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Impact of Three Dimensional-Conformal Radiation Therapy (3D-CRT) Fractionation Technique on Radiobiological Effects and Risk of Secondary Cancers: A Case Study of Post-Mastectomy Breast Cancer

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Introduction

Breast cancer is very common in women and can be treated with Breast-conserving Therapy (BCT), namely mastectomy followed by radiotherapy [1].

Radiotherapy is a treatment that utilizes ionizing radiation to damage DNA in cancer and causes cell death [2]. In this treatment, irradiation is delivered in stages to give healthy cells time to recover after exposure. Three types of fractionation used in radiotherapy are conventional fractionation with a dose of 200 cGy per fraction, hyperfractionation with a dose of less than 200 cGy per fraction, and hypofractionation with a dose of more than 200 cGy per fraction [3, 4].

The main principle in radiotherapy is to provide the maximum and minimum possible dose to the target cells and the surrounding tissue. Most treatment planning systems (TPSs) have some limitations in predicting surface doses in the skin, heterogeneous material interfaces, cavities, and lowdensity regions such as the lung. Radiation therapy for breast cancer involves complex anatomy and various tissues with varying densities, including lung, soft tissue, bone, and air [5, 6]. In practice, the tissue around the target cell still receives an unplanned dose of radiation from the light path penetrating the target cell or due to radiation scattering. Therefore, it can cause secondary cancer after radiotherapy treatment [7]. In addition to considering the value of the dose distribution on the DVH, treatment planning also needs to consider the radiobiological effects and the risk of secondary cancer. This is crucial because it will affect long-term patient survival [8].

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Many studies regarding the risk of secondary cancer have been carried out to compare radiotherapy techniques. The studies were conducted by Lee et al. [9], Han et al. [10], Haciislamoglu et al. [8], and Zhang et al. [1], who compared the techniques of 3D-CRT FinF, intensity-modulated radiotherapy (IMRT), and volumetric-modulated arc therapy (VMAT). In conventional fractionation (200 cGy), 3D-CRT radiotherapy has a lower risk of secondary cancer than other techniques. This is because the IMRT and VMAT techniques use more radiation fields, and the incidence of scattering doses in normal tissue is higher than in the 3D-CRT technique [11]. Meanwhile, 3D-CRT is a tangential technique commonly used with fields formed irregularly according to the tumor's shape from CT-scan images in treatment planning [12]. It aims to provide a high suitability and homogeneity evaluation at the target dose.

Even though it has a small risk, the 3D-CRT technique with conventional fractions has a risk of secondary cancer and radiobiological effects on organs at risk [8]. Sitathanee et al., in a study on prostate cancer radiotherapy, stated that modification of conventional fractionation to hypofractionation could reduce the risk of secondary cancer in primary radiation [11]. Meanwhile, Layton stated that hyperfractionation could lessen the potential for toxicity to the surrounding tissue due to the use of small doses [13]. Previous studies rarely compared variations in fractionation types in breast cancer radiotherapy using the 3D-CRT technique against the risk of secondary cancer.

Therefore, this study aims to analyze and determine the impact of using the 3D-CRT FinF fractionation radiotherapy technique for postmastectomy left breast cancer cases. The DVH value, NTCP, Organ Equivalent Dose (OED), and Excess Absolute Risk (EAR) are also investigated to evaluate the impact of radiotherapy fractionation parameters.

Materials and Methods

This study began with a patient-specific chest phantom made from Polylactic Acid (PLA) referred to the registered patent No. P00202214775 (Figure1a) [14]. Images scanned with the Philips Brilliance Big Bore CT-Simulator were imported into the Eclipse v.11 TPS software for further segmentation on the target and OAR sections, as seen in Figure 1b. Furthermore, three radiotherapy treatment plans were made using the 3D-CRT FinF technique with a nominal voltage of 6 and 10 MV through the LINAC Clinac iX 2300 series 6198 with the conventional fraction $(25\times200 \text{ cGy})$, hypofractionation (16×260 cGy) and hyperfractionation $(30\times160 \text{ cGy})$. The four beam fields used were lateral and medial for the Chest-Wall section with an energy of 6 MV and the anterior and posterior fields with an energy of 6 MV and 10 MV for the node section, as shown in Figure 2.

Figure 1. (a) Fabricated patient-specific chest phantom and (b) the target section and the OAR comprise the study's contralateral breast, contralateral lung, and ipsilateral lung, and (c) slice number 9 is counted from the top of the phantom, (d) patient-specific chest phantom irradiated with a linac.

Figure 2. Simulation results of radiation treatment planning with 3D-CRT FinF technique: a) the field of local chest-wall and node sections, b) axial plane, c) sagittal plane, and d) coronal plane

DVH for the segmented sections was obtained for the three treatment plans, which were then analyzed for the distribution of doses for each OAR. Meanwhile, the analysis was based on the mean dose values for each OAR and pneumonia risk in the contralateral and ipsilateral lung. In this study, one fraction of the dose was measured in the ipsilateral lung using radiochromic films (GAFCHROMIC™ EBT3; Ashland Specialty Ingredients, Bridgewater, NJ, USA) to ascertain the similarity of the planned and actual doses received by the patient. Measurements were made by placing 2×2 cm2 EBT 3 films on the infield and outfield sections of the ipsilateral lung, as shown in Figure 1c. The dose values of the film measurements on the infield and outfield of the ipsilateral lung were then compared with the profile values on the treatment plan, and the error was calculated. The statistical test was used to determine a significant difference in the value of the dose. Using IBM SPSS Statistics 25, statistical tests were carried out using the independent sample t-test method with a significance level of 5%.

Radiobiological effect analysis was performed by calculating the NTCP model of Gay and Niemierko using the RADBIOMOD software. In the Gay– Niemierko model, the calculation is based on the Equivalent Uniform Dose (EUD), which assumes different dose distributions at a target volume can be equivalent when the same radiobiological effects are produced [15]. In secondary cancer risk, the values of the OED and EAR of Mechanistic Schneider models are used to evaluate a therapeutic plan. This is based on the radiation-induced dose-response model of cancer risk in Risk Equivalent Dose (RED). Meanwhile, RED combines radiobiological parameters in the form of cell killing (α') with repopulation constant (R) to calculate the effect of dose fractionation and secondary cancer induction rates derived from data on Hodgkin's patients and survivors of the Japanese atomic bombing [16].

The value of the dose tolerance parameter for 50% compilation when the entire tissue is irradiated homogeneously (*TD50*) and the tissue-specific parameter (*γ50*) used is 24.5 and 2 for the contralateral and ipsilateral lungs [15]. The secondary cancer risk analysis was carried out by calculating the OED and EAR values for each OAR with the Mechanistic Schneider model for the three treatment plans. The α , R , and β_{EAR} values for the contralateral breast were 0.44 Gy^{-1} , 0.15 , and 9.2 , respectively. In contrast, the *α*, *R*, and *βEAR* values for the contralateral and ipsilateral lungs were 0.42 Gy^{-1} , 0.83, and 7.5, with α/β values based on the results of fitting data on Japanese atomic bomb survivors and radiotherapy patients with Hodgkin's disease [17].

The OED value is calculated using the following equation [17]:

$$
OED = \frac{1}{V_T} \sum V_{D_i} RED_{D_i}
$$
\n(1)

Where V_T is the total volume of organ V_D , V_{Di} is the volume of organs exposed to the Dⁱ dose, and *REDDi* is the RED for the dose received by *VDi* [17].

RED is calculated by considering α' , the cell killing parameter, and the fractionation effect, which includes the cell repopulation constant (*R*) for carcinoma induction using the Berik equation [18].

$$
RED(D) = \frac{e^{-\alpha D}}{\alpha' R} \left(1 - 2R + R^2 e^{\alpha' D} - (1 - R) 2e^{-\frac{\alpha' R}{1 - R} D} \right)
$$
(2)

The value of α 'is calculated using the following equation [18]:

$$
\alpha' = \alpha + \beta d = \alpha + \beta \frac{D}{D_r} d_r \tag{3}
$$

Figure 3. (a) DVH in the contralateral breast, (b) DVH in the contralateral lung, and (c) DVH in the ipsilateral lung for each type of fractionation

Where *D* is the dose received by the organ (Gy), D_T is the prescribed dose for the target (Gy), and d_T is the dose determined for each fraction (Gy). Parameter *α* is a characteristic linear value for ready organs, while *β* is a quadratic value in the Linear-Quadratic *α/β* relationship, and used an *α/β* of 3 [18].

Equation (4) is used to calculate the EAR value, where radiotherapy exposure is carried out when the patient is 30 years old (age $a = 30$), and the risk of secondary cancer is calculated at the age of 70 years (age $x = 70$) since the value of the age modifier factor (*μ*) is 1 [17].

$$
EAR_{org} = \frac{1}{V_T} \sum V_{D_i} RED_{D_i} \cdot \beta \cdot \mu(age \ x, age \ a)
$$
\n(4)

β is the slope of the dose-response curve for radiation-induced secondary cancer, V_D is the volume of the DVH that received the D_i dose, RED_{Di} is the RED, and μ is the age factor [17].

Results

Dose Distribution in OAR

Treatment planning for the three types of fractionation resulted in DVH graphs for each OAR, as shown in Figure 3. The conventional plans, hypofractionation, and hyperfractionation were then compared for each OAR. On the contralateral breast, the average dose value (*Dmean*) with conventional, hypofractionation, and hyperfractionation were 18.5, 15.4, and 17.7 cGy, respectively. In the contralateral lung, the *Dmean* values for the conventional,

hypofractionation, and hyperfractionation were 15.6, 12.9, and 14.9 cGy. Meanwhile, in the ipsilateral lung, the *Dmean* value was 1826.7, 1519.8, and 1753.6 cGy, respectively.

Verification of Dose Distribution in Ipsilateral Lung

The ipsilateral lung is used for dose verification because it is close to the irradiation field. Therefore, the dose received on the ipsilateral lung can reflect the suitability received by other OARs. The measurement results are then compared with the dose profile, and the error value is calculated, as shown in Table 1. Table 1 shows that the ipsilateral lung dose in the in-field section absorbs more doses than the outfield for treatment planning. The 3D-CRT tangential plane has cut the high dose distribution in the ipsilateral lung.

NTCP Analysis as a Radiobiological Effect

Treatment planning was analyzed using dosimetry parameters and radiobiological effects. One of the radiobiological effect parameters is the NTCP of the tissue complication probability [19]. This study calculated NTCP values for the contralateral and ipsilateral lungs. The values for each treatment plan with the three types of fractionation were then compared and listed in Table 2. NTCP in the contralateral lung seemed to be 0% for each treatment plan with the three types of fractionation but varied in the ipsilateral lung.

Table 1. Comparison of film dose values with dose profiles in the ipsilateral lung for each fractionation variation in one fraction

Fractionation type	Part	Average point dose (cGy)		Error Value (%)
		Film Measurement	Profile dose	
Conventional	Infield	$212.98 + 5.57$	$202.27 + 4.61$	5.30
	Outfield	$17.62 + 4.59$	$15.23 + 4.02$	15.73
Hypofractionation	Infield	$278.02 + 14.85$	$258.69 + 13.62$	7.47
	Outfield	$23.59 + 7.29$	$21.04 + 7.10$	12.12
Hyperfractionation	Infield	$175.32 + 5.31$	$161.86 + 3.27$	8.32
	Outfield	$13.65 + 3.06$	$11.33 + 2.60$	20.48

Table 2. Results of Gay & Niemierko model NTCP calculations on conventional, hypofractionated, and hyperfractionated fractions

Table 3. OED and EAR values of the Mechanistic Schneider model on OAR for conventional, hypofractionation, and hyperfractionation

OED and EAR Analysis as Secondary Cancer Risk

The results of calculating OED values are listed in Table 3, and the OED calculations in Table 3 show that treatment planning with hypofractionation produces the smallest values of 0.33, 0.11, and 33.94 Gy in tissuespecific repopulation conditions. Therefore, hypofractionation provides an equivalent dose for each OAR which is smaller than other types of fractionation.

Table 3 also shows hypofractionation has a smaller EAR value than treatment planning with conventional or hyperfractionation for the entire OAR. In hypofractionation treatment, the EAR values of the contralateral breast, contralateral lung, and ipsilateral lung were 3.01, 0.83, and 254.4 per 10000 person-year, respectively. The complication reduced 16.38, 17, and 22.31% risk of secondary cancer 40 years after treatment in the contralateral breast, contralateral lung, and ipsilateral lung to the conventional fraction and reduced 12.75, 13.54, and 21.34% against hyperfractionation.

Discussion

Treatment planning with hypofractionation provides a smaller exposure to *Dmean* than other types of fractionation for each OAR. These results align with Moran's previous study of hypofractionation, where hypofractionation reduced dose exposure to OAR [20].

The distribution analysis in the contralateral and ipsilateral lung is based on the *Dmean* value and the risk of pneumonia after treatment. Pneumonia is based on the Quantitative Analysis of Normal Tissue Effects (QUANTEC), which states that the risk of developing symptomatic radiation pneumonitis in the lung is 4% and 50% when the percentage of lung volume structure receives a dose of 500 cGy (V_5) and 2000 cGy (V_{20}) below 42 and in the range of $31-40\%$ [21].

Table 4 represents *V⁵* and *V²⁰* for each treatment plan which is processed from the DVH graphs in Figures 3(b) and 3(c). In the contralateral lung, the V_5 and V_{20} values were 0% for all types of fractionation; hence, the risk of pneumonia in that organ is minimal. However, the risk of pneumonia occurs by 10% due to part of the ipsilateral lung volume being in the irradiation plane. The lowest and highest risks are in treatment planning with hypofractionation and conventional fractions. This is in line with the study by Rastogi, which found pneumonia in only 2% of the group of patients irradiated using hypofractionation, compared to conventional fractionation, where 6% had pneumonia [22].

On verification of the distribution of doses on the ipsilateral lung, the average measured value of EBT3 film is greater than the average profile for all fractionation variations, with errors in the infield and outfield sections of 5–9% and 15–21%. Therefore, the ipsilateral lung received a larger dose than the planned amount. The dose profile values cause a significant error at several outfield points below the optimal range of EBT3 films, in which the optimum values are $20-1000$ cGy [23].

Moreover, NTCP analysis on the contralateral lung showed a value of 0% for each treatment plan with all three types of fractionation. A value of 0% indicates a slight possibility of organ complications during radiotherapy treatment [24]. Treatment planning with hypofractionation also reduces 50% of the complications' possibility in the ipsilateral lung with an NTCP value of 0.01% compared to treatment with other types of fractionation at 0.02%. A low NTCP provides a low probability of normal tissue complications [15]. The results align with other studies regarding the potential risks and benefits of treating breast and prostate cancer. Hypofractionation can maintain dose equivalence regarding tumor and tissue damages [25].

For the analysis of OED and EAR as secondary cancer risks, this study showed that hypofractionation provides an equivalent dose for each OAR smaller than other types of fractionation. Haciislamoglu stated that the smaller the OED value received by the organ, the better the treatment plan [8]. Therefore, treatment planning with hypofractionation is better compared to other fractionation types.

Radiation treatment of post-mastectomy breast cancer with the 3D-CRT technique often carries a high risk of exposure to the ipsilateral lung [10, 26]. In the study comparing radiotherapy techniques to the risk of secondary cancer, the ipsilateral lung received more OED values than other OAR in the 3D-CRT technique at 3.54 Gy in the mechanical model [8]. The high value of OED in the ipsilateral lung was due to the irradiation target on the Local chest wall and nodes. It causes the ipsilateral lung volume to be in the tangential mediallateral and anterior-posterior 3D-CRT Find beam plane, as shown in Figure 2. The distribution of doses to these organs in Figure 4 shows the amount of radiation dose deposited in the ipsilateral lung.

Meanwhile, the high EAR value in the ipsilateral lung is due to its location in the direction of the irradiation plane. In the study by Vogel, the significant contribution to secondary cancer induction can be presumed to arise from the in-field dose through the lung and large areas exposed to very low out-of-field doses [27].

Correlated with OED values in hypofractionation, EAR values in the ipsilateral lung, as the risk of secondary cancer at 40 years after treatment, can be reduced by 22.30% compared to conventional fractions and 21.42% when compared to hyperfractionation. A similar study was found by Sitatanaee, where modification of conventional fractionation can reduce the risk of secondary cancer in primary radiation [11].

Figure 4. Dose distribution in the coronal plane using the 3D-CRT FinF technique

The measurement results were then performed by statistical tests between film measurement data and dose profiles to determine the significant difference. Meanwhile, the statistical tests were carried out using the independent samples t-test method, and the p-value of the results in the infield and outfield was at 0.10 and 0.74, respectively. The independent samples method ttest was conducted with the hypothesis (*H0*), and the average difference between the two data was equal to zero with an alpha limit of 0.05. The *H⁰* value is rejected when the p-value is in the rejection area, or the value is smaller than the alpha value, and the data have significantly different values [28].

The results show that the p-value of the statistical test in the infield and outfield sections has a p>0.05. Hence, the H_0 value is acceptable with insignificant differences. Even though the film measurement results are more significant than the dose profile in treatment planning, the difference in dose values does not occur significantly in the sections. Therefore, the analysis of radiobiological effects and risk of secondary cancer can be based on the DVH value. This study has limitations on the specific case of left breast cancer patients with the 3D-CRT FinF technique with hypofractionation, which may give different risk results when analyzed in other patient cases.

Conclusion

This present study demonstrated that the dose distribution in OAR is smaller in treatment planning with hypofractionation. The results of verification of the EBT3 film showed that the ipsilateral lung received more doses than the planned one, with a non-significant difference $(p>0.05)$. In radiobiology, the ipsilateral lung has the highest probability of complications in treatment planning with conventional fractionation and hyperfractionation. This is also seen in the aspect of secondary cancer, and the conventional fraction (25×200) cGy) with a prescription dose of 5000 cGy provides a higher risk in the ipsilateral lung after radiation treatment compared to hyperfractionation $(30\times160 \text{ cGy})$ and hypofractionation $(16\times260 \text{ cGy})$. The prescription dose is directly proportional to the radiobiological effects and the risk of secondary cancer.

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