- 8. Arcamone F. Antitumor anthracyclines: recent developments. *Med Res Rev* 1984, 4, 153–188.
- Lipshutz SE, Colan SD, Gelber RD, Perez-Atayde AR, Sallan SE, Sanders SP. Late cardiac effects of doxorubicin therapy for acute lymphoblastic leukemia in childhood. N Engl J Med 1991, 324, 808-815.
- Davies KJA, Doroshow JH. Redox cycling of anthracyclines by cardiac mitochondria. J Biol Chem 1986, 261, 3060-3067.
- Doroshow JH, Davies KJA. Redox cycling of anthracyclines by cardiac mitochondria. J Biol Chem 1986, 261, 3068-3074.
- 12. Burton KP, McCord JM, Ghai G. Myocardial alterations due to free-radical generation. Am J Physiol 1984, 246, H776-H783.
- McCord JM. Oxygen-derived free radicals in postischemic tissue injury. N Engl J Med 1985, 312, 159-163.
- Billingham ME, Bristow MR. Evaluation of anthracycline cardiotoxicity: Predictive ability and functional correlation of endomyocardial biopsy. Cancer Treat Symp 1984, 3, 71-76.
- Speyer JL, Green MD, Kramer E, et al. Protective effect of the bispiperrazineedione ICRF-187 against doxorubicin-induced cardiac toxicity in women with advanced breast cancer. N Engl J Med 1988, 319, 745-752.
- Keizer HG, Pinedo HM, Schuurhuis GJ, Joenje H. Doxorubicin: a critical review of free radical-dependant mechanisms of cytotoxicity. *Pharmacol Ther* 1990, 47, 219–231.
- Pharmacol Ther 1990, 47, 219-231.

 17. Weiss RB, Sarosy G, Clagett-Carr K, Russo M, Leyland-Jones B. Anthracycline analogs: the past, present, and future. Cancer Chemother Pharmacol 1986, 18, 185-197.
- Torti FM, Bristow MM, Lum BL, et al. Cardiotoxicity of epirubicin and doxorubicin: assessment by endomyocardial biopsy. Cancer Res 1986, 46, 3722–3727.

- Mross K, Maessen P, van der Vijgh WJF, Gall H, Boven E, Pinedo HM. Pharmacokinetics and metabolism of epidoxorubicin and doxorubicin in humans. J Clin Oncol 1988, 6, 517-526.
- Cersosimo RJ, Hong WK. Epirubicin: a review of the pharmacology, clinical activity, and adverse effects of an anthracycline analogue. J Clin Oncol 1986, 4, 425–439.
- De Vita V. The problem of resistance; keynote address. In: Mihich E, Cibbey J, eds. Drug Resistance: Mechanisms and Reversal. Roma 1990, 7-27.
- Pastan I, Gottesman M. Multiple-drug resistance in human cancer. N Engl J Med 1987, 316, 1388-1393.
- Coley HM, Twentyman PR, Workman P. Identification of anthracyclines and related agents that retain preferential activity over adriamycin in multidrug-resistant cell lines, and further resistance modification by verapamil and cyclosporin. Cancer Chemother Pharmacol 1989, 24, 284-290.
- Mross K, Mayer U, Langenbuch T, Hamm K, Burk K, Hossfeld DK. Toxicity, Pharmacokinetics and metabolism of iododoxorubicin in cancer patients. Eur J Cancer 1990, 26, 1156-1162.
- Acton EM, Tong GL, Mosher CW, Wolgemuth RL. Intensely potent morpholinyl anthracyclines. J Med Chem 1984, 27, 638–645.
- Sikic BI, Ehsan MN, Harker WG, et al. Dissociation of antitumor potency from anthracycline cardiotoxicity in a doxorubicin analog. Science 1985, 228, 1544-1546.
- Coley HM, Twentyman PR, Workman P. 9-alkyl, morpholinyl anthracyclines in the circumvention of multidrug resistance. Eur J Cancer 1990, 26, 665-667.
- 28. Acton EM, Wasserman K, Newman A. Morpholinyl anthracyclines. In: Lown JW, ed. Anthracycline and Anthracenedione-Based Anticancer Agents. Elsevier, Amsterdam, 1988, 55-101.

Eur J Cancer, Vol. 27, No. 12, pp. 1544-1545, 1991.
Printed in Great Britain

0277-5379/91 \$3.00 + 0.00 © 1991 Pergamon Press plc

Lung Cancer Therapy in the Elderly

SHOULD ELDERLY patients with small cell lung cancer be treated differently than younger patients? Of the population in the western world, 10–15% is over the age of 70. The life expectancy of this population is on average 15 years for women and 8–10 years for men. A substantial and increasing percentage of the new malignancies will occur in this age group. Up till now patients over the age of 70 with lung cancer were frequently excluded from clinical trials for different reasons, such as the disease's supposed more indolent behaviour, the impaired bone marrow tolerance of the elderly, the presence of a compromised renal and liver function interfering with drug clearance, concomitant chronic disease, the diminished life expectancy and their attitude towards intensive treatment.

Age is not a recognised independent negative prognostic factor in patients with lung cancer. Extent of disease, initial performance status and weight loss are such dominant prognostic factors, that, in retrospective studies in particular, it is impossible to determine the effect of age. A less extensive presentation, with a possible impact on prognosis, is not uncommon in the described patient population [1]. With advancing age drug metabolism may be altered due to an increase in the volume of distribution, a decrease in hepatic drug metabolism and in renal clearance. Negative interactions of cytostatic drugs with medication taken because of concomitant chronic disease, has not proven a major problem but warrants careful consideration

when dealing with this patient population. Clinicians are becoming more and more aware that the conception that older patients with lung cancer should not be treated may be wrong. Furthermore, patients have been treated and cured with chemotherapy [2]; this is recognised and also reflected in a joint EORTC/ National Cancer Institute meeting recently held in Venice, Italy to discuss the need for studies in the elderly and to determine age criteria [3].

There are retrospective studies on the effect of treatment of elderly patients with small cell lung cancer, as by Clamon et al. [4] and by Findlay et al. (p. 1597–1601). Although the results may be interesting, these studies can not solve the question how to treat lung cancer in the elderly. These studies have many drawbacks. Not stated is why patients were selected to be treated and others not. Treatment was not uniform. Dose schedules were not always optimal. The considerations leading to full dose or gentle chemotherapy are not clear.

These studies only show that chemotherapy can be given to a selected group of elderly patients, but reveal no guidelines how to treat which patients. In phase II studies both with single drugs [5, 6] and with combination chemotherapy [7, 8] it has been demonstrated that treatment is feasible. They do not answer the question if aggressive, conventional or gentle treatment for elderly patients is effective.

Time has passed for drawing conclusions from retrospective studies on the treatment of patients over 70 years. There is an under-representation of patients aged 75 years and older among patients with lung cancer seen at comprehensive cancer centres [9]. Elderly patients are less often included in clinical trials [10]. It is a well-known fact that patients treated according to a protocol have a significant survival advantage over those treated according to the free choice of the clinician [11].

Proper staging of the patients is mandatory. Stratification and randomisation is obligatory for a balance in prognostic factors and to exclude selection bias. Good definitions of what is aggressive, what is conventional and what is gentle treatment are needed. Is single drug treatment as effective as multiple drug chemotherapy? Is oral treatment as effective as intravenous? Is treatment in elderly patients more schedule dependent than in younger patients? Is it possible to predict the haematological reserve of these patients? Should haematopoietic growth factors be given routinely or only on indication? How disturbing are the concomitant illnesses these patients have, for a adequate chemotherapy? Is the reponse similar to that seen in the younger population?

These questions can only be answered in proper designed phase III studies with a large enough number of patients to draw valid conclusions. Only multicentre studies seem appropriate for this. Treatment of elderly patients should be part of the mainstream of oncological practice [12].

J. Festen
Department of Pulmonary Diseases
University Hospital Nijmegen
Geert Grooteplein Zuid 8
6500 HB Nijmegen
The Netherlands

- 1. Teeter SM, Holmes FF, McFarlane MJ. Lung carcinoma in the elderly population, influence of histology on the inverse relationship of stage to age. *Cancer* 1987, **60**, 1331–1336.
- Takigawa K, Amino Y, Wakana M, et al. An elderly case of small cell lung cancer showing complete response by oral administration of etoposide. Gan To Kagaku Ryoho 1990, 17, 142–145.
- Tirelli U, Aarpo M, Orbist R, et al. Cancer treatment and old people. Lancet 1991, 338, 114.
- Clamon GH, Audeh MW, Pinnick S. Small cell lung carcinoma in the elderly. J Amer Geriatr Soc 1982, 30, 299-302.
- Carney DN, Grogan L, Smit EF, Harford P, Berendsen HH, Postmus PE. Single-agent oral etoposide for elderly small cell lung cancer patients. Semin Oncol 1990, 17 (Suppl. 2) 49-53.
- Giaccone G, Donadio M, Bonardi G, Testore F, Calciati A. Teniposide in the treatment of small cell lung cancer: the influence of prior chemotherapy. J Clin Oncol 1988, 6, 1264-1270.
- Allan SG, Gregor A, Cornbleet MA, et al. Phase II trial of vindesine and VP16-213 in the palliation of poor-prognosis patients and elderly patients with small cell lung cancer. Cancer Chemother Pharmacol 1984, 13, 106-108.
- Markman M, Abeloff MD. Management of hematologic and infectious complications of intensive induction therapy for small cell carcinoma of the lung. Am J Med 1983, 74, 741-746.
- O'Rourke MA, Feussner JR, Feigl P, Laszo J. Age trends of lung cancer stage at diagnosis. JAMA 1987, 258, 921–926.
- Goodwin JS, Hunt WC, Humble ChG, Key ChR, Samet JM. Cancer treatment protocols. Who gets chosen? Arch Intern Med 1988, 148, 2258-2260.
- Karjalainen S, Palva I. Do treatment protocols improve end results?
 A study of survival of patients with multiple myeloma in Finland.
 Br Med J 1989, 299, 1069-1072.
- 12. Fentiman IS, Tirelli U, Monfardini S, et al. Cancer in the elderly: why so badly treated? Lancet 1990, i, 1020-1022.

Eur J Cancer, Vol. 27, No. 12, pp. 1545–1548, 1991. Printed in Great Britain 0277-5379/91 \$3.00 + 0.00 © 1991 Pergamon Press plc

Radiosurgery for Brain Tumours

THERE ARE many examples in medicine where advances in treatment are led by technology and not by intellectually satisfying pursuits. Nevertheless, the emergence of new techniques does not guarantee progress and the indiscriminate use of new and fashionable treatment methods has to be checked by careful clinical evaluation. Stereotactic radiotherapy (SRT) (or radiosurgery when in the hands of neurosurgeons) has hit the headlines as a new hope for brain tumour patients. It is undoubtedly a technologically advanced method of radiation delivery, but is it the clinical breakthrough often claimed?

What is SRT?

The principle of SRT is simple. It is a high precision technique of localisation and delivery of external-beam radiotherapy at present applicable to the treatment of intracranial lesions. Patients are immobilised in a neurosurgical-type stereotactic frame which acts as a point of reference for three-dimensional localisation on multimodality imaging. This allows for the precise localisation of a region of interest.

Irradiation is highly focused by arranging sources of radiation in a spherical distribution around the patient's head converging

onto a small central point. This started life as "radiosurgery" delivered by a dedicated multiheaded cobalt unit with focused sources arranged in a hemisphere around a patient (so-called gamma unit or knife) [1]. Similar high-precision delivery can be achieved with a modern linear accelerator by multiple beams either as multiple arcs of rotation [2–6] or multiple fixed noncoplanar beams [7]. An alternative means of localised irradiation utilises the property of Bragg peak of heavy particles as cyclotron generated protons [8] or heavy charged particles [9]. All of these techniques represent stereotactically guided, conformal external-beam radiotherapy.

How does it help in practice? The high precision of tumour localisation makes it possible to irradiate a smaller volume of normal tissue with less margin for inaccuracy and highly focused treatment delivery reduces the amount of radiation to normal brain [7]. This may allow for a higher dose of radiation to the target while reducing or maintaining the dose to the surrounding normal tissue. Providing that the limitation of conventional technique is the radiation tolerance of normal brain surrounding the tumour, it may be possible with the use of SRT to give a higher dose to the tumour without increasing damage to normal brain. In any case this is the theory. In practice single-fraction SRT/radiosurgery has been successfully developed for the treatment of small inoperable intracranial arteriovenous malfor-