

VU Research Portal

The evolving role of stereotactic ablative radiotherapy in operable early stage non-small cell lung cancer

Verstegen, N.E.

2015

document version

Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

[Link to publication in VU Research Portal](#)

citation for published version (APA)

Verstegen, N. E. (2015). *The evolving role of stereotactic ablative radiotherapy in operable early stage non-small cell lung cancer*.

General rights

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

- Users may download and print one copy of any publication from the public portal for the purpose of private study or research.
- You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain
- You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the public portal ?

Take down policy

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

E-mail address:

vuresearchportal.ub@vu.nl

Conclusions and future directions

Curative treatment of early stage NSCLC

Lung cancer surgery was first introduced by Graham and Slinger in 1933, and it has been considered to be the treatment of choice for operable patients with early stage NSCLC ever since¹⁻³. In 1950, Churchill et al. reported a series of patients with long term survival following lobectomy for lung cancer, leading to the replacement of the pneumonectomy as treatment of choice⁴. A report in 1973 on the use of sub-lobar resections in early stage NSCLC raised the possibility that surgical cure may not be compromised by the omission of a lobectomy⁵. A subsequent randomized controlled trial comparing lobectomy to more limited resections reported more local recurrences, and decreased survival, in patients who underwent a sub-lobar resection⁶. Therefore, the recommended extent of surgical resection remained a lobectomy^{1,2}. However, more recent retrospective studies have suggested that sub-lobar resections using modern surgical techniques may result in better outcomes than those observed in older literature. A recent meta-analysis concluded that a sub-lobar resection produces similar survival as a lobectomy in patients stage IA tumors measuring ≤ 2 cm in size⁷⁻⁹. In view of the rapidly increasing population of elderly patients with early stage NSCLC, surgeons have a renewed interest in sub-lobar resections, especially in these elderly patients¹⁰. However, as no new results from randomized controlled trials are available, no definite recommendations can be made.

The rationale for surgery as the recommended treatment comes primarily from retrospective studies and database registries, showing higher survival rates after surgery as compared to other treatment modalities². The solitary randomized controlled trial supporting the role of surgery in early stage NSCLC was published more than 50 years ago and compared surgery with radiotherapy¹¹. The study reported an improved overall survival after surgery for squamous cell carcinoma.

Surgical resection can be associated with significant risks. When the post-operative recording period for surgical mortality is extended to 90 days, death rates are substantial and can be double the rates reported over 30 days¹²⁻¹⁴. Furthermore, the risk of surgery-associated morbidity is high, with readmission rates of 23% within the first 90-days, and a remaining impaired quality of life especially in elderly^{15,16}. Due to the lack of supportive randomized evidence and the risks involved with surgery, its role in early stage NSCLC has been questioned^{17,18}.

The use of stereotactic radiotherapy for lung tumors was first reported in the literature in 1995¹⁹. High local control rates have been achieved in medically inoperable patients,

and the introduction of SABR was associated with improved survival for elderly patients with early stage lung cancer in the Netherlands²⁰⁻²³. With these excellent results, the role of SABR for potentially operable patients has gained considerable interest. However, randomized controlled trials comparing both treatments failed to accrue patients, and were therefore prematurely closed²⁴.

In recent years, many comparative effectiveness studies have been published comparing surgery and SABR for early stage NSCLC, including two chapters in this thesis^{24,25}. In general, these studies found no clear advantage of one treatment over the other. Most importantly, local control was found to be similar following both treatments. Furthermore, treatment-related toxicity is milder post-SABR, a finding of interest especially for older patients, who have more co-morbidities. These studies also suggested a potential overall survival benefit following surgery, a finding that may be attributed by the fact that patients who undergo surgery are fitter, and as non-randomized comparisons involving patient matching for known variables may not eliminate all baseline differences between populations²⁵. Recently, a pooled analysis of two randomized controlled trials comparing surgery with SABR, both of which failed to accrue sufficient numbers of patients, became available²⁶. This analysis reported a significantly higher overall survival following SABR as compared to surgery, representing the first randomized data suggesting SABR might lead to better overall survival for operable early stage NSCLC. The results of this study are consistent with the above mentioned comparative effectiveness studies. Nevertheless, additional data from well-powered randomized clinical trials are warranted.

Randomized controlled trials (RCT's) are considered the highest form of evidence in evidence-based medicine. Most of the substantial improvements in treatment and outcome of patients with cancer over the past four decades have been established using RCT's²⁷. However, patients participating in RCT's are strictly defined and highly selected, and especially elderly patients are underrepresented in trials, even though most cancer patients are of advanced age²⁸. Therefore, outcome of RCT's may not be representative for the entire population of patients, and especially so for lung cancer patients, who have a median age of 70 years at time of diagnosis and often have other comorbidities²⁹⁻³¹. In the absence of data from RCT's comparing surgery and SABR, other forms of comparative effectiveness research are valuable, such as population-based observational studies, propensity score matching, Markov modeling, cost-effectiveness studies and meta-analytic methodologies. The results of observational studies rank lower than RCT's in the hierarchy of evidence based medicine, due to potential inclusion bias and the often complicated statistical methods (see Table 1). However, in the absence of RCT's, the

Chapter 11

findings of observational studies should not be overlooked.

Table 1: Strengths and limitations of RCT's and observational studies (Reprinted with permission of the American Thoracic Society. Copyright © 2015 American Thoracic Society)

	RCTs	Observational Studies
Strengths	Randomization balances baseline characteristics (as prognostic factors) "Prospective" infrastructure collects pertinent data Methods of analysis can be simple and straightforward	Rigor of observational studies is enhanced by specific methodological strategies Observational studies and RCTs with same focus provide consistent results Treatments evaluated in non-randomized studies are safe and effective
Limitations	RCTs on the same topic are often contradictory Meta-analyses and large RCTs often disagree RCTs can have limited generalizability (applicability to broader populations)	Baseline characteristics (as prognostic factors) are usually imbalanced Quality of data pertinent to research question can be variable Accompanying methods of analysis can be complex and obscure

Definition of abbreviation: RCT = randomized controlled trial.

The main text of this article focuses on limitations of RCTs and strengths of observational studies.

At present, new trials comparing surgery and SABR are in preparation, namely VALOR in the USA and SABRtooth in the UK. Both studies involve an initial approach to patients by a more neutral party consisting of a pulmonologist and research nurse. This reduces any bias that may be introduced if the patient is initially seen by either a surgeon or radiation-oncologist. Furthermore, prospective registration of patient data nationwide has become mandated, such as by the Dutch Institute of Clinical Auditing (DICA). These databases can help provide more reliable observational data and reduce inclusion bias.

Shared decision making

Shared decision making is a process in which clinicians and patients work together to select the optimal treatment, based on all the clinical evidence and the patient's preferences³². In situations where two treatments appear to have clinical equipoise, as appears to be the case for surgery and SABR in early stage NSCLC, shared-decision making has been encouraged to incorporate patients' preferences and values in medical management³³. In order to succeed in shared decision making, doctors need to be aware

of all relevant comparative effectiveness research, so that they can provide patients with the information they are entitled to³⁴. Specifically, patients need to be aware of the pro's and con's of each treatment. Patients considering surgery need to be informed about the advantages of having a pathological diagnosis and lymph node dissection, but also about the mortality rates following surgery outside of clinical trials, data on quality of life post treatment, and financial burden of treatment^{35,36}. Similarly, patients considering SABR need to be informed of the similar cancer-related outcomes as for surgery and the low toxicity profile, but also on the challenges in the evaluation of follow-up CT-scans and uncertainties in diagnosis and salvages of rare local recurrences. Only when patients receive all the information, they can make a well-informed decision, tailored to their specific preferences.

Treating operable patients with early stage NSCLC with SABR

With growing evidence that SABR and surgery yield comparable results in early stage NSCLC, our data shows increasing numbers of potentially operable patients undergo SABR³⁷. With fitter patients undergoing SABR, new areas of further research emerge.

Topics of further research in operable patients treated with SABR
Improve pre-treatment pathological diagnosis of lung cancer in different global populations
Optimize detection of occult lymph node metastases using endoscopic techniques in ¹⁸ F-FDG-PET staged patients
Implement optimal follow-up regimen for potentially salvageable disease recurrences and second primaries
Develop techniques for distinguishing local recurrences from fibrosis
Study the safety of surgical resections after SABR, especially in more central hilar lesions
Implement programs for smoking cessation in survivors

Chapter 11

Pre-treatment pathological diagnosis

Although establishing a pathological confirmation before any local treatment is recommended, it may not always be feasible, especially in less superficial lesions or in patients with severe COPD³⁸. In the Netherlands, the likelihood of a final diagnosis of benign disease in Dutch patients who undergo surgery for suspected NSCLC, is generally less than 5%³⁹⁻⁴¹. In chapter 4 of this thesis, we have shown that is unlikely that the results published on SABR in the Dutch population have been significantly biased by patients with benign lesions undergoing SABR⁴². In general, attempts should be made to obtain pathology, but it is important to weigh the likelihood of malignancy against the risks of the diagnostic procedure and/or treatment. The Dutch-Belgian NELSON screening trial reported that 17% of the major complications, and 21% of minor complications, arose in subjects who underwent surgery for benign disease⁴³. Both guidelines, as well as a decision analysis, have suggested a 85% likelihood of malignancy as threshold prior to proceeding with treatment, without pathological confirmation, in cases where there are concerns about morbidity related to biopsy⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶. Models to predict the probability of malignancy using clinical, CT, and FDG-PET features have been developed^{47,48}. However, caution is advised if such models have not been validated for specific geographic regions, as the specificity and sensitivity of FDG-PET-scans to detect lung cancer varies widely in different geographic regions^{49,50}.

Lymph node staging

One of the presumed advantages of surgery over SABR for early stage NSCLC is the possibility to perform lymph node dissection, thereby identifying patients who might benefit from adjuvant chemotherapy^{1,2}. Nodal upstaging occurs in approximately 15% of patients and the estimated survival benefit of adjuvant therapy in these selected patients is 5%⁵¹. Although it is guideline-recommended, not all surgical patients actually undergo a complete lymph node dissection, with even less lymph nodes harvested in patients treated with a VATS-lobectomy^{2,52-54}. Furthermore, not all patients benefit from the advantages of lymph node staging, as only two thirds of all patients who are upstaged at surgery are finally able or willing to undergo adjuvant treatment⁵⁵. When this is taken into account, the potential survival improvement is quickly diluted: If 100 patients with clinical stage I NSCLC undergo resection, approximately 15 will have nodal disease, of whom 10 would receive chemotherapy and an excess of 0.5 patients would be alive 5 years later²⁴. Furthermore, in long-term follow-up in trials that have investigated the benefits of adjuvant therapies in local-advanced disease, the initial survival benefits of approximately 5% are lost after 5 years, due to an increased risk of death due to non-cancer related causes⁵⁶.

Currently, guidelines state that staging for patients with suspected early stage NSCLC consists of CT- and ¹⁸F-FDG-PET scans. In case of pathological ¹⁸F-FDG-uptake in regional lymph nodes, further investigations such as endobronchial or endoscopic ultrasound with fine needle biopsy or mediastinoscopy are used to determinate the nodal status. However, the sensitivity, specificity and accuracy of ¹⁸F-FDG-PET scans for assessing mediastinal lymph node metastasis with a short-axis diameter of less than 15 mm is still limited, as is reflected by the fact that up to 15% of all clinical stage I patients are upstaged after lymph node dissection⁵⁷. Even though SABR patients do not undergo lymph node dissection, most studies comparing SABR and surgery have found comparable or even lower loco-regional recurrence rates, although rates do vary depending on definition of local and regional recurrence⁵⁸⁻⁶⁰. It is hypothesized that the low loco-regional recurrence rates observed could be due to a boost in immune function following SABR^{61,62}. A recent study using propensity score matching, however, found a trend towards more nodal recurrences after SABR and significantly more loco-regional tumor recurrences³⁹. In order to improve loco-regional tumor control in SABR patients, minimally invasive mediastinal staging using endobronchial or endoscopic ultrasound or mediastinoscopy may need to be explored in patients at high-risk of occult nodal disease, even when ¹⁸F-FDG-PETscans are negative. One such trial, the STAGE study, is currently accruing patients out our center.

Follow-up post SABR

The optimal follow-up regimen for patients treated with SABR was unclear. Clinical guidelines recommend CT-imaging every 3-6 months for a period of up to 3 years post radiotherapy, followed by annual CT-imaging⁶³. In chapter 9 of this thesis, we describe long-term results of patients treated with SABR, focusing on follow-up regimens. Based on these results, we recommend that all patients eligible for any type of salvage undergo 6-monthly follow-up CT-scans for a period of three years post SABR, followed by annual CT-scans thereafter. However, it is not clear if such scans should always be performed using intravenous contrast. The advantage of a contrast-enhanced scan is the more accurate evaluation of the mediastinum and better identification of regional recurrences. However, administration of contrast is not without risks⁶⁴. As the peak incidence of regional recurrence is in the first 2 years post treatment⁶⁵ and CT-follow-up in later years is more focused on peripheral second primary lung cancers, that have an incidence rate of 2-5% per year, limiting the number of contrast-enhanced scans to early follow-up appears reasonable. Further research is needed to determine if fitter patients, in whom salvage of a recurrence might be feasible, merit a different follow-up scheme⁶⁶.

Chapter 11

Detection and salvage of local recurrence

An important clinical problem is the follow-up imaging after SABR, where local recurrences have to be distinguished from focal fibrosis. This is especially of importance in fitter patients, who are more likely to have longer follow-up and might be eligible for salvage treatment in case of local recurrence. High risk radiological features have been identified to aid with distinguishing local recurrence from fibrosis⁶⁷ but these criteria require validation in larger groups of patients with pathological confirmed local recurrences. New techniques, such as quantitative image feature analysis, are also being explored⁶⁸. However, local recurrences post-SABR are only seen in approximately 10% of patients, and ongoing multi-center collaborations with experienced investigators are underway in order to gather enough information for reliable assessments.

Fitter patients treated with SABR might also be candidates for surgical salvage of isolated local recurrences. In chapter 10, we reported the largest case-series to date of patients undergoing salvage surgery for a local recurrence after SABR to date. Of seventeen patients who underwent a total of 21 resections, only two patients had complications exceeding > grade 2, and 30-day mortality was 0%. This suggests that salvage surgery can be safely performed after SABR. However, the number of reported salvage procedures for local recurrences following SABR is still limited and restricted to specialist centers. If our results on the safety and efficacy of salvage surgery are confirmed by additional studies, patients who are at increased risk for surgical complication can opt to have SABR as initial treatment, while still having the option of surgery if salvage is required⁶⁹.

Smoking cessation

Smoking is well established as a risk factor for several types of cancer, most importantly lung cancer⁷⁰. However, continuing smoking after completion of curative treatment decreases overall survival and cancer-specific mortality, as well as increasing the risk of disease recurrence and development of second primary lung cancer^{71,72}. Smoking may also lead to an additive risk for the development of a second primary lung cancer when combined with chemotherapy or radiotherapy⁷³. Smoking cessation is challenging and often ignored in the doctor's office. Reports have shown that only 40% of oncologists regularly provide assistance to patients to quit smoking⁷⁴. The American Society of Clinical Oncology provides a guide to aid oncologists in this task, which includes behavioral counseling and advice on pharmacotherapy, mostly nicotine-replacement⁷⁵. Furthermore, several notable programs in the USA have been initiated, such as in MD Anderson and Memorial Sloan Kettering, where smoking cessation rates of more than 30% have been reported by means of active intervention^{76,77}. The routine implementation of such programs in the

Netherlands merits further study.

When Dr Evarts Graham, who first performed a one-stage pneumonectomy for lung cancer, was awarded the Lister Medal by the Royal College of Surgeons of England in 1947, he stated in his oration that “perhaps in the future some non-surgical method will be discovered which will be not only more simple in its execution but more reliable in its results than a surgical operation”⁷⁸. Recent outcomes of SABR suggest that maybe the future envisaged by Dr Graham has now arrived.

References

1. Vansteenkiste J, De Ruyscher D, Eberhardt WEE, et al. Early and locally advanced non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC): ESMO Clinical Practice Guidelines for diagnosis, treatment and follow-up. *Ann Oncol.* 2013;24 Suppl 6(July):vi89-vi98.
2. Scott WJ, Howington J, Feigenberg S, Movsas B, Pisters K. Treatment of non-small cell lung cancer stage I and stage II: ACCP evidence-based clinical practice guidelines (2nd edition). *Chest.* 2007;132(3 Suppl):234S - 242S.
3. Graham EA, Singer JJ. Successful removal of an entire lung for carcinoma of the bronchus. *JAMA.* 1933;101(18):1371-1374.
4. Churchill E, Sweet R, Souter L. The surgical management of carcinoma of the lung: a study of cases treated at the Massachusetts General Hospital from 1930 to 1950. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg.* 1950;(20):349-365.
5. Jensik RJ, Faber LP, Milloy FJ, Monson DO. Segmental resection for lung cancer. A fifteen-year experience. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg.* 1973;66(4):563-572.
6. Ginsberg RJ, Rubinstein LV. Randomized trial of lobectomy versus limited resection for T1N0 non-small cell lung cancer. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 1995;60(3):615-623.
7. Kilic A, Schuchert MJ, Pettiford BL, et al. Anatomic segmentectomy for stage I non-small cell lung cancer in the elderly. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 2009;87(6):1662-1666; discussion 1667-1668.
8. El-Sherif A, Gooding WE, Santos R, et al. Outcomes of Sublobar Resection Versus Lobectomy for Stage I Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer: A 13-Year Analysis. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 2006;82:408-416.
9. Fan J, Wang L, Jiang G-N, Gao W. Sublobectomy Versus Lobectomy for Stage I Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer, A Meta-Analysis of Published Studies. *Ann Surg Oncol.* 2012;19:661-668.
10. Dell'Amore A, Monteverde M, Martucci N, et al. Lobar and sub-lobar lung resection in octogenarians with early stage non-small cell lung cancer: factors affecting surgical outcomes and long-term results. *Gen Thorac Cardiovasc Surg.* 2014.
11. Morrison R. The treatment of carcinoma of the bronchus: A Clinical Trial to Compare Surgery and Supervoltage Radiotherapy. *Lancet.* 1963;281(7283):683-684.
12. Bryant AS, Rudemiller K, Cerfolio RJ. The 30- versus 90-day operative mortality after pulmonary resection. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 2010;89(6):1717-1722; discussion 1722-1723.
13. Pezzi CM, Mallin K, Mendez AS, Greer Gay E, Putnam JB. Ninety-day mortality after resection for lung cancer is nearly double 30-day mortality. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg.* 2014;148(5):2269-2277.
14. Senthil S, Senan S. Surgery for early-stage lung cancer: post-operative 30-day versus 90-day mortality and patient-centred care. *Eur J Cancer.* 2014;50(3):675-677.
15. Fernando HC, Landreneau RJ, Mandrekar SJ, et al. Analysis of longitudinal quality-of-life data in high-risk operable patients with lung cancer: Results from the ACOSOG Z4032 (Alliance)

- multicenter randomized trial. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg.* 2014;4032.
16. Stitzenberg KB, Chang Y, Smith AB, Nielsen ME. Exploring the Burden of Inpatient Readmissions After Major Cancer Surgery. *J Clin Oncol.* 2014;33(5):455-464.
 17. Lederle FA, Niewoehner DE. Lung Cancer Surgery: A critical review of the evidence. *Arch Intern Med.* 1994;154:2397-2400.
 18. Treasure T, Russell C, Morton D, Macbeth F, Utley M. Surgical resection of lung cancer England: more operations but no trials to test their effectiveness. *Thorax.* 2012;67:759-761.
 19. Blomgren H, Lax I, Näslund I, Svanström R. Stereotactic high dose fraction radiation therapy of extracranial tumors using an accelerator. Clinical experience of the first thirty-one patients. *Acta Oncol.* 1995;34(6):861-870.
 20. Baumann P, Nyman J, Hoyer M, et al. Outcome in a prospective phase II trial of medically inoperable stage I non-small-cell lung cancer patients treated with stereotactic body radiotherapy. *J Clin Oncol.* 2009;27(20):3290-3296.
 21. Timmerman R, Paulus R, Galvin J, et al. Stereotactic body radiation therapy for inoperable early stage lung cancer. *JAMA.* 2010;303(11):1070-1076.
 22. Haasbeek CJA, Palma D, Visser O, Lagerwaard FJ, Slotman B, Senan S. Early-stage lung cancer in elderly patients: A population-based study of changes in treatment patterns and survival in the Netherlands. *Ann Oncol.* 2012;23(May):2743-2747.
 23. Lagerwaard FJ, Haasbeek CJA, Smit EF, Slotman BJ, Senan S. Outcomes of risk-adapted fractionated stereotactic radiotherapy for stage I non-small-cell lung cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2008;70(3):685-692.
 24. Louie AV, Palma DA, Dahele M, Rodrigues GB, Senan S. Management of early-stage non-small cell lung cancer using stereotactic ablative radiotherapy: Controversies, insights, and changing horizons. *Radiother Oncol.* 2014.
 25. Zhang B, Zhu F, Ma X, et al. Matched-pair comparisons of stereotactic body radiotherapy (SBRT) versus surgery for the treatment of early stage non-small cell lung cancer: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Radiother Oncol.* 2014;112(2):250-255.
 26. Chang JY, Senan S, Paul MA, et al. Stereotactic ablative radiotherapy versus lobectomy for operable stage I NSCLC: a pooled analysis of two randomized trials. *Lancet Oncol.* 2015.
 27. Booth CM, Tannock IF. Randomised controlled trials and population-based observational research: partners in the evolution of medical evidence. *Br J Cancer.* 2014;110(3):551-555.
 28. Murthy V, Krumholz H, Gross C. Participation in Cancer Clinical Trials: Race-, Sex- and Age-based Disparities. *JAMA.* 2004;291(22):2720-2726.
 29. SEER Cancer Statistics. 2015. Available at: seer.cancer.gov
 30. Janssen-Heijnen MLG, Maas HAAM, Houterman S, et al. Comorbidity in older surgical cancer patients: influence on patient care and outcome. *Eur J Cancer.* 2007;43(15):2179-2193.
 31. Integraal Kankercentrum Nederland. 2015. Available at: www.cijfersoverkanker.nl

Chapter 11

32. Oshima Lee E, Emanuel EJ. Shared Decision Making to Improve Care and Reduce Costs. *N Engl J Med*. 2013;368(1):6-8.
33. Informed Medical Decisions. Available at: www.informedmedicaldecisions.com
34. Lawler M, Le Chevalier T, Murphy MJ, et al. A Catalyst for Change: The European Cancer Patient's Bill of Rights. *Oncologist*. 2014;19(3):217-224.
35. Ramsey SD, Ganz PA, Shankaran V, Peppercorn J, Emanuel E. Addressing the American health-care cost crisis: role of the oncology community. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2013;105(23):1777-1781.
36. Zafar SY, Peppercorn JM, Schrag D, et al. The financial toxicity of cancer treatment: a pilot study assessing out-of-pocket expenses and the insured cancer patient's experience. *Oncologist*. 2013;18(4):381-390.
37. Lagerwaard FJ, Versteegen NE, Haasbeek CJA, et al. Outcomes of stereotactic ablative radiotherapy in patients with potentially operable stage I non-small cell lung cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2012;83(1):348-353.
38. Khakwani A, Rich AL, Tata LJ, et al. The pathological confirmation rate of lung cancer in England using the NLCA database. *Lung Cancer*. 2013;79(2):125-131.
39. Van den Berg L, Klinkenberg TJ, Groen H, Widder J. Patterns of recurrence and survival after surgery or stereotactic radiotherapy for early stage NSCLC. *J Thorac Oncol*. 2015.;10(5):826-31
40. Tinteren H van, Hoekstra O, Smit E, Bergh J van den, Schreurs A. Effectiveness of positron emission tomography in the preoperative assessment of patients with suspected non-small-cell lung cancer: the PLUS multicentre. *Lancet*. 2002;359:1388-1392.
41. Belgers EHJ, Siebenga J, Bosch AM, van Haren EHJ, Bollen ECM. Complete video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery lobectomy and its learning curve. A single center study introducing the technique in The Netherlands. *Interact Cardiovasc Thorac Surg*. 2010;10(2):176-180.
42. Versteegen NE, Lagerwaard FJ, Haasbeek CJA, Slotman BJ, Senan S. Outcomes of stereotactic ablative radiotherapy following a clinical diagnosis of stage I NSCLC: comparison with a contemporaneous cohort with pathologically proven disease. *Radiother Oncol*. 2011;101(2):250-254.
43. Van't Westeinde SC, Horeweg N, De leyn P, et al. Complications following lung surgery in the dutch-belgian randomized lung cancer screening trial. *Eur J Cardio-thoracic Surg*. 2012;42(April):420-429.
44. Gould MK, Donington J, Lynch WR, et al. Evaluation of individuals with pulmonary nodules: when is it lung cancer? Diagnosis and management of lung cancer, 3rd ed: American College of Chest Physicians evidence-based clinical practice guidelines. *Chest*. 2013;143(5 Suppl):e93S - 120S.
45. Field JK, Smith RA, Aberle DR, et al. International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer Computed Tomography Screening Workshop 2011 report. *J Thorac Oncol*. 2012;7(1):10-19.
46. Louie AV, Senan S, Patel P, et al. When is a biopsy-proven diagnosis necessary before stereotactic

- ablative radiotherapy for lung cancer?: A decision analysis. *Chest*. 2014;146(4):1021-1028.
47. Swensen SJ. The Probability of Malignancy in Solitary Pulmonary Nodules. *Arch Intern Med*. 1997;157(8):849.
 48. Herder GJ, van Tinteren H, Golding RP, et al. Clinical prediction model to characterize pulmonary nodules: validation and added value of 18F-fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography. *Chest*. 2005;128(4):2490-2496.
 49. Grogan EL, Deppen SA, Ballman K V, et al. Accuracy of fluorodeoxyglucose-positron emission tomography within the clinical practice of the American College of Surgeons Oncology Group Z4031 trial to diagnose clinical stage I non-small cell lung cancer. *Ann Thorac Surg*. 2014;97(4):1142-1148.
 50. Deppen SA, Davis WT, Green EA, et al. Cost-effectiveness of initial diagnostic strategies for pulmonary nodules presenting to thoracic surgeons. *Ann Thorac Surg*. 2014;98(4):1214-1222.
 51. Pignon JP, Tribodet H, Scagliotti G V, et al. Lung adjuvant cisplatin evaluation: A pooled analysis by the LACE collaborative group. *J Clin Oncol*. 2008;26(21):3552-3559.
 52. Lardinois D, De Leyn P, Van Schil P, et al. ESTS guidelines for intraoperative lymph node staging in non-small cell lung cancer. *Eur J Cardio-thoracic Surg*. 2006;30:787-792.
 53. Verhagen AF, Schoenmakers MCJ, Barendregt W, et al. Completeness of lung cancer surgery: is mediastinal dissection common practice? *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg*. 2012;41(4):834-838.
 54. Boffa DJ, Kosinski AS, Paul S, Mitchell JD, Onaitis M. Lymph node evaluation by open or video-assisted approaches in 11,500 anatomic lung cancer resections. *Ann Thorac Surg*. 2012;94(2):347-353; discussion 353.
 55. Felip E, Rosell R, Maestre JA, et al. Preoperative chemotherapy plus surgery versus surgery plus adjuvant chemotherapy versus surgery alone in early-stage non-small-cell lung cancer. *J Clin Oncol*. 2010;28(19):3138-3145.
 56. Rotolo F, Dunant A, Le Chevalier T, Pignon J-P, Arriagada R. Adjuvant cisplatin-based chemotherapy in nonsmall-cell lung cancer: new insights into the effect on failure type via a multistate approach. *Ann Oncol*. 2014;25(11):2162-2166.
 57. Lu P, Sun Y, Sun Y, Yu L. The role of 18F-FDG PET/CT for evaluation of metastatic mediastinal lymph nodes in patients with lung squamous-cell carcinoma or adenocarcinoma. *Lung Cancer*. 2014;85(1):53-58.
 58. Grills IS, Mangona VS, Welsh R, et al. Outcomes after stereotactic lung radiotherapy or wedge resection for stage I non-small-cell lung cancer. *J Clin Oncol*. 2010;28(6):928-935.
 59. Versteegen NE, Oosterhuis JWA, Palma DA, et al. Stage I-II non-small-cell lung cancer treated using either stereotactic ablative radiotherapy (SABR) or lobectomy by video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery (VATS): outcomes of a propensity score-matched analysis. *Ann Oncol*. 2013;24(6):1543-1548.
 60. Mokhles S, Versteegen NE, Maat APWM, et al. Comparison of clinical outcome of stage I non-small

Chapter 11

- cell lung cancer treated surgically or with stereotactic radiotherapy: Results from propensity score analysis. *Lung Cancer*. 2015;87(3):283-289.
61. Finkelstein SE, Timmerman R, McBride WH, et al. The confluence of stereotactic ablative radiotherapy and tumor immunology. *Clin Dev Immunol*. 2011;2011:439752.
 62. Lee Y, Auh SL, Wang Y, et al. Therapeutic effects of ablative radiation on local tumor require CD8 + T cells: changing strategies for cancer treatment. 2013;114(3):589-595.
 63. Vansteenkiste J, Crinò L, Doooms C, et al. 2nd ESMO Consensus Conference on Lung Cancer: early-stage non-small-cell lung cancer consensus on diagnosis, treatment and follow-up. *Ann Oncol*. 2014;25(8):1462-1474.
 64. Kyung E-J, Ryu J-H, Kim E-Y. Evaluation of adverse reactions to contrast media in the hospital. *Br J Radiol*. 2013;86(1032):20130418.
 65. Senthil S, Lagerwaard FJ, Haasbeek CJA, Slotman BJ, Senan S. Patterns of disease recurrence after stereotactic ablative radiotherapy for early stage non-small-cell lung cancer: a retrospective analysis. *Lancet Oncol*. 2012;13(8):802-809.
 66. Huang K, Palma DA. Follow-up of patients after stereotactic radiation for lung cancer: a primer for the nonradiation oncologist. *J Thorac Oncol*. 2015;10(3):412-419.
 67. Huang K, Senthil S, Palma DA, et al. High-risk CT features for detection of local recurrence after stereotactic ablative radiotherapy for lung cancer. *Radiother Oncol*. 2013;109(1):51-57.
 68. Mattonen SA, Huang K, Ward AD, Senan S, Palma DA. New techniques for assessing response after hypofractionated radiotherapy for lung cancer. *J Thorac Dis*. 2014;6(4):375-386.
 69. Franzcr SS. Use of stereotactic body radiation therapy with salvage surgery to improve outcomes for early stage non-small cell lung cancer. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg*. 2014;148(4):8596.
 70. Alberg AJ and Samet JM. Epidemiology of Lung Cancer. *CHEST J*. 2003;123(1_suppl):21S.
 71. Parsons A, Daley A, Begh R, Aveyard P. Influence of smoking cessation after diagnosis of early stage lung cancer on prognosis: systematic review of observational studies with meta-analysis. *BMJ*. 2010;340:b5569.
 72. Warren GW, Sobus S, Gritz ER. The biological and clinical effects of smoking by patients with cancer and strategies to implement evidence-based tobacco cessation support. *Lancet Oncol*. 2014;15(12):e568-e580.
 73. Florou AN, Gkiozos ICH, Tsagouli SK, Souliotis KN, Syrigos KN. Clinical Significance of Smoking Cessation in Subjects With Cancer: A 30-Year Review. *Respir Care*. 2014;59(12):1924-1936.
 74. Warren GW, Marshall JR, Cummings KM, et al. Addressing tobacco use in patients with cancer: a survey of American Society of Clinical Oncology members. *J Oncol Pract*. 2013;9:258-262.
 75. American Society of Clinical Oncology. Tobacco cessation guide for oncology providers. 2012.
 76. Ostroff JS, Burkhalter JE, Cinciripini PM, et al. Randomized Trial of a Presurgical Scheduled Reduced Smoking Intervention for Patients Newly Diagnosed With Cancer. *Health Psychol*. 2013;33(7):737-747.

77. Huang J, Logue AE, Ostroff JS, et al. Comprehensive Long-Term Care of Patients With Lung Cancer: Development of a Novel Thoracic Survivorship Program. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 2014;98(3):955-961.
78. Graham EA. Some Aspects of Bronchiogenic Carcinoma. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl.* 1947;1:248-264