12 mesecev).

Rezultati. S TS iglo smo uspešno izvedli ASD pri 10 ovcah. V ostalih dveh primerih smo ASD izvedli z razširitvijo obstoječega odprtega ovalnega okna (PFO). Premer ASD je po začetni balonski razširitvi znašal od 13-15 mm (srednja vrednost $14,1 \pm 0,73$ mm), po dveh tednih pa od 9-13 mm (srednja vrednost $10,06 \pm 1,37$ mm). Ob vsaditvi DBD in ob sledenju v nobenem primeru ni prišlo do spontane embolizacije. S sledenjem z ICE nismo prikazali nikakršnega puščanja ob robovih vsajenih DBD. Po 6, 12, 24 in 52 tednih smo tako makroskopsko kot histološko potrdili dobro vraščeno DBD in s tem popolno zaprtje pretoka preko preddvornega pretina poskusnih živali. Ugotavljali smo postopno remodeliranje SIS s celicami poskusnih živali in preraščanje endotela na površini DBD.

Zaključki. Dvojni BioDisk je varen in učinkovit pripomoček za zapiranje ASD pri ovcah.

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Magnetnoresonančno (MR) vodena vakuumska biopsija (VAB) dojke. Začetne izkušnje na Onkološkem inštitutu v Ljubljani

Zebič-Šinkovec M, Hertl K, Kadivec M, Čavlek M, Podobnik G, Snoj M

Izhodišča. Magnetnoresonančna mamografija (MRM) ima kot ostale slikovne metode določeno specifičnost. Pozitivna napovedna vrednost za spremembe, ki jih odkrijemo samo z magnetnoresonančnim slikanjem, se giblje med 15% in 50%. MR vodeni posegi (biopsije, lokalizacije) so nujni pri sumljivih spremembah, ki jih odkrijemo samo z magnetnoresonančnim slikanjem. Cilj retrospektivne raziskave je bil ovrednotiti naše začetne izkušnje z MR-VAB. Želeli smo tudi opredeliti korelacijo med histološkimi izvidi biopsij in značilnostmi sprememb na magnetnoresonančni mamografiji.

Bolniki in metode. Pri 14 bolnicah (srednja starost 51 let) smo opravili vakuumsko biopsijo dojke pod kontrolo magnetne resonance. Punktirali smo 14 sprememb, ki so bile odkrite z magnetnoresonančnim slikanjem. Preučili smo značilnosti sprememb in indikacije za biopsijo, histološke izvide biopsij in končne histološke izvide.

Rezultati. Biopsija je bila tehnično uspešna pri 14 od 15 bolnic (93%). V 6 primerih je smo s histologija preiskavo odkrili malignom (6/14, 43%), 6 sprememb je bilo benignih (6/14, 43%), 2 spremembi pa sta bili opredeljeni kot spremembi nejasnega biološkega potenciala (2/14, 14%). Od 6 odkritih rakih so bili 3 invazivni duktalni karcinomi in 3 duktalni karcinomi *in situ*. Pozitivna napovedna vrednost je bila višja za spremembe, ki so se barvale po vzorcu NMLE ("nonmasslike enhancement"). Višja napovedna vrednost je bila tudi za kinetični krivulji, ki v kasnejši fazi kažeta plato ali "wasout".

Zaključki. Naše začetne izkušnje potrjujejo, da je MR vodena VAB hitra, varna in zanesljiva alternativa kirurški biopsiji za lezije, ki jih odkrijemo samo z magnetnoresonančno mamografijo.

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Razlikovanje malignih in benignih pljučnih sprememb s pomočjo difuzijskega magnetnoresonančnega slikanja

Gümüştaş S, Inan N, Akansel G, Çiftçi E, Demirci A, Özkara KS

Izhodišča. Namen raziskave je bil ugotoviti pomen difuzijskega magnetnoresonančnega slikanja pri diferencialni diagnozi pljučnih sprememb.

Bolniki in metode. V prospektivno raziskavo smo vključili 67 bolnikov s pljučnimi spremembami (48 malignih, 19 benignih). Izmerili smo intenzitete signala difuzijskega magnetnoresonančnega slikanja dobljene za vrednosti $b = 0, 500$ in 1000 s/mm². Vrednosti izračunanega difuzijskega koeficienta (IDK) pa so bile pridobljene s pomočjo slik z vrednostjo $b = 0$ in 1000 s/mm². Statistično značilnost razlik smo analizirali s pomočjo Studentovega testa T.

Rezultati. Intenziteta signala malignih sprememb je bila statistično značilno višja od benignih sprememb ($p < 0,004$ za vrednost $b = 0$ s/mm² in $p < 0,000$ za ostale vrednosti b). V primerih, ko je bil $b = 500$ s/mm², so vrednosti intenziteta signala ≥ 391 pomenile maligno spremembo, pri čemer je bila občutljivost metode 95%, specifičnost 73% ter pozitivna napovedna vrednost 87%. Če pa je bil $b = 1000$ s/mm², je bila intenziteta signala ≥ 277 kriterij za maligno spremembo, pri čemer je bila občutljivost metode 93%, specifičnost 69% in pozitivna napovedna vrednost 85%. Glede na IDK se maligne in benigne lezije niso statistično značilno razlikovale ($p = 0,675$). Prav tako ni bilo statistično značilnih razlik v intenziteti signala in IDK med drobnoceličnim in nedrobnoceličnim rakom pljuč. V primerjavi z dobro ali delno diferenciranimi raki so bile vrednosti intenzitete signala pri slabo diferenciranih karcinomih višje pri vseh vrednostih b , vendar pa so bile razlike statistično značilne samo pri vrednosti $b = 1000$ s/mm² ($p < 0,04$).

Zaključki. Difuzijsko magnetnoresonančno slikanje je uporabna metoda za razlikovanje malignih od benignih pljučnih sprememb.

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Ugotavljanje rigidnosti spolnega uda med erekcijo z uporabo ultrazvočne kvantifikacije

Zheng X, Ji P, Mao H, Wu J

Izhodišča. Namen raziskave je bil s hitrostjo strižnih valov ("*shear wave velocity*") ugotoviti stopnjo nabrekanja moškega spolnega uda. Želeli smo z ultrazvočno kvantifikacijo oz. virtualnim dotikom proučiti klinično uporabnost te metode pri ugotavljanju sprememb rigidnosti pri erekciji.

Bolniki in metode. Ultrazvočno kvantifikacijo smo naredili pri 37 zdravih prostovoljcih. Med erekcijo smo ultrazvočno izmerili stopnjo nabrekanja glavnice, telesa in korena spolnega uda. Ultrazvočno izmerjene vrednosti smo primerjali s stopnjo (gradusom) ugotovljene erekcije.

Rezultati. Vse vrednosti aksialnega in radialnega nabrekanja glavnice, telesa in korena spolnega uda so se statistično značilno zniževale od stopnje erekcije gradus 0 do gradus 4. Pri erekciji gradus 4 so bile vrednosti le še približno tretjino vrednosti izmerjenih pri gradusu 0 (aksialno: $0,79 \pm 0,13$ proti $2,79 \pm 0,32$ za glavnico spolnega uda, $P < 0,001$; $0,77 \pm 0,19$ proti $2,84 \pm 0,30$ za telo spolnega uda, $P < 0,001$ in $0,76 \pm 0,15$ proti $2,81 \pm 0,34$ za koren spolnega uda, $P < 0,001$; radialno $0,82 \pm 0,15$ proti $2,83 \pm 0,31$ za glavnico spolnega uda, $P < 0,001$; $0,79 \pm 0,18$ proti $2,81 \pm 0,27$ za telo spolnega uda, $P < 0,001$ in $0,81 \pm 0,16$ proti $2,82 \pm 0,33$ za koren spolnega uda, $P < 0,001$).

Zaključki. Ultrazvočna kvantifikacija oz. virtualni dotik nam omogoča numerično merjenje rigidnosti spolnega uda. Metoda učinkovito in občutljivo pokaže spremembe v aksialni in radialni rigidnosti spolnega uda in predstavlja nov način ugotavljanja erektilne funkcije.

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Vnos barvila Lucifer Yellow v CHO celice izpostavljene magnetnim in električnim pulzom

Towhidi L, Firoozabadi SMP, Mozdarani H, Miklavčič D

Izhodišča. Za večino hidrofilnih molekul je celična membrana nepremagljiva ovira za njihov vstop v celico. Številne aplikacije na področju medicine, biologije in biotehnologije pa zahtevajo vnos hidrofilnih molekul v biološke celice. Ena od najbolj znanih metod na področju vnosa hidrofilnih molekul v celice je elektroporacija, pri kateri celice izpostavimo električnim pulzom visoke napetosti, vendar zelo kratkega trajanja. Cilj naše raziskave je bil raziskati učinek časovno spremenljivega magnetnega polja na molekularni transport prek membrane.

Materiali in metode. Primerjali smo vnos barvila Lucifer Yellow v celice pri njihovi izpostavitvi časovno spremenljivemu magnetnemu polju in elektroporacijskim električnim pulzom. Celice CHO smo izpostavili magnetnim pulzom amplitude 2,2 T vršne amplitude, trajanja 250 mikrosekund. Za izpostavitve magnetnim pulzom smo uporabili Magstim stimulator in dvojno 70 mm tuljavo. Uporabili smo tri različne frekvence 0,25, 1 in 10 Hz pulzov z različnim številom, t.j. 112, 56 in 28 pulzov (skupaj devet eksperimentalnih skupin). Poleg tega smo vnos barvila Lucifer Yellow v celice izpostavljene magnetnimi pulzom primerjali z izmerjenim vnosom barvila v elektroporirane CHO celice, ki smo jih izpostavili tipičnim elektroporacijskim električnim pulzom: 8 pulzov dolžine 100 mikrosekund ponavljalne frekvence 1 Hz in električnega polja amplitude od 200 do 600 V/cm.

Rezultati in zaključki. Rezultati dobjeni v naši raziskavi kažejo, da časovno spreminjajoče magnetno polje poveča molekularni transmembranski transport. Vnos barvila Lucifer Yellow v celice, ki so bile izpostavljene časovno spremenljivemu magnetnemu polju, je višji pri nižjih ponavljalnih frekvencah in večjem številu dovedenih pulzov. Poleg tega primerjava vnosa barvila Lucifer Yellow v celice pri njihovi izpostavitvi časovno spremenljivemu magnetnemu polju in poracijskim električnim pulzom kaže, da je elektroporacija bolj učinkovita od magnetnega polja, vendar pa je vnos barvila Lucifer Yellow zaradi izpostavljenosti celic magnetnemu polju še vedno znaten.

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Optimizacija postavitve in števila elektrod za ireverzibilno elektroporacijo hepatocelularnega raka

Adeyanju OO, Al-Angari HA, Sahakian AV

Izhodišča. Ireverzibilna elektroporacija (IRE) je nova ablacijska metoda, ki uporablja visokonapetostne električne pulze za zdravljenje raka. Njena učinkovitost je odvisna od razporeditve električnega polja, ta pa od razporeditve uporabljenih elektrod.

Metode. V raziskavi predstavljamo poskus optimalne razporeditve elektrod glede na njihovo medsebojno razdaljo, globino vstavitve in njihovega števila. Uporabili smo model 3D neskončnih elementov, pri katerem smo sistematično spreminjali parametrične razdalje med elektrodami in njihovo globino vstavitve ter izračunali najnižje vrednosti napetosti za ireverzibilno elektroporacijo V_{ire} . Ob tem smo izmerili količino poškodb normalnega tkiva. Meritve smo naredili za par elektrod ter za tri in štiri elektrode. Optimalna konfiguracija elektrod je bila tista, kjer je bila V_{ire} najnižja in najmanjša poškodba normalnega tkiva.

Rezultati. Za 2,5 cm sferoidni tumor je bila optimalna postavitve dveh elektrod z razmikom med njima 2 cm, vstavljenih 1 cm pod sredino tumorja. Ob taki postavitvi je bila V_{ire} 3700 V. Na splošno smo ugotovili, da je bolj ugodna mala razdalja med elektrodami, centralni del elektrode pa mora segati do centralnega dela tumorja ali malo nižje. Ugotovili smo tudi, da je za učinkovito zdravljenje pomembnejša razdalja med elektrodami, kot globina njihove vstavitve.

Zaključki. Razporeditev električnega polja je odvisna od konfiguracije elektrod, kar lahko določimo z numeričnim modeliranjem. Rezultati so pomembni za načrtovanje ireverzibilne elektroporacije v klinični praksi, kot tudi za izbor najboljšega algoritma za postavitve elektrod.

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Izboljšanje preživetja po uvedbi kemoterapije pri bolnikih z malignim plevralnim mezoteliomom v Slovenji: populacijska raziskava 444 bolnikov

Kovač V, Zwitter M, Žagar T

Izhodišča. Maligni plevralni mezoteliom je redek tumor, njegova incidenca pa še vedno narašča pri nas in v svetu. Znatne omejitve proizvodnje in uporabe azbesta še niso zmanjšale bremena te bolezni, ker je latentni čas med izpostavljenostjo azbestu in obolevnostjo zelo dolg. V zadnjem desetletju so različne klinične raziskave potrdile učinkovitost sistemskega zdravljenja kot sta kombinaciji cisplatina in gemcitabina ter cisplatina in premetrekseda, vendar le pri izbranih bolnikih z dobrim splošnim stanjem zmogljivosti. Namen pričujoče raziskave je bil oceniti morebitni vpliv sistemskega zdravljenja na celotno slovensko populacijo bolnikov z mezoteliomom.

Bolniki in metode. V retrospektivno raziskavo smo vključili vse bolnike s histološko potrjenim malignim plevralnim mezoteliomom v Sloveniji od leta 1974 do 2008. Podatke iz Registra raka Republike Slovenije smo dopolnili s klinično dokumentacijo Onkološkega inštituta Ljubljana, kjer smo nekirurško zdravili skoraj vse bolnike. Primerjali smo incidenco, zdravljenje in preživetje bolnikov iz obdobja, ko smo kemoterapijo redko uporabljali (1974-2003, prvo obdobje) ter po njem (2004-2008, drugo obdobje).

Rezultati. Pregled podatkov je pokazal 444 bolnikov, v prvem obdobju jih je bilo diagnosticiranih 325, v drugem pa 119. Z regresijsko analizo Joinpoint smo ugotovili, da je groba letna incidenčna stopnja naraščala hitreje po letu 1995; povprečna letna sprememba grobe incidenčne stopnje je bila 0,03 na 100.000 pred letom 1995 in 0,06 na 100.000 po njem. Prav tako smo ugotovili prevlado moškega spola (70%) skozi celotno obdobje, ki ga pokriva raziskava. Delež bolnikov starejših od 65 let je narasel z 41,8% v prvem obdobju na 54,6% v drugem ($p = 0,02$). Operiranih je bilo le 52 (11,7%) izbranih bolnikov, ki so imeli zgodnjo obliko bolezni, so bili brez resnih spremljajočih bolezni, njihovo srednje celokupno preživetje pa je bilo sorazmerno daljše (13,6 mesecev, $p = 0,000$). Kemoterapevtsko je bilo zdravljenih 56 (17,2%) bolnikov iz prvega obdobja in 96 (80,7%) iz drugega. V prvem obdobju smo uporabljali različne starejše citostatike, v drugem pa je bil najbolj pogost način zdravljenja (dobilo ga je 91 bolnikov) kombinacija gemcitabina v podaljšani infuziji in v nizkem odmerku ter cisplatina. V prvem obdobju je bilo ne glede na zdravljenje srednje preživetje bolnikov 7,4 mesecev, v drugem pa 12,6 mesecev ($p = 0,037$).

Zaključki. Čeprav je v Sloveniji že 15 let prepovedana proizvodnja in uporaba azbesta, incidenca malignega plevralnega mezotelioma še vedno narašča in s tem tudi breme te bolezni. V novjšem obdobju še vedno pogosteje obolevajo moški, bolniki pa so ob diagnozi starejši. Sodobno kemoterapevtsko zdravljenje, zlasti gemcitabin v podaljšani infuziji in v nizkem odmerku je statistično značilno podaljšalo srednje celokupno preživetje bolnikov s to boleznijo v Sloveniji.

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Dolgoročni rezultati kombiniranega zdravljenja raka analnega kanala

Oblak I, Petrič P, Anderluh F, Velenik V, Fras PA

Izhodišča. V retrospektivni raziskavi smo želeli analizirati učinkovitost in toksičnost radiokemoterapije pri bolnikih s ploščato-celičnim rakom analnega kanala zdravljenih na Onkološkem inštitutu Ljubljana.

Bolniki in metode. V obdobju med januarjem 2003 in septembrom 2010 smo na Onkološkem inštitutu v Ljubljani zdravili 84 bolnikov z radikalno radiokemoterapijo. Zdravili smo jih s 3-dimenzionalno konformno teleradioterapijo ter sočasno kemoterapijo (5-fluorouracil in mitomicin C), nato pa smo jim dodatno obsevali predel tumorja z varnostnim robom z brahi- ali teleterapijo. Ocenjevali smo učinkovitost in toksičnost takšnega zdravljenja.

Rezultati. Zdravljenje smo po protokolu zaključili pri 79,8% bolnikih. Srednji čas sledenja je bil pri 55 živih bolnikih bil 53 mesecev (razpon: 16-105 mesecev). Petletna lokoregionalna ozdravitev (LRO), preživetje brez bolezni (PBB), bolezensko specifično preživetje (BSP), celokupno preživetje (CP) in preživetje brez kolostome (PBK) so znašali 71%, 68%, 81%, 67% in 85%. Nobeden od bolnikov ni umrl zaradi zapletov samega zdravljenja. Najbolj pogost akutni sopojav zdravljenja je bil radiodermatitis (stopnja 3-4 pri 58,2% bolnikov). Kasne sopojave LENT-SOMA zaradi obsevanja smo zabeležili pri 15 (18%) bolnikih. Pri bolnikih, ki smo jih dodatno obsevali z brahiterapijo na tumor z varnostnim robom, je bilo manj kasnih stranskih učinkov ($P=0,066$), kot pri tistih, ki smo jih dodatno obsevali s teleterapijo. V multivariatni analizi smo ugotovili, da je bil neodvisni napovedni dejavnik za boljše LRO, PBB in BSP popolni klinični odgovor na zdravljenje, za LRO in PBB je bila "rešilna" operacija (angl. *salvage surgery*) ter za boljše CP nivo hemoglobina 120g/l ali več.

Zaključki. Z radiokemoterapijo lahko pri večini bolnikov zagotovimo odlično kontrolo bolezni in preživetje ob ohranitvi funkcije analne mišice zapiralke. Pri ostanku ali ponovitvi bolezni pa lahko ozdravitev zagotovimo z "rešilno" operacijo (abdominoperinealna resekcija).

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Difuzni velikocelični limfom B - današnja vsakodnevna klinična praksa

Gregorič B, Zadnik V, Jezeršek Novaković B

Izhodišča. Ko so pri zdravljenju bolnikov z difuznim velikoceličnim limfomom B (DVCLB) dodali h kemoterapiji rituksimab, so dosegli boljše rezultate. Tako je sistemsko zdravljenje z R-CHOP (rituksimab, ciklofosfamid, doksorubicin, vinkristin, prednisolon) ali različicami postalo standardno začetno zdravljenje teh bolnikov. Priporočila za zdravljenje temeljijo na rezultatih kliničnih raziskav, pogoji rutinskega zdravljenja bolnikov pa se precej razlikujejo od pogojev obravnave bolnikov v kliničnih raziskavah. Namen pričujoče retrospektivne raziskave je bila zato primerjava rezultatov rutinskega zdravljenja bolnikov z DVCLB z rezultati nekaterih večjih kliničnih raziskav.

Bolniki in metode. Med letoma 2004 in 2008 smo na Onkološkem inštitutu Ljubljana v skladu s tedanjimi priporočili 295 bolnikov z DVCLB zdravili z R-CHOP ali R-CHOP-u podobnimi shemami. Odgovor na zdravljenje smo ocenili v skladu s Chesonovimi kriteriji, preživetje brez bolezni in celokupno preživetje pa s Kaplan Meier-jevimi krivuljami preživetja.

Rezultati. Odgovor na zdravljenje se je v naši raziskavi razlikoval od rezultatov drugih raziskav, predvsem v skupini z nizkim tveganjem (kategorizacija po mednarodnem prognostičnem indeksu – IPI) in v skupini z zelo dobro napovedjo poteka bolezni (kategorizacija po revidiranem mednarodnem prognostičnem indeksu – R-IPI). Delež bolnikov s popolnim odgovorom (CR) v ostalih IPI in R-IPI skupinah je bil večinoma v skladu s pričakovanji. Tudi v primeru preživetja brez bolezni smo največje neskladje z rezultati iz literature ugotovili v skupini z nizkim tveganjem (delež preživelih brez bolezni po 3 letih 75%) in v skupini z zelo dobro napovedjo poteka bolezni (delež preživelih brez bolezni po 4 letih 59%). V ostalih IPI skupinah se je delež preživelih brez bolezni po 3 letih (srednje nizko tveganje 76%, srednje visoko tveganje 57%, visoko tveganje 53%) dobro skladal z navedenimi deleži v primerjalnih raziskavah. Nekoliko slabše ujemanje s citiranimi rezultati pa smo ugotavljali v deležu preživelih brez bolezni po 4 letih za preostali dve R-IPI skupini (72% za skupino z dobro prognozo in 51% za skupino s slabo napovedjo poteka bolezni). Deleži preživelih po 3 letih (bolniki z nizkim tveganjem 87%, s srednje visokim tveganjem 61% in visokim tveganjem 51%) so bili nekoliko slabši od primerjalnih v vseh IPI skupinah, razen v skupini s srednje nizkim tveganjem (82%). Po drugi strani pa so deleži preživelih po 4 letih v vseh R-IPI skupinah (94% v skupini z zelo dobro napovedjo poteka bolezni, 80% v skupini z dobro in 56% v skupini s slabo napovedjo poteka bolezni) dobro korelirali s podatki iz literature.

Zaključki. Rezultati zdravljenja bolnikov z DVCLB na našem inštitutu so dokaj spodbudni v primerjavi z rezultati nekaterih večjih raziskav. Trenutno verjetno ni dilem o tem, kako zdraviti mlade bolnike z dobro prognozo in starejše bolnike. Delež preživelih po 5 letih za skupino mladih bolnikov s slabo prognozo (76%) pa je zaskrbljujoč, zaradi česar je potrebno rezultate izboljšati. Na tem področju poteka precej raziskav, ki bodo razjasnile, katera vrsta zdravljenja je za to skupino bolnikov najbolj primerna.

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Uspešnost zdravljenja z L-tiroksinom, s katerim smo zavrli izločanje TSH med nosečnostjo pri bolnicah, ki so prebolele raka ščitnice in bile zdravljene s totalno tiroidektomijo in ablacijo ostanka ščitnice z radiojodom

Krhin B, Bešič N

Izhodišča. V literaturi je zelo malo podatkov o tem, kakšno je optimalno povečanje odmerka L-tiroksina med nosečnostjo pri bolnicah, ki so prebolele raka ščitnice. Z našo raziskavo smo želeli ugotoviti, kako uspešno smo spremenili odmerek L-tiroksina, da je bilo med nosečnostjo še vedno ustrezno zavrto izločanje TSH. Drugi naš namen je bil ugotoviti, kateri odmerek L-tiroksina pri nosečnicah je ustrezen, da je izločanje TSH zavrto.

Bolniki in metode. V retrospektivni raziskavi smo analizirali podatke o 36 nosečnostih pri 32 bolnicah, ki so prebolele raka ščitnice. Vsem smo pred zanositvijo napravili totalno tiroidektomijo in vse so imele ablacijo ostanka ščitnice z radiojodom. Vse bolnice so jemale L-tiroksin v takih odmerkih, da so imele pred zanositvijo zavrto izločanje TSH. Funkcijske teste za ščitnico smo napravili pred, med in po nosečnosti.

Rezultati. Aritmetična sredina dnevnega odmerka L-tiroksina pred zanositvijo, v času prvega, drugega in tretjega tromesečja in po porodu je bila 149, 147, 155, 165 in 158 mikrogramov. Izločanje TSH je ostalo zavrto pri devetih nosečnostih. Koncentracija TSH je bila znotraj referenčnega območja pri 22 nosečnostih in zvišana pri petih nosečnostih. Pri nosečnicah, ki so imele v času celotne nosečnosti ustrezno zavrto TSH, je bila aritmetična sredina dnevnega odmerka L-tiroksina pred zanositvijo, v času prvega, drugega in tretjega tromesečja in po porodu: 154, 154, 164, 160 in 161 mikrogramov. Pri nosečnicah, katerim smo spremenili odmerek, smo ga v povprečju povečali za 31,5 mikrogramov.

Zaključki. Bolnice, ki so imele pred zanositvijo zavrto izločanje TSH, so imele med nosečnostjo zelo velik razpon sprememb vrednosti TSH. Ustrezno zavrto izločanje TSH med nosečnostjo je imelo le 25% nosečnic. Nosečnice, ki so imele ustrezno zavrto izločanje TSH v času prvega, drugega in tretjega tromesečja, so jemale odmerek 154, 164 in 160 mikrogramov L-tiroksina.

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Kateri je najprimernejši način odvzema citoloških vzorcev iz nožničnega oboka za spremljanje bolnic z ginekološkimi raki

Del Pup L, Canzonieri V, Serraino D, Campagnutta E

Izhodišča. Za zgodnje odkrivanje ponovitve rakave bolezni v vaginalnem oboku pri ženskah po histerektomiji uporabljamo citološko analizo. Njena uspešnost je zelo majhna pri vzorcih odvzetih z običajno metodo z Ayresovim loparčkom. Število dobljenih celic je majhno zaradi atrofije, ali pa zato, ker sta kota vaginalnega oboka tako tesno skupaj, da s pomočjo Ayresovega loparčka ne prodremo dovolj globoko. Namen raziskave je bil ugotoviti prednosti in slabosti odvzema citološkega vzorca s pomočjo citološke krtačke ter tak odvzem primerjati s klasičnim odvzemom s pomočjo Ayresovega loparčka.

Bolniki in metode. V raziskavo smo vključili 141 bolnic z ginekološkim rakom. V prvem delu raziskave smo pri 15 bolnicah odvzeli citološke vzorce tako z Ayresovim loparčkom kot s citološko krtačko. Vzorca iste bolnice smo nanesti na različna dela istega objektnega stekelca. V vsakem vzorcu sta bili nato naredili kvalitativno in kvantitativno analizo. Pri ostalih 126 bolnicah smo citološki vzorec odvzeli bodisi z Ayresovim loparčkom (skupina A) ali s citološko krtačko (skupina B). Vse vzorce je odvzel isti ginekolog.

Rezultati. V vseh 15 vzorcih prvega dela raziskave smo s pomočjo citološke krtačke odvzeli večje število celic kot pri klasičnem odvzemu. Primerjava skupin A in B v drugem delu raziskave pa je potrdila, da je jemanje citološkega vzorca s pomočjo citološke krtačke učinkovitejše kot je jemanje s pomočjo Ayresovega loparčka. Razmerje uspešnosti je bilo pri jemanju vzorcev s pomočjo citološke krtačke 2,8 (95% interval zaupanja od 1,3 do 6,2; hi-kvadrat $p=0,008$).

Zaključki. Tehnika odvzema citoloških vzorcev iz vaginalnega oboka s pomočjo citološke krtačke je učinkovitejša od običajne tehnike s pomočjo Ayresovega loparčka.

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Dozimetrična značilnost brahiterapijskega izvira ^{60}Co GZP6 z visoko hitrostjo doze (HDR). Uporaba superpozicijske metode

Toossi MTB, Ghorbani M, Mowlavi AS, Meigooni AS

Izhodišča. Želeli smo ovrednotiti dozimetrične značilnosti brahiterapijskega izvira ^{60}Co GZP6 z visoko hitrostjo doze (HDR) po priporočilih Ameriškega združenja za medicinsko fiziko (AAPM TG43U1) ter uporabo v klinični praksi.

Materiali in metode. S kodami Monte Carlo MCNP-4C in MCNPX smo izračunali konstanto hitrosti doze, dvodimenzionalno (2D) porazdelitev doze, radialno dozno funkcijo in 2D anizotropično funkcijo izvira. Dobljene parametre smo primerjali s podatki izvirov Ralstron ^{60}Co in microSelectron ^{192}Ir . Razvili smo superpozicijsko metodo za razširitev rezultatov izvira GZP6 št. 3 na druge GZP6 izvire.

Rezultati. Simulirana vrednost konstante hitrosti doze je $1,104 \pm 0,03 \text{ cGy} \cdot \text{h}^{-1} \cdot \text{U}^{-1}$. Radialno dozno funkcijo in 2D anizotropično funkcijo smo predstavili grafično in tabelarično. Rezultati raziskave kažejo, da so dozimetrični parametri izvira GZP6 primerljivi s tistimi od izvira Ralstron. Konstanti hitrosti doz dveh ^{60}Co izvirov so podobne tistim od izvira microSelectron ^{192}Ir , medtem ko sta radialna dozna funkcija in anizotropična funkcija različni. Radialna dozna funkcija ^{192}Ir izvira je bolj položna, kot jo imata ^{60}Co izvira. Poleg tega ^{60}Co izviri kažejo bolj izotropično dozno porazdelitev kot ^{192}Ir izvir.

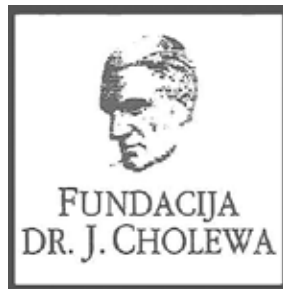
Zaključki. Superpozicijska metoda lahko proizvede dozno porazdelitve za drugačne razporeditve posameznih izvirov. Izračunane dozimetrične količine tega novega izvira lahko uvedemo v GZP6 planirni sistem (TPS), ki ga tako usposobimo za uporabo.



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Activity of "Dr. J. Cholewa" Foundation for Cancer Research and Education - a report for the second quarter of 2012

The Dr. J. Cholewa Foundation for Cancer Research and Education aims to search for and support novel initiatives and forward thinking in all of the activities in any way associated with cancer. It is a non-profit, non-government and non-political association of experts, institutions and organisations associated with cancer research, cancer education, cancer treatment and prevention.

The Foundation continues to support the publication of "Radiology and Oncology", an international medical scientific journal that is edited, published and printed in Ljubljana, Slovenia. "Radiology and Oncology" publishes scientific articles, reviews, case reports, short reports and letters to the editor about problems in experimental and clinical research in radiology, radiophysics, experimental and clinical oncology, supportive therapy, prevention and early diagnostics of different types of cancer. Radiology and Oncology is an open access journal with a Science Citation Index impact factor. In the year 2011 and in the first quarter of 2012 the Foundation gave its support to a number of lay associations and organizations that are involved in the fight against cancer in Slovenia. The Foundation also supports a number of activities with long term effect and is thus involved in activities in all three levels of prevention of cancer.

The Dr. J. Cholewa Foundation for Cancer Research and Education helps professional and other associations in Slovenia to organise scientific and other meetings of specific interest in different fields of advanced cancer research and education.

The Foundation has continued with its activities throughout 2011 and the first and second quarter of 2012 with the aim to spread as much knowledge as possible about cancer and related problems in Slovenia, an important part of this activities being the education and information of the lay public.

Borut Štabuc, MD, PhD
Andrej Plesničar, MD, MSc
Tomaž Benulič, MD

Prvi na poti individualnega zdravljenja bolnikov z napredovalim nedrobnoceličnim pljučnim rakom.

Iressa je prva in edina tarčna monoterapija, ki dokazano podaljša preživetje brez napredovanja bolezni v primerjavi z dvojno kemoterapijo kot zdravljenje prvega reda pri bolnikih z napredovalim nedrobnoceličnim pljučnim rakom z mutacijo EGFR.



EGFR M⁺

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Odmerjanje in način uporabe: Zdravljenje z gefitinibom mora uvesti in nadzorovati zdravnik, ki ima izkušnje z uporabo zdravil proti raku. Priporočeno odmerjanje zdravila IRESSA je ena 250-mg tableta enkrat na dan. Tableto je mogoče vzeti s hrano ali brez nje, vsak dan ob približno istem času.

Kontraindikacije: preobčutljivost za zdravilno učinkovino ali katerokoli pomožno snov, dojenje

Opozorila in previdnostni ukrepi: Pri 1,3 % bolnikov, ki so dobivali gefitinib, so opažali intersticijsko bolezen pljuč (IBP). Ta se lahko pojavi akutno in je bila v nekaterih primerih smrtna. Če se bolniku poslabšajo dihalni simptomi, npr. dispneja, kašelj in zvišana telesna temperatura, morate zdravljenje z zdravilom IRESSA prekiniti in bolnika takoj preiskati. Če je potrjena IBP, morate terapijo z zdravilom IRESSA končati in bolnika ustrezno zdraviti. Opažene so bile nepravilnosti testov jetrnih funkcij, občasno zabeležene kot hepatitis. Opisani so bili posamezni primeri odpovedi jeter. Zato so priporočljive redne kontrole delovanja jeter. V primeru blagih do zmernih sprememb v delovanju jeter je treba zdravilo IRESSA uporabljati previdno. Če so spremembe hude, pride v poštev prekinitev zdravljenja. Zdravilo IRESSA vsebuje laktozo. Bolniki z redko dedno intoleranco za galaktozo, laponsko obliko zmanjšane aktivnosti laktaze ali malabsorpcijo glukoze/galaktoze ne smejo jemati tega zdravila. Bolnikom naročite, da morajo takoj poiskati zdravniško pomoč, če se jim pojavijo kakršnikoli očesni simptomi, huda ali dolgotrajna driska, navzea, bruhanje ali anoreksija, ker lahko vse te posredno povzročijo dehidracijo.

Medsebojno delovanje zdravil: Sočasna uporaba močnih zaviralcev CYP3A4 lahko poveča koncentracijo gefitiniba v plazmi. Močni zaviralci CYP2D6 lahko pri izrazitih metabolizatorjih CYP2D6 povečajo koncentracijo gefitiniba v plazmi za približno 2-krat. Induktorski CYP3A4 lahko povečajo presnovo gefitiniba in zmanjšajo njegovo koncentracijo v plazmi. Zato lahko sočasna uporaba induktorjev CYP3A4 zmanjša učinkovitost zdravljenja in se ji je treba izogniti. Snovi, ki občutno in dolgotrajno zvišajo pH v želodcu, lahko zmanjšajo koncentracijo gefitiniba v plazmi in tako zmanjšajo njegovo učinkovitost. Veliki odmerki kratkodelujočih antacidov, uporabljenih blizu časa jemanja gefitiniba, imajo lahko podoben učinek. Pri nekaterih bolnikih, ki so jemali varfarin skupaj z gefitinibom, so se pojavili zvišanje internacionalnega normaliziranega razmerja (INR) in/ali krvavitve. Bolnike, ki sočasno jemljejo varfarin in gefitinib, morate redno kontrolirati glede sprememb protrombinskega časa (PČ) ali INR.

Neželeni učinki: V kumulativnem naboru podatkov kliničnih preskušanj III. faze so bili najpogosteje opisani neželeni učinki, ki so se pojavili pri več kot 20 % bolnikov, driska in kožne reakcije (vključno z izpuščajem, aknami, suho kožo in srbenjem). Neželeni učinki se ponavadi pojavijo prvi mesec zdravljenja in so praviloma reverzibilni. Ostali pogostejši neželeni učinki so: anoreksija, konjunktivitis, blefaritis in suho oko, krvavitve, npr. epistaksa in hematurija, intersticijska bolezen pljuč (1,3 %), navzea, bruhanje, stomatitis, dehidracija, suha usta, nepravilnosti testov jetrnih funkcij, boleznih nohtov, alopecija, asimptomatično laboratorijsko zvišanje kreatinina v krvi, proteinurija, cistitis, astenija, piroksija.

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Datum priprave besedila: januar 2011

Imetnik dovoljenja za promet: AstraZeneca AB, S-151 85, Sodertälje, Švedska

Pred predpisovanjem, prosimo, preberite celoten povzetek glavnih značilnosti zdravila.

Dodatne informacije so na voljo pri:

AstraZeneca UK Limited, Podružnica v Sloveniji, Verovškova 55, 1000 Ljubljana, telefon: 01/51 35 600.

Samo za strokovno javnost.

Informacija pripravljena: avgust 2011

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Pred predpisovanjem zdravila natančno preberite celoten Povzetek glavnih značilnosti zdravila.

Podrobnejše informacije so na voljo pri predstavniku imetnika dovoljenja za promet z zdravilom: Merck d.o.o., Ameriška ulica 8, 1000 Ljubljana, tel.: 01 560 3810, faks: 01 560 3830, el. pošta: info@merck.si

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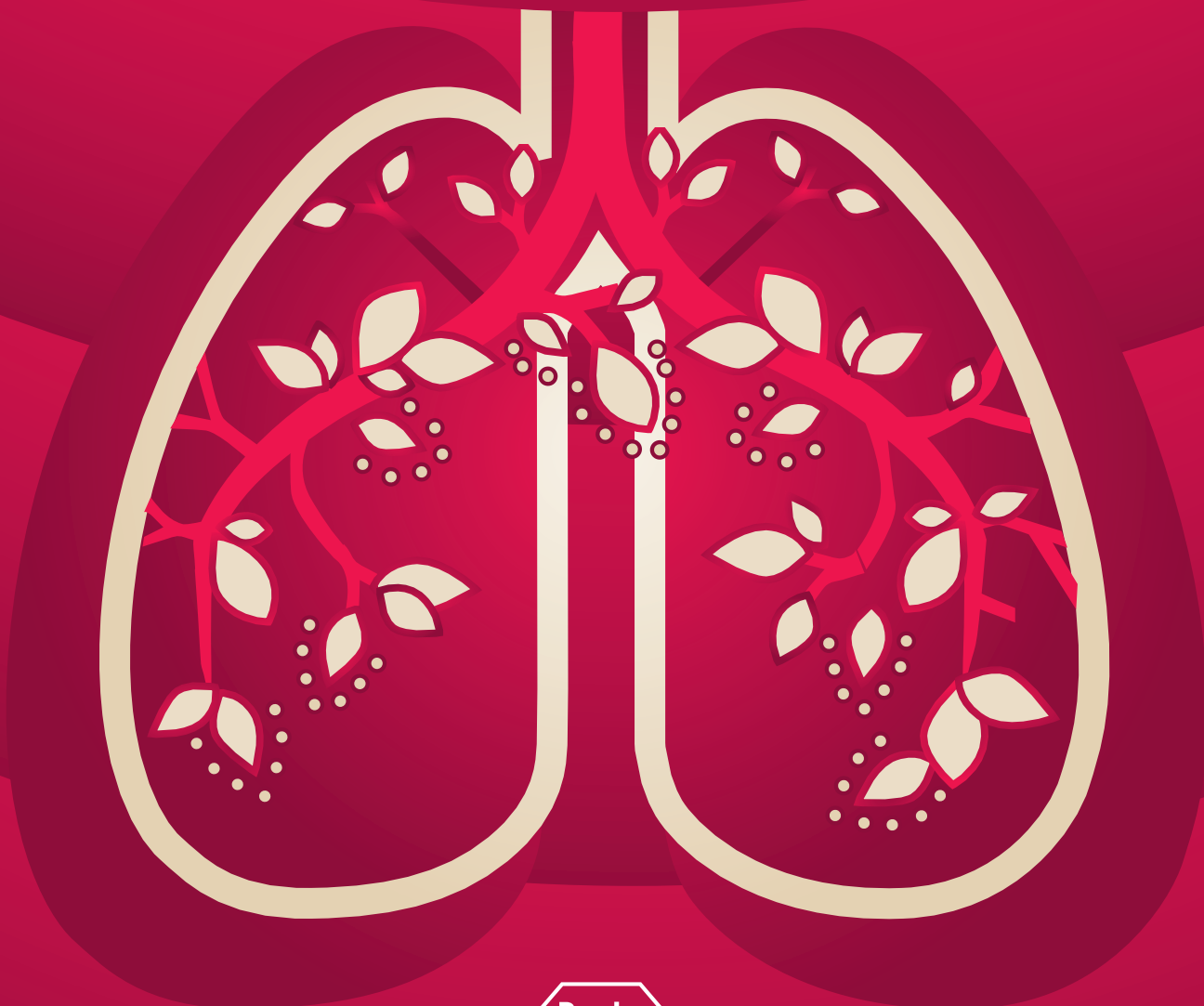


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¹ Povzetek glavnih značilnosti zdravila TARCEVA, www.ema.europa.eu





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Zdravilo je v postopku pridobitve financiranja s strani ZZS.

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Ime zdravila: ZYTIGA® 250 mg tablete **Kakovostna in količinska sestava:** 250 mg abirateronacetata; pomožne snovi: laktoza monohidrat, mikrokristalna celuloza, premreženi natrijev karmelozat, povidon, natrijev lavrilsulfat, magnezijev stearat in koloidni silicijev dioksid. **Indikacije:** uporaba skupaj s prednizonom ali prednizolonom za zdravljenje metastatskega raka prostate, rezistentnega na kastracijo pri odraslih bolnikih, z napredovalo obliko bolezni ali po osnovni kemoterapevtski shemi z docetakselom. **Odmerjanje:** priporočeni odmerek: 1.000 mg (štiri 250 mg tablete v enem odmerku), 10 mg prednizona ali prednizolona/dan, najmanj dve uri po obroku. Pri bolnikih s hudo okvaro jeter ali ledvic je potrebna previdnost. **Kontraindikacije:** preobčutljivost za zdravilno učinkovino ali katerokoli pomožno snov, uporaba zdravila pri ženskah. **Posebna opozorila:** Pri uporabi zdravila pri bolnikih z anamnezo kardiovaskularne bolezni je potrebna previdnost. Pri bolnikih z iztisnim deležem levega prekata < 50% ali s srčnim popuščanjem razreda III ali IV po NYHA varnost uporabe zdravila ni dokazana. Pred začetkom zdravljenja je treba urediti hipertenzijo in odpraviti hipokaliemijo. Če kadarkoli med zdravljenjem pride do pojavnosti hude hepatotoksičnosti je treba z zdravljenjem prenehati in se ga ne sme ponovno uvesti. Pri bolnikih, ki prejemajo prednizon ali prednizolon in so v stresni situaciji, je lahko pred in med stresno situacijo ter po njej indiciran zvečan odmerek kortikosteroidov. Pri bolnikih z napredovanim metastatskim rakom prostate (rezistentnim na kastracijo) lahko pride do zmanjšanja kostne gostote. Jemanje zdravila v kombinaciji z glukokortikoidi lahko ta učinek poveča. Pri bolnikih z rakom prostate, zdravljenih s ketokonazolom, lahko pričakujemo nižjo stopnjo odziva na zdravljenje. Bolniki z redko dedno intoleranco za galaktozo, laponsko obliko zmanjšane aktivnosti laktaze ali malabsorpcijo glukoze/galaktoze ne smejo jemati tega zdravila. Zdravilo vsebuje tudi več kot 1 mmol (oziroma 27,2 mg) natrija na odmerek (v štirih tabletah), kar je treba upoštevati pri bolnikih na dieti z nadzorovanim vnosom natrija. **Interakcije:** zdravila se ne sme jemati s hrano, ker se bistveno poveča absorpcija abirateronacetata. Pri sočasni uporabi z zdravili, ki jih aktivira ali presnavlja CYP2D6, zlasti tistih z majhno terapevtsko širino je potrebna previdnost. In vitro podatki kažejo, da je zdravilo substrat CYP3A4. Med zdravljenjem se uporabi močnih zaviralcev in induktorjev CYP3A4 izogibajte ali bodite še posebej previdni. **Nosečnost in dojenje:** Ženske, ki so noseče in ženske, ki bi lahko bile noseče, morajo v primeru stika ali rokovanja z zdravilom, nositi zaščitne rokavice. **Neželeni učinki:** periferni edemi, hipokaliemija, hipertenzija, okužbe sečil, adrenalna insuficienca, hipertrigliceridemija, srčno popuščanje, angina pectoris, aritmija, atrijska fibrilacija, tahikardija, hepatotoksičnost z zvišanimi vrednostmi ALT, AST in celokupnega bilirubina. **Imetnik dovoljenja za promet:** Janssen-Cilag International NV, Turnhoutseweg 30, 2340 Beerse, Belgija, Predstavnik v Sloveniji: Johnson & Johnson d.o.o., Šmartinska 53, Ljubljana **Režim izdajanja zdravila:** Rp.Spec. **Datum zadnje revizije besedila:** 05.09.2011

Viri:

- ZYTIGA® – Povzetek glavnih značilnosti zdravila: 05.09.2011
- de Bono JS et al. Abiraterone and increased survival in metastatic prostate cancer. N Engl J Med 2011; 364: p1995-2005.

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Terapevtske indikacije

Samozdravljenje: lajšanje bolečine in oteklin pri vnetju v ustni votlini in žrelu, ki so lahko posledica okužb in stanj po operaciji. Po nasvetu in navodilu zdravnika: lajšanje bolečine in oteklin v ustni votlini in žrelu, ki so posledica radiomukozitisa.

Odmerjanje in način uporabe

Uporaba 2- do 6-krat na dan (vsake 1,5 do 3 ure). Odrasli: 4 do 8 razprškov 2- do 6-krat na dan. Otroci od 6 do 12 let: 4 razprški 2- do 6-krat na dan. Otroci, mlajši od 6 let: 1 razpršek na 4 kg telesne mase; do največ 4 razprške 2 do 6-krat na dan.

Kontraindikacije

Znana preobčutljivost za zdravilno učinkovino ali katerokoli pomožno snov.

Posebna opozorila in previdnostni ukrepi

Pri manjšini bolnikov lahko resne bolezni povzročijo ustne/žrelne ulceracije. Če se simptomi v treh dneh ne izboljšajo, se mora bolnik posvetovati z zdravnikom ali zobozdravnikom, kot je primerno. Zdravilo vsebuje aspartam (E951) (vir fenilalanina), ki je lahko škodljiv za bolnike s fenilketonurijo. Zdravilo vsebuje izomalt (E953) (sinonim: izomaltitol (E953)). Bolniki z redko dedno intoleranco za fruktozo ne smejo jemati tega zdravila. Uporaba benzidamina ni priporočljiva za bolnike s preobčutljivostjo za salicilno kislino ali druga nesteroidna protivnetna zdravila. Pri bolnikih, ki imajo ali so imeli bronhialno astmo, lahko pride do bronhospazma. Pri takih bolnikih je potrebna previdnost.

Medsebojno delovanje z drugimi zdravili in druge oblike interakcij

Pri ljudeh raziskav o interakcijah niso opravljali.

Nosečnost in dojenje

Tantum Verde z okusom mentola 3 mg pastile se med nosečnostjo in dojenjem ne smejo uporabljati.

Vpliv na sposobnost vožnje in upravljanja s stroji

Uporaba benzidamina lokalno v priporočenem odmerku ne vpliva na sposobnost vožnje in upravljanja s stroji.

Neželene učinki

Bolezni prebavil Redki: pekoč občutek v ustih, suha usta.

Bolezni imunskega sistema Redki: preobčutljivostna reakcija.

Bolezni dihal, prsnega koša in mediastinalnega prostora Zelo redki: laringospazem.

Bolezni kože in podkožja Občasni: fotosenzitivnost. Zelo redki: angioedem.

Rok uporabnosti

4 leta. Zdravila ne smejo uporabljati po datumu izteka roka uporabnosti, ki je naveden na ovojnini. Posebna navodila za shranjevanje Za shranjevanje pastil niso potrebna posebna navodila. Platenko z raztopino shranjujte v zunanji ovojnini za zagotovitev zaščite pred svetlobo. Shranjujte pri temperaturi do 25°C. Shranjujte v originalni ovojnini in nedosegljivo otrokom.

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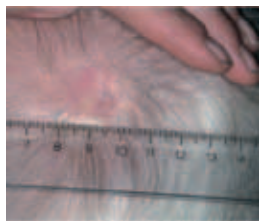
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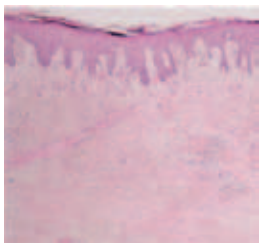
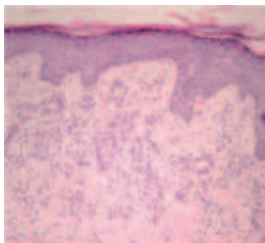
10 weeks after electrochemotherapy



Gehl J, EJC Supplements, Volume 4, N° 11:35-37, 2006

Before electrochemotherapy

60 days after electrochemotherapy



Quaglino P, Annals Of Surgical Oncology. 15 (8):2215-2222. 2008

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Dent RAG, Cole P. *In vitro* maturation of monocytes in squamous carcinoma of the lung. *Br J Cancer* 1981; **43**: 486-95.

Chapman S, Nakielny R. *A guide to radiological procedures*. London: Bailliere Tindall; 1986.

Evans R, Alexander P. Mechanisms of extracellular killing of nucleated mammalian cells by macrophages. In: Nelson DS, editor. *Immunobiology of macrophage*. New York: Academic Press; 1976. p. 45-74.

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