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Radiation biology in Radiotherapy: from theory to clinical practice

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Kayseri, 2005

Conformal Radiotherapy

+

Technological Advances

+

Radiobiological Models

?

Higher TCP

+

Lower NTCP

+

Higher survival rate



Observations:

- ✓ Higher target dose → higher control rate
 - ✓ Larger tumor size → higher target dose for the same TCP
 - ✓ Smaller volume of irradiated normal tissues → increase the tolerance level (= *volume effect*)
-

- ✓ Optimum irradiation technique allows:
 - to minimize the volume normal tissues irradiated with clinically relevant dose → lower NTCP
 - to perform dose escalation → higher TCP
- ✓ Accurate dosimetry allows:
 - accuracy in prediction factors (DVHs, TCP, NTCP)
 - correct evaluation of the treatment outcome

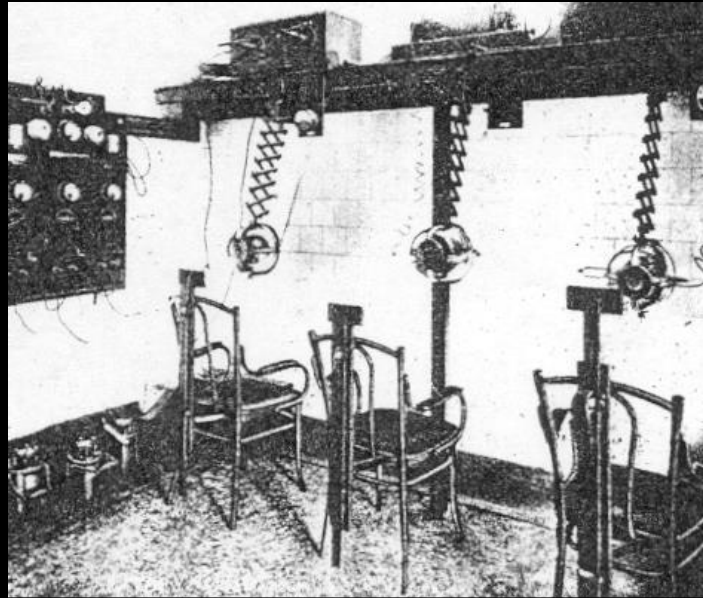
Radiotherapy Optimization

Generally, there are three main directions to improve radiotherapy:

- ✓ Improving physical dose distribution
- ✓ Optimizing radiotherapy dose-time-fraction scheme
- ✓ Modifying radiation response in tumor (radiosensitizers) and/or normal tissues (radioprotectors) using chemical agents

The evolution of Radiotherapy

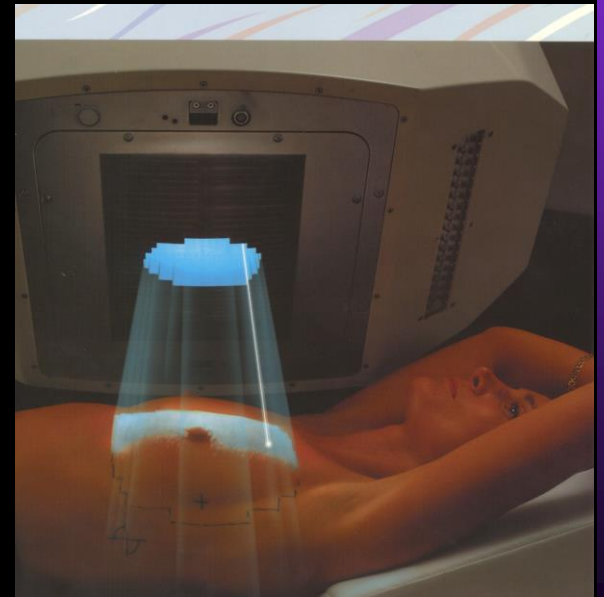
RADIODTHERAPY



*London's Radiotherapy
Department 1905*

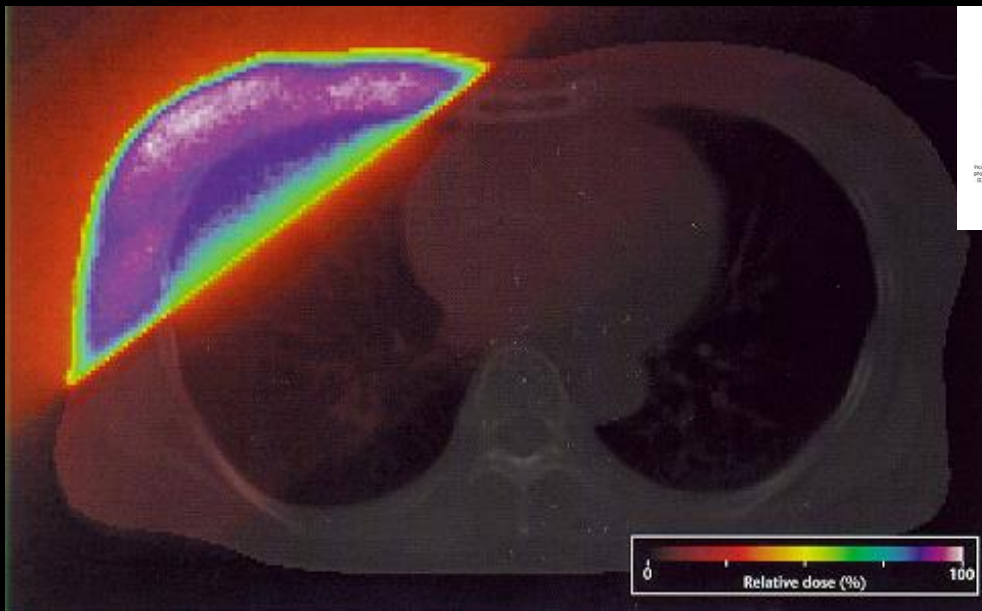
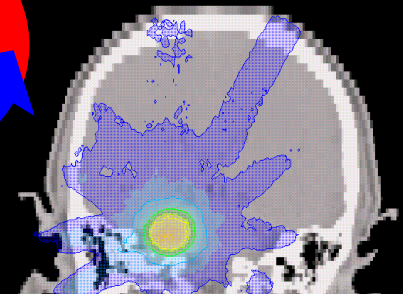
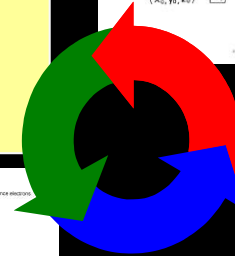
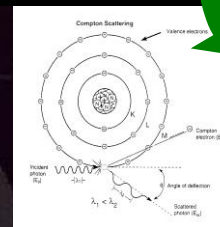
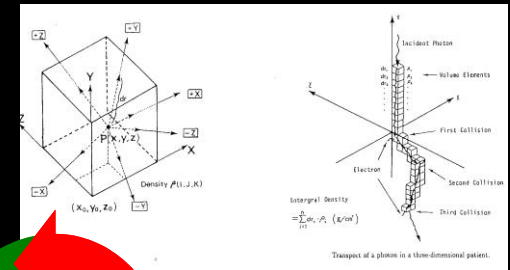
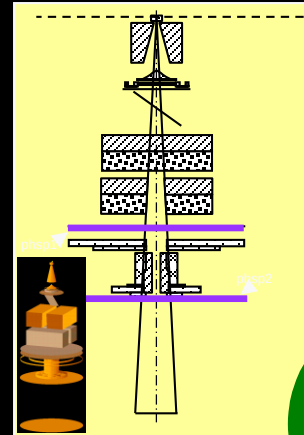


Radiotherapy 2005



3D Patient Planning

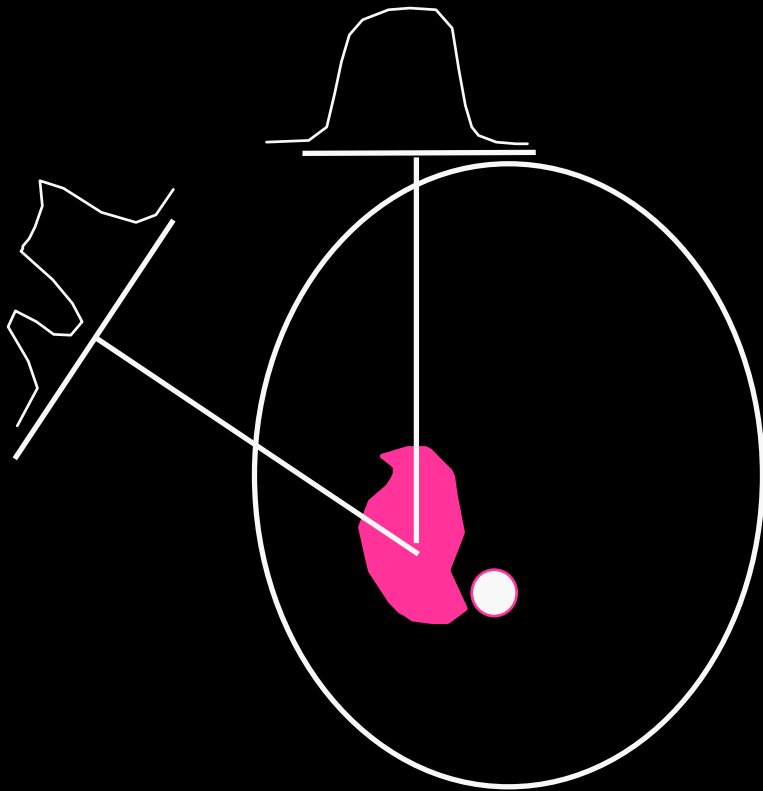
Dose Calculation



3D Dose Calculation
with Monte Carlo

3D Patient Planning

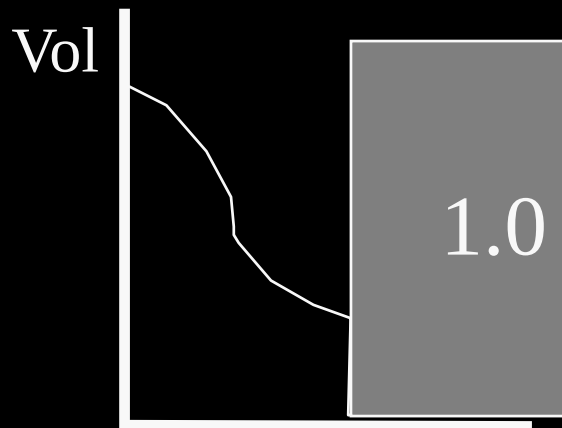
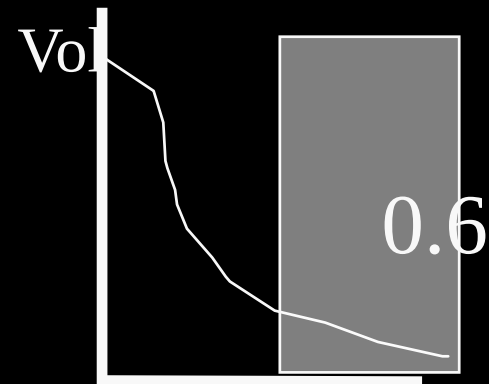
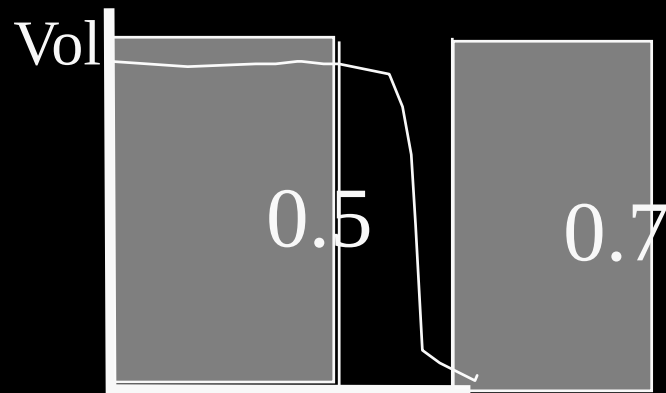
Inverse Planning



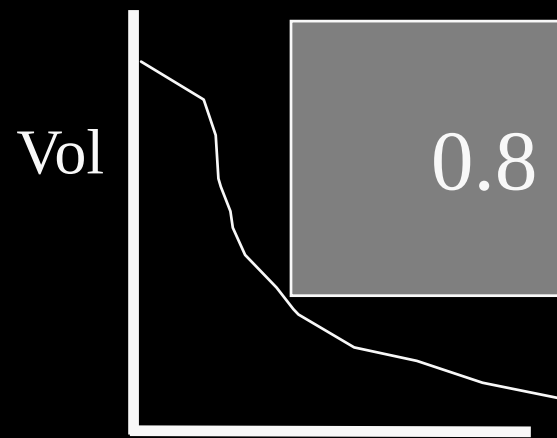
*“Let’s reverse the problem
and
Using the power of
mathematics to
solve our planning
challenges”*

3D Patient Planning

Inverse Planning – Types of prescription



Dose



Dose

Radiation Biology
Theoretical point of view

Radiobiological models

Most of the radiobiological models are characterized by the some common features such as:

- Cell survival after irradiation follows binomial and binomial or Poisson statistics.
- Response of an organ is determined by the death or survival of its target cells (functional subunits for normal tissues and clonogens for tumors).
- All the target cells respond identically.
- Isoeffect relationships are independent of the level of response.
- Equal effects are obtained from equal fractions if sufficiently separated in time.

Radiobiological models

It is well known that the radiation response of a tissue can be characterized by the “four Rs” of radiobiology:

- *R*epair of sublethal damage
- *R*epopulation,
- *R*edistribution
- *R*eoxygenation.

Radiobiological models

Probit model

$$P(D) = \frac{1}{2} \left[1 - E_{rf} \left[\sqrt{\pi\gamma} \left(1 - \frac{D}{D_{50}} \right) \right] \right]$$

Logit model

$$P(D) = \left[1 + \left(\frac{D_{50}}{D} \right)^{4\gamma} \right]^{-1}$$

Poisson model

$$P(D) = e^{-e^{\left[e\gamma - \left(\frac{D}{D_{50}} \right) (e\gamma - \ln \ln 2) \right]}}$$

LQ-Poisson model

$$P(D) = e^{-N_0 e^{-\alpha nd - \beta nd^2}}$$

Radiobiological models

LQ models for heterogeneous dose distributions:

$$TCP = \prod_{i=1}^M [[P(D_i)^s]^{\Delta v_i}]^{1/s}$$

$$NTCP = \prod_{i=1}^M [[1 - P(D_i)^s]^{\Delta v_i}]^{1/s}$$

Radiobiological models

LQR model for taking into account the redistribution and the reoxygenation effects:

$$S = \exp[-\alpha D - \beta G(\tau_R) D^2 + (\frac{1}{2} \sigma^2) G(\tau_S) D^2 + H(T_{tot}, T_k)(T_{tot} - T_k) / T_{pd}]$$

$$BED = -\frac{1}{\alpha} \ln(S)$$

$$TCP \text{ or } NTCP = \exp(-N_0 S) = \exp[-N_0 \exp(-\alpha BED)]$$

Radiation Biology
Theory → Clinical Practice

AVM radiobiological modeling

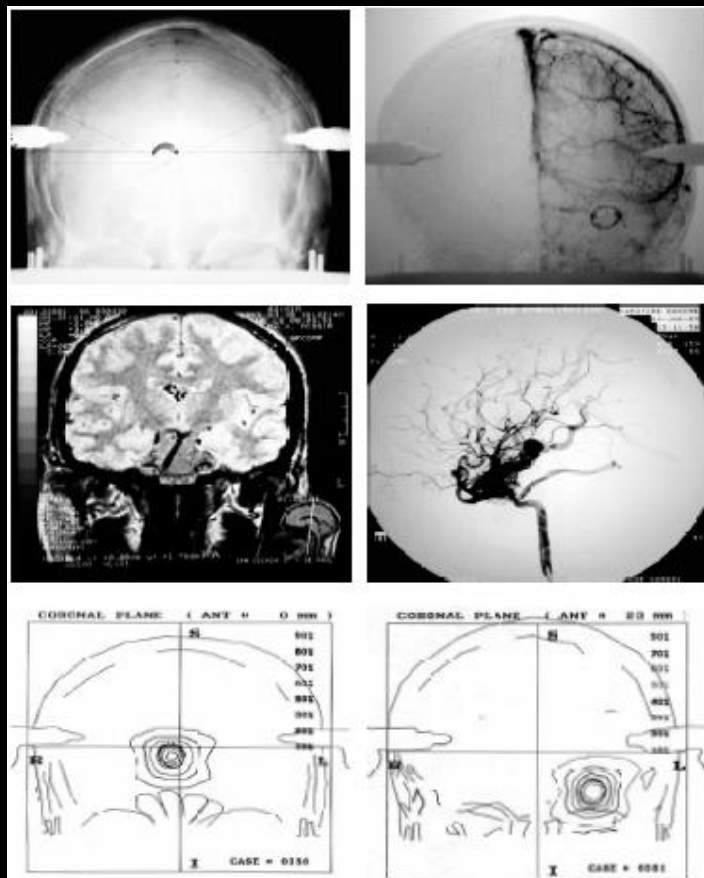


Table 1. Description of the dosimetric and clinical characteristics of the patient population.

Patients	85	Irradiation technique	
Males	52 (61.2%)	Mono-isocentric	55 (64.7%)
Females	33 (38.8%)	Multi-isocentric	30 (35.3%)
Age		Reference isodose	60–70%
Range	6–68 years	Reference dose (Gy)	
Mean	33.8 years	Range	18–28
Median	34 years	Mean	24.3
AVM location		Mean dose (Gy)	
Central	35 (41.2%)	Range	16–33
Peripheral	50 (58.8%)	Mean	28.4
AVM volume (cm ³)	0.3–8.8	Follow-up	
Haemorrhage before treatment		Angiography	85 (100%)
Yes	50 (58.8%)	MRI (additional)	51 (60%)
No	35 (41.2%)	Obliteration rate	58 (68.2%)
Other symptoms		Obliteration time	
Neurological deficit	6 (7.1%)	Range	6–54 months
Epilepsy	17 (20.0%)	Mean	20.3 months

Radiobiological models

Linear Poisson model $P(D) = \exp(-e^{\gamma - (D/D_{50})(\gamma - \ln \ln 2)})$

Karlsson–Lax model $P(D) = a \ln(D_{\min}) - b.$

$$P(\vec{D}) = \prod_{i=1}^M [P(D_i)]^{\Delta v_i}$$

Statistics used for fitting the parameters:

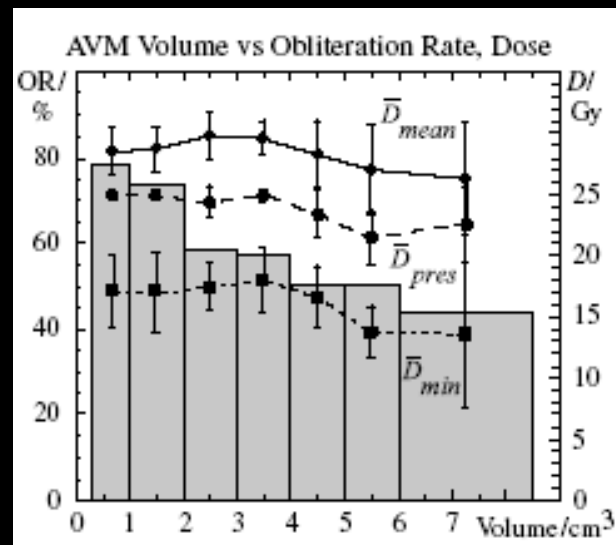
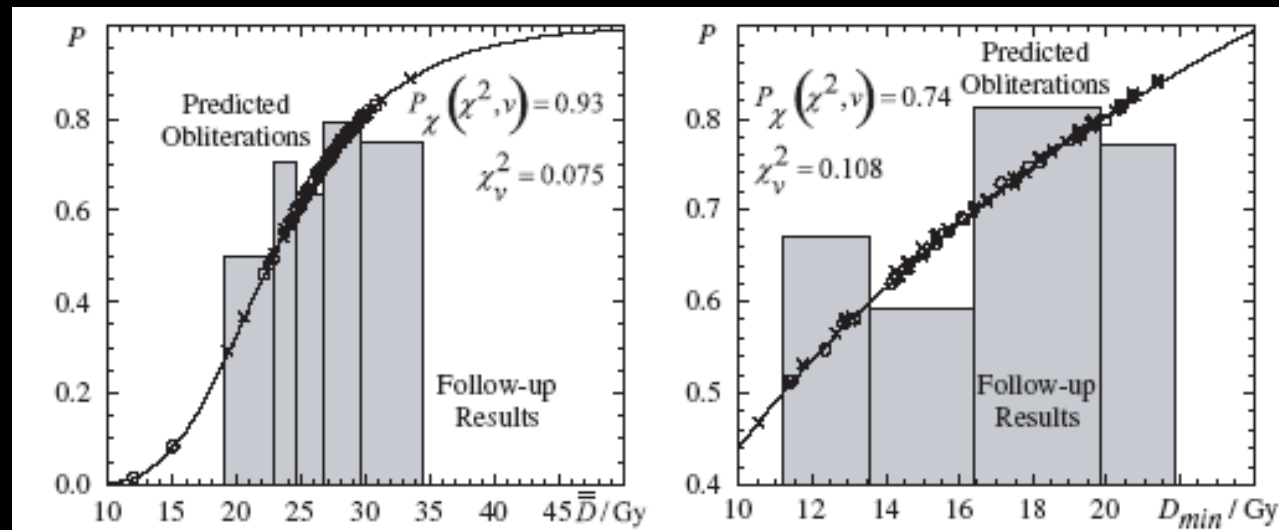
$$\begin{aligned} L(\vec{X} \mid \vec{\theta}) &= L((D_{50}, \gamma), (\vec{D}, \vec{V})) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^m P_{\text{obl}}((D_{50}, \gamma), (\vec{D}_i, \vec{V}_i)) \times \prod_{j=1}^n (1 - P_{\text{obl}}((D_{50}, \gamma), (\vec{D}_j, \vec{V}_j))) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \ln L((D_{50}, \gamma), (\vec{D}, \vec{V})) &= \sum_{i=1}^m \ln(P_{\text{obl}}((D_{50}, \gamma), (\vec{D}_i, \vec{V}_i))) + \sum_{j=1}^n \ln(1 - P_{\text{obl}}((D_{50}, \gamma), (\vec{D}_j, \vec{V}_j))) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m \ln \left(\prod_{k=1}^{M_i} \left(\exp \left(-e^{\gamma - (D_{ik}/D_{50})(\gamma - \ln(\ln 2))} \right) \right)^{V_{ik}} \right) \\ &\quad + \sum_{j=1}^n \ln \left(1 - \prod_{k=1}^{M_j} \left(\exp \left(-e^{\gamma - (D_{jk}/D_{50})(\gamma - \ln(\ln 2))} \right) \right)^{V_{jk}} \right). \end{aligned}$$

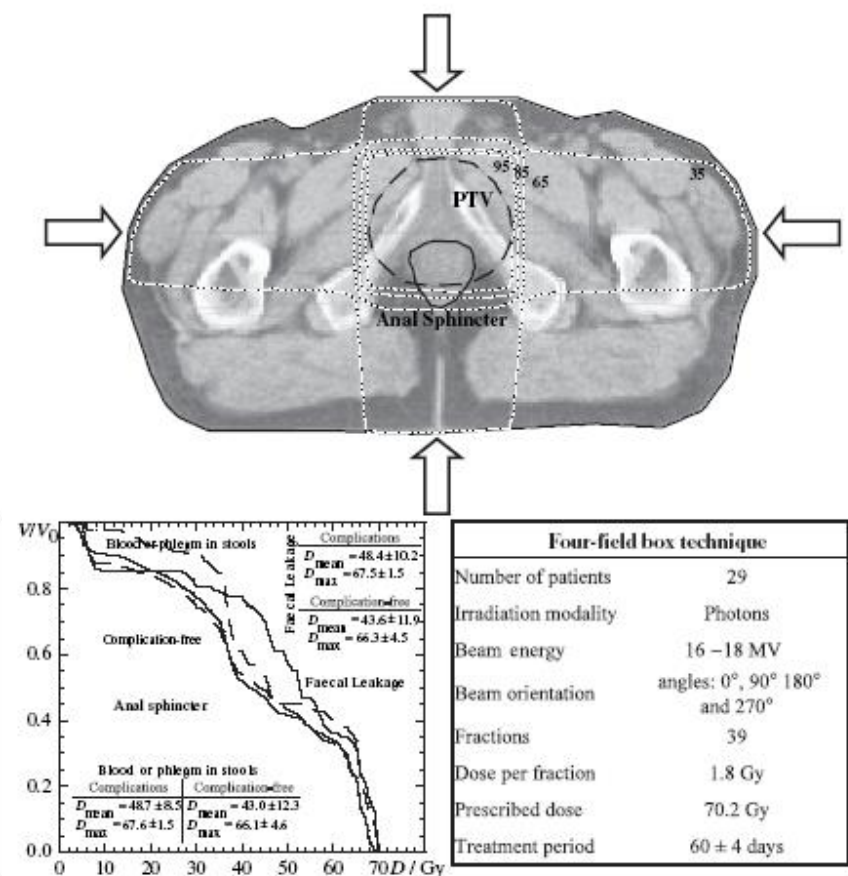
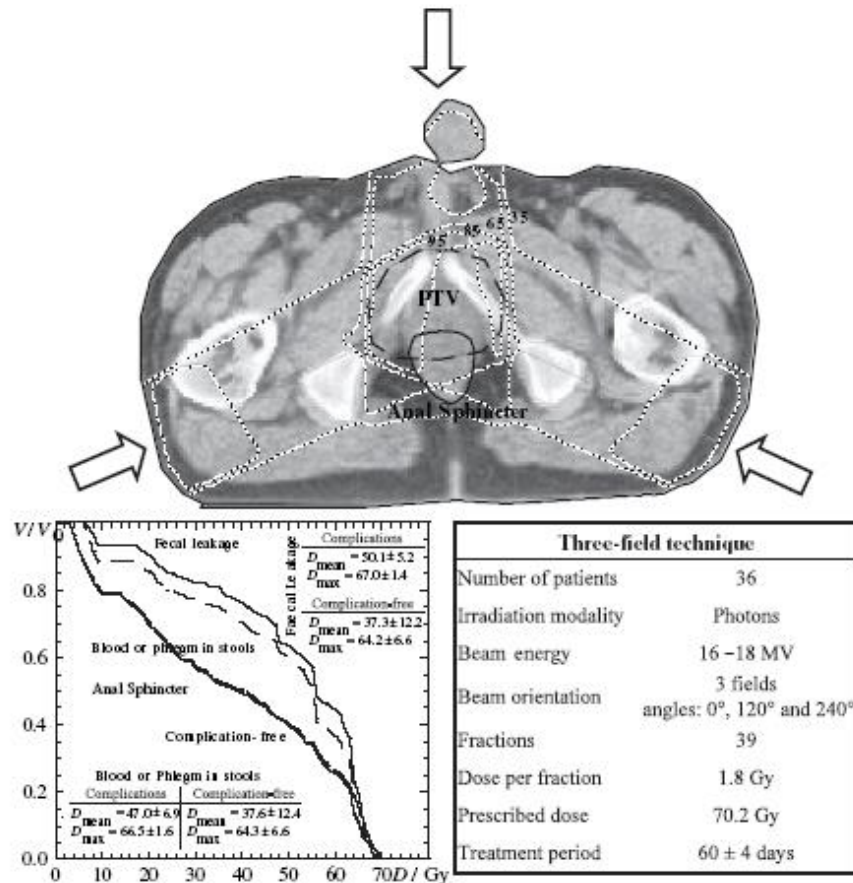
Results

Patient subgroup	D_{50}	Confidence intervals on D_{50}	γ	Confidence intervals on γ
All AVMs ($V_{ref} = 3.0 \text{ cm}^3$) (85 patients)	22.9	68%: 21.5–24.3 Gy 95%: 20.6–24.6 Gy	1.25	68%: 0.87–1.66 95%: 0.69–1.87
Peripheral AVMs (50 patients)	24.2	68%: 21.6–26.6 Gy 95%: 20.0–35.1 Gy	0.86	68%: 0.34–1.42 95%: lim.–1.76
Central AVMs (35 patients)	20.9	68%: 18.8–22.4 Gy 95%: 17.3–23.0 Gy	1.91	68%: 1.17–2.83 95%: 0.96–3.34
Large AVMs ($> 2 \text{ cm}^3$) (41 patients)	24.6	68%: 19.7–27.3 Gy 95%: 15.4–30.2 Gy	0.67	68%: lim.–1.28 95%: lim.–1.64
Small AVMs ($< 2 \text{ cm}^3$) (44 patients)	19.7	68%: 15.8–22.2 Gy 95%: 12.8–23.1 Gy	1.37	68%: 0.82–2.26 95%: 0.69–2.71
Large AVMs ($> 4 \text{ cm}^3$) (22 patients)	23.7	68%: 20.4–26.8 Gy 95%: 15.4–30.2 Gy	0.93	68%: 0.09–1.63 95%: lim.–2.05
Small AVMs ($< 4 \text{ cm}^3$) (63 patients)	22.7	68%: 20.2–24.2 Gy 95%: 18.7–24.9 Gy	1.34	68%: 0.87–2.01 95%: 0.67–2.35
AVMs with haemorrhage (51 patients)	23.3	68%: 21.5–24.7 Gy 95%: 19.8–25.7 Gy	1.62	68%: 0.97–2.35 95%: 0.73–2.67
AVMs without haemorrhage (34 patients)	22.7	68%: 19.7–25.4 Gy 95%: 18.1–27.7 Gy	0.91	68%: 0.41–1.49 95%: 0.14–1.79
Karlsson–Lax approach				
		<i>a</i>		<i>b</i>
All AVMs (prescribed dose)	62.28	68%: 21.80–102.76	130.42	68%: lim.–277.15
All AVMs (minimum dose)	52.07	68%: 26.68–77.45	75.84	68%: 1.90–149.79

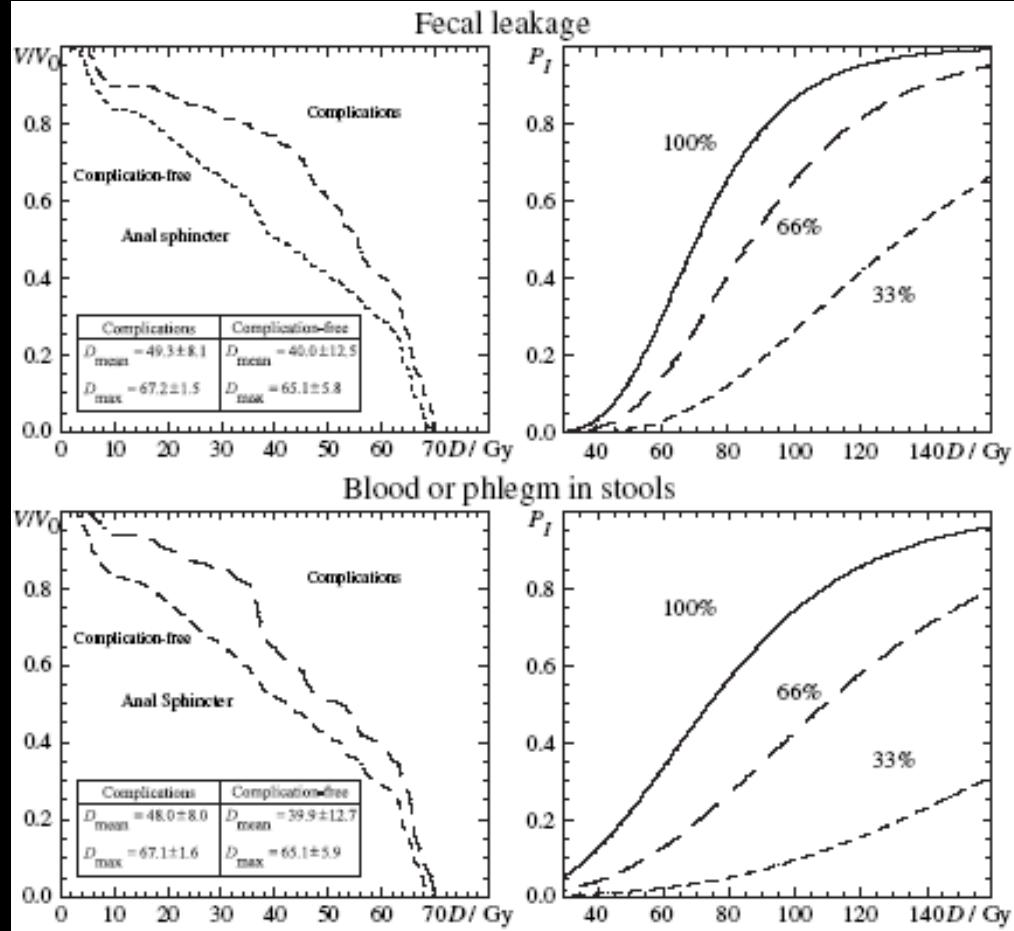
Results



Anal Sphincter radiobiological modeling

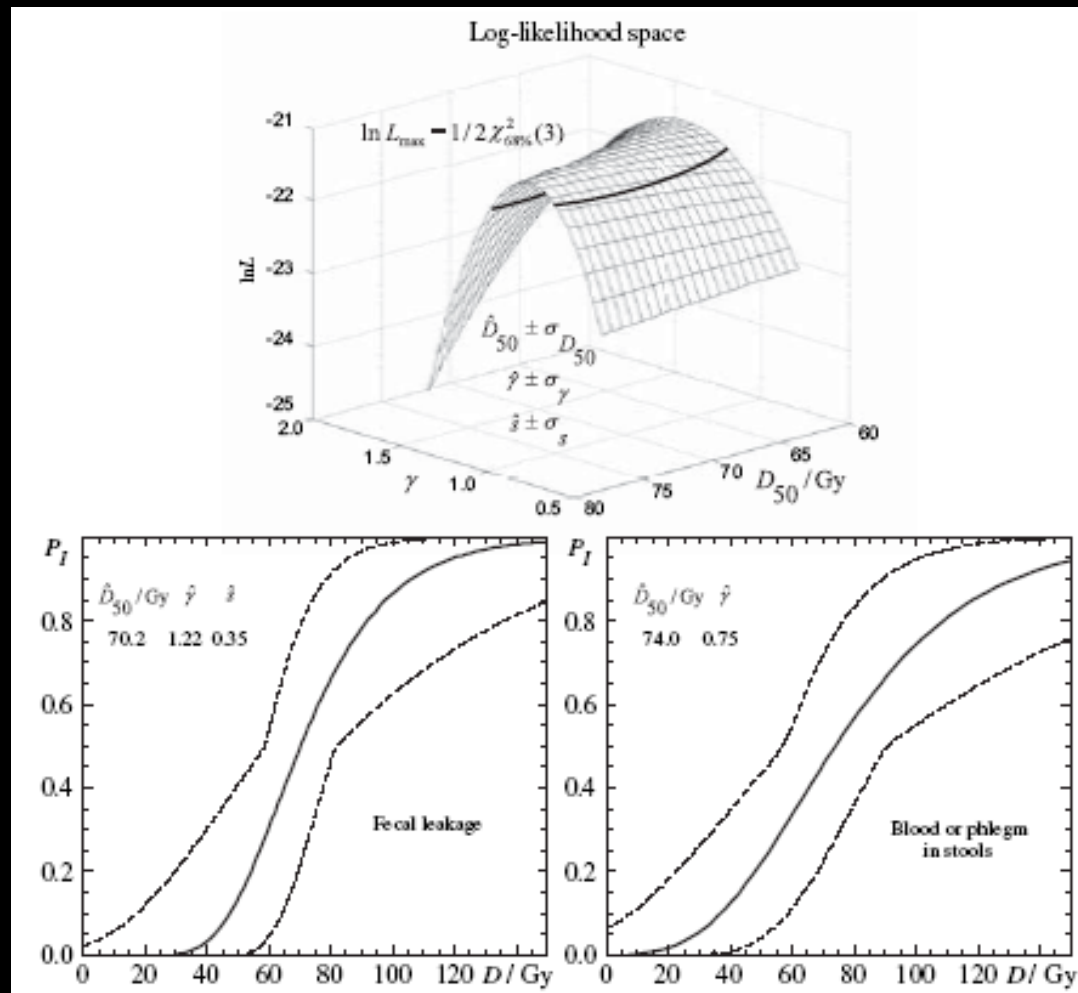


Results



Parameters	Best estimates and confidence intervals	
	Fecal leakage	Blood or phlegm in stools
D_{50} (Gy), dose for 50% complication probability	$70.2 \pm 16\%$	$74.0 \pm 22\%$
γ , maximum normalized gradient of the dose-response curve	$1.22 \pm 60\%$	$0.75 \pm 50\%$
s , relative seriality parameter	$0.35 \pm 90\%$	≈ 0 (very low)

Results



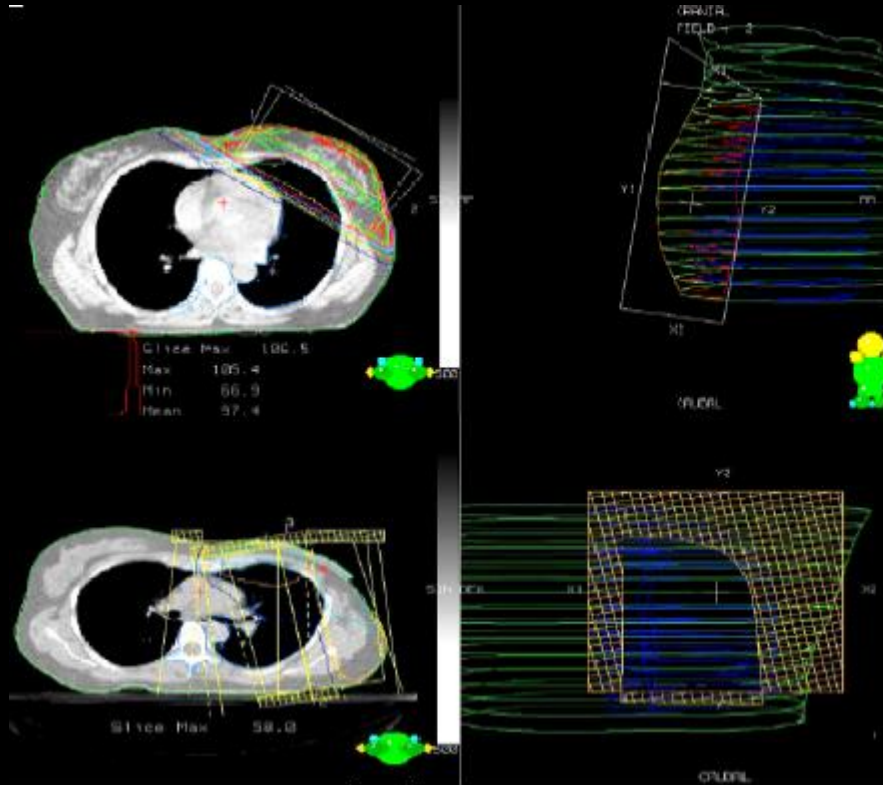
Evaluation of radiobiological models in breast cancer radiotherapy

150 consecutive patients from Tampere University Hospital, Finland, treated from 1998-1999.

Age (years)	
Median	61
Range	30–83
Gender	Female
Radiation pneumonitis grade	
No–mild	135 (90%)
Medium–severe	15 (10%)
Clinical case	
Mastectomy	36 (24%)
Breast resection	114 (76%)
Side (%)	
Left	78
Right	22
Chemotherapy (%)	
Yes	20.5
No	79.5
Dose per fraction	2.0 Gy

Clinical endpoint: radiation pneumonitis

Treatment planning



Parameters

Physical

Photons 5/6 MV
2 tangential fields
35° and 215°
50 Gy prescribed
dose in 25 fractions

Clinical

Target volume: entire breast
(fat tissue and skin)

Parameters

Physical

1. Photons 6/25 MV
two anterior-posterior fields
2. Electrons 12 MeV
50 Gy prescribed
dose in 25 fractions

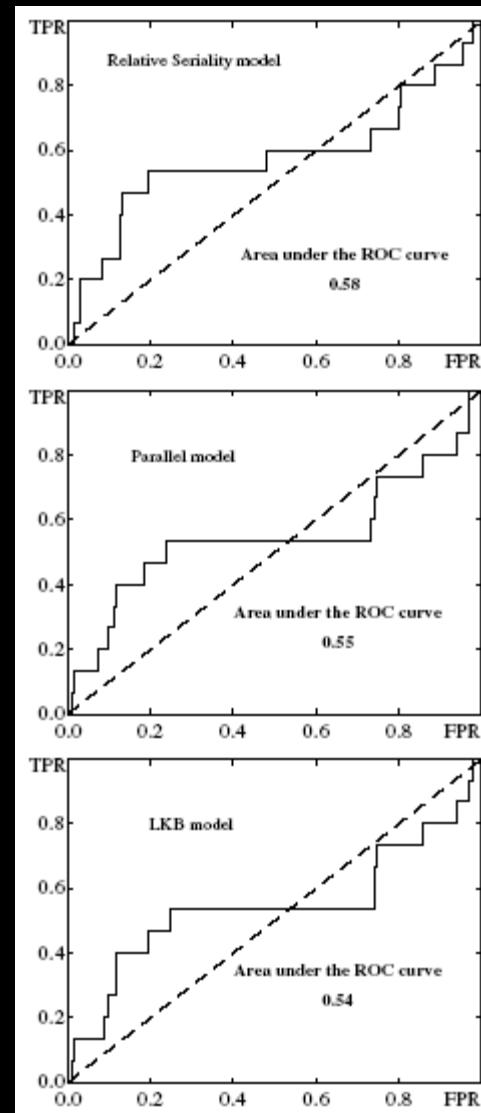
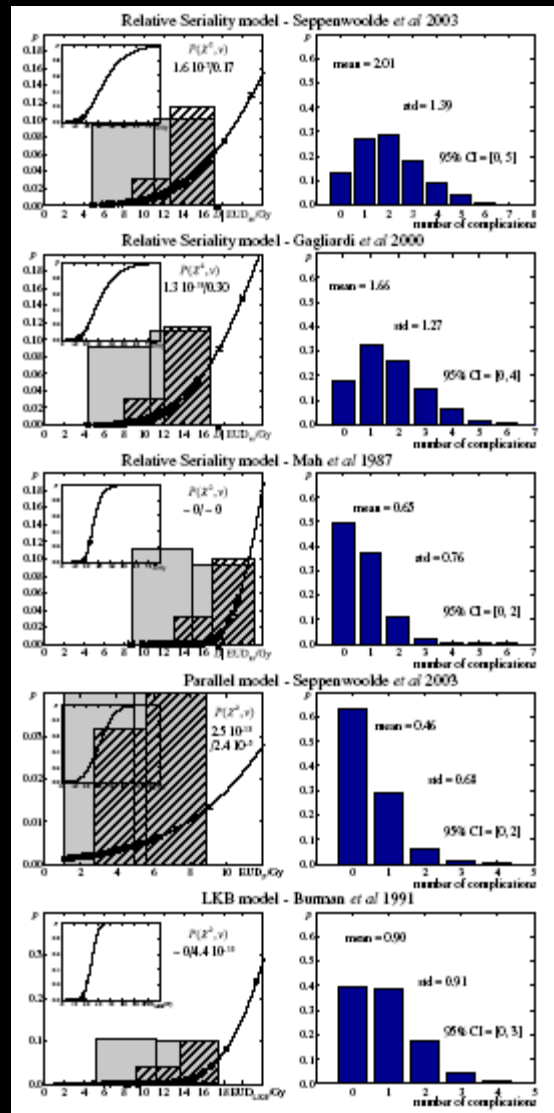
Clinical

Target volume: entire breast
+ regional lymph nodes
and chest wall

Radiobiological parameters

Models	Parameter values ^a			
Relative seriality model	D_{50} (Gy)	γ	s	α/β
Seppenwoolde <i>et al</i> (2003)	34	0.9	0.06	2.5–3.0
Gagliardi <i>et al</i> (2000)	30.1	0.97	0.01	3.0
Mah <i>et al</i> (1987)	26	2	0.031	–
LKB model	TD ₅₀ (Gy)	m	n	α/β
Burman <i>et al</i> (1991)	24.5	0.18	0.87	–
Parallel	TD ₅₀ (Gy)	m	n	α/β
Seppenwoolde <i>et al</i> (2003)	31	0.32	0.67	2.5–3.0

Results



Conclusions

Conclusion I

What we have to know in order to use biological models in the treatment planning process?

- ✓ the γ and D_{50} of the target
- ✓ the γ and D_{50} of **EVERY** critical organ and for **EVERY** complication
- ✓ The 3D dose distribution (DVHs)

ATTENTION!!!

The bibliographic data are NOT always reliable!

- wrong choice of patients – bad statistics
- not reliable clinical/physical data
- not sufficient or bad follow-up

Conclusion II

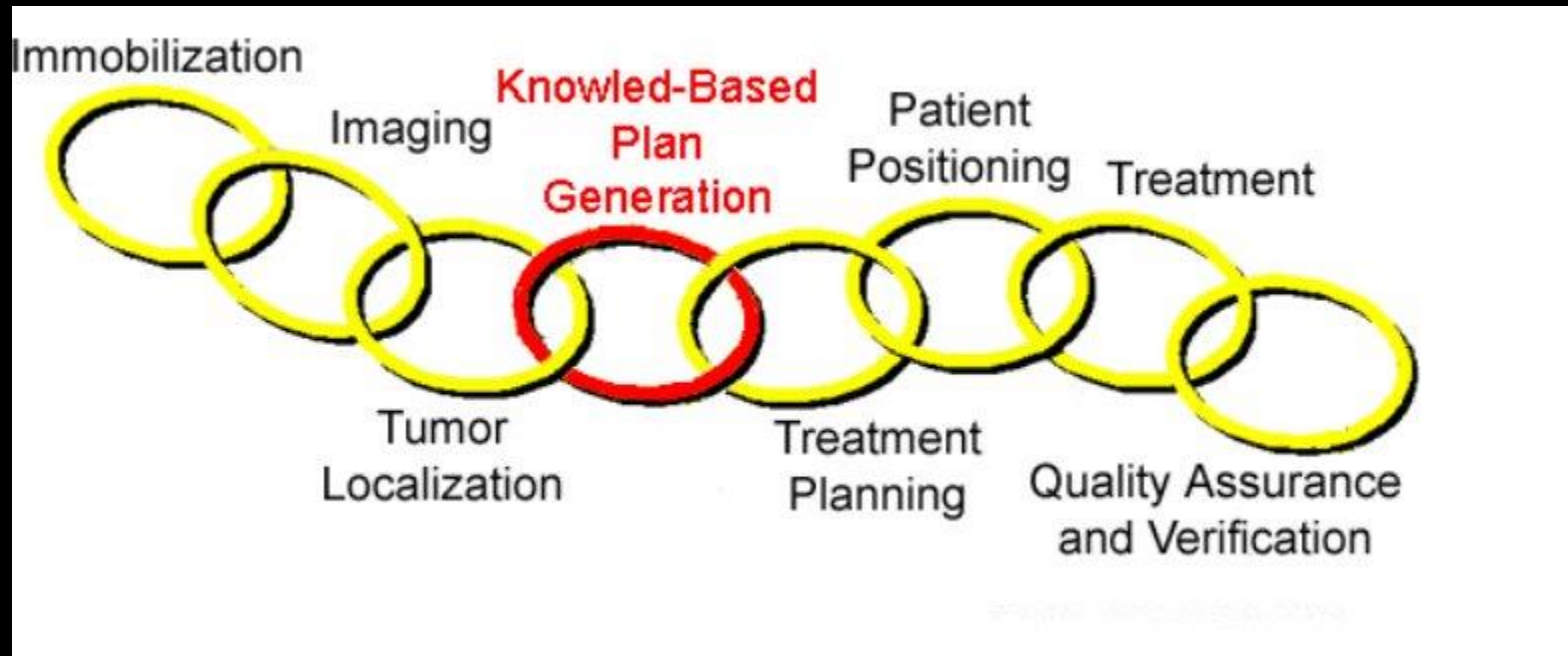
For making a study to determine our own biological parameters we have to:

- ✓ Define the target and critical organs
- ✓ Determine/record the target reference dose
- ✓ Determine the complications (endpoint)
- ✓ Produce/save the 3D dose distribution (DVH for every structure)
- ✓ Check and verify the treatment delivery
- ✓ Patient follow-up for time adequate to see the defined complications
- ✓ Have a large number of consecutive and similar patient cases

Conclusion III

- ✓ It is possible for the Medical Physicist to be involved actively in radiobiological studies and optimization
- ✓ The close collaboration between physicist and radiotherapist is imperative
- ✓ For producing your own radiobiological data, a well-defined treatment and follow-up protocol should be made
- ✓ The overall treatment accuracy is a key factor for reliable radiobiological modelling and furthermore for predictive studies

Radiotherapy Procedure



TESEKURDERME