



Available online at www.sciencedirect.com

ScienceDirect

journal homepage: <http://www.elsevier.com/locate/rpor>



Original research article

Superior sulcus non-small cell lung carcinoma: A comparison of IMRT and 3D-RT dosimetry



Pierre Truntzer^a, Delphine Antoni^{a,b}, Nicola Santelmo^c,
Catherine Schumacher^c, Pierre-Emmanuel Falcoz^c, Elisabeth Quoix^d,
Gilbert Massard^c, Georges Noël^{a,b,*}

^a Radiotherapy Department, Centre Paul Strauss, 3, rue de la Porte de l'Hôpital, BP 42, 67065 Strasbourg Cedex, France

^b Radiobiology Laboratory EA 3430, Federation of Translational Medicine in Strasbourg (FMTS), Strasbourg University, Strasbourg, France

^c Thoracic Surgery Department, Nouvel Hôpital Civil, 1, place de l'Hôpital, 67091 Strasbourg Cedex, France

^d Pneumology Department, Nouvel Hôpital Civil, 1, place de l'Hôpital, 67091 Strasbourg Cedex, France

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 24 November 2015

Accepted 22 March 2016

Available online 5 May 2016

Keywords:

Radiotherapy

Superior sulcus NSCLC

IMRT

Dosimetry

Pancoast tumor

ABSTRACT

Aim: A dosimetric study comparing intensity modulated radiotherapy (IMRT) by TomoTherapy to conformal 3D radiotherapy (3D-RT) in patients with superior sulcus non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC).

Background: IMRT became the main technique in modern radiotherapy. However it was not currently used for lung cancers. Because of the need to increase the dose to control lung cancers but because of the critical organs surrounding the tumors, the gains obtainable with IMRT is not still demonstrated.

Material and methods: A dosimetric comparison of the planned target and organs at risk parameters between IMRT and 3D-RT in eight patients who received preoperative or curative intent irradiation.

Results: In the patients who received at least 66 Gy, the mean V95% was significantly better with IMRT than 3D-RT ($p = 0.043$). IMRT delivered a lower D2% compared to 3D-RT ($p = 0.043$). The IH was significantly better with IMRT ($p = 0.043$). The lung V_{5Gy} and V_{13Gy} were significantly higher in IMRT than 3D-RT ($p = 0.043$), while the maximal dose (D_{max}) to the spinal cord was significantly lower in IMRT ($p = 0.043$). The brachial plexus D_{max} was significantly lower in IMRT than 3D-RT ($p = 0.048$). For patients treated with 46 Gy, no significant differences were found.

* Corresponding author at: Radiotherapy Department, Centre Paul Strauss, 3, rue de la Porte de l'Hôpital, BP 42, 67065 Strasbourg Cedex, France. Tel.: +33 388252471.

E-mail addresses: ptruntzer@strasbourg.unicancer.fr (P. Truntzer), danton@strasbourg.unicancer.fr (D. Antoni), Nicola.santelmo@chru-strasbourg.fr (N. Santelmo), cshumacher@strasbourg.unicancer.fr (C. Schumacher), pierre-emmanuel.falcoz@chru-strasbourg.fr (P.-E. Falcoz), elisabeth.quoix@chru-strasbourg.fr (E. Quoix), gilbert.massard@chru-strasbourg.fr (G. Massard), gnoel@strasbourg.unicancer.fr (G. Noël). <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.rpor.2016.03.006>

Conclusion: Our study showed that IMRT is relevant for SS-NSCLC. In patients treated with a curative dose, it led to a reduction of the exposure of critical organs, allowing a better dose distribution in the tumor. For the patients treated with a preoperative schedule, our results provide a basis for future controlled trials to improve the histological complete response by increasing the radiation dose.

© 2016 Greater Poland Cancer Centre. Published by Elsevier Sp. z o.o. All rights reserved.

1. Background

Superior sulcus non-small cell lung cancer (SS-NSCLC) is a rare tumor, representing less than 5% of all NSCLC. By definition, these tumors invade the thoracic wall and are close to, abut or infiltrate the spinal cord, the brachial plexus and/or the esophagus. The tumor size, the respiratory motion in the irradiation fraction and the dose-constraints to reach a curative tumor dose are all limiting factors that prevent the delivery of safe and optimal irradiation with a radiation therapy conformal 3D (3D-RT) technique. Intensity modulated radiation therapy (IMRT) allows a homogeneous, high dose gradient to be delivered for cases of advanced NSCLC, leading to a better target volume coverage and a higher shielding of the surrounding critical organs.^{1–5}

To improve the local and regional control rates, many centers have initiated dose escalation trials in stage III NSCLC patients to observe the feasibility and safety constraints of concurrent chemoradiotherapy at higher doses. Most concluded that 74 Gy was a tolerable dose in well-controlled setups of 3D-RT.^{6–9} From a study including 106 NSCLC patients at the University of Michigan, Kong et al. reasoned that each 1 Gy increase in the dose administered improved the five-year local control rate by 1.25% and decreased the death risk by 3%.⁷ This suggested that higher radiation doses were associated with better outcomes. However, in the RTOG 0617 trial, 74 Gy given in 2 Gy fractions with concurrent chemotherapy was not better than 60 Gy plus concurrent chemotherapy for patients with stage III non-small-cell lung cancer, and was considered to be potentially harmful.¹⁰ The use of 3D-RT could be one of the reasons for the failure of this increased dose. In the case of SS-NSCLC, an increased dose could be relevant if it leads to increase the operability for otherwise inoperable patients or for those with pT0 tumors which should improve the patients outcomes.¹¹

Because of the conformality, of its dramatic dose-gradient, IMRT requires a very precise set-up of the patient and strict control of the treated targets. Image-guided radiotherapy (IGRT) is the most secure system available that meets all of the required security controls. Tomotherapy combines IMRT and IGRT.¹²

2. Aim

IMRT is still not considered a reference treatment for SS-NSCLC. In the current study, we analyzed the dosimetric parameters by comparing Tomotherapy and 3D-RT in SS-NSCLC treated preoperatively or with curative intent.

3. Material and methods

Between January 2007 and January 2010, eight patients with a median age of 54.3 years (43–75) were treated with IMRT with TomoTherapy HiArt® device (Accuray Incorporated, Sunnyvale, CA). There were seven adenocarcinomas and one squamous cell carcinoma. The tumors were classified as IIB, IIIA, IIIB and IV stages in one, two, one and four patients, respectively. Six patients received chemoradiation alone, one received radiation alone and the last one received preoperative chemoradiation. The chemotherapy comprised a combination of cisplatin and vinorelbine.

3.1. Simulation

All patients underwent CT simulation using a General Electric (GE) light-speed scanner (General Electric, Milwaukee, WI) in the supine position. Injected and non-injected CT scans were both obtained. All but two patients underwent free-breath CT scans and the other two underwent a three-sequences CT scan (deep inspiration/expiration and free breath-hold). The slices depths were 2.5–3.75 mm.¹³ ¹⁸Fluoro Desoxy-Glucose PET-CT for delineation was performed in seven patients.

3.2. Target-volumes definition

The delineation of the target volumes was performed using the Focal software program (Elekta AB, Stockholm, Sweden). The gross tumor volume (GTV_{tumor}) was the tumor volume in the free-breath simulation CT scan or the combination of the three volumes in the three sequences simulation CT-scan (equivalent to an internal target volume). PET-CT images were matched with the simulation CT scan. The biological tumor volume represented 40% of the maximal standard unit value (SUV_{max}). All nodes ≤10 mm or ≥20 mm and ¹⁸Fluoro Desoxy-Glucose avid, and all 10–19 mm nodes (avid or not) were considered to be metastatic and were included in a GTV_{node}.¹⁴

The clinical target volume for the tumor (CTV_{tumor}) was the GTV_{tumor} plus a margin of 6 or 8 mm according to Giraud et al.¹⁵ and was corrected to the relevant anatomical border. The CTV for adenopathies (CTV_{adenopathies}) was the area where adenopathies developed and were delineated according to the report by Chapet et al.¹⁶ No prophylactic node volume was defined.¹⁷ The planning target volume for the tumor and nodes (PTV_{tumor+adenopathies}) was obtained by adding an isotropic 2 mm margin to the CTV_(tumor+node) equal to (CTV_{tumor} + CTV_{adenopathies}) when a three-sequences CT-scan was used, and 10 mm crano-caudal and 5 mm axial

margins for the eight other patients. The delineated organs at risk were the spinal cord, lungs, heart, esophagus and brachial plexus. No PRV was contoured.

3.3. Treatment plan and dosimetric parameters

The dose distribution was calculated with the Xio software program (Elekta AB, Stockholm, Sweden) and the TomoTherapy software program (Accuray Incorporated, Sunnyvale, CA). A comparison of the dose distribution was conducted using the Artiview software program (AQUILAB, Loos, France).

The total delivered dose was 70 Gy, 66 Gy and 46 Gy in one, three and four patients, respectively. The dose per fraction was always 2 Gy. Five weekly fractions were administered up to the completion of irradiation. According to the International Commission on Radiation Units and Measurements (ICRU) 50 and 62, the planning treatment delivered at least 95% of the prescribed dose in 95% of the PTV. To follow ICRU 83,¹⁸ for each plan, the median dose (D50%), D_{near maximum} (D2%) and D_{near minimum} (D98%) were evaluated.

For each treatment planning, the following values were calculated:

- The conformal index (CI) defined as the ratio of the prescribed isodose volume and the PTV (ideal equal to 1).^{19,20}
- The homogeneity index (HI) defined as the ratio of (D2%–D98%)/D50% (ideal equal to 0).²¹
- The coverage index (COI) defined as the ratio of the D_{near minimum} and the reference D (ideal equal to 1).^{18,22}

The lungs volume minus the PTV, V_{5 Gy}, V_{13 Gy}, V_{20 Gy}, and V_{30 Gy}, were restricted to 60%, 40%, 30% and 20%, respectively.²³ The lungs volume minus the PTV mean dose had to be <20 Gy. The heart V_{35 Gy} was restricted to 35%.²⁴ Spinal cord maximum dose was limited to 45 Gy, and the brachial plexus maximum dose was limited to 60 Gy.²⁵ The esophageal V_{50 Gy} was limited to 35%.²⁶

The 3D-RT field's geometry used between two and four coplanar 6–25 MV X-photon beams. Concerning the

Tomotherapy beam planning, for each plan the treatment slice width, pitch and modulation factor were 2.5 cm, 0.287 and 2.5, respectively. A MV-CT imaging was performed before treatment for IGRT control, acquisition, fusion and correction of positioning

3.4. Statistics

The dosimetric parameters of each patient were compared with the non-parametric equivalent in a paired t-test for matched observations (Wilcoxon test). The threshold for statistical significance was $p < 0.05$. All statistical analyses were performed using the IBM SPSS Statistics v20 software program (IBM Inc., Armonk, NY, USA).

4. Results

The mean GTV_{tumor}, CTV_{tumor} and PTV_(tumor+adenopathies) were 155 mL (18–802), 267 mL (64–1130) and 391 mL (99–1489), respectively. Only one patient presented with metastatic lymph nodes, and CTV_{adenopathies} was 67.7 mL.

4.1. Dose distribution

4.1.1. Target volumes

Concerning the patients who received at least 66 Gy (Table 1), the V95% was significantly higher with IMRT than with 3D-RT, (94.7% [91.3–99.7%] and 86.2% [72.8–97.1%]), respectively ($p = 0.043$; Figs. 1 and 2). One patient reached the constraint with IMRT compared to none with 3D-RT. The D2% was significantly lower with IMRT than with 3D-RT (102.4% [100.1–104.9%] vs. 105.6% [104.2–106.7%]; $p = 0.043$). The D98% and D50% were not significantly different between the two techniques. The HI was significantly better with IMRT compared to 3D-RT (0.24 [0.06–0.33] vs. 0.35 [0.26–0.44]); $p = 0.043$). The CI was 1.2 for IMRT and 1.7 for 3D-RT, but this difference was not significant ($p = 0.225$). There were no differences in the COI.

Table 1 – Dose distribution in the target-volumes.

Patient	Total dose	V95%		D98%		D50%		D2%		CI		HI		COI	
		3D-RT	IMRT	3D-RT	IMRT	3D-RT	IMRT	3D-RT	IMRT	3D-RT	IMRT	3D-RT	IMRT	3D-RT	IMRT
1	46 Gy	55.5	86.9	50.8	22.9	96.8	99.9	104.1	102.4	1.18	1.54	0.84	0.51	0.24	0.53
2	46 Gy	98.5	97.9	96.1	94.8	103.2	99.9	106.4	103.7	1.73	1.07	0.09	0.08	1	0.99
3	46 Gy	96.0	90.3	89.7	53.2	100.2	99.96	100.25	105.2	1.52	1.1	0.16	0.5	0.94	0.56
Mean		83.3	91.7	69.6	66.3	100.1	99.9	105.4	103.8	1.4	1.2	0.36	0.37	0.65	0.69
Median		95.9	90.3	89.7	53.2	100.3	99.9	105.8	103.7	1.5	1.1	0.16	0.5	0.94	0.56
p-value		NS		NS		NS		NS		NS		NS		NS	
4	66 Gy	86.2	94.7	71.1	73.8	102.6	100	101.9	105.9	1.96	1.1	0.34	0.28	0.75	0.78
5	70 Gy	89.5	92.5	74.4	70.4	100.3	99.9	101.8	106.7	2.9	1.1	0.32	0.32	0.78	0.74
6	66 Gy	72.8	91.3	64.2	69.2	100.6	100.6	102.4	104.2	1.4	1.2	0.39	0.33	0.68	0.73
7	66 Gy	94.1	99.7	79.4	99.3	104.3	102.2	104.9	106.4	1.8	1.5	0.26	0.06	0.83	1.05
8	66 Gy	80.6	94.9	62.5	81.0	99.8	M99.9	100.1	106.1	1.4	1.2	0.44	0.19	0.66	0.85
Mean		84.7	94.6	70.2	78.7	101.5	100.5	105.9	102.4	1.7	1.2	0.35	0.24	0.92	0.82
Median		86.2	94.7	71.1	73.8	100.6	100	106.2	101.9	1.8	1.2	0.34	0.28	1	0.78
p-value		0.043		NS		NS		0.043		NS		0.043		NS	

CI, conformal index; HI, homogeneity index; COI, coverage index; NS, non significant.

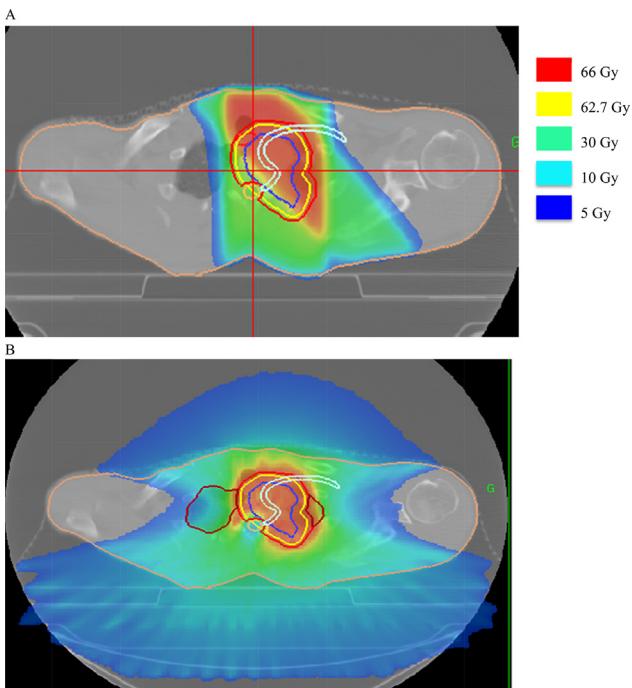


Fig. 1 – Treatment planning 3D-RT (A) and IMRT (B). Blue: GTV T; yellow: CTV T; red: PTV T; orange: spinal cord; light blue: brachial plexus.

For patients treated with 46 Gy, no significant differences were observed between the groups.

4.1.2. Lungs minus PTV

For patients treated with up to 70 Gy (Table 2 and Fig. 2), the $V_{5\text{Gy}}$ and $V_{13\text{Gy}}$ were significantly increased with IMRT compared to 3D-RT (20% vs. 11.9%; $p=0.043$) and (12.2% vs. 8.3%, $p=0.043$), respectively. The mean dose, $V_{20\text{Gy}}$ and $V_{30\text{Gy}}$ were not significantly different between the groups.

For patients treated with 46 Gy, none of the parameters were significantly different.

4.1.3. Spinal cord

For patients treated with up to 70 Gy, the D_{\max} was significantly lower with IMRT compared to the dose delivered with 3D-RT (31.6 Gy vs. 45.5 Gy ($p=0.043$); Table 2).

For patients treated with 46 Gy, there were no significant differences observed.

4.1.4. Brachial plexus

For the patients treated with up to 70 Gy irradiation, the D_{\max} was significantly lower with IMRT compared to the dose delivered with 3D-RT (64.9 vs. 70.1 Gy ($p=0.043$); Table 2 and Fig. 2).

There were no significant differences between the groups for the patients treated with 46 Gy irradiation.

4.1.5. Esophagus and Heart

There were no significant differences in any of the parameters or doses in the esophagus or heart (Table 2).

5. Discussion

SS-NSCLC treatment combines chemotherapy and/or radiation following by a surgery. The dose of irradiation is classically 46 Gy in 26 daily fractions. For lesions considered to be inoperable because of invasion of the bone or the spinal canal, chemoradiation is recommended, and the radiation dose is increased up to 66 Gy.^{27,28} Because the development of this cancer occurs close to critical organs, the coverage of the volume with RT-3D over a dose of 46 Gy remains always challenging.

Murshed et al. reported a series of 41 patients with an inoperable stage IIIA-IV stage NSCLC irradiated up to a dose of 66 Gy in 33 fractions of 2 Gy delivered either by 3D-RT or IMRT. They found that IMRT delivered a more conformal dose distribution than 3D-RT, with a significant improvement of the median CI and HI, at 1.41 vs. 1.54 ($p=0.004$) and 1.16 vs. 1.12,

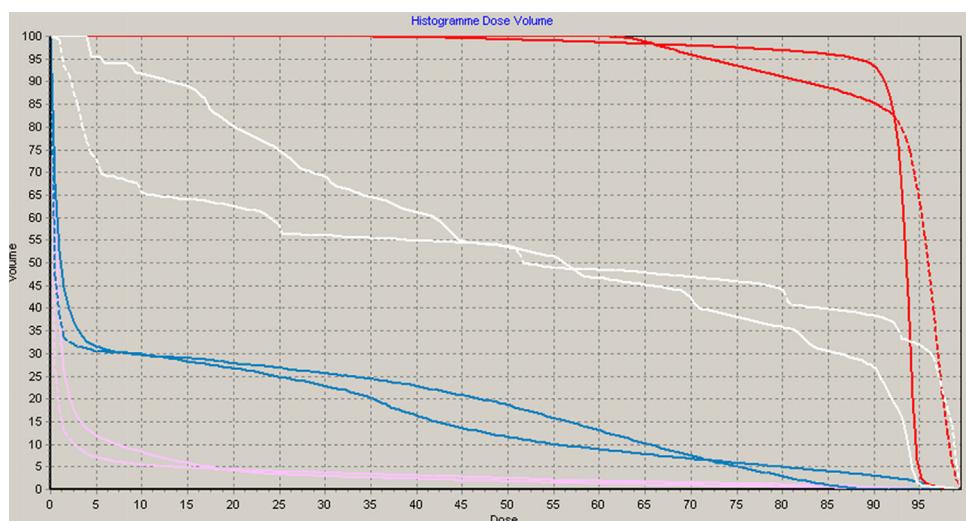


Fig. 2 – Dose-volume histogram (total dose 66 Gy). 3D-RT (dashed line) and IMRT (continuous line). Blue: lungs minus PTV; pink: spinal cord; red: PTV; white: brachial plexus.

Table 2 – Organs at risk parameters comparison.

Parameters/dose (Gy)	3D-RT		IMRT		p-value	
	Median	Mean	Median	Mean		
Lungs minus PTV 46 Gy	D_{\max} (Gy)	45.66	45.94	40.9	47.3	NS
	D_{\min} (Gy)	0.003	0	0.037	0.12	NS
	D_{mean} (Gy)	0.98	3.03	2.043	3.27	NS
	$V_{5\text{Gy}}$ (%)	3.1	9.7	9.1	14.2	NS
	$V_{13\text{Gy}}$ (%)	2.0	7.1	4.4	6.8	NS
	$V_{20\text{Gy}}$ (%)	1.6	5.8	2.9	4.3	NS
Lungs minus PTV 66 Gy	$V_{30\text{Gy}}$ (%)	1.0	4.6	1.9	2.6	NS
	D_{\max} (Gy)	69.4	70	68.6	68.4	NS
	D_{\min} (Gy)	0	0.02	0.1	1.1	NS
	D_{mean} (Gy)	3	4.2	3.4	4.8	NS
	$V_{5\text{Gy}}$ (%)	11.4	11.9	13.5	20	0.043
	$V_{13\text{Gy}}$ (%)	7.5	8.6	8.3	12.2	0.043
Esophagus 46 Gy	$V_{20\text{Gy}}$ (%)	4.6	7	5.2	7.9	NS
	$V_{30\text{Gy}}$ (%)	3.2	5.4	3	4.1	NS
	D_{\max} (Gy)	46.9	37.5	49.1	49.8	NS
	D_{\min} (Gy)	0.1	0.3	0.65	0.63	NS
	D_{mean} (Gy)	16.1	15.7	18.8	19.5	NS
	$V_{20\text{Gy}}$ (%)	37.1	34.6	47.5	49.6	NS
Esophagus 66 Gy	$V_{45\text{Gy}}$ (%)	6.3	9.1	7.3	9.1	NS
	$V_{50\text{Gy}}$ (%)	0	0.1	0	2.2	NS
	D_{\max} (Gy)	68.9	67	68.5	67.3	NS
	D_{\min} (Gy)	0	5.25	0.3	7.1	0.043
	D_{mean} (Gy)	16.1	27	13.9	26.1	NS
	$V_{20\text{Gy}}$ (%)	28.1	49.5	26.3	27.8	NS
Spinal Cord 46 Gy	$V_{45\text{Gy}}$ (%)	22.1	36.7	16	28.9	NS
	$V_{50\text{Gy}}$ (%)	20.7	31.6	14	24.4	NS
	D_{\max} (Gy)	32.2	30.4	40.7	32.8	NS
	D_{\min} (Gy)	0.08	0.06	0.42	0.4	NS
	D_{mean} (Gy)	10.1	11.7	11.2	10.1	NS
	D_{\max} (Gy)	44.8	45.5	31.1	31.6	0.043
Spinal Cord 66 Gy	D_{\min} (Gy)	0	0.86	0.07	0.2	NS
	D_{mean} (Gy)	8	15.6	7.28	9	NS
	D_{\max} (Gy)	1	14	0.3	8.6	NS
	D_{\min} (Gy)	0	0.01	0.04	0.16	NS
	D_{mean} (Gy)	0.36	0.5	0.15	1	NS
	$V_{35\text{Gy}}$ (%)	0	0	0	0	NS
Heart 46 Gy	D_{\max} (Gy)	0.16	0.31	0.17	0.48	NS
	D_{\min} (Gy)	0	0	0.1	0.1	NS
	D_{mean} (Gy)	0.02	0.04	0.27	0.25	NS
	$V_{35\text{Gy}}$ (%)	0	0	0	0	NS
	D_{\max} (Gy)	47.6	41.6	46.5	42.9	NS
	D_{\min} (Gy)	0.22	0.83	8.2	11.2	NS
Brachial Plexus 46 Gy	D_{mean} (Gy)	20.9	20.1	25.1	24.6	NS
	D_{\max} (Gy)	70.1	70.6	68.8	64.9	0.043
	D_{\min} (Gy)	0.26	1.5	1.6	1.4	NS
	D_{mean} (Gy)	36.8	36.1	37.9	36.1	NS
	D_{\max} (Gy)	47.6	41.6	46.5	42.9	NS
	D_{\min} (Gy)	0.22	0.83	8.2	11.2	NS

D_{\min} , minimum dose; D_{\max} , maximum dose; NS, non significant.

($p=0.0004$), respectively.²⁹ Cattaneo et al. compared helical tomotherapy IMRT to 3D-RT for 13 patients with inoperable NSCLC, with doses ranging between 61 and 70 Gy. IMRT significantly increased the PTV V_{95%} from 92% with 3D-RT to 97% with IMRT ($p<0.002$).³⁰ In the current study, for the patients who received a dose >66 Gy, we showed that the V95% and HI were significantly improved for IMRT compared to 3D-RT. With regard to the CI, even if the difference was not significant, the values demonstrated a high level of conformality

that can be reached with IMRT. However, the expected V95% constraint (i.e., $>95\%$ of the prescribed dose) was reached for only one patient who received IMRT. This result is likely to be attributable to the proximity of the spinal cord, the same reason for which the patients had been considered as inoperable. The limit of the dose into the tumor was the dose constraint in the spinal cord. The mean and the median maximum doses were close to the required threshold of 45 Gy. However, we were able to deliver 33 or 35 fractions that led to less than

1.8 or 2 Gy per fraction being given to the spinal cord; thus, the radiobiologically equivalent dose that reached the spinal cord was probably less than 45 Gy.

For patients with localized non-operable tumors (stage IIIA with N2 or IIIB), the reference treatment remains chemoradiotherapy. The total dose delivered to the tumor is a prognostic factor for local control and overall survival.³¹ Vijayakumar et al. showed that a local control rate of 50% can be achieved if a dose of 53 Gy is delivered to the tumor, but this rate can reach 90% if a dose of 80 Gy is delivered.³² Currently, the recommended dose is 66 Gy in 33 fractions of 2 Gy. Bari et al. prospectively evaluated, 14 patients treated with chemoradiotherapy with a median radiation dose of 72 Gy (64–74) in 2 Gy fractions.²⁷ The median OS was 20 months. Two patients initially considered to be inoperable, presented a partial response and were surgically treated. The pathological evaluation did not find any tumor. No complications were reported. An increase in the dose administered for all of the inoperable or limited operability patients may be possible using IMRT or proton therapy.³³ Our results showed that the dose constraints were not reached for almost critical organs; therefore dose escalation remains a relevant aim. The use of a PET scanner as a surrogate for a pathological response could also be relevant to personalize dose increase.^{34,35}

In the patients who received 46 Gy in a preoperative schedule, there were no differences between IMRT and 3D-RT in terms of dose distribution. IMRT could thus be concluded to be non-superior to 3D-RT. However, if one considers that a histological complete response (pCR) can be a surrogate for overall survival, this may not be the case. In several studies, the pCR rate ranged between 16 and 36%.^{11,28,36,37} In a previous publication, we showed that the overall survival was correlated to the pCR.¹¹ Previous studies have shown that the rate can be improved up to 40–47% by increasing the radiation dose.^{38,39} However, the benefit of this dose escalation remains to be clearly proven by controlled studies.

In terms of critical organs, the doses reached in the different series have been variable. In the series reported by Murshed et al., the median $V_{10\text{Gy}}$ and $V_{20\text{Gy}}$, and mean dose in the lungs were significantly improved with IMRT.²⁹ In the series reported by Cattaneo et al. the median $V_{20\text{Gy}}$ and $V_{30\text{Gy}}$ were also significantly improved in patients irradiated with IMRT.³⁰ We did not conclude that the two approaches had equivalent results because we showed that lower doses were significantly decreased with IMRT. Some have argued that these low doses are associated with a higher risk of causing radio-induced pneumopathy in IMRT-treated patients than higher doses.⁴⁰ However, the differences between the results of the current series and the previously published articles are probably related to the location of the tumors because SS-NSCLC has less neighboring lung parenchyma. However, the high level of $V_{5\text{Gy}}$ retrieved in both series with 3D-RT is surprising and may explain the absence of a significant difference compared with IMRT, and may be related on the number of 3D-RT beams used.^{29,30} In these series, the differences in the results for the esophagus and heart were also related to the same explanation, i.e., the proximity of the tumor to the organs at risk affecting the findings. It was expected that the doses were more important in 3D-RT than in the IMRT calculation.^{29,30} In the current series, the distance of the tumor

from the heart explains the low doses observed. More critical for SS-NSCLC is the brachial plexus, which is often included in the PTV (Figs. 1 and 2), and its maximum tolerated dose was close to the prescribed dose and ranged between 60 and 66 Gy in previous studies.^{41,42} Even if we obtained a lower dose with IMRT, the risk is not low, especially for the long-term outcome of these patients with SS-NSCLC.^{11,28,36,43} However, after a median follow-up of 9.8 months (3.1–26.3), no patients in the current series developed radiation-induced plexitis and this complication has been rarely reported in the treatment of SS-NSCLC. For the patients treated with 46 Gy, the dose distributions in the critical organs were favorable for the IMRT technique. Therefore, even if the difference between IMRT and 3D-RT was not significant, it is noteworthy that the difference, in terms of the maximum dose for the most critical organ, (i.e., spinal cord) was 8 Gy. This discrepancy could be used to increase the dose given to the tumors. Moreover, if the dose escalation in the tumor is not considered a relevant goal, this shielding of the critical organs can be deemed useful for the outcome of the patient because the risk of metastatic disease, which can appear in previously irradiated bone. Furthermore, dose reduction in other areas of the body is more rationally based on the ALARA (as low as reasonably achievable) principle.

Two more points could be disputable regarding the use of IMRT. First, the treatment duration of tomotherapy is longer than that with 3D-RT. The motion of the tumor during irradiation can affect the outcome. However, Giraud et al. analyzed the tumor position during respiratory cycle in ten different NSCLC patients and showed that for patients with SS-NSCLC, the median proximal-distal motion was 7 mm, and this was nearly zero in the other directions.⁴⁴ Thus, tomotherapy IMRT does not seem to be problematic for SS-NSCLC. The second point is more concerning because of the increase in the number of beams required to deliver the highly conformal dose, tomotherapy IMRT (and all IMRT modes) increases the low-dose distribution. These low doses have been questioned as an inductor of second cancers.^{45–47} However, this risk remains relative in patients with other risk factors for cancer and because of the low life expectancy of these patients (regardless of the localization and stage). However, we have already shown that the integral dose was not increased by the use of tomotherapy IMRT.^{48,49}

In conclusion, our study showed that IMRT is relevant in SS-NSCLC. In patients treated by a curative dose, it leads to a reduction of dose given to critical organs, allowing a better dose distribution in the tumor, and for patients treated with a preoperative schedule, our results provide the opportunity to increase the dose in future controlled trials to improve the pCR.

Authors' contribution

AT, GN: Conception and design of the study; AT, GN: Acquisition of data, analysis and interpretation of data; AT, AD, GN: Drafting the article; SN, CS, FPE, QE, MG: Acquisition of data. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Conflict of interests

None declared.

Financial disclosure

None declared.

REFERENCES

1. Han D, Qin Q, Hao S, et al. Feasibility and efficacy of simultaneous integrated boost intensity-modulated radiation therapy in patients with limited-disease small cell lung cancer. *Radiother Oncol* 2014;9:280.
2. Noh JM, Kim JM, Ahn YC, et al. Effect of radiation therapy techniques on outcome in N3-positive IIIB non-small cell lung cancer treated with concurrent chemoradiotherapy. *Cancer Res Treat* 2015;48:106–14.
3. Selek U, Bolukbasi Y, Welsh JW, Topkan E. Intensity-modulated radiotherapy versus 3-dimensional conformal radiotherapy strategies for locally advanced non-small-cell lung cancer. *Balkan Med J* 2014;31:286–94.
4. Swanson CW, Lin SH, Sutton J, et al. Use of simultaneous radiation boost achieves high control rates in patients with non-small-cell lung cancer who are not candidates for surgery or conventional chemoradiation. *Clin Lung Cancer* 2015;16:156–63.
5. Zhang J, Yu XL, Zheng GF, Zhao F. Intensity-modulated radiotherapy and volumetric-modulated arc therapy have distinct clinical advantages in non-small cell lung cancer treatment. *Med Oncol* 2015;32:94.
6. Bradley JD, Bae K, Graham MV, et al. Primary analysis of the phase II component of a phase I/II dose intensification study using three-dimensional conformal radiation therapy and concurrent chemotherapy for patients with inoperable non-small-cell lung cancer: RTOG 0117. *J Clin Oncol* 2010;28:2475–80.
7. Kong FM, Ten Haken RK, Schipper MJ, et al. High-dose radiation improved local tumor control and overall survival in patients with inoperable/unresectable non-small-cell lung cancer: long-term results of a radiation dose escalation study. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2005;63:324–33.
8. Schild SE, McGinnis WL, Graham D, et al. Results of a Phase I trial of concurrent chemotherapy and escalating doses of radiation for unresectable non-small-cell lung cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2006;65:1106–11.
9. Socinski MA, Rosenman JG, Halle J, et al. Dose-escalating conformal thoracic radiation therapy with induction and concurrent carboplatin/paclitaxel in unresectable stage IIIA/B nonsmall cell lung carcinoma: a modified phase I/II trial. *Cancer* 2001;92:1213–23.
10. Bradley JD, Paulus R, Komaki R, et al. Standard-dose versus high-dose conformal radiotherapy with concurrent and consolidation carboplatin plus paclitaxel with or without cetuximab for patients with stage IIIA or IIIB non-small-cell lung cancer (RTOG 0617): a randomised, two-by-two factorial phase 3 study. *Lancet Oncol* 2015;16:187–99.
11. Trunzter P, Antoni DN, Santelmo N, et al. Superior sulcus non small cell lung carcinoma: retrospective analysis of 42 patients. *Radiother Oncol* 2014;9:259.
12. Tomsej M. The TomoTherapy Hi. Art system for sophisticated IMRT and IGRT with helical delivery: recent developments and clinical applications. *Cancer Radiother* 2006;10:288–95.
13. Beneyton V, Billaud G, Niederst C, et al. Comparison of three dosimetric techniques for lung tumor irradiation. *Cancer Radiother* 2010;14:50–8.
14. Birim O, Kappetein AP, Stijnen T, Bogers AJ. Meta-analysis of positron emission tomographic and computed tomographic imaging in detecting mediastinal lymph node metastases in nonsmall cell lung cancer. *Ann Thorac Surg* 2005;79:375–82.
15. Giraud P, Antoine M, Larrouy A, et al. Evaluation of microscopic tumor extension in non-small-cell lung cancer for three-dimensional conformal radiotherapy planning. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2000;48:1015–24.
16. Chapet O, Kong FM, Quint LE, et al. CT-based definition of thoracic lymph node stations: an atlas from the University of Michigan. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2005;63:170–8.
17. Rosenzweig KE, Sim SE, Mychalczak B, Braban LE, Schindelheim R, Leibel SA. Elective nodal irradiation in the treatment of non-small-cell lung cancer with three-dimensional conformal radiation therapy. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2001;50:681–5.
18. Prescribing R. Reporting intensity-modulated photon-beam therapy (IMRT) (ICRU Report 83) ICRU Report 83. *J ICRU* 2010;10.
19. Knoos T, Kristensen I, Nilsson P. Volumetric and dosimetric evaluation of radiation treatment plans: radiation conformity index. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 1998;42:1169–76.
20. Feuvret L, Noel G, Mazerolle JJ, Bey P. Conformity index: a review. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2006;64:333–42.
21. Gregoire V, Mackie TR. State of the art on dose prescription, reporting and recording in Intensity-Modulated Radiation Therapy (ICRU report No. 83). *Cancer Radiother* 2011;15:555–9.
22. Shaw E, Scott C, Souhami L, et al. Single dose radiosurgical treatment of recurrent previously irradiated primary brain tumors and brain metastases: final report of RTOG protocol 90-05. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2000;47:291–8.
23. Ortholan C, Mornex F. Normal tissue tolerance to external beam radiation therapy: lung. *Cancer Radiother* 2010;14:312–8.
24. Doyen J, Giraud P, Belkacemi Y. Normal tissue tolerance to external beam radiation therapy: cardiac structures. *Cancer Radiother* 2010;14:319–26.
25. Habrand JL, Drouet F. Normal tissue tolerance to external beam radiation therapy: spinal cord. *Cancer Radiother* 2010;14:269–76.
26. Bera G, Pointreau Y, Denis F, Orain I, Dupuis O, Crehange G. Normal tissue tolerance to external beam radiation therapy: esophagus. *Cancer Radiother* 2010;14:327–35.
27. De Bari B, Lestradet L, Souquet PJ, et al. Single French centre retrospective analysis of local control after high dose radiotherapy with or without chemotherapy and local control for Pancoast tumours. *Cancer Radiother* 2012;16:107–14.
28. Rusch VW, Giroix DJ, Kraut MJ, et al. Induction chemoradiation and surgical resection for superior sulcus non-small-cell lung carcinomas: long-term results of Southwest Oncology Group Trial 9416 (Intergroup Trial 0160). *J Clin Oncol* 2007;25:313–8.
29. Murshed H, Liu HH, Liao Z, et al. Dose and volume reduction for normal lung using intensity-modulated radiotherapy for advanced-stage non-small-cell lung cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2004;58:1258–67.
30. Cattaneo GM, Dell'oca I, Broggi S, et al. Treatment planning comparison between conformal radiotherapy and helical tomotherapy in the case of locally advanced-stage NSCLC. *Radiat Oncol* 2008;88:310–8.
31. Perez CA, Bauer M, Edelstein S, Gillespie BW, Birch R. Impact of tumor control on survival in carcinoma of the lung treated with irradiation. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 1986;12:539–47.
32. Vijayakumar S, Myrianthopoulos LC, Rosenberg I, Halpern HJ, Low N, Chen GT. Optimization of radical radiotherapy with beam's eye view techniques for non-small cell lung cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 1991;21:779–88.
33. Zhang X, Li Y, Pan X, et al. Intensity-modulated proton therapy reduces the dose to normal tissue compared with intensity-modulated radiation therapy or passive scattering proton therapy and enables individualized radical radiotherapy for extensive stage IIIB non-small-cell lung cancer: a virtual clinical study. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2010;77:357–66.

34. Choi NC, Fischman AJ, Niemierko A, et al. Dose-response relationship between probability of pathologic tumor control and glucose metabolic rate measured with FDG PET after preoperative chemoradiotherapy in locally advanced non-small-cell lung cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2002;54:1024–35.
35. Choi NC, Chun TT, Niemierko A, et al. Potential of 18F-FDG PET toward personalized radiotherapy or chemoradiotherapy in lung cancer. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2013;40:832–41.
36. Kunitoh H, Kato H, Tsuboi M, et al. Phase II trial of preoperative chemoradiotherapy followed by surgical resection in patients with superior sulcus non-small-cell lung cancers: report of Japan Clinical Oncology Group trial 9806. *J Clin Oncol* 2008;26:644–9.
37. Rusch VW, Parekh KR, Leon L, et al. Factors determining outcome after surgical resection of T3 and T4 lung cancers of the superior sulcus. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg* 2000;119:1147–53.
38. Kappers I, Belderbos JS, Burgers JA, van Zandwijk N, Groen HJ, Klomp HM. Non-small cell lung carcinoma of the superior sulcus: favourable outcomes of combined modality treatment in carefully selected patients. *Lung Cancer* 2008;59:385–90.
39. Kwong KF, Edelman MJ, Suntharalingam M, et al. High-dose radiotherapy in trimodality treatment of Pancoast tumors results in high pathologic complete response rates and excellent long-term survival. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg* 2005;129:1250–7.
40. Pinnix CC, Smith GL, Milgrom S, et al. Predictors of radiation pneumonitis in patients receiving intensity modulated radiation therapy for hodgkin and non-hodgkin lymphoma. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2015;92:175–82.
41. Johansson S, Svensson H, Denekamp J. Dose response and latency for radiation-induced fibrosis, edema, and neuropathy in breast cancer patients. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2002;52:1207–19.
42. Kong FM, Ritter T, Quint DJ, et al. Consideration of dose limits for organs at risk of thoracic radiotherapy: atlas for lung, proximal bronchial tree, esophagus, spinal cord, ribs, and brachial plexus. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2011;81:1442–57.
43. Rusch VW, Giroux DJ, Kraut MJ, et al. Induction chemoradiation and surgical resection for non-small cell lung carcinomas of the superior sulcus: Initial results of Southwest Oncology Group Trial 9416 (Intergroup Trial 0160). *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg* 2001;121:472–83.
44. Giraud P, De Rycke Y, Dubray B, et al. Conformal radiotherapy (CRT) planning for lung cancer: analysis of intrathoracic organ motion during extreme phases of breathing. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2001;51:1081–92.
45. Tubiana M. Can we reduce the incidence of second primary malignancies occurring after radiotherapy? A critical review. *Radiother Oncol* 2009;91:4–15, discussion 1–3.
46. Welte B, Suhr P, Bottke D, et al. Second malignancies in highdose areas of previous tumor radiotherapy. *Strahlenther Onkol* 2010;186:174–9.
47. Suit H, Goldberg S, Niemierko A, et al. Secondary carcinogenesis in patients treated with radiation: a review of data on radiation-induced cancers in human, non-human primate, canine and rodent subjects. *Radiat Res* 2007;167:12–42.
48. Antoni D, Natarajan-Ame S, Meyer P, Niederst C, Bourahla K, Noel G. Contribution of three-dimensional conformal intensity-modulated radiation therapy for women affected by bulky stage II supradiaphragmatic Hodgkin disease. *Radiother Oncol* 2013;8:112.
49. Beneyton V, Niederst C, Vigneron C, et al. Comparison of the dosimetries of 3-dimensions Radiotherapy (3D-RT) with linear accelerator and intensity modulated radiotherapy (IMRT) with helical tomotherapy in children irradiated for neuroblastoma. *BMC Med Phys* 2012;12:2.