

Fractionated High-Dose-Rate Brachytherapy in Primary Carcinoma of the Nasopharynx

By Peter C. Levendag, Paul I. Schmitz, Peter P. Jansen, Wilhelmina M. Eijkenboom, Andries G. Visser, Inger-Karine K. Kolkman-Deurloo, Dick Sipkema, Leo L. Visch, and Suresh Senan

Purpose: A growing body of data suggests that local control in nasopharyngeal cancer (NPC) is related to the radiation dose administered. We conducted a single-institution study of high-dose radiotherapy (RT), which incorporated high-dose-rate (HDR) brachytherapy (BT). These results were analyzed together with data obtained from controls who did not receive BT.

Patients and Methods: The BT group comprised 42 consecutive patients of whom 29 patients were staged according to the tumor, node, metastasis system as T1 through 3, 13 patients were T4, and 34 patients were N+ disease. BT was administered on an outpatient basis by means of a specially designed flexible nasopharyngeal applicator, and the dose distributions were optimized. Treatment for T1 through 3 tumors comprised 60 Gy of external-beam radiotherapy (ERT) followed by six fractions of 3 Gy BT (two fractions per day). Patients with parapharyngeal tumor extension and/or T4 tumors received 70 Gy ERT and four fractions of 3 Gy BT. The no-BT group consisted of all patients treated from 1965 to 1991 (n = 109), of whom 82 patients had stages T1 through 3, 27 patients had T4, and 80 patients had N+ disease. Multivariate Cox proportional hazards analyses were performed by using the end points time to local failure (TTLF), time to distant failure (TTDF), disease-free survival (DFS), cause-specific survival (CSS), and the prognostic factors age, tumor stage, node stage, and grade. Because the overall treatment time varied substantially in the no-BT

group, the dependence of local failure (LF) on the physical dose as well as the biologic effective dose (BED) corrected for the overall treatment time (OTT) (BEDcor₁₀) was studied.

Results: The BT group had a superior 3-year local relapse-free rate (86% v 60%; univariate analysis, P = .004). Multivariate analysis showed hazards ratios for BT versus no-BT of 0.24 for TTLF (P = .003), 0.35 for TTDF (P = .038), 0.31 for DFS (P < .001), and 0.44 for CSS (P = .01). The best prognostic group consisted of patients with T1 through 3, N0 through 2b tumors treated with BT who attained a 5-year TTLF of 94% and CSS of 91%. In contrast, the worst prognostic group, ie, 5-year TTLF of 47% and CSS of 24%, was composed of patients with T4 and/or N2c through 3 tumors who did not receive BT.

Conclusion: High doses of radiation (73 to 95 Gy) can be administered to patients with NPC with minimal morbidity by means of optimized HDR-BT. The use of a BT boost proved to be of significant benefit, particularly in patients with T1 through 3, N0 through 2b disease. The steep dose-effect relationship seen for the physical dose and the BEDcor₁₀ indicates that the results are dose related. The analysis has identified a poor prognostic group in whom treatment intensification with chemotherapy (CHT) is indicated.

J Clin Oncol 16:2213-2220. © 1998 by American Society of Clinical Oncology.

NASOPHARYNGEAL CANCER (NPC) shows a predilection for populations in the Far East and North Africa, whereas a low incidence is found among Western populations.¹⁻⁴ Some reports have shown age to be an independent prognostic factor, ie, that favors young age.^{5,6} The histology of NPC is generally poorly differentiated or undifferentiated carcinoma.^{7,8} Whereas there is controversy as to the most appropriate staging system, the International Union Against Cancer/American Joint Committee on Cancer (UICC/AJCC) tumor, node, metastasis staging guidelines are commonly adopted in Western countries,⁹⁻¹³ and up to 70% to 80% of patients present with stage III to IV disease.

The nasopharynx is a cuboid midline space in direct continuity with critical structures, centered around the base of the skull. Given its location, radiotherapy (RT) represents the standard therapy for this radiosensitive tumor.^{1,3,4,14-19} Despite advances in imaging²⁰⁻²³ and external-beam radiotherapy (ERT) techniques,^{24,25} local relapses still represent

the commonest cause of failure and range from 30% to 60%.^{3,15,26} The most important prognostic factor in local failure (LF) is the extent of the primary tumor at the time of presentation.^{4,27,28} Ten-year LF rates range from 15% in stage T1 to 60% in stage T4.¹⁵ There is also evidence to suggest that LF correlates with radiation dose.^{15,17,19,29-32}

NPC is associated with a high incidence of systemic metastases, and combined RT and chemotherapy (CHT)

From the Departments of Radiation Oncology, Medical Statistics, Dental Oncology, and Maxillofacial Prosthetics, University Hospital Rotterdam, Daniel den Hoed Cancer Center/Dijkzigt Hospital, Rotterdam, the Netherlands.

Submitted June 25, 1997; accepted February 25, 1998.

Address reprint requests to Peter C. Levendag, MD, PhD, Chairman Department of Radiation Oncology, Daniel den Hoed Cancer Center, Groene Hilledijk 301, 3075 EA Rotterdam, the Netherlands; Email levendag@rtdh.azr.nl.

*© 1998 by American Society of Clinical Oncology.
0732-183X/98/1606-0017\$3.00/0*

regimens are therefore frequently applied.³³⁻³⁸ However, the application of high doses of ERT to large volumes, with or without CHT, can result in serious complications that include damage to the salivary glands, optic pathways, brain stem, temporal lobes, ear, spinal cord, pituitary gland, and hypothalamus.³⁹⁻⁴² Because a steep dose falloff can be obtained with brachytherapy (BT), there has been increasing interest in the use of BT⁴³ for the treatment of persistent local disease and/or recurrent NPC^{16,44-47} and also in boosts (small volume) of primary NPC to high cumulative doses.^{19,31} Recent advances in BT include computerized high-dose-rate (HDR) afterloaders and three-dimensional computer planning systems with optimization capabilities.^{48,49} We have developed a flexible applicator (the Rotterdam Nasopharyngeal Applicator (RNA; Fig 1) that allows for outpatient HDR-BT.^{50,51} We used the RNA to escalate doses by means of BT, because such an approach had the potential to limit doses to adjacent critical organs to a greater extent than ERT alone. Because a randomized trial was not feasible in view of the low incidence of NPC in The Netherlands, we directed our efforts during the past 6 years to enroll all patients with nonmetastatic NPC in a standard scheme of ERT followed by fractionated HDR-BT. To determine the efficacy of the addition of HDR-BT, the records of all patients with primary NPC who had been treated at our center from 1965 to 1991 by ERT alone were also analyzed.

PATIENTS AND METHODS

The diagnosis of NPC was established by computer tomography (CT) scanning (available in the Daniel den Hoed Cancer Center, Rotterdam, The Netherlands [DDHCC] as of 1980) or magnetic resonance imaging scans of the head and neck, local biopsy, palpation, and ultrasound fine needle aspiration cytology of the regional lymph nodes. Patients were staged according to the UICC/AJCC classification rules, 1987/1992 editions.^{10,11} No BT was used in the treatment of primary NPC before

April 1991, but all patients treated between 1991 to 1995 had ERT combined with HDR-BT. To study the influence of dose on local control, records of all patients with primary, nonmetastasized (M0) squamous cell or undifferentiated carcinoma of the nasopharynx treated at our center between 1965 and 1995 were analyzed.

In the no-BT group, only patients treated with curative intent were included (n = 109). Excluded were patients who had been treated to a dose less than 60 Gy (n = 30), patients who had synchronous second primary tumors (n = 7), and one patient who had been treated with CHT only. The no-BT group comprised patients who had been treated with either ERT alone (ERT group, n = 69) or ERT combined with CHT (CHT group; n = 40).

A remote-controlled HDR afterloader (type microSelectron HDR [± 370 GBq source] Nucletron-Oldelft Nucletron, Veenendaal, the Netherlands) was available at the DDHCC from 1991, and fractionated HDR-BT has been implemented on a routine basis in a number of head and neck tumor sites,⁴⁹ which included patients with primary NPC. The RNA is made from flexible silicone (silicone, type 625, Wacker Chemie, Krommenie, The Netherlands) and is introduced after topical anesthesia (Cocaine hydrochloride). It is designed to closely conform to the soft tissues of the nasopharyngeal vault and to remain in situ for the duration of the treatment (2 to 6 days) (Fig 1). Treatment planning with optimization (Nucletron Planning System, version 11.30) on dose points depicted on orthogonal radiographs (Fig 2), which represent target and critical normal structures, is then performed.⁵⁰ After dose computations, standard afterloading catheters are introduced in the RNA and connected to an HDR afterloading device with a high activity (370 GBq) Ir-192 stepping source. The BT dose was initially prescribed to a point 1 cm from the source train axis. When it was appreciated that the position of the RNA could vary between patients, we elected to prescribe the dose to a fixed, anatomic landmark (the "NP dose point") located in the bony roof of the nasopharynx. Consequently, when the BT doses were retrospectively derived from the orthogonal radiographs of the early patients treated, some were found to have received a higher dose than the according-to-protocol prescribed dose of 12 or 18 Gy (see below).

Similar ERT schemes were used for patients in both the BT and no-BT groups. The ERT is delivered by a linear accelerator with a 4 to 8 MV photon beam using a (shrinking) three-field technique, ie, two parallel-opposed laterals and an abutted low-anterior field with shielding of the larynx. The eyes are blocked in the lateral portals; in case of

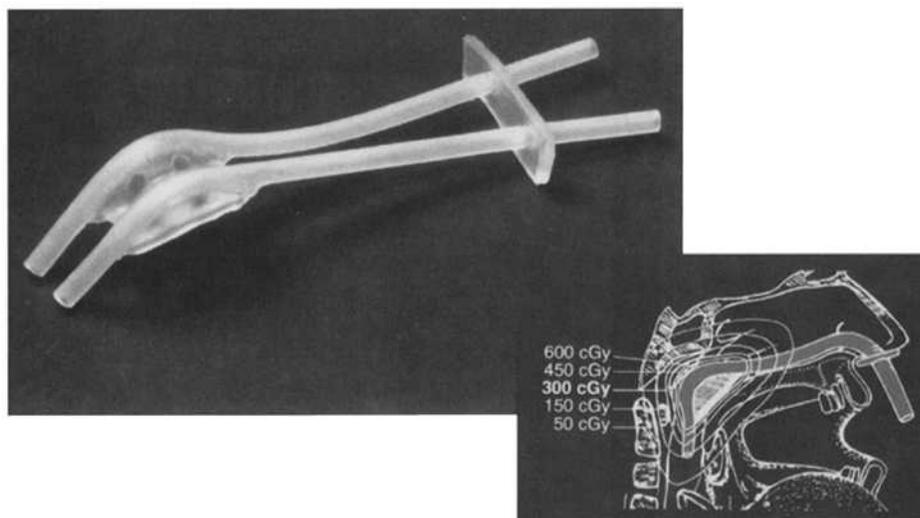


Fig 1. Standard silicone RNA; inset depicts isodoses that show the steep dose falloff with BT when applied by means of an HDR remote-controlled HDR afterloader.

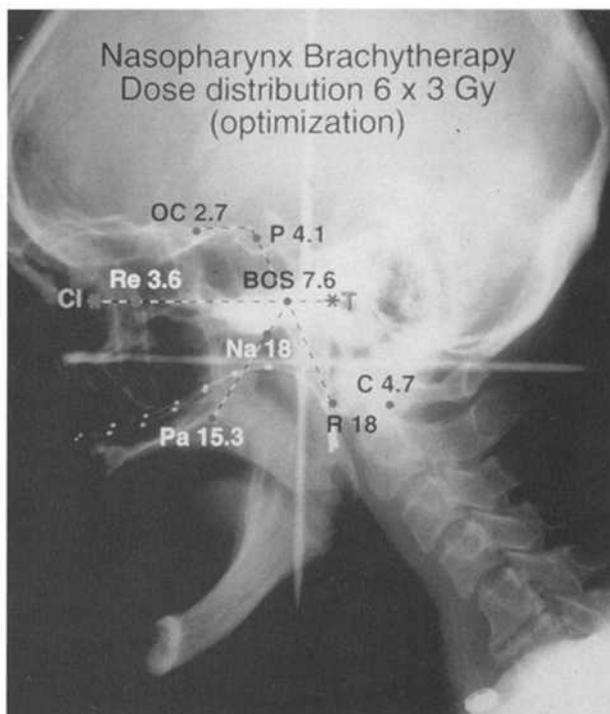


Fig 2. Example of an optimized BT dose distribution in the target (BOS, base of skull; Na, nasopharynx; R, node of Rouviere) and normal tissue points (OC, optic chiasm; P, pituitary gland; Re, retina; Pa, palate; C, spinal cord). The numbers indicate optimized doses in the target and normal tissue points in Gy; the resulting dose distribution has been optimized such that the Na and R dose points receive the reference dose of 18 Gy.⁵⁰

tumor extension into the nasal cavity or ethmoids, an anterior high-energy electron field is added. The ERT dose is prescribed according to the International Commission on Radiation Units Report 50 recommendations.⁵² After 46 Gy, a first-field reduction is implemented to ensure that the spinal cord dose stays at less than the tolerance level and the ERT continues with a combination of photons and electrons to the primary tumor and lymph nodes. For T1 through 3 tumors, a total dose of 60 Gy is applied by ERT by using a once-daily fraction of 2 Gy, five times per week. After a rest period of 1 to 2 weeks, a boost is administered to the primary site by means of fractionated HDR-BT, using six fractions of 3 Gy, two fractions daily with a 6-hour interval between fractions (cumulative dose of 78 Gy). In case of parapharyngeal extension and/or T4 tumors, the ERT dose is 70 Gy followed by four fractions of 3 Gy by HDR-BT (cumulative dose of 82 Gy). Lymph node metastases are treated to a dose of 70 Gy.

All patients are jointly seen by a radiation oncologist and a head and neck surgeon in follow-up clinics at regular, ie, 3- to 6-month intervals, for up to 10 years. Acute and late side effects are scored with the criteria of the Radiation Therapy Oncology Group scoring system. The Kaplan-Meier method and the log-rank test were used to perform a crude analysis for the end points time to local failure (TTLF), time to distant failure (TTDF), disease-free survival (DFS), and time to death from tumor or cause-specific survival (CSS) for the different treatment groups. Seven factors, ie, age, sex, race, grade, tumor stage, node stage, and HDR-BT, were analyzed in a multivariate Cox proportional hazards model. From stepwise forward and backward analyses, the best fitting model and an optimal categorization of factors was obtained. By

excluding nonsignificant factors ($P > .05$), five prognostic variables were selected: age (< 40 v ≥ 40 years), tumor stage (T1 through 3 v T4), node stage (N0 through 2b v N2c through 3), grade (1 through 3 v 4), and HDR-BT. Initially, a split-course regimen was customary in the DDHCC after a dose of 40 Gy had been applied.^{53,54} Radiobiologic and clinical experience indicate that lengthening of the overall treatment time (OTT) leads to a reduction of the biologically effective dose (BED).^{53,54} As the OTTs were quite variable, the BED₁₀ (biologic effective dose for tumor effects with $\alpha/\beta = 10$) and the BED₁₀ corrected for the overall treatment time (BEDcor₁₀) were calculated in addition to the physical dose. The BED₁₀ is defined as the summation of the BED_{10-ERT} (for tumor effects by ERT) and BED_{10-BT} (for tumor effects by fractionated HDR). The BED_{10-ERT} was calculated by means of the common Linear Quadratic formalism as proposed by Fowler⁵⁵ and the BED_{10-BT} by means of the model suggested by Brenner and Hall.⁵⁶ The BEDcor₁₀ values for both ERT and BT were calculated from the corresponding BED values by subtracting a repopulating correction term; for these calculations, values for the potential doubling time (Tpot) = 5 days and $\alpha = 0.28 \text{ Gy}^{-1}$ have been applied, which results in a repopulation correction term of 0.5 Gy daily.⁴⁹ Details of these computations are described elsewhere.⁴⁹ The effectiveness of the treatment modality, defined as the probability of occurrence of a local relapse within 2 years after the start of treatment, was studied in dependence of the total physical dose, BED₁₀, and BEDcor₁₀. These probabilities were obtained from a univariate Cox proportional hazards model.

RESULTS

The BT group comprised 42 consecutive NPC patients, stages T1 through 4, N0 through 3, treated between 1991 and 1995 with ERT and HDR-BT. One of these patients (stage T4 N2a) received induction CHT with six weekly courses of cisplatin. Tumor stages are listed in Table 1; 48% had histologic World Health Organization (WHO) grades 1 through 3 and 45% had WHO grade 4. The median follow-up was 2.6 years (range, 0.4 to 5.3 years) and the mean age was 54.8 years (SD, 15.5 years); men outnumbered women (31 v 11) and patients of nonwhite origin comprised 29%. The median applied dose (and 95% interpercentile range) for the BT group was 82 Gy (range, 73 to 95 Gy). In addition to the expected acute and late mucosal and

Table 1. Tumor and Node Stage Distribution of 151 Consecutive Patients With Primary NPC Who Were Treated Between 1965 to 1995

Node Stage	T1		T2		T3		T4		All Stages	
	No-BT	BT	No-BT	BT	No-BT	BT	No-BT	BT	No-BT	BT
0	1	0	15	2	5	4	8	2	29	8
1	3	0	7	1	2	1	5	0	17	2
2a	2	1	5	1	4	3	4	1	15	6
2b	3	2	13	1	2	3	2	1	20	7
2c	1	0	6	3	4	5	6	9	17	17
3	1	0	7	1	1	1	2	0	11	2
All Stages	11	3	53	9	18	17	27	13	109	42

NOTE. No-BT indicates patients treated with ERT ± CHT between 1965-1991. BT indicates patients treated with ERT + BT between 1991-1995.

skin toxicities that occurred with the applied ERT doses, only three patients experienced significant grade 3 late toxicity, ie, synechiae of the nasal mucosal linings because of the addition of BT. This complication, however, was easily correctable with minor surgery in all cases.

The no-BT group comprised patients treated from 1965 to 1991 with either ERT alone (ERT group) or ERT combined with CHT (CHT group). The histologic differentiation grade of the no-BT patients was WHO grades 1 through 3 in 58%, and WHO grade 4 in 38%. The CHT regimens consisted of combinations of vincristine, bleomycin, cyclophosphamide, cisplatin, and/or methotrexate, administered either as induction therapy (18%), in a post-RT adjuvant setting (15%), or as both induction and sandwiched in between split-course ERT (66%).^{53,54} The median follow-up of the 40 patients (with 25% nonwhites) in the CHT group was 10.7 years; mean age was 51.2 years (SD, 15 years), and men predominated (29 v 11). The median follow-up of the 69 patients treated by ERT alone (with 19% nonwhites) was 7.6 years; mean age was 56.1 years (SD, 15.9 years), men predominated (52 v 17). The median applied dose (and 95% interpercentile range) for the CHT group was 64 Gy (range, 60 to 76 Gy), and for the ERT group, 70 Gy (range, 59 to 75 Gy). The toxicity data for the historic no-BT control group is, unfortunately, incomplete.

The impact of dose is shown by the steep dose-response relationships depicted for the parameters physical dose, BED₁₀, and BEDcor₁₀ for all 151 patients analyzed (Fig 3). The treatment outcome for the ERT, CHT, and BT groups for the end points TTLF, TTDF, DFS, and CSS (uncorrected for potential prognostic factors) are listed in Table 2. No significant differences were observed between the ERT group and the CHT group. A significant difference was found for the TTLF between the BT versus no-BT patients

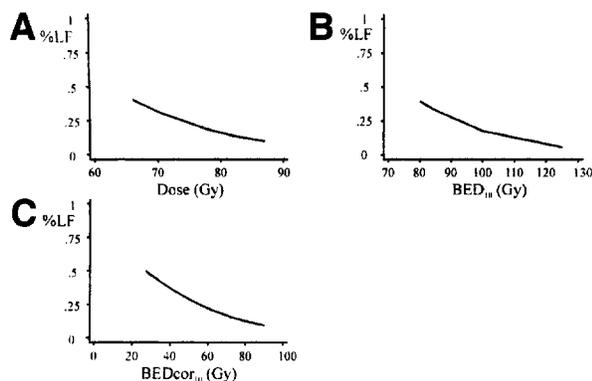


Fig 3. Tumor dose-response relationships for 151 primary NPC patients; dose-effect relations were computed for (A) the physical dose, (B) BED₁₀, and (C) BEDcor₁₀. Percentage of patients without LF within 2 years from start of treatment.

with 3-year local control rates of 86% versus 60%, respectively ($P = .004$). Similarly, a significant difference in 3-year DFS was seen between the BT and no-BT groups, with rates of 71% versus 52% ($P = .005$). Multivariate Cox proportional hazards analyses showed age, tumor stage, node stage, and HDR-BT to be strong prognostic variables for the different end points TTLF, DFS, and CSS (Tables 3-5). When all 151 patients were considered, the best prognostic group comprised patients staged T1 through 3, N0 through 2c who were administered BT; ie, 5-year TTLF rate of 94% and CSS of 91%. Similarly, the group with the worst prognosis comprised patients staged T4, N2c through 3 who were not treated with BT (5-year TTLF of 47% and CSS of 24%).

DISCUSSION

After radical RT in NPC, LF and DF rates were 30% and 35% to 45%, respectively.³ The majority (> 90%) of failures in both categories manifest within 3 years of RT.⁵⁷ Local-regional failure is an independent prognostic indicator of distant metastases.⁵⁸ Other factors that indicate a high risk for distant metastases are T4 tumor stage, parapharyngeal tumor extension, and advanced nodal metastases.^{4,58} Improvements in survival will require improved local control and also the effective treatment of systemic micrometastases in high-risk groups.²⁶ A growing body of data suggests that tumor control is related to the radiation dose.^{17,26,30-32}

Since 1991, we have used a high-dose scheme that consists of ERT and fractionated HDR-BT for primary NPC; the BT dose is optimized with reference to the target (nasopharynx) and surrounding normal critical tissue structures. A significant radiation dose-effect relationship was found for the physical dose, the BED₁₀, and the dose corrected for the OTT (BEDcor₁₀). Extended OTTs and/or split-course regimens are now known to reduce the biologic efficacy of RT, and this is reflected in our finding that the steepest slope in dose-effect was seen for the BEDcor₁₀. Our data suggest that, on average, a 15% decrease in LF rate can be obtained with every additional 10 Gy BEDcor₁₀ in excess of 60 Gy. Our data showed that the crude local control rate for the BT group was significantly better than for the no-BT group, ie, 86% versus 60% ($P = .004$) at 3 years for all stages combined, and similar to the best reported figures in the literature. In spite of the high radiation doses (range, 73 to 95 Gy) used, we saw no severe side effects related to the HDR-BT boost. To minimize synechiae, we now introduce paraffin-impregnated gauze into the nasal cavity after removal of the applicator and the gauze remains in situ for approximately 1 week.

Other groups have also found evidence for improved local control with BT. Wang¹⁹ treated T1 through 3 tumors by

Table 2. End Points TTLF, TTDF, DFS, and CSS Not Adjusted for Prognostic Factors

Variable	No. of Patients	TTLF, Median Years	LC, 3-Year (%)	TTDF, Median Years	DMF, 3-Year (%)	DFS, Median Years	DF, 3-Year (%)	CSS, Median Years	CSS, 3-Year (%)
ERT group	69	NR	64	NR	79	3.2	50	9.9	62
CHT group	40	NR	54	NR	65	1.6	36	3.6	53
No-BT group	109	NR	60	NR	74	2.2	45	4.1	59
BT group	42	NR	86	NR	87	NR	71	NR	70
All patients	151	NR	67	NR	78	3.7	52	5.3	62
<i>P</i> for ERT v CHT		.62		.10		.21		.14	
<i>P</i> for no-BT v BT		.004		.18		.005		.11	

Abbreviations: LC, local control; DMF, distant metastasis-free; DF, disease free; NR, not reached.

ERT and low-dose-rate BT and observed a local relapse-free survival (LRFS) of 91% at 5 years, as opposed to only 60% for those treated by ERT alone. Chang et al³¹ treated patients with ERT and a fractionated HDR-BT boost and suggested that an optimal dose for NPC was between 72.5 to 75 Gy because substantial toxicity, such as perforation of the palate and/or sphenoid sinus floor, occurred with doses that exceeded 75 Gy. This pattern of toxicity contrasts markedly with our experience and a number of findings may explain this. First, we used a smaller fraction size of 3 Gy versus the 5 to 5.5 Gy fractions used by Chang et al.³¹ Second, we used a customized applicator, which ensured a more consistent and reproducible dose distribution between patients. Furthermore, Chang et al³¹ prescribed the dose at 2 cm from the source axis, which thereby resulted in much higher doses at the surface of the applicator than is the case with our method of prescribing to a fixed anatomic (NP) point, which is generally closer (≤ 1 cm) to the source axis. Our system of routinely optimizing dose distributions with respect to a large number of dose points that depict critical surrounding normal tissues (Fig 2) may also have reduced the likelihood

of toxicity.⁵⁰ Teo et al⁴⁵ administered BT to 71 patients who had persistent local tumor after an ERT dose of 62.5 Gy. A HDR-BT boost of 24 Gy (three fractions in 15 days, prescribed at 1 cm from source plane), was used and a 5-year freedom from LF rate of 74% was achieved. This group observed no benefit for BT in locally advanced cases. In contrast, our data suggest a limited benefit for BT in locally advanced tumors and theoretic modeling suggests that nonhomogeneous dose distributions, a situation typified by BT in locally extensive NPC, may still improve tumor control.⁵⁹ Nevertheless, a recent report that described promising local control for a linear accelerator-based stereotactic boost in NPC suggests that this, and not BT, may be a more appropriate method for boosting bulky T4 tumors.⁶⁰

NPC is also a chemosensitive disease,^{33,34} and effective systemic CHT may have an important role in patients with high risk for metastases, ie, T4 tumors and/or (bulky) N2c through 3 neck nodal disease. The results of three randomized clinical trials that addressed the benefits of adding CHT to ERT have recently been reported^{35,36,61} Chan et al³⁶ found no differences in the local-regional relapse rate or the distant

Table 3. Univariate and Multivariate Cox Regression Analyses of TTLF for 151 Patients Using Prognostic Factors Age, Tumor and Node Stage, Grade, and HDR-BT

Variable	Univariate		Multivariate	
	Hazard Ratio	<i>P</i>	Hazard Ratio	<i>P</i>
Age, years				
< 40	1		1	
≥ 40	2.78	.05	2.93	.04
Tumor stage				
T1-3	1		1	
T4	3.25	< .001	3.40	< .001
Node stage				
N0-2b	1		1	
N2c-3	0.98	.95	1.31	.44
Tumor grade				
1, 2, 3	1		1	
4	0.47	.03	0.51	.04
HDR-BT				
No	1		1	
Yes	0.28	.008	0.24	.003

Table 4. Univariate and Multivariate Cox Regression Analyses of DFS of 151 Patients Using Prognostic Factors Age, Tumor and Node Stage, Grade, and BT

Variable	Univariate		Multivariate	
	Hazard Ratio	<i>P</i>	Hazard Ratio	<i>P</i>
Age, years				
< 40	1		1	
≥ 40	3.00	.01	3.28	.006
Tumor stage				
T1-3	1		1	
T4	2.11	.002	1.98	.006
Node stage				
N0-2b	1		1	
N2c-3	1.94	.006	2.48	< .001
Tumor grade				
1, 2, 3	1		1	
4	0.86	.54	0.77	.28
BT				
No	1		1	
Yes	0.41	.007	0.31	< .001

Table 5. Univariate and Multivariate Cox Regression Analyses of Death From Tumor or CSS of 151 Patients Using Prognostic Factors Age, Tumor and Node Stage, Grade, and BT

Variable	Univariate		Multivariate	
	Hazard Ratio	P	Hazard Ratio	P
Age, years				
< 40	1		1	
≥ 40	3.80	.004	4.16	.002
Tumor stage				
T1-3	1		1	
T4	2.82	< .001	2.70	< .001
Node stage				
N0-2b	1		1	
N2c-3	2.55	< .001	3.16	< .001
Tumor grade				
1, 2, 3	1		1	
4	0.83	.46	0.65	.09
BT				
No	1		1	
Yes	0.60	.11	0.44	.01

metastasis rate in 82 patients with locally advanced NPC who were randomized to either high-dose RT that included HDR-BT or a similar RT scheme with cisplatin-based CHT before and after RT.³⁶ As suggested by an accompanying editorial, Chan et al³⁶ used a high-dose RT scheme in a patient group without a uniformly high risk for metastases, and this could have minimized the benefits of CHT.³⁸ The initial results of an International Nasopharyngeal Study Group trial in 339 patients (of whom 22% had T4 tumors and 40% N2c through 3 disease) who were randomized to either 70-Gy ERT or the same ERT preceded by three cycles of bleomycin, epirubicin, and cisplatin suggested an improved DFS for the CHT arm.³⁵ However, an excess of treatment-related deaths occurred in the combined modality arm (8% v 1%). Significantly, no difference in local control was observed between the treatment arms, a finding that supports the view that optimal local treatment will continue to have an important role in the treatment of NPC. In the Intergroup trial, patients with advanced NPC received either 70-Gy ERT or the same dose of ERT combined with cisplatin on days 1, 22, and 43 during radiation, followed by

cisplatin and fluorouracil for three courses post-radiotherapy.⁶¹ The preliminary results suggest a superior survival for the CHT arm with comparable side effects, although details of local tumor control rates were not reported.

Future trials in poor-risk NPC will have to evaluate optimal, high-dose RT combined with CHT, but normal tissue toxicity will continue to be of major concern. Our data suggest the existence of a radiation dose-response up to 95 Gy, a dose that is close to the limits of normal tissue tolerance. Concomitant chemoradiotherapy in other head and neck sites has been associated with greater toxicity than RT alone but we are not aware of any published data that evaluate concomitant CHT with BT in NPC. A similar approach in esophageal cancer resulted in a 12% incidence of tracheoesophageal fistulae and an 8% incidence of fatal toxicity, despite the use of only modest doses of radiation (ERT dose of 50 Gy, BT dose of 3 × 5 Gy).⁶² At the present time, we would not advocate combining our high-dose NPC scheme with concomitant CHT.

In summary, our own data provide evidence for a radiation dose-response for up to 95 Gy and we have shown that such doses can be delivered safely with minimal toxicity by means of optimized HDR-BT. In this nonrandomized study, it is not possible to determine if a boost administered by means of BT is necessarily superior to that by ERT alone. However, BT delivered in this manner allows for a better sparing of normal tissues. Because local-regional relapse is an independent prognostic indicator of distant metastases in NPC,⁵⁸ high-dose RT alone will be sufficient to improve survival in limited disease (T1 through 3, N0 through 2b). With a view to maximize local control and limit toxicity, we have therefore chosen to treat all our patients with the highest risks for distant metastases (T4, N2c through 3) with cisplatin-based induction CHT, followed by the combined ERT and HDR-BT protocol stated above.⁶³⁻⁶⁵

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We acknowledge the continuous support of the members of the Rotterdam Head and Neck Group in patient care and appreciate the secretarial work of Inge Dijkstra.

REFERENCES

1. Wei WI, Sham JST: Cancer of the nasopharynx, in Myers EN, Suen JY (eds): *Cancer of the Head and Neck* (3 ed). Philadelphia, PA, Saunders, 1996, pp 277-293
2. Lee AWM, Poon YF, Foo W, et al: Retrospective analysis of 5037 patients with nasopharyngeal carcinoma treated during 1976-1985: Overall survival and patterns of failure. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 23:261-270, 1992
3. Taifu L: Trends in the clinical management of nasopharyngeal carcinoma. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 23:469-471, 1992
4. Teo PML, Yu P, Lee WY, et al: Significant prognosticators after primary radiotherapy in 903 non-disseminated nasopharyngeal carcinoma evaluated by computer tomography. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 36:291-304, 1996
5. Ingersoll L, Woo SY, Donaldson SS, et al: Nasopharyngeal carcinoma in the young: A combined M.D. Anderson and Stanford experience. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 19:881-887, 1990
6. Tang SGJ, Lin FJ, Chen MS, et al: Prognostic factors of nasopharyngeal carcinoma: A multivariate analysis. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 19:1143-1149, 1990
7. World Health Organization: Histological typing of upper respira-

tory tract tumors, in *International Histological Classification of Tumors No. 19*. Geneva, Switzerland, World Health Organization, 1978, pp 32-33

8. Shanmngaratman K: Histological typing of nasopharyngeal carcinoma, in The G, Ito Y (eds): *Nasopharyngeal Carcinoma: Etiology and Control*. Lyon, France, International Agency for Research on Cancer, 1978, pp 3-12

9. Sham JST, Choy D, Wei WI: Nasopharyngeal carcinoma: Orderly neck node spread. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 19:929-933, 1990

10. Hermanek P, Sobin LH: *TNM Classification of Malignant Tumours*. UICC International Union Against Cancer, Geneva (ed 4). New York, NY, Springer-Verlag, 1987, pp 1-197

11. American Joint Committee on Cancer: *Manual for Staging of Cancer* (ed 4). Philadelphia, PA, Lippincott, 1992, pp 34-35

12. Roth SL, Bertram G, Sack H: Carcinoma of the nasopharynx—Comparison of the UICC and Ho clinical staging systems. *Klin Wochenschr* 67:74-85, 1989

13. Grandi C, Boracchi P, Mezzanotte G, et al: Analysis of prognostic factors and proposal of a new classification for nasopharyngeal cancer. *Head Neck* 12:31-40, 1990

14. Wei WI, Ho CM, Yuen PW, et al: Maxillary swing approach for resection of tumors in and around the nasopharynx. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* 121:638-642, 1995

15. Perez CA, Devineni VR, Marcial-Vega V, et al: Carcinoma of the nasopharynx: Factors affecting prognosis. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 23:271-280, 1992

16. Pryzant RM, Wendt CD, Delclos L, et al: Re-treatment of nasopharyngeal carcinoma in 53 patients. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 22:941-947, 1992

17. Bedwinek JM, Perez CA, Keys DJ: Analysis of failures after definitive irradiation for epidermoid carcinoma of the nasopharynx. *Cancer* 45:2725-2729, 1990

18. Sham JST, Wei WI, Kwan WH, et al: Nasopharyngeal carcinoma. Pattern of tumor regression after radiotherapy. *Cancer* 65:216-220, 1990

19. Wang CC: Improved local control of nasopharyngeal carcinoma after intracavitary brachytherapy boost. *Am J Clin Oncol* 14:5-8, 1991

20. Chong VFH, Yoke-Fun F: Detection of recurrent nasopharyngeal carcinoma: MR imaging versus CT. *Radiology* 202:463-469, 1997

21. Davis WL, Harnsberger HR, Smoker WRK, et al: Retropharyngeal space: Evaluation of normal anatomy and diseases with CT and MR imaging. *Radiology* 174:59-64, 1990

22. Olmi P, Cellai E, Chiavacci A, et al: Computed tomography in nasopharyngeal carcinoma: Part I: T-stage conversion with CT staging. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 19:1171-1175, 1990

23. Yu KH, Teo WY, Leung SF, et al: Patterns of early treatment failure in non-metastatic nasopharyngeal carcinoma: A study based on CT scanning. *Clin Oncol* 6:167-171, 1994

24. Kutcher GJ, Fuks ZY, Brenner HJ, et al: Three-dimensional photon treatment planning for carcinoma of the nasopharynx. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 21:169-182, 1991

25. Kuchnir FT, Heffron J, Myriantopoulos LC, et al: Beam's-eye-view aided treatment planning for a nasopharyngeal lesion: A case report. *Med Dosim* 14:231-235, 1989

26. Vikram B, Mishra UB, Strong EW, et al: Patterns of failure in carcinoma of the nasopharynx: I. Failure at the primary site. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 11:1455-1459, 1985

27. Teo PML, Lee WY, Yu P: The prognostic significance of parapharyngeal tumor involvement in nasopharyngeal carcinoma. *Radiation Oncol* 39:209-221, 1996

28. Sham JST, Choy D: Prognostic value of paranasopharyngeal

extension of nasopharyngeal carcinoma on local control and short-term survival. *Head Neck* 13:298-310, 1991

29. Mingchen Z: Results of radiotherapy in nasopharyngeal cancer. A retrospective comparison of split-course and continuous-course treatment schedules. *Acta Oncol* 28:77-80, 1989

30. Yan JH, Qin DX, Hu YH, et al: Management of local residual primary lesion of nasopharyngeal carcinoma (NPC): Are higher doses beneficial? *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 16:1465-1469, 1988

31. Chang JT, See LC, Tang SGJ, et al: The role of brachytherapy in early-stage nasopharyngeal carcinoma. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 36:1019-1024, 1996

32. Mesic JB, Fletcher GH, Goepfert H: Megavoltage irradiation of epithelial tumors of the nasopharynx. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 7:447-453, 1981

33. Dimery IW, Peters LJ, Goepfert H, et al: Effectiveness of combined induction chemotherapy and radiotherapy in advanced nasopharyngeal carcinoma. *J Clin Oncol* 11:1919-1928, 1993

34. Tannock IF, Payne DG, Cummings BJ, et al: The Princess Margaret Hospital Head and Neck Cancer Group. Sequential chemotherapy and radiation for nasopharyngeal cancer: Absence of long-term benefit despite a high rate of tumor response to chemotherapy. *J Clin Oncol* 5:629-634, 1987

35. International Nasopharyngeal Study Group: VUMCA I trial. Preliminary results of a randomized trial comparing neoadjuvant chemotherapy (cisplatin, epirubicin, bleomycin) plus radiotherapy vs radiotherapy alone in stage IV (\geq N2M0) undifferentiated nasopharyngeal carcinoma: A positive effect on progression-free survival. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 35:463-469, 1996

36. Chan ATC, Teo PML, Leung TWT, et al: A prospective randomized study of chemotherapy adjunctive to definitive radiotherapy in advanced nasopharyngeal carcinoma. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 33:569-577, 1995

37. Garden AS, Lippman SM, Morrison WH, et al: Does induction chemotherapy have a role in the management of nasopharyngeal carcinoma? Results of treatment in the era of computerized tomography. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 36:1005-1012, 1996

38. Al-Sarraf M, McLaughlin PW: Nasopharynx carcinoma: Choice of treatment. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 33:761-763, 1995

39. Goldsmith BJ, Rosenthal SA, Wara WM, et al: Optic neuropathy after irradiation of meningioma. *Radiology* 185:71-76, 1992

40. Young WC, Thornton AF, Gebarski SS, et al: Radiation-induced optic neuropathy: Correlation of MR imaging and radiation dosimetry. *Radiology* 185:904-907, 1992

41. Parsons JT, Bova FJ, Fitzgerald CR, et al: Radiation optic neuropathy after megavoltage external-beam irradiation: Analysis of time-dose factor. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 30:755-763, 1994

42. Jiang GL, Tucker SL, Guttenberger R, et al: Radiation-induced injury to the visual pathway. *Radiation Oncol* 30:17-25, 1994

43. Erickson BA, Wilson F: Nasopharyngeal brachytherapy. *Am J Clin Oncol* 16:424-443, 1993

44. Teo PML, Kwan WH, Yu P, et al: A retrospective study of the role of intracavitary brachytherapy and prognostic factors determining local tumor control after primary radical radiotherapy in 903 non-disseminated nasopharyngeal carcinoma patients. *Clin Oncol* 8:160-166, 1996

45. Teo PML, Leung SF, Choi P, et al: Afterloading radiotherapy for local persistence of nasopharyngeal carcinoma. *Br J Radiol* 67:181-185, 1994

46. Leung TWT, Tung SY, Wong VYW, et al: High dose rate intracavitary brachytherapy in the treatment of nasopharyngeal carcinoma. *Acta Oncol* 35:43-47, 1996

47. Choy D, Sham JST, Wei WI, et al: Transpalatal insertion of radioactive gold grain for the treatment of persistent and recurrent nasopharyngeal carcinoma. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 25:505-512, 1993
48. Leung TWT, Wong VYW, Tung SY, et al: The importance of three-dimensional brachytherapy treatment planning for nasopharyngeal carcinoma. *Clin Oncol* 9:35-40, 1997
49. Levendag PC, Schmitz PIM, Jansen PP, et al: Fractionated high dose rate & pulsed dose rate brachytherapy—First clinical experience in squamous cell carcinoma of the tonsillar fossa and soft palate. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 38:497-506, 1997
50. Levendag PC, Peters R, Meeuwis CA, et al: A new applicator design for endocavitary brachytherapy of cancer in the nasopharynx. *Radiother Oncol* 45:95-98, 1997
51. Levendag PC, Visser AG, Kolkman-Deurloo IKK, et al: HDR brachytherapy with special reference to cancer of the nasopharynx, in Mould RF, Battermann JJ, Martinez AA, et al (eds): *Brachytherapy From Radium to Optimization*. Veenendaal, the Netherlands, Nucletron International BV, 1994, pp 121-131
52. International Commission on Radiation Units and Measurements. Prescribing, Recording, and Reporting Photon Beam Therapy. *ICRU Report* 50, 1993
53. Levendag PC, Nowak PJCM, Van der Sangen MJC, et al: Local tumor control in radiation therapy of cancers in the head and neck. *Am J Clin Oncol* 19:469-477, 1996
54. Levendag PC, Ravasz LA, Terhaard CHJ, et al: T3 squamous cell carcinoma of the larynx treated by a split-course radiation protocol. A multiinstitutional study. *Am J Clin Oncol* 16:509-518, 1993
55. Fowler JF: Why shorter half-times of repair lead to greater damage in pulsed brachytherapy. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 26:353-356, 1993
56. Brenner DJ, Hall EJ: Conditions for the equivalence of continuous to pulsed low dose rate brachytherapy. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 20:181-190, 1991
57. Collins SL, Dougherty M, Stupp R, et al: Head and neck, nasopharynx, in Abeloff MD, Armitage JO, Lichter AS, et al (eds): *Clinical Oncology*. New York, NY, Churchill Livingstone, 1995, pp 995-996
58. Kwong DLW, Sham JST, Choy D: The effect of loco-regional control on distant metastatic dissemination in carcinoma of the nasopharynx: An analysis of 1301 patients. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 30:1029-1036, 1994
59. Niemierko A, Goitein M: Implementation of a model for estimating tumor control probability for an inhomogeneously irradiated tumor. *Radiother Oncol* 29:140-147, 1993
60. Cmelak AJ, Cox RS, Adler JR, et al: Radiosurgery for skull base malignancies and nasopharyngeal carcinoma. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 37:997-1003, 1997
61. Al-Sarraf M, LeBlanc M, Giri PGS, et al: Superiority of chemo-radiotherapy (CT-RT) vs radiotherapy (RT) in patients (PTS) with locally advanced nasopharyngeal cancer (NPC). Preliminary results of Intergroup (0099) (SWOG 8892, RTOG 8817, ECOG 2388) randomized study. *Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol* 15:313, 1996 (abstr) (publication in press, 1998)
62. Gaspar LE, Qian C, Kocha WI, et al: A phase III study of external-beam radiation, brachy-therapy and concurrent chemotherapy in localised cancer of the esophagus (RTOG 92-07): Preliminary toxicity report. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 37:593-599, 1997
63. Munro AJ: An overview of randomised controlled trials of adjuvant chemotherapy in head and neck cancer. *Br J Cancer* 71:83-91, 1995
64. Rosenthal DI, Pistenmaa DA, Glatstein E: A review of neoadjuvant chemotherapy for head and neck cancer: Partially shrunken tumors may be both leaner and meaner. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 28:315-320, 1994
65. Paccagnella A, Orlando A, Marchiori C, et al: Phase III trial of induction chemotherapy in stage III or IV head and neck cancers: A study by the Gruppo di Studio sui Tumori della Testa e del Collo. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 86:265-272, 1994