

**American College of Radiology  
ACR Appropriateness Criteria®**

**NONSURGICAL TREATMENT FOR NON-SMALL-CELL LUNG CANCER: POOR  
PERFORMANCE STATUS OR PALLIATIVE INTENT**

Expert Panel on Radiation Oncology–Lung: Kenneth E. Rosenzweig, MD<sup>1</sup>; Joe Yujiao Chang, MD, PhD<sup>2</sup>; Indrin J. Chetty, PhD<sup>3</sup>; Roy H. Decker, MD, PhD<sup>4</sup>; Mark E. Ginsburg, MD<sup>5</sup>; Larry L. Kestin, MD<sup>6</sup>; Feng-Ming (Spring) Kong, MD, PhD, MPH<sup>7</sup>; Brian E. Lally, MD<sup>8</sup>; Corey J. Langer, MD<sup>9</sup>; Benjamin Movsas, MD<sup>10</sup>; Gregory M. M. Videtic, MD, CM<sup>11</sup>; Henning Willers, MD.<sup>12</sup>

**Summary of Literature Review**

Approximately 40% of patients with newly diagnosed non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC) present with local regional disease that is not amenable to surgical treatment [1]. An additional 40% present with disseminated disease (stage IV) [1]. Radiation therapy has played a major role in the treatment of these patients for potential cure or long-term survival and palliation. Radiation therapy is the standard therapy for patients with inoperable NSCLC. Essentially, radiation therapy replaces surgery as the definitive treatment. This summary addresses definitive radiation therapy with or without other modalities in inoperable patients. Patients may be deemed inoperable because of stage or comorbid medical diseases. Stage IIIA and B patients have traditionally been considered unresectable because of the local-regional extent of disease. Patients with stage IV disease should be considered for palliative radiation therapy for the relief of specific symptoms either to the site of metastatic disease or to the primary tumor. In certain cases, such as solitary brain metastases or other oligometastatic disease, patients can be considered for more aggressive therapy such as surgical resection or stereotactic body radiation therapy.

In choosing a nonaggressive, nonsurgical treatment, the therapy decision may be based on patient characteristics other than stage, including age, performance status, and the presence or absence of weight loss. Typically, a standardized scale, such as the Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group (ECOG)  $\geq 2$  is used to assess performance status. When assessing trials of radiation therapy for NSCLC it is essential to evaluate the patient population in the trial and to identify the prognostic variables that may have a significant impact on the results. In general, patients included in this section are either those who would not be expected to withstand very aggressive therapy or those whose outlook for survival is so poor that efforts to reduce the time and toxicity of treatment would be desirable. This paper discusses nonsurgical treatment for NSCLC with a focus on radiation therapy. If radiation therapy is combined with other agents, including chemotherapy, the intent is to be relatively nontoxic and less aggressive.

In general, the nonsurgical treatment of NSCLC can be divided into broad categories:

- Radiation therapy alone: this is used primarily for early-stage (stage I and II) patients. For patients with locally advanced disease (stage IIIA and IIIB) it is used for the rare patients who cannot tolerate any chemotherapy due to comorbid conditions or poor performance status.
- Sequential chemotherapy followed by radiation therapy: this approach is reserved for patients with locally advanced disease who are unable to tolerate concurrent chemotherapy and radiation therapy.
- Concurrent chemotherapy and radiation therapy: this is the standard of care for fit patients with locally advanced disease. This approach is not discussed in this document.
- Endobronchial brachytherapy for patients with obstructing endobronchial lesions.
- Palliative radiation therapy for patients with metastatic disease.

---

<sup>1</sup>Principal Author and Panel Chair, Mount Sinai School of Medicine, New York, New York. <sup>2</sup>Panel Vice-chair, MD Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, Texas. <sup>3</sup>Henry Ford Health System, Detroit, Michigan. <sup>4</sup>Yale University School of Medicine, New Haven, Connecticut. <sup>5</sup>Columbia University, New York, New York, Society of Thoracic Surgeons. <sup>6</sup>William Beaumont Hospital, Royal Oak, Milwaukee. <sup>7</sup>VA Health Center and University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan. <sup>8</sup>University of Miami, Miami, Florida. <sup>9</sup>Fox Chase Cancer Center, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, American Society of Clinical Oncology. <sup>10</sup>Henry Ford Health System, Detroit, Michigan. <sup>11</sup>Cleveland Clinic Foundation, Cleveland, Ohio. <sup>12</sup>Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts.

The American College of Radiology seeks and encourages collaboration with other organizations on the development of the ACR Appropriateness Criteria through society representation on expert panels. Participation by representatives from collaborating societies on the expert panel does not necessarily imply individual or society endorsement of the final document.

Reprint requests to: Department of Quality & Safety, American College of Radiology, 1891 Preston White Drive, Reston, VA 20191-4397.

## Results of Curative Intent Radiation Therapy Alone

### *External Beam Alone*

The radiation therapy standard of care for the past decade was established by a randomized prospective trial by the Radiation Therapy Oncology Group<sup>®</sup> (RTOG<sup>®</sup>) published in 1982. This study randomized 378 patients to 40 Gy continuous-course versus 40 Gy split-course versus 50 or 60 Gy continuous-course treatments. The 60 Gy arm was superior to the other doses for intrathoracic control and overall survival (OS). This was particularly evident at the 1- and 3-year evaluations where 60 Gy resulted in the 1- and 3-year survival rates of 42% and 15%, respectively. However, there was no significant difference by 5 years [2].

Medically inoperable stage I and II NSCLC patients may be treated definitively with radiation therapy alone. These patients primarily have cardiovascular or chronic pulmonary disease that makes surgical resection too risky. Multiple studies have evaluated treating patients with standard-fraction radiation therapy [3-10]. Results vary slightly, but in general, patients who have poor pulmonary or cardiac reserve and are often elderly have respectable results with radiation therapy alone. Reported 3-year survival rates range from 17%-55% [8,9].

Currently extracranial stereotactic body radiotherapy (SBRT) is being examined as an alternative to conventionally fractionated radiotherapy in patients with inoperable stage I disease. In a study by McGarry et al [11] assessing toxicity and local control rates in 47 patients with stage I inoperable NSCLC who were treated with SBRT, the crude local control rate was found to be 79% (37/47 patients), with local failures occurring between 3 and 31 months after treatment. Maximum tolerated dose (MTD) was not reached for patients with stage IA disease (maximum dose delivered was 60 Gy in 3 fractions) and was found to be 72 Gy for stage IB disease for tumors >5 cm, with dose-limiting toxicities including bronchitis, pericardial effusion, hypoxia, and pneumonitis [11]. In a study by Onishi et al [12] 257 patients with both operable and inoperable, early-stage disease and more peripheral tumors were treated using SBRT to total doses ranging from 18 Gy to 75 Gy in 1-22 fractions. An overall local control rate of 85.5% and a pulmonary complication rate of 2.4% were observed. A follow-up study from the same group reported a 71% 5-year survival rate if the biological effective dose (BED) was >100 Gy compared to 30% if the BED was <100 Gy, suggesting a dose response for SBRT [13].

RTOG<sup>®</sup> 0236 was a phase II multicenter trial of SBRT in patients with T1-2N0M0 NSCLC [14]. Patients were treated with 18 Gy per fraction for 3 fractions (54 Gy total). Fifty-nine patients were accrued, and the 3-year local control was 97.6%. Only one patient had local failure, three had recurrence within the lobe outside the field, and two patients experienced regional failure. Grade 3 adverse events occurred in 12.7% of patients and grade 4 adverse events in 3.6%.

In an effort to increase tumoricidal effect and maintain acceptable normal tissue toxicity, several trials have been carried out using hyperfractionation regimens. The RTOG<sup>®</sup> conducted a large randomized phase I/II trial with hyperfractionated radiotherapy with total doses of 60 Gy to 79.2 Gy. A statistically significant improvement in survival was seen with the 69.6 Gy dose for patients having favorable characteristics, including good performance status and absence of weight loss. This was tested against conventional external beam radiation therapy (EBRT) (60 Gy in 6 weeks), versus chemotherapy and radiation therapy (2 cycles of neoadjuvant cisplatin velban followed by conventional radiotherapy) by the RTOG<sup>®</sup> [15]. The hyperfractionated arm to 69.6 Gy without chemotherapy resulted in improved median survival and 3-year survival rates over the conventional fractionated radiotherapy, but the difference was not statistically significant.

In a follow-up three-armed phase III trial, two arms compared hyperfractionated radiation therapy to 69.6 Gy with daily radiation to 60 Gy and reported no significant difference with median survival of 12.3 months and 11.4 months respectively [15].

Another three-armed phase III trial, RTOG 9410, compared the use of hyperfractionated radiation therapy to a dose of 69.6 Gy with concurrent chemotherapy with two daily radiation regimens of sequential and concurrent chemoradiation and reported no significant improvement in outcome [16]. Based on these trials and the inherently difficulties in delivering twice daily radiation therapy, it is not routinely used.

Pigott and Saunders [17] reported their phase I/II results with the continuous hyperfractionated accelerated radiation treatment (CHART) regimen of 50.4 to 54 Gy in 1.4 to 1.5 Gy fractions given three times daily over 12 elapsed days. The median survival time (MST) was 12.8 months, and the 1-year survival rate was 52%. One-third of the patients died of local regional failure. It should be noted that many of the patients treated in this manner

were otherwise fit and could have tolerated combined-modality therapy. Due to the intensity and toxicity of treatment, hyperfractionation might not be suitable for patients with poor performance status.

In a retrospective study of 31 operable stage I patients, Slotman et al [18] reported an OS rate of 42% at 3 years with a regional recurrence rate of 6% (two patients). This study showed that noninvolved lymph nodes do not need to be included in the planning target volume and that primary radiotherapy is an effective option compared to surgery for early-stage NSCLC. Another retrospective review of 524 patients treated with primary radiation therapy for various stages of NSCLC demonstrated a failure rate of 9% at 2 years in elective nodal regions [1,19]. A randomized phase III trial from China comparing elective nodal irradiation (60-64 Gy) with involved-field irradiation (68-74 Gy) reported an improved response rate and local control rate in patients who received involved-field [20].

Conformal therapy using 3-dimensional (3D) radiation therapy also may be used to improve the therapeutic ratio (ie, reduce toxicity and give tumoricidal radiation doses). Several reports have now been published supporting the concept that 3D conformal therapy and dose volume histogram analysis is useful to predict pneumonitis [21-23]. Early reports also suggest a benefit to higher doses [24,25] and that mean tumor doses of  $\geq 74$ -75 Gy may result in better outcomes [24,26]. One fundamental difference between traditional radiation portals and most 3D trials has been the omission of elective nodal radiation. This has allowed significant dose escalation while maintaining acceptable tolerance. As demonstrated by Armstrong et al [27], 3D conformal radiation therapy (3D-CRT) has been shown to provide an adequate dose to the tumor volume while minimizing the total volume of both ipsilateral and contralateral lung that is irradiated. This dose distribution allows for both an improved local tumor control and a better side effect profile. Local failure is a leading cause of death in inoperable NSCLC, and therefore techniques for improving local control such as the use of 3D-CRT may lead to improved outcomes. (See [Variant 1](#).)

Hayman et al [28] conducted a prospective study in which 104 patients were separated into bins based on tumor volume, and dose escalation was attempted using 3D-CRT. The MTD was reached for the largest bin and was found to be 65.1 Gy. In the smallest bin (by volume), dose was safely escalated to 102.9 Gy without reaching MTD. For stage I/II patients, the 2-year OS rate was 49% with a MST of 20 months. In patients with stage III recurrent disease the 2-year OS rate was 36% with a MST of 16 months.

RTOG<sup>®</sup> 9311, a multi-institutional phase I-II dose-escalation study that evaluated acute and late toxicities in 177 patients with stage I-IIIB inoperable NSCLC, reported 2-year local control rates ranging from 50%-78% and OS rates were between 20%-50%. Doses were safely escalated to 83.8 Gy for patients with  $V_{20}$  values of <25% and 77.4 Gy for patients with  $V_{20}$  between 25%-36% [29]. At the Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center a phase I dose-escalation study established a MTD of 84 Gy, and improved OS was seen among patients who received at least 80 Gy [30].

More modern treatment planning techniques have also been incorporated for these patients. There has been some evidence that intensity-modulated radiation therapy (IMRT) can limit radiation-related toxicity as compared to 3D-CRT [31]. Additionally, proton beam radiation therapy, a type of particle treatment, has been investigated as a method to further reduce the toxicity of treatment in this patient population. A phase I/II clinical study at MD Anderson Cancer Center showed that proton therapy can deliver ablative dose to target while minimizing dose exposure to surrounding critical structures and achieved excellent local control and acceptable toxicity in this patient population [32].

Another phase II study reported tolerable side effects and promising OS when 74 Gy of proton therapy was given concurrently with chemotherapy in stage III NSCLC [33]. As compared with their historical data using 63 Gy photon therapy, it appears to be associated with reduced side effects [34].

### **Curative Intent Radiation Therapy Combined with Sequential Chemotherapy**

Curative intent radiation therapy combined with chemotherapy has been developed with the goal of addressing the significant problem of distant metastasis. The addition of chemotherapy has added toxicity to the regimens, however, and the discussion to follow is aimed at the relatively nontoxic or better tolerated regimens. This is certainly open to interpretation. When one begins to add chemotherapy to a radiation therapy regimen, the definition of “nonaggressive” becomes ambiguous. However, there may be some sequences and some agents in the combination of chemotherapy and radiation therapy that may result in relatively nontoxic and thus less aggressive therapy.

There have been numerous randomized controlled prospective trials comparing radiation therapy alone versus chemotherapy and radiation therapy [15,35-39]. The results are similar, with radiation therapy alone resulting in a 9-10-month MST compared to chemotherapy and radiation therapy resulting in a 12-14-month MST. Additionally the 2-year survival rates usually doubled from around 12%-15% to 21%-26% [15,35,36,39]. While increased toxicities have been reported for concurrent chemotherapy and radiation therapy, primarily involving myelosuppression, nausea, vomiting, and esophagitis, a sequential strategy, with radiation following chemotherapy will frequently mitigate toxicity while preserving some survival improvement over radiation therapy alone. Many of these trials, however, have had limited enrollment of patients with good performance status and absence of weight loss. Thus, these results may not be automatically applicable to patients outside the performance or functional categories of those enrolled.

The Cancer and Leukemia Group B (CALGB) 8433 study compared sequential chemoradiation therapy to radiotherapy in 155 patients with locally advanced NSCLC. Patients enrolled in the study had good performance status upon entry. Patients in the induction chemotherapy arm received a combination of cisplatin (100 mg/m<sup>2</sup> on days 1 and 29) and vinblastine (5mg/m<sup>2</sup> once weekly for 5 cycles). The dose of radiation was 60 Gy in 30 fractions in both arms and started on day 50 in the sequential chemoradiation arm. Initially, results showed that induction chemotherapy improved MST from 9.7 months to 13.8 months (P=0.0066). Three-year survival was found to be 23% in the sequential chemoradiation arm versus 11% in the radiation-alone arm. Upon 7-year follow-up the original results were confirmed, with the MST in the induction chemotherapy arm being 13.7 months versus 9.6 months in the radiation-alone arm (P=0.012) [35,40]. (See [Variant 2](#).) Recently, a phase III randomized study showed that concurrent radiotherapy and low dose carboplatin improved OS as compared with radiotherapy alone (22.4 months vs 16.9 months, P=0.0179) in patients older than 70 years with stage III NSCLC [41].

Recently the CALGB reported the results of trial 30106. In this trial, patients were stratified by their performance status, and poor-risk patients ( $\geq 5\%$  weight loss or ECOG  $\geq 2$ ) received 6600 cGy with concurrent gefitinib (250 mg). They had a very promising median survival time of 19 months [42]. A similar outcome with median OS of 15 to 19.5 months was reported by the NEAR trial [43] and Mayo Clinic [44] when radiotherapy (60-66 Gy) was given concurrently with cetuximab (250 to 400 mg/m<sup>2</sup>) in this patient population. Another trial, RTOG<sup>®</sup> 0213, used concurrent thoracic radiation therapy to 6600 cGy with concurrent celecoxib. The treatment was well tolerated, and the median OS time was 10 months [45]. These trials suggest that there may be good results with the use of biologic agents instead of cytotoxic chemotherapy.

RTOG<sup>®</sup> 0617 was a four-arm phase III randomized trial that evaluated 60 Gy versus 74 Gy concurrently delivered with carboplatin and paclitaxel chemotherapy (with or without cetuximab). In a planned interim survival analysis, it was determined that the 74 Gy dose arm would not be able to show improved survival compared to the 60 Gy dose arm, and that portion of the trial was closed. The portion of the trial evaluating the use of cetuximab completed accrual and is awaiting analysis [46].

In summary, in selected patients who are thought to be able to withstand the potential increased toxicity of adding chemotherapy or molecular target therapy to radiotherapy, this combination appears to be superior to radiation therapy alone.

Importantly, we cannot discount the vital role radiation therapy plays in this setting. Kubota et al [47] reported on a prospective randomized trial comparing chemotherapy alone to chemotherapy and radiation therapy. The 2-year survival rate was 36% with chemotherapy and radiation therapy compared to only 9% with chemotherapy alone.

### **Palliative Intent Therapy**

EBRT has played a major role in the palliative therapy of NSCLC [48]. The primary symptoms evaluated have included dyspnea, cough, hemoptysis, postobstructive pneumonia, collapse or atelectasis, and pain. Simpson et al [49] reported on 409 patients treated in a randomized prospective trial for the palliation of their symptoms. The comparison was between 40 Gy split course versus 30 Gy conventional, and 30 Gy in 10 fractions versus 40 Gy in 20 fractions. MST was 6 months, and there was no significant difference between the three groups. Approximately 60% of patients had their symptoms relieved.

In a series by the Medical Research Council (MRC), Macbeth et al [50] randomized 509 patients and compared outcomes of 17 Gy in 2 fractions versus 39 Gy in 13 fractions for palliative treatment. Results showed that 17 Gy in 2 fractions provided a more rapid palliation of symptoms, but the 39 Gy in 13 fractions yielded a longer MST

(9 months vs 7 months). A Canadian trial conducted by Bezzak et al [51] randomized 231 NSCLC patients to 20 Gy in 5 fractions or 10 Gy in a single fraction. Similar palliation was observed in the two arms, but the 20 Gy in the 5-fractions arm was observed to result in a longer MST (6 months vs 4.2 months). (See [Variant 3](#).)

To reduce the time spent in radiation therapy departments, hypofractionated regimens have been evaluated for palliation. Pirtoli et al [52] reported regimens of 42 to 44 Gy in 5.5 to 8.8 Gy fraction weekly doses. They reported objective remission in 49% of patients and an improvement in performance status in 42%, with an additional 42% having stable performance status. They reported increased side effects, however, in regimens using 8.8 Gy fractions. The MRC reported on a randomized trial comparing 17 Gy in 8.5 Gy fractions in one fraction per week versus 30 Gy in 10 fractions over 2 weeks [53]. There was no difference in survival or palliation of symptoms. In general, hemoptysis was palliated the best, with 81%-86% having relief of this symptom. Cough was relieved in 56%-65%, and chest pain was relieved in over half of the patients. Collins et al [54] reported on 18 Gy in 5 fractions versus 48 Gy with a split course and a 1-month break. Symptom responses were about 60%, and the average duration was 6 months. They found no difference in their two regimens. Teo et al [55] compared 45 Gy in 18 fractions over 4.5 weeks versus 31.2 Gy in 4 fractions over 4 weeks. The MST was 20 weeks for both arms; however, the more protracted course of 45 Gy in 4.5 weeks had a 71% palliation rate versus 54% in the other arm ( $P \leq .02$ ). Carroll et al [56] reported on the immediate or delayed use of radiation therapy for the palliation of symptoms. They found no significant difference. However, 64% required immediate radiation therapy, and an additional 19% required it later.

A systematic review of 13 randomized controlled trials involving 3,473 patients compared lower-dose and higher-dose radiation therapy. Higher-dose radiation did not improve specific symptoms (hemoptysis, cough, or chest pain), but there was a significant improvement in overall symptoms. There was also a significant improvement in OS at 1 year with higher-dose radiation. Higher-dose radiation was defined as a biologic equivalent dose of 35 Gy<sub>10</sub> which is approximately 30 Gy in 10 fractions [57].

Endobronchial brachytherapy has been used for palliation of intraluminal tumor symptoms, including hemoptysis, obstruction with resultant postobstructive pneumonia, atelectasis, dyspnea, and cough. All of these studies suffer from being nonrandomized, primarily retrospective reviews. Zajac et al [58] reported the use of remote afterloading high-dose-rate brachytherapy for airway obstruction. Eighty-two percent of the patients had improvement in their obstructive score, and the symptoms were palliated until death in 76% of the patients. (See [Variant 4](#).)

Chemotherapy has been compared to best supportive care (BSC) in many meta-analyses [59-62]. These meta-analyses have favored chemotherapy for palliation, and some have shown that it increases median survival time. Souquet et al [62] reported a decreased mortality at 6 months, as did Grilli et al [60]. However, Grilli et al reported that the extension of life was only 6 weeks. The British Collaborative Group showed a 27% reduction in the risk of death and a 10% improvement in survival in 1 year [59]. Cullen et al [63] compared platinum-based chemotherapy with mitomycin, ifosfamide, and cisplatin (MIP) and BSC versus BSC alone in a randomized trial of 351 patients with stage IV NSCLC. Results from this study showed that the MIP arm yielded a statistically significant increase in MST (6.7 months vs 4.8 months) compared to the BSC arm ( $P=0.03$ ). As reviewed by Sociniski et al [64], improvement in symptoms and quality of life (QoL) is seen with most platinum-based chemotherapeutic regimens in stage IV NSCLC. In a phase III prospective trial in treatment-naïve patients with advanced NSCLC, a combination of paclitaxel and carboplatin proved superior to single-agent paclitaxel with a doubling of median survival time (4.8 vs 2.4 months) in a PS 2 subset [65]. These data and other similar trials support the notion that systemic therapy can lead to improved outcome as well as QoL in advanced NSCLC patients with compromised PS. This benefit is likely to be greatest in those who are symptomatic from their cancer rather than from a comorbid condition. (See [Variant 5](#).)

As demonstrated by Lilenbaum et al [65], results appear a bit more promising in the context of third-generation cytotoxics. In a prospective trial, Roszkowski et al [66] randomized 207 patients to BSC versus docetaxel. Using The European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer (EORTC) Core Quality of Life Questionnaire (QLQ-C30), they reported a significant improvement in pain, dyspnea, and emotional functioning in the chemotherapy arm. Ranson et al [67] randomized 157 patients to paclitaxel versus BSC and found an improved MST in the paclitaxel arm (6.8 months vs 4.8 months,  $P=0.037$ ). A trial by ECOG showed that combining platinum-based chemotherapy with newer agents such as paclitaxel improves survival over the older regimens [68]. And work from the UK showed that a modern regimen consisting of gemcitabine and carboplatin offers longer survival time than MIP [69].

Second-line chemotherapy has also been shown to improve survival time when compared to BSC in those patients whose tumors have progressed after first-line therapy. Shepherd et al [70] randomized 103 patients with stage IIIB/IV disease whose disease had progressed either during or after platinum-based chemotherapy to either docetaxel or BSC and demonstrated a significant survival benefit in the docetaxel arm, with a MST of 7.5 months versus 4.6 months in the BSC arm (P=0.010). The 1-year survival rate was 37% in the docetaxel arm versus 11% in the BSC arm (P=0.003). Fosella et al [71] reported an advantage for docetaxel over vinorelbine/ifosfamide as second-line treatment for patients previously treated with platinum-based chemotherapy, especially in controlling symptoms of fatigue and total symptomatic distress. Tumor response was correlated to improved QoL regardless of the dose of docetaxel [71].

Targeted agents such as Tarceva (erlotinib), Iressa (gefitinib), and Avastin (bevacizumab) have been implemented in patients with advanced NSCLC [72-74]. Erlotinib demonstrated a survival benefit compared to placebo controls in the second- and third-line setting in unselected patients with advanced NSCLC, many of whom were PS 2 or 3; it also yielded a delay in symptomatic deterioration [75]. Bevacizumab in combination with standard chemotherapy (carboplatin and paclitaxel) proved superior to chemotherapy alone with a modest but statistically significant survival benefit in nonsquamous NSCLC and acceptable toxicity in good PS patients [76]. Finally, both erlotinib and pemetrexed have yielded survival benefits compared to placebo controls in the maintenance setting in patients who have responded or stabilized after 4 cycles of standard frontline platinum-based chemotherapy [77-79].

Aggressive palliative care also has an important role in the care of patients with metastatic disease. A randomized trial demonstrated that patients who received early palliative care in addition to standard oncologic care had improved QoL, less depression and anxiety, and improved survival, even though these patients tended to have less aggressive end-of-life care [80]. In short, chemotherapy and proactive, goal-directed noncytotoxic palliation such as focal radiation can each lead to prolonged survival and enhanced symptomatic control.

## Summary

The treatment of patients with NSCLC with a poor-performance status remains a clinical challenge. The ACR Appropriateness Criteria Panel recommends:

- For early-stage disease, since surgical resection will be unlikely in this patient population, radiation therapy alone, preferably with modern techniques, such as SBRT, should be used.
- For patients with locally advanced stage disease (stage IIIA and IIIB) who are unable to tolerate surgery, concurrent chemoradiation therapy is the standard of care. If patients are unable to tolerate this treatment, either sequential chemoradiation or radiation therapy alone can be used.
- The dose of radiation therapy should be approximately 60 Gy for locally advanced disease.
- For patients with metastatic (Stage IV) disease, chemotherapy is the standard of care limited with palliative radiation therapy to a dose of approximately 30 Gy limited to symptomatic sites.
- Endobronchial brachytherapy is useful for patients with symptomatic endobronchial tumors.

## Supporting Documents

- [ACR Appropriateness Criteria® Overview](#)
- [Evidence Table](#)

## References

1. Boring CC, Squires TS, Tong T. Cancer statistics, 1993. *CA Cancer J Clin*. 1993;43(1):7-26.
2. Perez CA, Stanley K, Grundy G, et al. Impact of irradiation technique and tumor extent in tumor control and survival of patients with unresectable non-oat cell carcinoma of the lung: report by the Radiation Therapy Oncology Group. *Cancer*. 1982;50(6):1091-1099.
3. Haffty BG, Goldberg NB, Gerstley J, Fischer DB, Peschel RE. Results of radical radiation therapy in clinical stage I, technically operable non-small cell lung cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 1988;15(1):69-73.
4. Hayakawa K, Mitsuhashi N, Saito Y, et al. Limited field irradiation for medically inoperable patients with peripheral stage I non-small cell lung cancer. *Lung Cancer*. 1999;26(3):137-142.
5. Kaskowitz L, Graham MV, Emami B, Halverson KJ, Rush C. Radiation therapy alone for stage I non-small cell lung cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 1993;27(3):517-523.
6. Noordijk EM, vd Poest Clement E, Hermans J, Wever AM, Leer JW. Radiotherapy as an alternative to surgery in elderly patients with resectable lung cancer. *Radiother Oncol*. 1988;13(2):83-89.

7. Rosenthal SA, Curran WJ, Jr., Herbert SH, et al. Clinical stage II non-small cell lung cancer treated with radiation therapy alone. The significance of clinically staged ipsilateral hilar adenopathy (N1 disease). *Cancer*. 1992;70(10):2410-2417.
8. Sandler HM, Curran WJ, Jr., Turrisi AT, 3rd. The influence of tumor size and pre-treatment staging on outcome following radiation therapy alone for stage I non-small cell lung cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 1990;19(1):9-13.
9. Zhang HX, Yin WB, Zhang LJ, et al. Curative radiotherapy of early operable non-small cell lung cancer. *Radiother Oncol*. 1989;14(2):89-94.
10. Hayakawa K, Mitsuhashi N, Nakajima N, et al. Radiation therapy for Stage I–III epidermoid carcinoma of the lung. *Lung Cancer*. 1992;8(3-4):213-223.
11. McGarry RC, Papiez L, Williams M, Whitford T, Timmerman RD. Stereotactic body radiation therapy of early-stage non-small-cell lung carcinoma: phase I study. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2005;63(4):1010-1015.
12. Onishi H, Araki T, Shirato H, et al. Stereotactic hypofractionated high-dose irradiation for stage I nonsmall cell lung carcinoma: clinical outcomes in 245 subjects in a Japanese multiinstitutional study. *Cancer*. 2004;101(7):1623-1631.
13. Onishi H, Shirato H, Nagata Y, et al. Hypofractionated stereotactic radiotherapy (HypoFXSRT) for stage I non-small cell lung cancer: updated results of 257 patients in a Japanese multi-institutional study. *J Thorac Oncol*. 2007;2(7 Suppl 3):S94-100.
14. Timmerman R, Paulus R, Galvin J, et al. Stereotactic body radiation therapy for inoperable early stage lung cancer. *JAMA*. 2010;303(11):1070-1076.
15. Sause WT, Scott C, Taylor S, et al. Radiation Therapy Oncology Group (RTOG) 88-08 and Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group (ECOG) 4588: preliminary results of a phase III trial in regionally advanced, unresectable non-small-cell lung cancer. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 1995;87(3):198-205.
16. Curran WJ, Jr., Paulus R, Langer CJ, et al. Sequential vs. concurrent chemoradiation for stage III non-small cell lung cancer: randomized phase III trial RTOG 9410. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2011;103(19):1452-1460.
17. Pigott KH, Saunders MI. The long-term outcome after radical radiotherapy for advanced localized non-small cell carcinoma of the lung. *Clin Oncol (R Coll Radiol)*. 1993;5(6):350-354.
18. Slotman BJ, Antonisse IE, Njo KH. Limited field irradiation in early stage (T1-2N0) non-small cell lung cancer. *Radiother Oncol*. 1996;41(1):41-44.
19. Rosenzweig KE, Sura S, Jackson A, Yorke E. Involved-field radiation therapy for inoperable non small-cell lung cancer. *J Clin Oncol*. 2007;25(35):5557-5561.
20. Yuan S, Sun X, Li M, et al. A randomized study of involved-field irradiation versus elective nodal irradiation in combination with concurrent chemotherapy for inoperable stage III nonsmall cell lung cancer. *Am J Clin Oncol*. 2007;30(3):239-244.
21. Graham MV, Purdy JA, Emami B, et al. Clinical dose-volume histogram analysis for pneumonitis after 3D treatment for non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC). *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 1999;45(2):323-329.
22. Marks LB, Munley MT, Bentel GC, et al. Physical and biological predictors of changes in whole-lung function following thoracic irradiation. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 1997;39(3):563-570.
23. Martel MK, Ten Haken RK, Hazuka MB, Turrisi AT, Fraass BA, Lichter AS. Dose-volume histogram and 3-D treatment planning evaluation of patients with pneumonitis. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 1994;28(3):575-581.
24. Graham MV, Purdy JA, Harms W, Bosch W, Wasserman TH, Perez CA. Survival and prognostic factors of non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) patients treated with definitive three-dimensional (3D) radiation therapy. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 1998;42(suppl 1):83-84.
25. Robertson JM, Ten Haken RK, Hazuka MB, et al. Dose escalation for non-small cell lung cancer using conformal radiation therapy. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 1997;37(5):1079-1085.
26. Martel MK, Ten Haken RK, Hazuka MB, et al. Estimation of tumor control probability model parameters from 3-D dose distributions of non-small cell lung cancer patients. *Lung Cancer*. 1999;24(1):31-37.
27. Armstrong JG, Burman C, Leibel S, et al. Three-dimensional conformal radiation therapy may improve the therapeutic ratio of high dose radiation therapy for lung cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 1993;26(4):685-689.
28. Hayman JA, Martel MK, Ten Haken RK, et al. Dose escalation in non-small-cell lung cancer using three-dimensional conformal radiation therapy: update of a phase I trial. *J Clin Oncol*. 2001;19(1):127-136.

29. Bradley J, Graham MV, Winter K, et al. Toxicity and outcome results of RTOG 9311: a phase I-II dose-escalation study using three-dimensional conformal radiotherapy in patients with inoperable non-small-cell lung carcinoma. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2005;61(2):318-328.
30. Rosenzweig KE, Fox JL, Yorke E, et al. Results of a phase I dose-escalation study using three-dimensional conformal radiotherapy in the treatment of inoperable nonsmall cell lung carcinoma. *Cancer*. 2005;103(10):2118-2127.
31. Yom SS, Liao Z, Liu HH, et al. Initial evaluation of treatment-related pneumonitis in advanced-stage non-small-cell lung cancer patients treated with concurrent chemotherapy and intensity-modulated radiotherapy. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2007;68(1):94-102.
32. Chang JY, Komaki R, Wen HY, et al. Toxicity and patterns of failure of adaptive/ablative proton therapy for early-stage, medically inoperable non-small cell lung cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2011;80(5):1350-1357.
33. Chang JY, Komaki R, Lu C, et al. Phase 2 study of high-dose proton therapy with concurrent chemotherapy for unresectable stage III nonsmall cell lung cancer. *Cancer*. 2011;117(20):4707-4713.
34. Sejpal S, Komaki R, Tsao A, et al. Early findings on toxicity of proton beam therapy with concurrent chemotherapy for nonsmall cell lung cancer. *Cancer*. 2011;117(13):3004-3013.
35. Dillman RO, Seagren SL, Propert KJ, et al. A randomized trial of induction chemotherapy plus high-dose radiation versus radiation alone in stage III non-small-cell lung cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 1990;323(14):940-945.
36. Le Chevalier T, Arriagada R, Quoix E, et al. Radiotherapy alone versus combined chemotherapy and radiotherapy in unresectable non-small cell lung carcinoma. *Lung Cancer*. 1994;10 Suppl 1:S239-244.
37. Mattson K, Holsti LR, Holsti P, et al. Inoperable non-small cell lung cancer: radiation with or without chemotherapy. *Eur J Cancer Clin Oncol*. 1988;24(3):477-482.
38. Trovo MG, Zanelli GD, Minatel E, Franchin G, Gobitti C. Radiotherapy versus radiotherapy enhanced by cisplatin in stage III non-small cell lung cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 1992;24(3):573-574.
39. Wolf M, Hans K, Becker H, et al. Radiotherapy alone versus chemotherapy with ifosfamide/vindesine followed by radiotherapy in unresectable locally advanced non-small cell lung cancer. *Semin Oncol*. 1994;21(3 Suppl 4):42-47.
40. Dillman RO, Herndon J, Seagren SL, Eaton WL, Jr., Green MR. Improved survival in stage III non-small-cell lung cancer: seven-year follow-up of cancer and leukemia group B (CALGB) 8433 trial. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 1996;88(17):1210-1215.
41. Atagi S, Kawahara M, Yokoyama A, et al. Thoracic radiotherapy with or without daily low-dose carboplatin in elderly patients with non-small-cell lung cancer: a randomised, controlled, phase 3 trial by the Japan Clinical Oncology Group (JCOG0301). *Lancet Oncol*. 2012;13(7):671-678.
42. Ready N, Janne PA, Bogart J, et al. Chemoradiotherapy and gefitinib in stage III non-small cell lung cancer with epidermal growth factor receptor and KRAS mutation analysis: cancer and leukemia group B (CALEB) 30106, a CALGB-stratified phase II trial. *J Thorac Oncol*. 2010;5(9):1382-1390.
43. Jensen AD, Munter MW, Bischoff HG, et al. Combined treatment of nonsmall cell lung cancer NSCLC stage III with intensity-modulated RT radiotherapy and cetuximab: the NEAR trial. *Cancer*. 2011;117(13):2986-2994.
44. Jatoi A, Schild SE, Foster N, et al. A phase II study of cetuximab and radiation in elderly and/or poor performance status patients with locally advanced non-small-cell lung cancer (N0422). *Ann Oncol*. 2010;21(10):2040-2044.
45. Gore E, Bae K, Langer C, et al. Phase I/II trial of a COX-2 inhibitor with limited field radiation for intermediate prognosis patients who have locally advanced non-small-cell lung cancer: radiation therapy oncology group 0213. *Clin Lung Cancer*. 2011;12(2):125-130.
46. A Randomized Phase III Comparison of Standard- Dose (60 Gy) Versus Highdose (74 Gy) Conformal Radiotherapy with Concurrent and Consolidation Carboplatin/Paclitaxel +/- Cetuximab (IND #103444) in Patients with Stage IIIA/IIIB Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer. 2011; Available at: <http://www.rtog.org/ClinicalTrials/ProtocolTable/StudyDetails.aspx?study=0617>. Accessed 4 January 2012.
47. Kubota K, Furuse K, Kawahara M, et al. Role of radiotherapy in combined modality treatment of locally advanced non-small-cell lung cancer. *J Clin Oncol*. 1994;12(8):1547-1552.
48. Rodrigues G, Videtic GMM, Sur R, et al. Palliative thoracic radiotherapy in lung cancer: An American Society for Radiation Oncology evidence-based clinical practice guideline. *Practical Radiation Oncology*. 2011;1(2):60-71.

49. Simpson JR, Francis ME, Perez-Tamayo R, Marks RD, Rao DV. Palliative radiotherapy for inoperable carcinoma of the lung: final report of a RTOG multi-institutional trial. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 1985;11(4):751-758.
50. Macbeth FR, Bolger JJ, Hopwood P, et al. Randomized trial of palliative two-fraction versus more intensive 13-fraction radiotherapy for patients with inoperable non-small cell lung cancer and good performance status. Medical Research Council Lung Cancer Working Party. *Clin Oncol (R Coll Radiol)*. 1996;8(3):167-175.
51. Bezjak A, Dixon P, Brundage M, et al. Randomized phase III trial of single versus fractionated thoracic radiation in the palliation of patients with lung cancer (NCIC CTG SC.15). *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2002;54(3):719-728.
52. Pirtoli L, Bindi M, Bellezza A, Pepi F, Tucci E. Unfavorable experience with hypofractionated radiotherapy in unresectable lung cancer. *Tumori*. 1992;78(5):305-310.
53. Inoperable non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC): a Medical Research Council randomised trial of palliative radiotherapy with two fractions or ten fractions. Report to the Medical Research Council by its Lung Cancer Working Party. *Br J Cancer*. 1991;63(2):265-270.
54. Collins TM, Ash DV, Close HJ, Thorogood J. An evaluation of the palliative role of radiotherapy in inoperable carcinoma of the bronchus. *Clin Radiol*. 1988;39(3):284-286.
55. Teo P, Tai TH, Choy D, Tsui KH. A randomized study on palliative radiation therapy for inoperable non small cell carcinoma of the lung. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 1988;14(5):867-871.
56. Carroll M, Morgan SA, Yarnold JR, Hill JM, Wright NM. Prospective evaluation of a watch policy in patients with inoperable non-small cell lung cancer. *Eur J Cancer Clin Oncol*. 1986;22(11):1353-1356.
57. Fairchild A, Harris K, Barnes E, et al. Palliative thoracic radiotherapy for lung cancer: a systematic review. *J Clin Oncol*. 2008;26(24):4001-4011.
58. Zajac AJ, Kohn ML, Heiser D, Peters JW. High-dose-rate intraluminal brachytherapy in the treatment of endobronchial malignancy. Work in progress. *Radiology*. 1993;187(2):571-575.
59. Chemotherapy in non-small cell lung cancer: a meta-analysis using updated data on individual patients from 52 randomised clinical trials. Non-small Cell Lung Cancer Collaborative Group. *BMJ*. 1995;311(7010):899-909.
60. Grilli R, Oxman AD, Julian JA. Chemotherapy for advanced non-small-cell lung cancer: how much benefit is enough? *J Clin Oncol*. 1993;11(10):1866-1872.
61. Marino P, Pampallona S, Preatoni A, Cantoni A, Invernizzi F. Chemotherapy vs supportive care in advanced non-small-cell lung cancer. Results of a meta-analysis of the literature. *Chest*. 1994;106(3):861-865.
62. Souquet PJ, Chauvin F, Boissel JP, et al. Polychemotherapy in advanced non small cell lung cancer: a meta-analysis. *Lancet*. 1993;342(8862):19-21.
63. Cullen MH, Billingham LJ, Woodroffe CM, et al. Mitomycin, ifosfamide, and cisplatin in unresectable non-small-cell lung cancer: effects on survival and quality of life. *J Clin Oncol*. 1999;17(10):3188-3194.
64. Socinski MA, Morris DE, Masters GA, Lilenbaum R. Chemotherapeutic management of stage IV non-small cell lung cancer. *Chest*. 2003;123(1 Suppl):226S-243S.
65. Lilenbaum R, Villafior VM, Langer C, et al. Single-agent versus combination chemotherapy in patients with advanced non-small cell lung cancer and a performance status of 2: prognostic factors and treatment selection based on two large randomized clinical trials. *J Thorac Oncol*. 2009;4(7):869-874.
66. Roszkowski K, Pluzanska A, Krzakowski M, et al. A multicenter, randomized, phase III study of docetaxel plus best supportive care versus best supportive care in chemotherapy-naive patients with metastatic or non-resectable localized non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC). *Lung Cancer*. 2000;27(3):145-157.
67. Ranson M, Davidson N, Nicolson M, et al. Randomized trial of paclitaxel plus supportive care versus supportive care for patients with advanced non-small-cell lung cancer. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2000;92(13):1074-1080.
68. Bonomi P, Kim K, Fairclough D, et al. Comparison of survival and quality of life in advanced non-small-cell lung cancer patients treated with two dose levels of paclitaxel combined with cisplatin versus etoposide with cisplatin: results of an Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group trial. *J Clin Oncol*. 2000;18(3):623-631.
69. Rudd RM, Gower NH, Spiro SG, et al. Gemcitabine plus carboplatin versus mitomycin, ifosfamide, and cisplatin in patients with stage IIIB or IV non-small-cell lung cancer: a phase III randomized study of the London Lung Cancer Group. *J Clin Oncol*. 2005;23(1):142-153.
70. Shepherd FA, Dancey J, Ramlau R, et al. Prospective randomized trial of docetaxel versus best supportive care in patients with non-small-cell lung cancer previously treated with platinum-based chemotherapy. *J Clin Oncol*. 2000;18(10):2095-2103.

71. Fossella FV, DeVore R, Kerr RN, et al. Randomized phase III trial of docetaxel versus vinorelbine or ifosfamide in patients with advanced non-small-cell lung cancer previously treated with platinum-containing chemotherapy regimens. The TAX 320 Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer Study Group. *J Clin Oncol*. 2000;18(12):2354-2362.
72. Douillard JY, Giaccone G, Horai T, et al. Improvement in disease-related symptoms and quality of life in patients with advanced non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC) treated with ZD1839 ('Iressa') (IDEAL 1). *Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol*. 2002;21(pt 1):299a.
73. Johnson DH, Fehrenbacher L, Novotny WF, et al. Randomized phase II trial comparing bevacizumab plus carboplatin and paclitaxel with carboplatin and paclitaxel alone in previously untreated locally advanced or metastatic non-small-cell lung cancer. *J Clin Oncol*. 2004;22(11):2184-2191.
74. Natale RR, Skarin AT, Maddox AM, et al. Improvement in symptoms and quality of life for advanced non-small-cell lung cancer patients receiving ZD1839 ('Iressa') (IDEAL 2). *Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol*. 2002;21(pt 1):292a.
75. Shepherd FA, Rodrigues Pereira J, Ciuleanu T, et al. Erlotinib in previously treated non-small-cell lung cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2005;353(2):123-132.
76. Sandler A, Gray R, Perry MC, et al. Paclitaxel-carboplatin alone or with bevacizumab for non-small-cell lung cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2006;355(24):2542-2550.
77. Cappuzzo F, Ciuleanu T, Stelmakh L, et al. Erlotinib as maintenance treatment in advanced non-small-cell lung cancer: a multicentre, randomised, placebo-controlled phase 3 study. *Lancet Oncol*. 2010;11(6):521-529.
78. Cappuzzo F, Ciuleanu T, Stelmakh L, et al. SATURN: A double-blind, randomized, phase III study of maintenance erlotinib versus placebo following nonprogression with first-line platinum-based chemotherapy in patients with advanced NSCLC. *J Clin Oncol*. 2009;27(15s):(suppl; abstr 8001).
79. Ciuleanu T, Brodowicz T, Zielinski C, et al. Maintenance pemetrexed plus best supportive care versus placebo plus best supportive care for non-small-cell lung cancer: a randomised, double-blind, phase 3 study. *Lancet*. 2009;374(9699):1432-1440.
80. Temel JS, Greer JA, Muzikansky A, et al. Early palliative care for patients with metastatic non-small-cell lung cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2010;363(8):733-742.

The ACR Committee on Appropriateness Criteria and its expert panels have developed criteria for determining appropriate imaging examinations for diagnosis and treatment of specified medical condition(s). These criteria are intended to guide radiologists, radiation oncologists and referring physicians in making decisions regarding radiologic imaging and treatment. Generally, the complexity and severity of a patient's clinical condition should dictate the selection of appropriate imaging procedures or treatments. Only those examinations generally used for evaluation of the patient's condition are ranked. Other imaging studies necessary to evaluate other co-existent diseases or other medical consequences of this condition are not considered in this document. The availability of equipment or personnel may influence the selection of appropriate imaging procedures or treatments. Imaging techniques classified as investigational by the FDA have not been considered in developing these criteria; however, study of new equipment and applications should be encouraged. The ultimate decision regarding the appropriateness of any specific radiologic examination or treatment must be made by the referring physician and radiologist in light of all the circumstances presented in an individual examination.

**Clinical Condition:** Nonsurgical Treatment for Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer: Poor Performance Status or Palliative Intent

**Variant 1:** 66-year-old man with stage IIIB squamous cell carcinoma. Bulky mediastinal and supraclavicular disease. Twenty-five-pound weight loss and KPS 50.

Treatment	Rating	Comments
EBRT alone	8	
Targeted/biologic therapy (ie, erlotinib) alone	4	
Chemotherapy alone	3	
Chemotherapy + RT	2	
Best supportive care alone	2	
Endobronchial brachytherapy alone	1	
External beam + brachytherapy	1	
<b>Timing of Chemotherapy Relative to RT-if given</b>		
Concurrent chemo/RT	1	
Concurrent chemo/RT followed by chemo	1	
Chemo followed by concurrent chemo/RT	1	
Chemo followed by RT	4	
Chemo followed by RT, followed by more chemo	3	
RT followed by chemo	7	Assume performance status improves.
<b>Local Regional Radiation Therapy (RT alone)</b>		
17 Gy/8.5 Gy fractions/1x week	2	
20-24 Gy/3-5 fractions	2	
30 Gy/10 fractions	5	
40 Gy/20 fractions	5	
45-50 Gy/25 fractions	5	
60-70 Gy/6-7½ weeks or biological equivalent	9	
74 Gy/7½ -8 weeks	3	
<b>Treatment Planning Technique</b>		
3D conformal RT	9	
2D radiation (AP/PA and/or off-cord obliques)	5	
SBRT	1	
Proton therapy	1	
<a href="#">IMRT</a>	1	
<b><u>Rating Scale:</u> 1,2,3 Usually not appropriate; 4,5,6 May be appropriate; 7,8,9 Usually appropriate</b>		

**Clinical Condition:** Nonsurgical Treatment for Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer: Poor Performance Status or Palliative Intent

**Variant 2:** 76-year-old man with stage IIIB squamous cell carcinoma. Bulky mediastinal and supraclavicular disease. No weight loss and KPS 80. He received induction chemotherapy consisting of carboplatin and paclitaxel. Reimaging shows mediastinal tumor has increased in size 30% and supraclavicular node is stable.

Treatment	Rating	Comments
Chemotherapy + RT	7	
EBRT alone	5	
Chemotherapy alone	2	
Endobronchial brachytherapy alone	1	
External beam + brachytherapy	1	
Best supportive care alone	1	
<b>Timing of Chemotherapy Relative to RT-if given (following induction chemo)</b>		
Concurrent chemo/RT	8	
Concurrent chemo/RT followed by chemo	5	
RT alone	2	
RT followed by chemo	2	
<b>Local Regional Radiation Therapy (concurrent chemo/RT)</b>		
17 Gy/8.5 Gy fractions/1x week	1	
20-24 Gy/3-5 fractions	1	
30 Gy/10 fractions	1	
40 Gy/20 fractions	1	
45-50 Gy/25 fractions	1	
60-70 Gy/6-7½ weeks or biological equivalent	9	
74 Gy/7½ -8 weeks	3	
<b>Local Regional Radiation Therapy (RT alone)</b>		
17 Gy/8.5 Gy fractions/1x week	1	
20-24 Gy/3-5 fractions	1	
30 Gy/10 fractions	1	
40 Gy/20 fractions	1	
40 Gy/10 fractions split course	1	
45-50 Gy/25 fractions	1	
54 Gy/1.5 Gy TID/12 days	5	
60-70 Gy/6-7½ weeks or biological equivalent	9	
74 Gy/7½ -8 weeks	5	
<b>Treatment Planning Technique</b>		
3D conformal RT	9	
2D radiation (AP/PA and/or off-cord obliques)	2	
SBRT	1	
Proton therapy	No Consensus	Promising strategy requiring more clinical studies.
<a href="#">IMRT</a>	5	Tumor motion strategy required in addition to strict dosimetric criteria.
<b>Rating Scale:</b> 1,2,3 Usually not appropriate; 4,5,6 May be appropriate; 7,8,9 Usually appropriate		

**Clinical Condition:** Nonsurgical Treatment for Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer: Poor Performance Status or Palliative Intent

**Variant 3:** 55-year-old man with stage IV NSCLC, metastasis to bone and soft tissue. Dyspnea with symptomatic postobstructive pneumonia, fever, and central obstructing lesion (primarily extrinsic compression, 4-5 cm by CT). KPS 80.

Treatment	Rating	Comments
Chemotherapy + RT	8	
EBRT alone	1	
Endobronchial brachytherapy alone	1	
External beam + brachytherapy	1	
Chemotherapy alone	3	
Best supportive care alone	1	
<b>Timing of Chemotherapy Relative to RT-if given</b>		
Concurrent chemo/RT	1	
Concurrent chemo/RT followed by chemo	1	
Chemo followed by concurrent chemo/RT	1	
Chemo followed by RT	3	
Chemo followed by RT, followed by more chemo	4	
RT followed by chemo	8	
<b>Local Regional Radiation Therapy (RT alone)</b>		
17 Gy/8.5 Gy fractions/1x week	4	
20-24 Gy/3-5 fractions	4	
30 Gy/10 fractions	8	
40 Gy/20 fractions	3	
45-50 Gy/25 fractions	1	
60-70 Gy/6-7½ weeks or biological equivalent	1	
74 Gy/7½ -8 weeks	1	
<b>Treatment Planning Technique</b>		
3D conformal RT	7	
2D radiation (AP/PA and/or off-cord obliques)	8	
SBRT	1	
Proton therapy	1	
<a href="#">IMRT</a>	1	
<b>Rating Scale:</b> 1,2,3 Usually not appropriate; 4,5,6 May be appropriate; 7,8,9 Usually appropriate		

**Clinical Condition:** Nonsurgical Treatment for Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer: Poor Performance Status or Palliative Intent

**Variant 4:** 68-year-old man with recurrent mediastinal and primary NSCLC after definitive radiation therapy 8 months ago (66 Gy/33 fractions). Now with hemoptysis, dyspnea and cough, and endobronchial tumor in LUL.

Treatment	Rating	Comments
Endobronchial brachytherapy alone	8	
Chemotherapy + RT	5	
EBRT alone	4	
External beam + brachytherapy	4	Limited field.
Chemotherapy alone	1	
Best supportive care alone	1	
<b>Timing of Chemotherapy Relative to RT-if given</b>		
Concurrent chemo/RT	1	
Concurrent chemo/RT followed by chemo	1	
Chemo followed by concurrent chemo/RT	1	
Chemo followed by RT	1	
Chemo followed by RT, followed by more chemo	1	
RT followed by chemo	8	
<b>Local Regional Radiation Therapy (External Beam RT alone)</b>		
17 Gy/8.5 Gy fractions/1x week	1	
20-24 Gy/3-5 fractions	1	
30 Gy/10 fractions	3	
40 Gy/20 fractions	4	
45-50 Gy/25 fractions	1	
60-70 Gy/6-7½ weeks or biological equivalent	1	
74 Gy/7½ -8 weeks	1	
<b>Treatment Planning Technique</b>		
3D conformal RT	8	
2D radiation (AP/PA and/or off-cord obliques)	1	
SBRT	4	With more conventional fractionation.
Proton therapy	No Consensus	Promising strategy requiring more clinical studies.
<a href="#">IMRT</a>	5	Tumor motion strategy required in addition to strict dosimetric criteria.
<b>Rating Scale:</b> 1,2,3 Usually not appropriate; 4,5,6 May be appropriate; 7,8,9 Usually appropriate		

**Clinical Condition:** Nonsurgical Treatment for Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer: Poor Performance Status or Palliative Intent

**Variant 5:** 62-year-old woman with widely spread stage IV NSCLC, KPS 80. No painful metastasis. No obstructive symptoms.

Treatment	Rating	Comments
Chemotherapy alone	9	
Chemotherapy + RT	1	
EBRT alone	1	
Endobronchial brachytherapy alone	1	
External beam + brachytherapy	1	
Proton therapy	1	
Best supportive care alone	1	
<b><u>Rating Scale:</u></b> 1,2,3 Usually not appropriate; 4,5,6 May be appropriate; 7,8,9 Usually appropriate		