

NCCN Clinical Practice Guidelines in Oncology™

Esophageal Cancer

V.I.2009

Continue

www.nccn.org

Esophageal Cancer

NCCN Esophageal Cancer Panel Members

* Jaffer A. Ajani, MD/Chair † ¤ The University of Texas M. D. Anderson Cancer Center

James S. Barthel, MD ¤ Þ H. Lee Moffitt Cancer Center & Research Institute

* Tanios Bekaii-Saab, MD † Arthur G. James Cancer Hospital & Richard J. Solove Research Institute at The Ohio State University

David J. Bentrem, MD ¶ Robert H. Lurie Comprehensive Cancer Center of Northwestern University

Thomas A. D'Amico, MD ¶ Duke Comprehensive Cancer Center

Charles S. Fuchs, MD, MPH † Dana-Farber/Brigham and Women's Cancer Center

Hans Gerdes, MD ¤ Þ Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center

James A. Hayman, MD, MBA § University of Michigan Comprehensive Cancer Center

Lisa Hazard, MD § Huntsman Cancer Institute at the University of Utah

NCCN Guidelines Panel Disclosures

David H. Ilson, MD, PhD † Þ Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center

Lawrence R. Kleinberg, MD § The Sidney Kimmel Comprehensive Cancer Center at Johns Hopkins

Mary Frances McAleer, MD, PhD § The University of Texas M. D. Anderson Cancer Center

Neal J. Meropol, MD † Fox Chase Cancer Center

Mary F. Mulcahy, MD ‡ Robert H. Lurie Comprehensive Cancer Center of Northwestern University

Mark B. Orringer, MD ¶ University of Michigan Comprehensive Cancer Center

* Raymond U. Osarogiagbon, MD † Þ ‡ St. Jude Children's Research Hospital/ University of Tennessee Cancer Institute

James A. Posey, MD † University of Alabama at Birmingham Comprehensive Cancer Center

Aaron R. Sasson, MD ¶ UNMC Eppley Cancer Center at The Nebraska Medical Center



Walter J. Scott, MD ¶ Fox Chase Cancer Center

Stephen Shibata, MD † City of Hope

Vivian E. M. Strong, MD ¶ Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center

Stephen G. Swisher, MD ¶ The University of Texas M. D. Anderson Cancer Center

Mary Kay Washington, MD, PhD ≠ Vanderbilt-Ingram Cancer Center

Christopher Willett, MD § Duke Comprehensive Cancer Center

Douglas E. Wood, MD ¶ Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center/Seattle Cancer Care Alliance

Cameron D. Wright, MD ¶ Massachusetts General Hospital

* Gary Yang, MD § Roswell Park Cancer Institute

- † Medical oncology
- ¤ Gastroenterology
- ¶ Surgery/Surgical oncology
- Þ Internal medicine
- § Radiotherapy/Radiation oncology
- # Hematology/Hematology oncology
- ≠ Pathology
- *Writing committee member

Table of Contents

NCCN Esophageal Cancer Panel Members

Summary of the Guidelines Updates

Workup and Evaluation (ESOPH-1)

Medically fit, Resectable Tis, T1-T4, N0-1, NX or Stage IVA (ESOPH-2)

Surgical Outcomes (ESOPH-3)

Medically unfit, Unresectable T4, or Surgery not elected (ESOPH-4)

Follow-up, Recurrence and Palliative Therapy (ESOPH-5)

Metastatic Cancer (ESOPH-6)

Principles of Multidisciplinary Team Approach (ESOPH-A)

Principles of Surgery (ESOPH-B)

Principles of Systemic Therapy (ESOPH-C)

Principles of Radiation Therapy (ESOPH-D)

Principles of Best Supportive Care (ESOPH-E)

Guidelines Index

Print the Esophageal Cancer Guideline

For help using these documents, please click here

Staging

Discussion

References

Clinical Trials: The NCCN believes that the best management for any cancer patient is in a clinical trial. Participation in clinical trials is especially encouraged.

To find clinical trials online at NCCN member institutions, <u>click here:</u> <u>nccn.org/clinical_trials/physician.html</u>

NCCN Categories of Evidence and Consensus: All recommendations are Category 2A unless otherwise specified.

See <u>NCCN Categories of Evidence</u> and <u>Consensus</u>

These guidelines are a statement of evidence and consensus of the authors regarding their views of currently accepted approaches to treatment. Any clinician seeking to apply or consult these guidelines is expected to use independent medical judgment in the context of individual clinical circumstances to determine any patient's care or treatment. The National Comprehensive Cancer Network makes no representations nor warranties of any kind whatsoever regarding their content, use, or application and disclaims any responsibility for their application or use in any way. These guidelines are copyrighted by National Comprehensive Cancer Network. All rights reserved. These guidelines and the illustrations herein may not be reproduced in any form without the express written permission of NCCN. ©2008.

Summary of the Guidelines Updates

Summary of changes in the 1.2009 version of the Esophageal Cancer guidelines from the 1.2008 version include:

(<u>ESOPH-1</u>):

- Workup:
- ► Fourth Bullet: "SMA-12" was changed to "chemistry profile".
- > Fifth Bullet: Changed to "Chest/abdominal CT with contrast" (Also for ESOPH-2)
- > Tenth Bullet: "PET/CT scan" was changed to "PET/CT (preferred) or PET scan..." (Also for ESOPH-2)
- Fourth Column, Top Branch: The panel added the Stage "Tis" after "Medically fit, resectable..."

(<u>ESOPH-2</u>):

- "Discussion of patient in a multidiscplinary conference is desirable" was changed to "Multidisciplinary evaluation preferred".
- The panel added a new column that denotes the following Stages and their recommendations:
- ► Tis or T1a
- ► T1b, N0, NX
- ► T1b, N1 or T2-T4, N0-1, NX or Stage IVA
- Footnotes "j" and "k" are new to the page.

(<u>ESOPH-3</u>):

- Node negative; Adenocarcinoma: The panel added a new pathway for "Tis".
- Under Postoperative Treatment for "Adenocarcinoma distal esophagus, GE junction": The panel added "ECF if received preoperatively (category 1)".

(<u>ESOPH-4</u>):

- New pathway was added for "Tis or T1a".
- Under Primary Treatment; Second Row: "50.4 Gy of RT..." was changed to 50-50.4 of RT..."
- The Best Supportive Care box recommendations were removed from the page. (ALSO for ESOPH-6)

(<u>ESOPH-5</u>):

- Follow-up:
- > Third Bullet: "Chest x-ray as indicated" was changed to "*Imaging* as *clinically* indicated".
- ► Fifth Bullet: "Radiology and endoscopy as clinically indicated..." was changed to "Endoscopy, as clinically indicated..." with corresponding new footnote "v" regarding Tis or T1a patients who undergo EMR.

Note: All recommendations are category 2A unless otherwise indicated.

Clinical Trials: NCCN believes that the best management of any cancer patient is in a clinical trial. Participation in clinical trials is especially encouraged.

Summary of the Guidelines Updates--continued

(ESOPH-A): Principles of Multidisciplinary Team Approach

- Page Title: "Principles of Combined Modality Therapy" was changed to "Principles of Multidisciplinary Team Approach".
- First Bullet: "Frequent meetings...are useful" was changed to "Frequent meetings...are encouraged".
- Eighth Bullet: "...multidisciplinary meeting is a method..." was changed to "...multidisciplinary meeting is highly encouraged".

(ESOPH-B 1 of 3): Principles of Surgery

• Fifth Bullet: A new first arrow bullet was added regarding "Tis or T1a" tumors as well as corresponding references.

(ESOPH-B 2 of 3): Principles of Surgery

• Last bullet was revised to include endoscopic mucosal resection, other ablative techniques, and experienced endoscopists.

(ESOPH-C): Principles of Systemic Therapy

- "Docetaxel plus cisplatin (category 2B)" was added under Preoperative Chemoradiation and Definitive chemoradiation.
- After "Oxaliplatin plus fluoropyrimidine (5-FU or capecitabine)," the panel added a new footnote that states "Leucovorin or levoleucovorin is indicated with certain infusional 5-FU based regimens." (This is for Preoperative chemoradiation, Definitive chemoradiation, and Metastatic or Locally advanced cancer)
- Metastatic or Locally advanced: "Paclitaxel-based regimen (category 2B)" was added.

(ESOPH-D): Principles of Radiation Therapy

• Blocking: "...heart (1/3 of heart < 40 GY...)" changed to "...heart (1/3 of heart < <u>50</u> GY)..."

(ESOPH-E): Principles of Best Supportive Care

• "Principles of Best Supportive Care" is a new page that provides specific recommendations for esophageal cancer best supportive care throughout the guidelines. The new page replaces the "Best Supportive Care" box that was on pages <u>ESOPH-4</u> and <u>ESOPH-6</u>.

Note: All recommendations are category 2A unless otherwise indicated. Clinical Trials: NCCN believes that the best management of any cancer patient is in a clinical trial. Participation in clinical trials is especially encouraged.

NCCN [®] Practice Guideling in Oncology – v.1		geal Cancer	<u>Guidelines Index</u> <u>Esophageal Table of Contents</u> <u>Staging, Discussion, References</u>
 WORKUP H&P Barium swallow (optional) Esophagogastroduodenoscopy to visualize entire upper GI tract, if possible CBC and chemistry profile Chest/abdominal CT with contrast Bronchoscopy, if tumor is at or above the carina with no evidence of M1 disease Endoscopic ultrasound (EUS), if no evidence of M1 disease, with FNA if indicated Laparoscopy (optional) if no evidence of 	CLINICAL STAGE	 ADDITIONAL EVALUATION (as clinically indicated) Multidisciplinary evaluation is encouraged (mandatory for patients with celiac-positive disease) Nutritional assessment (for preoperative nutritional support, consider nasogastric or J-tube [PEG is not recommended]) Barium enema or colonoscopy if colon interposition or bypass planned Arteriogram (optional) Consider if performing colon interposition 	Medically fit, b See Primary Tis, T1–T4, e N0-1, NX, → See Primary or Stage IVA d, f → See Primary Medically unfit for surgery, Unresectable T4, 9 Unresectable stage IVA h or Surgery not → See Primary IVA h or Surgery not elected and → See Primary Intersectable stage IVA h or Surgery not → See Primary Intersectable stage IVA h or Surgery not → See Primary Intersectable stage IVA h or Surgery not → See Primary Intersectable to tolerate Chemoradiation → See Primary
 M1 disease and tumor is at GE junction Biopsy confirmation of suspected metastatic disease PET/CT (preferred) or PET scan if no 	Stage IVB metastatic cancer		 ✓ Metastatic ✓ cancer ✓ Metastatic ✓ Palliative Therapy (ESOPH-6)

^aCeliac nodal involvement in cancers of the gastroesophageal junction may still be considered for combined modality therapy.

^bMedically able to tolerate major abdominal and/or thoracic surgery.

^cChemoradiation is the preferred modality for cervical esophageal carcinoma.

^dSee Principles of Surgery (ESOPH-B).

evidence of M1 disease

^eResectable T4: Involvement of pleura, pericardium or diaphragm. T1-T3 tumors are resectable even with regional nodal metastases.

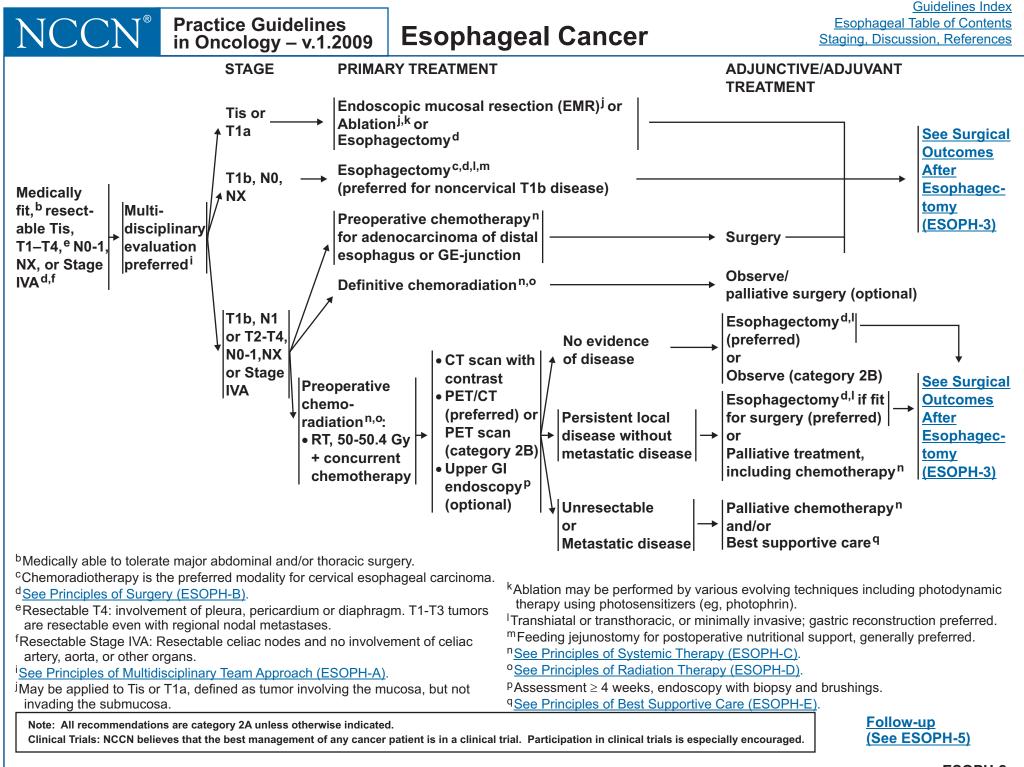
^fResectable Stage IVA: Resectable celiac nodes and no involvement of celiac artery, aorta, or other organs.

^gUnresectable T4: Invasion of aorta, trachea, heart, great vessels, tracheoesophageal fistula.

^hUnresectable Stage IVA: Unresectable celiac nodes with involvement of celiac artery, aorta, or other organs.

Note: All recommendations are category 2A unless otherwise indicated.

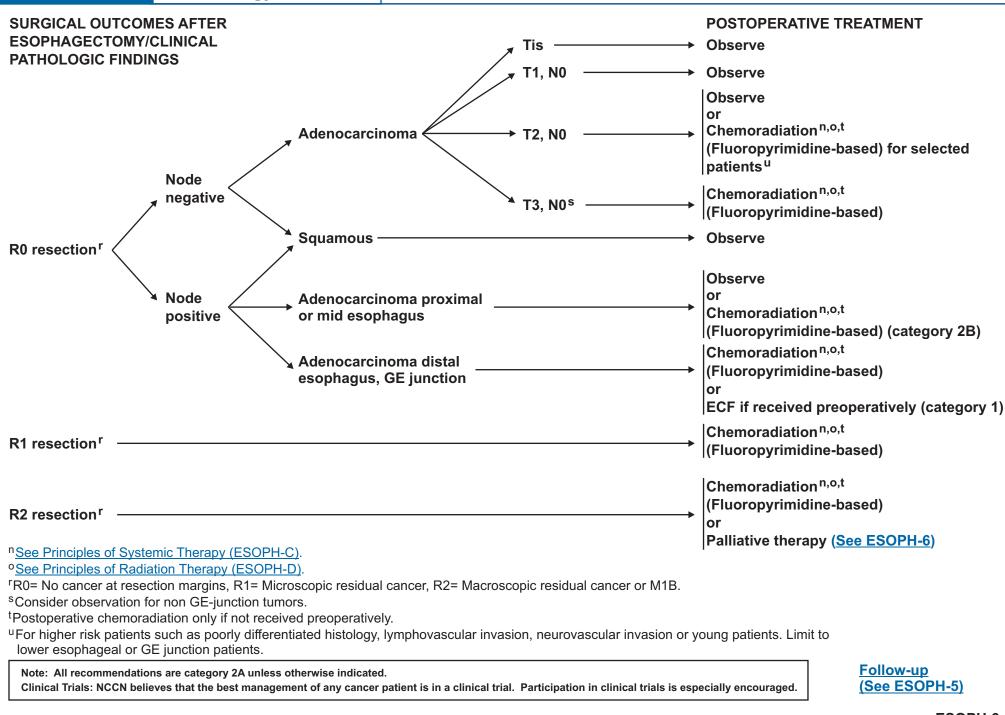
Clinical Trials: NCCN believes that the best management of any cancer patient is in a clinical trial. Participation in clinical trials is especially encouraged.



Esophageal Cancer

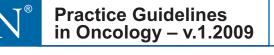
Practice Guidelines

in Oncology – v.1.2009

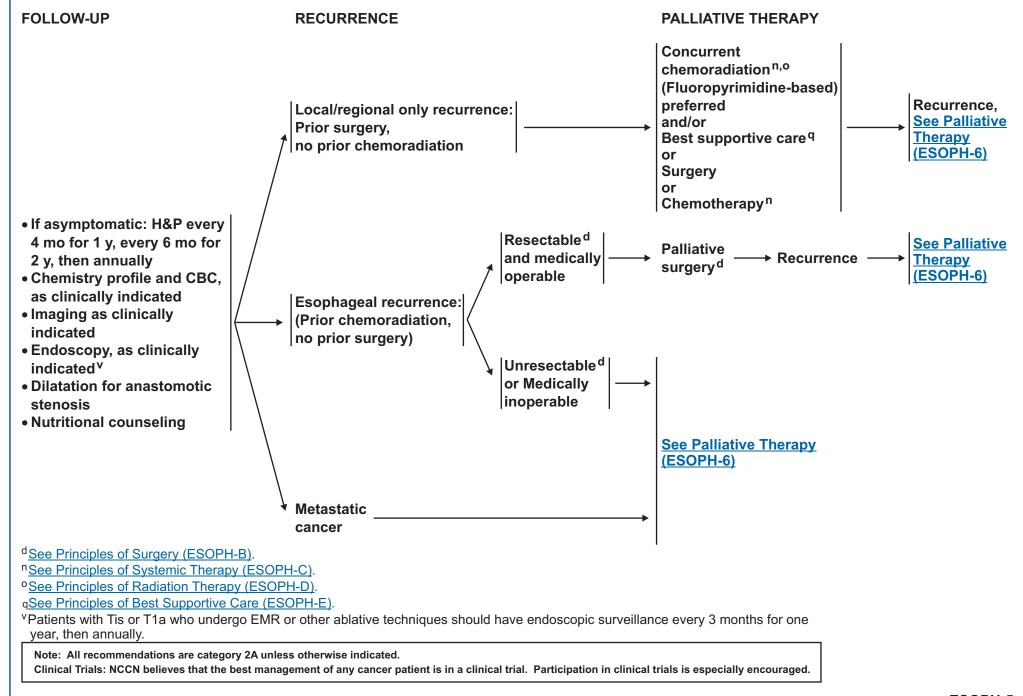


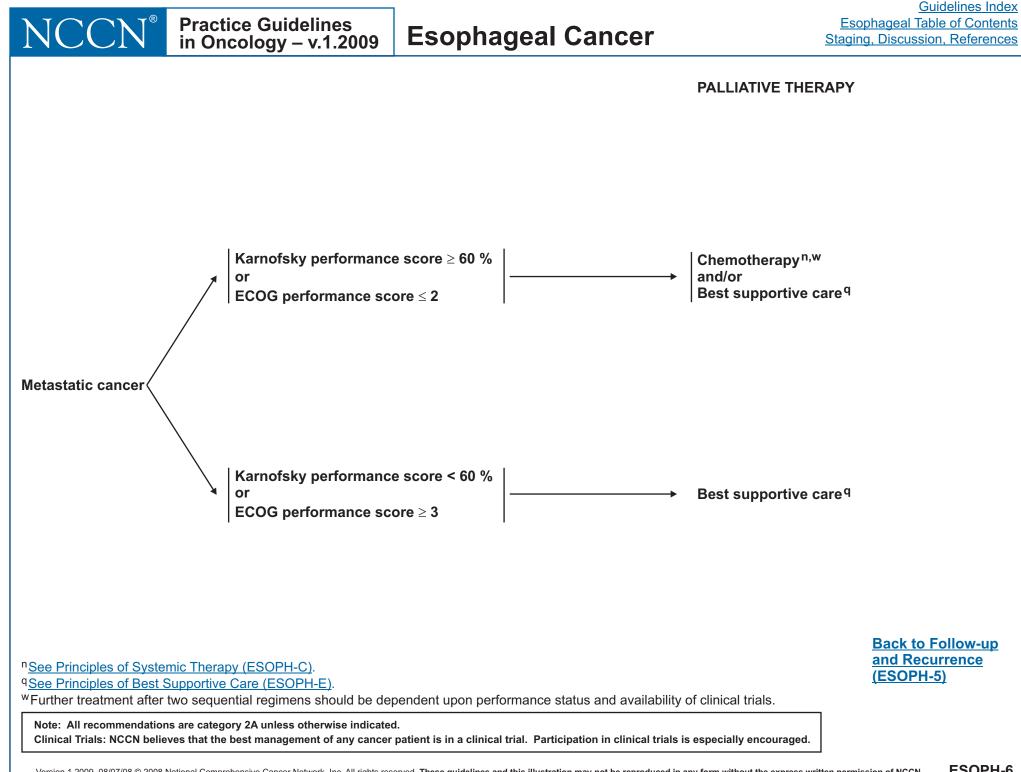
NCCN®	Practice Guidelines in Oncology – v.1.2009	Esophageal Cancer	<u>Guidelines Index</u> <u>Esophageal Table of Contents</u> <u>Staging, Discussion, References</u>
		PRIMARY TREATMENT	
Tis or T1a ———		→ EMR or other ablative techniques or Best supportive care ^q	
Medically unfit for su unresectable T4, ^g unresectable stage I ⁿ or Surgery not elected a patient medically abl tolerate chemothera	VA ^h	 50-50.4 Gy of RT + concurrent chemotherapy (Fluoropyrimidine-based) (preferred)^{n,o} or Chemotherapyⁿ or Best supportive care^q 	
Medically unfit for surgery and patient unable to tolerate chemotherapy		→ Best supportive care ^q	
^h Unresectable Stage IVA ⁿ See Principles of Syste ^o See Principles of Radia ^q See Principles of Best S Note: All recommendation	<u>mic Therapy (ESOPH-C)</u> . <u>tion Therapy (ESOPH-D)</u> . <u>Supportive Care (ESOPH-E)</u> . ns are category 2A unless otherwise indicate	vement of celiac artery, aorta, or other organs.	<u>Follow-up</u> (See ESOPH-5) couraged.

<u>Guidelines Index</u> <u>Esophageal Table of Contents</u> <u>Staging, Discussion, References</u>



Esophageal Cancer







PRINCIPLES OF MULTIDISCIPLINARY TEAM APPROACH FOR GASTROESOPHAGEAL CANCERS

Category 1 evidence supports the notion that the combined modality therapy is effective for patients with localized gastroesophageal cancer. The NCCN panel believes in an infrastructure that discourages unilateral treatment decision-making by members of any discipline taking care of this group of patients.

The combined modality therapy for patients with localized gastroesophageal cancer may be optimally delivered when the following elements are in place:

- The involved institution and individuals from relevant disciplines are committed to jointly reviewing the detailed data on patients on a regular basis. Frequent meetings (either once a week or once every two weeks) are encouraged.
- At each meeting, all relevant disciplines should be encouraged to participate and these may include: surgical oncology, medical oncology, gastroenterology, radiation oncology, radiology, and pathology. In addition, the presence of nutritional services, social workers, nursing, and other supporting disciplines are also desirable.
- All long-term therapeutic strategies are best developed after adequate staging procedures are completed, but ideally prior to any therapy that is rendered.
- Joint review of the actual medical data is more effective than reading reports for making sound therapy decisions.
- A brief documentation of the consensus recommendation(s) by the multidisciplinary team for an individual patient may prove useful.
- The recommendations made by the multidisciplinary team may be considered advisory to the primary group of treating physicians of the particular patient.
- Re-presentation of select patient outcomes after therapy is rendered may be an effective educational method for the entire multidisciplinary team.
- A periodic formal review of relevant literature during the course of the multidisciplinary meeting is highly encouraged.

Note: All recommendations are category 2A unless otherwise indicated. Clinical Trials: NCCN believes that the best management of any cancer patient is in a clinical trial. Participation in clinical trials is especially encouraged.

PRINCIPLES OF SURGERY (1 of 3)

- Prior to surgery all patients should be assessed for physiologic ability to undergo esophageal resection.¹
- Prior to surgery, clinical staging should be performed to assess resectability with endoscopic ultrasound, CT scan chest and abdomen, and CT-PET (preferred).
- Esophageal resection should be considered for all physiologically fit patients with localized resectable esophageal cancer in the thorax (> 5 cm from cricopharyngeus) and intra-abdominal esophagus.
- Cervical esophageal tumors or thoracic esophageal tumors < 5 cm from the cricopharyngeus should be treated with definitive chemoradiation.
- Resectable thoracic esophageal (> 5 cm from cricopharyngeus) or gastroesophageal junction cancer:
- ▶ Tis or T1a, defined as tumors involving the mucosa but not invading the submucosa, may be considered for EMR, other ablative techniques, or esophagectomy in experienced centers. Tumors in the submucosa or deeper may be treated with surgery. ^{2,3,4,5,6,7}
- > T1-T3 tumors are resectable even with regional nodal metastases (N1)
- > T4 tumors are resectable with involvement of pericardium, pleura or diaphragm only
- Stage IVA is resectable for lower esophagus with resectable celiac nodes and no involvement of celiac artery, aorta, or other organs
- Unresectable esophageal cancer:
- ► T4 tumors are unresectable with involvement of the heart, great vessels, trachea or adjacent organs including liver, pancreas, lung, and spleen
- Stage IVA is unresectable for the lower esophagus with unresectable celiac nodes, with involvement of celiac artery, aorta, or other organs including liver, pancreas, lung, and spleen
- > Stage IVB is unresectable with systemic metastases or non-regional lymph nodes
- The type of esophageal resection is dictated by the surgeon's experience and preference and the patient's preference.

Note: All recommendations are category 2A unless otherwise indicated. Clinical Trials: NCCN believes that the best management of any cancer patient is in a clinical trial. Participation in clinical trials is especially encouraged.

Continued on next page

ESOPH-B (1 of 3)

PRINCIPLES OF SURGERY (2 of 3)

- Acceptable operative approaches for thoracic esophageal (> 5 cm from cricopharyngeus) or gastroesophageal junction cancer:
- > Right or left transthoracic with anastomosis in chest or neck
- Transhiatal with anastomosis in neck
- Minimally invasive with anastomosis in neck or chest⁸
- Acceptable conduits:
- ► Gastric (preferred)
- ▶ Colon
- ► Short segment jejunum
- > Long segment jejunum with supercharged microvascular anastomosis
- Acceptable lymph node dissections:⁹
- ► Standard
- ► Extended (En-Bloc)
- A minimum of 15 lymph nodes should be removed/evaluated to achieve adequate nodal staging. The optimum number of nodes after preoperative chemoradiation is unknown.
- Patients who develop localized, resectable esophageal recurrence after definitive chemoradiation can be considered for palliative esophagectomy if they do not have distant recurrence.¹⁰
- Esophageal resection, endoscopic mucosal resection, and other ablative techniques should be performed in high volume esophageal centers by experienced surgeons and endoscopists.^{11,12}

Note: All recommendations are category 2A unless otherwise indicated. Clinical Trials: NCCN believes that the best management of any cancer patient is in a clinical trial. Participation in clinical trials is especially encouraged.

References on next page

ESOPH-B (2 of 3)

PRINCIPLES OF SURGERY (3 of 3)

- ¹Steyerberg EW, Neville BA, Kopper LB, Lemmens VE, et al. Surgical mortality in patients with esophageal cancer: development and validation of a simple risk score. J Clin Oncol 2006;24 (26):4277-4284.
- ²Fujita H, Sueyoshi S, Yamana H, Shinozaki K et al., Optimum treatment strategy for superficial esophageal cancer: Endoscopic mucosal resection versus radical esophagectomy. World Journal of Surgery; 2001; 25: 424-431.
- ³Ell C, May A, Gossner L, Pech O, et al., Endoscopic mucosal resection of early cancer and high-grade dysplasia in Barrett's esophagus. Gastroenterology 2000; 118: 670-677.
- ⁴Conio M, Repici A, Cestari R, Blanchi S, et al., Endoscopic mucosal resection for high-grade dysplasia and intramucosal carcinoma in Barrett's esophagus: An Italian experience. World Journal of Gastroenterology 2005; 11(42): 6650-6655.
- ⁵Larghi A, Lightdale CJ, Ross AS, Fedi P, et al., Long-term follow-up of complete Barrett's eradication endoscopic mucosal resection (CBE-EMR) for the treatment of high-grade dysplasia and intramucosal carcinoma. Endoscopy 2007;39: 1086-1091.
- ⁶Lopes CV, Hela M, Pesenti C, Bories E, et al., Circumferential endoscopic resection of Barrett's esophagus with high-grade dysplasia or early adenocarcinoma. Surgical Endoscopy 2007; 21: 820-824.
- ⁷Overholt BF, Wang KK, Burdick S, Lightdale CJ, et al., Five-year efficacy and safety of photodynamic therapy with Photofrin in Barrett's high-grade dysplasia. Gastrointestinal Endoscopy 2007; 66(3): 460-468.
- ⁸de Hoyos A, Litle VR, and Luketich JD. Minimally invasive esophagectomy. Surg Clin North Am 2005;85 (3): 631-647.
- ⁹Hofstetter WL. Lymph Node Dissection in Esophageal Cancer. Current Therapies in Thoracic and Cardiovascular Surgery, edited by SC Yang and DE Cameron. Mosby, Inc., Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, pp. 360-363, 2004.
- ¹⁰Swisher SG, Wynn P, Putnam JB, Mosheim MB, et al. Salvage esophagectomy for recurrent tumors after definitive chemotherapy and radiotherapy. J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg 2002;123:175-183.
- ¹¹Birkmeyer JD, Siewers AE, Finlayson EVA, Stukel TA, et al. Hospital volume and surgical mortality in the United States. N Engl J Med 2002;346(15):1128-1137.
 ¹²Hulscher JBF, van Sandick JW, de Boer AG, et al. Extended transthoracic resection compared with limited transhiatal resection for adenocarcinoma of the esophagus. N Engl J Med, 2002;347(21):1662-1669.

Note: All recommendations are category 2A unless otherwise indicated.

Clinical Trials: NCCN believes that the best management of any cancer patient is in a clinical trial. Participation in clinical trials is especially encouraged.

PRINCIPLES OF SYSTEMIC THERAPY FOR ESOPHAGEAL OR GASTROESOPHAGEAL JUNCTION CANCER (1 of 2)

- For localized esophageal carcinoma, the listed regimens include participating institution preferences mainly in the context of phase II trials, and these regimens may not be superior to category 1 regimens listed.
- For metastatic esophageal carcinoma, phase III trials have not been performed for many years. Some regimens listed below are derived from the gastric adenocarcinoma phase III trials that have included patients with lower esophageal cancer and/or gastroesophageal junction cancer.
- Please refer to the original reports for toxicity, doses, schedule, and dose modifications.
- Please refer to the Principles of Radiation Therapy for the radiation therapy administration details. (ESOPH-D)
- Prior to recommending chemotherapy, the requirements for adequacy of organ function and performance status should be met.
- The schedule, toxicity, and potential benefits should be thoroughly discussed with the patient and caregivers. Patient education should also include the discussion of precautions and measures to reduce the severity and duration of complications.
- Patients should be observed closely and treated for any complications during chemotherapy. Appropriate blood work should be monitored.
- Upon completion of chemotherapy, patients should be assessed for response and monitored for any long-term complications.

Preoperative Chemotherapy

(Only for adenocarcinoma of the distal esophagus):

or gastroesophageal junction):

- ECF (Epirubicin, cisplatin and 5-FU) (category 1)¹
- ECF modifications (category 1)²

Preoperative Chemoradiation:

- Cisplatin plus fluoropyrimidine (5-FU or capecitabine)³
- Irinotecan plus cisplatin (category 2B)^{4,5}
- Paclitaxel plus cisplatin or carboplatin (category 2B)⁶
- Docetaxel plus cisplatin (category 2B)
- Docetaxel or paclitaxel plus fluoropyrimidine (5-FU or capecitabine) (category 2B)⁷
- Oxaliplatin plus fluoropyrimidine (5-FU[†] or capecitabine) (category 2B)8

Definitive Chemoradiation:

- Cisplatin-5FU (category 1)³
- Irinotecan plus cisplatin (category 2B)
- Paclitaxel plus cisplatin (category 2B)
- Docetaxel plus cisplatin (category 2B)
- Docetaxel or paclitaxel plus fluoropyrimidine (5-FU or capecitabine) (category 2B)
- Oxaliplatin plus fluoropyrimidine (5-FU[†] or capecitabine) (category 2B)

Postoperative Chemotherapy:

(to be used only with Preoperative Chemotherapy)

- ECF (category 1)
- ECF modifications (category 1)

Postoperative Chemoradiation:

(Only for adenocarcinoma of the distal esophagus

or gastroesophageal junction)

• Fluoropyrimidine (5-FU or capecitabine) (category 1)⁹

Metastatic or Locally Advanced Cancer

[where chemoradiation is not recommended]

- DCF (Docetaxel, cisplatin and 5-FU) (category 1)¹⁰
- ECF (category 1)¹¹
- ECF modifications (category 1)
- Irinotecan plus cisplatin (category 2B)⁴
- Oxaliplatin plus fluoropyrimidine (5-FU[†] or capecitabine). (category 2B)^{12,13}
- DCF modifications (Category 2B)¹⁴
- Irinotecan plus fluoropyrimidine
- (5-FU or capecitabine) (category 2B)¹⁵
- Paclitaxel-based regimen (category 2B)

[†]Leucovorin or levoleucovorin is indicated with certain infusional 5-FU-based regimens

Note: All recommendations are category 2A unless otherwise indicated.

Clinical Trials: NCCN believes that the best management of any cancer patient is in a clinical trial. Participation in clinical trials is especially encouraged.

References on next page

PRINCIPLES OF SYSTEMIC THERAPY-FOR ESOPHAGEAL OR GASTROESOPHAGEAL JUNCTION CANCER (2 of 2)

- ¹Cunningham D, Allum WH, Stenning SP, Thompson JN, et al. Perioperative chemotherapy versus surgery alone for resectable gastroesophageal cancer. N Engl J Med 2006;355(1):11-20.
- ²Cunningham D, Starling, N., Rao, S., Iveson, T., et al. Capecitabine and oxaliplatin for advanced esophagogastric cancer. N Engl J Med 2008;358:36-46.
- ³Cooper JS, Guo MD, Herskovic A, Macdonald JS, Martenson JA, Jr., Al-Sarraf M, et al. Chemoradiotherapy of locally advanced esophageal cancer: long-term follow-up of a prospective randomized trial (RTOG 85-01). Radiation Therapy Oncology Group. Jama 1999;281(17):1623-1627.
- ⁴Ilson DH. Cancer of the gastroesophageal junction: Current therapy options. Curr Treat Options Oncol 2006;7(5):410-423.
- ⁵Ilson DH. Phase II trial of weekly irinotecan/cisplatin in advanced esophageal cancer. Oncology (Williston Park) 2004;18(14 Suppl 14):22-25.
- ⁶Meluch AA, Greco FA, Gray JR, Thomas M, et al. Preoperative therapy with concurrent paclitaxel/carboplatin/infusional 5-FU and radiation therapy in locoregional esophageal cancer: final results of a Minnie Pearl Cancer Research Network phase II trial. Cancer J 2003;9(4):251-260.
- ⁷Schnirer, II, Komaki R, Yao JC, Swisher S, et al. Pilot study of concurrent 5-fluorouracil/paclitaxel plus radiotherapy in patients with carcinoma of the esophagus and gastroesophageal junction. Am J Clin Oncol 2001;24(1):91-95.
- ⁸Khushalani NI, Leichman CG, Proulx G, Nava H, et al. Oxaliplatin in combination with protracted-infusion fluorouracil and radiation: report of a clinical trial for patients with esophageal cancer. J Clin Oncol 2002;20(12):2844-2850.
- ⁹Macdonald JS, Smalley SR, Benedetti J, Hundahl SA, et al. Chemoradiotherapy after surgery compared with surgery alone for adenocarcinoma of the stomach or gastroesophageal junction. N Engl J Med 2001;345(10):725-730.
- ¹⁰Van Cutsem E, Moiseyenko VM, Tjulandin S, Majlis A, et al. Phase III study of docetaxel and cisplatin plus fluorouracil compared with cisplatin and fluorouracil as first-line therapy for advanced gastric cancer: a report of the V325 Study Group. J Clin Oncol 2006;24(31):4991-4997.
- ¹¹Ross P, Nicolson M, Cunningham D, Valle J, et al. Prospective randomized trial comparing mitomycin, cisplatin, and protracted venous-infusion fluorouracil (PVI 5-FU) With epirubicin, cisplatin, and PVI 5-FU in advanced esophagogastric cancer. J Clin Oncol 2002;20(8):1996-2004.
- ¹²Kang Y, Kang WK, Shin DB, et al. Randomized phase III trial of capecitabine/cisplatin (XP) vs. continuous infusion of 5-FU/cisplatin (FP) as first-line therapy in patients (pts) with advanced gastric cancer (AGC): Efficacy and safety results. J Clin Oncol (Meeting Abstracts). 2006;24(18_suppl):LBA4018.
- ¹³Al-Batran SÉ, Hartmann JT, Probst S, et al. Phase III trial in metastatic gastroesophageal adenocarcinoma with fluorouracil, leucovorin plus either oxaliplatin or cisplatin: a study of the Arbeitsgemeinschaft Internistische Onkologie. J Clin Oncol. 2008 Mar 20;26(9):1435-42.
- ¹⁴Van Cutsem E, Van de Velde C, Roth A, et al. European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer (EORTC)-gastrointestinal cancer group. Expert opinion on management of gastric and gastro-oesophageal junction adenocarcinoma on behalf of the European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer (EORTC)-gastrointestinal cancer group. Eur J Cancer. 2008;44(2):182-94.
- ¹⁵Dank M, Zaluski J, Barone C, et al. Randomized phase III study comparing irinotecan combined with 5-fluorouracil and folinic acid to cisplatin combined with 5-fluorouracil in chemotherapy naive patients with advanced adenocarcinoma of the stomach or esophagogastric junction. Ann Oncol. 2008;19(8):1450-1457.

Note: All recommendations are category 2A unless otherwise indicated. Clinical Trials: NCCN believes that the best management of any cancer patient is in a clinical trial. Participation in clinical trials is especially encouraged. **Esophageal Cancer**

General Radiation Information

• Treatment recommendations should be made after joint consultation and/or discussion by a multidisciplinary team including surgical, radiation, medical oncologists, radiologists, gastroenterologists, and pathologists.

Practice Guidelines

in Oncology – v.1.2009

• CT scans, barium swallow, endoscopic ultrasound (EUS), endoscopy reports and PET or PET/CT scans, when available, should be reviewed by the multidisciplinary team. This will allow an informed determination of treatment volume and field borders prior to simulation.

Simulation and Treatment Planning

- Use of CT simulation and 3D treatment planning is strongly encouraged.
- When clinically appropriate, use of IV and/or oral contrast for CT simulation may be used to aid in target localization.
- Use of an immobilization device is strongly recommended for reproducibility of daily set-up.
- The gross tumor volume (GTV) should include the primary tumor and involved regional lymph nodes as identified on the planning scan and other exams listed in the General section above. The clinical target volume (CTV) should include the areas at risk for microscopic disease. The relative risk of nodal metastases at a specific nodal location is dependent on the site of origin of the primary tumor. The planning target volume (PTV) should include the tumor plus a nominal 5 cm cephalad and caudal margin, and a 1.5 to 2 cm radial margin.^{1,2} The uncertainties arising from respiratory motion should also be taken into consideration.

<u>Blocking</u>

• Custom blocking is necessary to reduce unnecessary dose to normal structures including liver (60% of liver < 30 Gy), kidneys (at least 2/3 of one kidney < 20 Gy), spinal cord (< 45 Gy), heart (1/3 of heart < 50 Gy, effort should be made to keep the left ventricle doses to a minimum) and lungs.^a

<u>Dose</u>

• 50-50.4 Gy (1.8-2 Gy/day)³

Supportive Therapy

- Treatment interruptions or dose reductions for manageable acute toxicities should be avoided. Careful patient monitoring and aggressive supportive care are preferable to treatment breaks.
- During irradiation, patients are seen for status check at least once a week with notation of vital signs, weight and blood counts.
- Antiemetics should be given on a prophylactic basis when appropriate. Antacid and antidiarrheal medications may be prescribed when needed. If estimated caloric intake is < 1500 kcal/day, oral, enteral and/or intravenous hyperalimentation should be considered. When indicated, feeding jejunostomies may be placed to ensure adequate caloric intake.

^aLung Dose Volume Histogram (DVH) parameters as predictors of pulmonary complications in esophageal cancer patients treated with concurrent chemoradiotherapy should be strongly considered, though consensus on optimal criteria has not yet emerged. Every effort should be made to keep the lung volume and doses to a minimum. Treating physicians should be aware that the DVH reduction algorithm is hardly the only risk factor for pulmonary complications. DVH parameters as predictors of pulmonary complications in esophageal cancer patients are an area of active development among the NCCN institutions and others.

Note: All recommendations are category 2A unless otherwise indicated.

Clinical Trials: NCCN believes that the best management of any cancer patient is in a clinical trial. Participation in clinical trials is especially encouraged.

References on next page

ESOPH-D (1 of 2)



PRINCIPLES OF RADIATION THERAPY (2 of 2)

¹Czito BG, Denittis AS, Willett CG. Esophagus, In: Perez and Brady's principles and practice of radiation oncology, 5th ed. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, 2007:1131-1153.

²ICRU 62 (1999). International Commission on Radiation Units and Measurements. Prescribing, Recording and Reporting Photon Beam Thrapy (International Commission on Radiation Units and Measurements, Bethesda, Maryland).

³Minsky BD, Pajak T, Ginsberg RJ, et al. INT 0123 (RTOG 94-05) Phase III trial of combined modality therapy for esophageal cancer: high dose (64.8 Gy) vs. standard dose (50.4 Gy) radiation therapy. J Clin Oncol 2004:22:45-52.

Note: All recommendations are category 2A unless otherwise indicated. Clinical Trials: NCCN believes that the best management of any cancer patient is in a clinical trial. Participation in clinical trials is especially encouraged.

PRINCIPLES OF BEST SUPPORTIVE CARE FOR ESOPHAGEAL CANCER (1 of 2)^{1,2,3,4}

Esophageal Cancer

The goal of best supportive care is to prevent and relieve suffering and to support the best possible quality of life for patients and their families, regardless of the stage of the disease or the need for other therapies. For esophageal cancer, interventions undertaken to relieve major symptoms may result in significant prolongation of life. This appears to be particularly true when a multimodality interdisciplinary approach is pursued, and therefore, a multimodality interdisciplinary approach to palliative care of the esophageal cancer patient is encouraged.

Dysphagia

- 1. Assess the extent of disease, the functional degree of swallowing impairment and confirm the etiology of dysphagia
- 2. Functional Degrees of Swallowing Impairment
- Unable to swallow saliva
- Able to swallow liquids only
- Able to swallow semisolid food (consistency of baby food)

Practice Guidelines

in Oncology – v.1.2009

- Able to swallow solid food cut into pieces less than 18 mm in diameter and thoroughly chewed
- Able to eat solid food without special attention to bite size or chewing (dysphagia symptoms may be intermittent)
- 3. Dysphagia arising from esophageal cancer most often is due to obstruction, but on occasion may be primarily due to tumor related dysmotility.

Obstruction:

- Complete esophageal obstruction
- Endoscopic lumen restoration
- > Establish enteral access for purposes of hydration and nutrition if endoscopic lumen restoration is not undertaken or is unsuccessful
 - * Surgical placement of jejunal feeding tube (if esophagectomy planned)
 - Placement of gastrostomy tube (if esophagectomy is not planned)
 - -Retrograde endoscopic lumen restoration may be attempted through the gastrostomy site.
- External beam radiation therapy
 - Brachytherapy may be considered in place of external beam radiation when feasible
- > Chemotherapy, when appropriate, may be considered
- ► Surgery
- Severe esophageal obstruction
- Endoscopic lumen enhancement
 - Guide wire or balloon dilation
 - Temporary placement of small diameter removable covered stents (8 mm 16 mm diameter)
 Placement of large diameter stents in patients with severe esophageal obstruction may result in uncontrollable chest pain, bleeding and perforation
 - Other measures as stated above
- Moderate esophageal obstruction (able to swallow semisolid food)
- ► Intermittent endoscopic lumen enhancement as necessary
 - Measures stated above may be considered

Note: All recommendations are category 2A unless otherwise indicated.

Clinical Trials: NCCN believes that the best management of any cancer patient is in a clinical trial. Participation in clinical trials is especially encouraged.

Continued on next page

ESOPH-E (1 of 2)

PRINCIPLES OF BEST SUPPORTIVE CARE FOR ESOPHAGEAL CANCER (2 of 2)^{1,2,3,4}

Esophageal Cancer

Pain

- If patient is experiencing tumor related pain, then the pain should be assessed and treated in accordance with <u>PAIN-1</u> Section of <u>NCCN</u> <u>Adult Cancer Pain Guidelines</u>.
- Severe uncontrolled pain following esophageal stent placement should be treated emergently with endoscopic removal of the stent once uncontrollable nature of pain is established.

Bleeding

- Acute bleeding from esophageal cancer may represent a pre-terminal event secondary to tumor related aorto-esophageal fistualization. Endoscopic assessment and intervention may lead to precipitous exsanguination, and therefore, should be undertaken cautiously.
- If bleeding appears to be primarily from tumor surface, then endoscopic electrocoagulation techniques such as bipolar electrocoagulation or argon plasma coagulation may be useful for control of bleeding
- Chronic blood loss from esophageal cancer

Practice Guidelines

in Oncology – v.1.2009

External beam radiation therapy

¹Homs, M.Y., et al., Single-dose brachytherapy versus metal stent placement for the palliation of dysphagia from oesophageal cancer: multicentre randomised trial. Lancet, 2004. 364(9444): p. 1497-504.

²Ilson, D.H., et al., Phase II trial of weekly irinotecan plus cisplatin in advanced esophageal cancer. J Clin Oncol, 1999. 17(10): p. 3270-5.

³Ross, W.A., et al., Evolving role of self-expanding metal stents in the treatment of malignant dysphagia and fistulas. Gastrointest Endosc, 2007. 65(1): p. 70-6. ⁴Shin, J.H., et al., Comparison of temporary and permanent stent placement with concurrent radiation therapy in patients with esophageal carcinoma. J Vasc Interv Radiol, 2005. 16(1): p. 67-74.

Note: All recommendations are category 2A unless otherwise indicated. Clinical Trials: NCCN believes that the best management of any cancer patient is in a clinical trial. Participation in clinical trials is especially encouraged.



Staging

Table 1

American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC) TNM Classification of Carcinoma of the Esophagus*

Primary Tumor (T)

- TX Primary tumor cannot be assessed
- T0 No evidence of primary tumor
- Tis Carcinoma in situ
- T1 Tumor invades lamina propria or submucosa
- T2 Tumor invades muscularis propria
- T3 Tumor invades adventitia
- T4 Tumor invades adjacent structures

Regional Lymph Nodes (N)

- NX Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed
- N0 No regional lymph node metastasis
- N1 Regional lymph node metastasis

Distant Metastasis (M)

- MX Distant metastasis cannot be assessed
- M0 No distant metastasis
- M1 Distant metastasis
 - Tumors of the lower thoracic esophagus:
 - M1a Metastasis in celiac lymph nodes
 - M1b Other distant metastasis

Tumors of the midthoracic esophagus:

- M1a Not applicable
- M1b Nonregional lymph nodes and/or other distant metastasis

Tumors of the upper thoracic esophagus:

- M1a Metastasis in cervical nodes
- M1b Other distant metastasis

Stage Grouping

Stage 0	Tis	N0	M0
Stage I	T1	N0	M0
Stage IIA	T2	N0	M0
	Т3	N0	M0
Stage IIB	T1	N1	M0
	T2	N1	M0
Stage III	Т3	N1	M0
	T4	Any N	M0
Stage IV	Any T	Any N	M1
Stage IVA	Any T	Any N	M1a
Stage IVB	Any T	Any N	M1b

Histologic Grade (G)

- GX Grade cannot be assessed
- G1 Well differentiated
- G2 Moderately differentiated
- G3 Poorly differentiated
- G4 Undifferentiated

**Used with permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois. The original and primary source for this information is the *AJCC Cancer Staging Manual*, Sixth Edition (2002) published by Springer-Verlag New York. (For more information, visit <u>www.cancerstaging.net</u>.) Any citation or quotation of this material must be credited to the AJCC as its primary source. The inclusion of this information herein does not authorize any reuse or further distribution without the expressed written permission of Springer-Verlag New York on behalf of the AJCC.

Discussion

NCCN Categories of Evidence and Consensus

Category 1: The recommendation is based on high-level evidence (e.g. randomized controlled trials) and there is uniform NCCN consensus.

Category 2A: The recommendation is based on lower-level evidence and there is uniform NCCN consensus.

Category 2B: The recommendation is based on lower-level evidence and there is nonuniform NCCN consensus (but no major disagreement).

Category 3: The recommendation is based on any level of evidence but reflects major disagreement.

All recommendations are category 2A unless otherwise noted.

Overview

Upper gastrointestinal (GI) tract cancers originating in the esophagus, gastroesophageal (GE) junctions, and stomach, constitute a major health problem around the world. An estimated 37,970 new cases of and 25,160 deaths from upper GI cancers will occur in the United States in 2008.¹ A dramatic shift in the location of upper GI tumors has occurred in the United States.² Changes in histology and location of upper GI tumors have also been observed in some parts of Europe.^{3,4} In Western Hemisphere countries, the most common site of esophageal cancer is in the lower third of the esophagus, where it often involves the GE junction.

Epidemiology

Esophageal cancer is the eighth most common cancer worldwide.⁵ An estimated 16,470 new cases and 14,280 deaths from esophageal

cancer will occur in United States in 2008.¹ It is endemic in many parts of the world, particularly in the developing nations.⁶ The incidence of esophageal cancer represents one of the widest variations, with a 60-fold difference between high- and low-incidence regions.⁷ High prevalence areas include Asia, southern and eastern Africa, and Northern France.^{8,9}

Esophageal cancers are histologically classified as squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) or adenocarcinoma. SCC is most common in the endemic regions of the world and adenocarcinoma is most common in nonendemic areas, such as North America and many Western European countries. Both SCC and adenocarcinoma are more common in men. SCCs have become increasingly less common, accounting for fewer than 30% of all esophageal malignancies in the United States and Western Europe. Adenocarcinoma is diagnosed predominantly in white men in whom the incidence has risen more steeply. However, adenocarcinoma is gradually increasing in men of all ethnic background and also in women.¹⁰

Smoking and alcohol abuse are major risk factors for SCC.^{11,12,13} Risk of SCC decreases substantially after smoking cessation.¹⁴ In addition, these patients often have a history of other cancers of the aero digestive tract such as head and neck and lung cancers. Smoking and regular alcohol intake is a moderate established risk factor for adenocarcinoma. Unlike in SCC, the risk for adenocarcinoma remains unchanged even after several years of smoking cessation.¹⁴

Major risk factors for adenocarcinoma of the esophagus are gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD) and Barrett's esophagus. GERD is a common condition that affects up to 30% of the Western population.¹⁵ GERD is associated with high body mass index. Barrett's esophagus is the most important risk factor in the development of adenocarcinoma of the esophagus. It is a metaplastic condition in which the normal squamous epithelium of the esophagus is replaced by

NCCN[®] Practice Guidelines in Oncology – v.1.2009 Esophageal Cancer

columnar or glandular epithelium. The estimated prevalence of adenocarcinoma in columnar-lined esophagus ranges from 10% to 64% in the literature, which represents a 40-fold increase relative to the general population.¹⁶

To summarize, risk factors associated with development of esophageal cancer include age, male gender, Caucasian race, body mass index, Barrett's esophagus and history of GERD.^{17,18}

Staging

Current staging of esophageal cancer is based on the tumor/node/metastasis (TNM) classification developed by American Joint Committee on Cancer (<u>Table 1</u>).¹⁹ Clearly, patient outcomes are correlated with the initial stage of the cancer at diagnosis, but the best correlation with survival is associated with the surgical pathologic stage. Although surgical pathology yields the most accurate staging, the advent of better imaging techniques, including endoscopic ultrasound (EUS), has improved preclinical staging.²⁰

In North America and many western European countries, where screening programs for early detection of esophageal cancer are not in use or practical because of low incidence, the diagnosis is often made late in the disease course. At diagnosis, nearly 50% of patients have cancer that extends beyond the local-regional confines of the primary. Fewer than 60% of patients with locoregional cancer can undergo a curative resection. Approximately 70% to 80% of resected specimens harbor metastases in the regional lymph nodes. Thus, clinicians are often dealing with an advanced-stage, incurable cancer in newly diagnosed patients.¹

Surgery

Surgery is the gold standard treatment for resectable disease. With the incidence of esophageal cancer increasing dramatically, particularly

adenocarcinoma of the distal esophagus, the hope is that surveillance programs will continue to detect earlier-stage disease, thus increasing the number of patients who are candidates for resection.²¹

Principles of Surgery

Surgical management of patients with esophageal cancer may include staging,²² resection with curative intent, and palliative techniques. All patients should be assessed for physiologic ability to undergo esophageal resection (<u>ESOPH-B</u>).²³ Selecting patients for surgery involves assessing whether they are medically fit (medically able to tolerate general anesthesia and major abdominal and/or thoracic surgery). Most patients with early-stage cancer can tolerate resection. Palliative resections should be avoided in patients with clearly unresectable or advanced cancer with comorbidities, including severe cardiac and pulmonary disease. These patients may benefit from noninvasive palliative interventions.

Clinical staging using EUS, chest and abdomen CT scan, and PET-CT scan (preferred over PET alone) should be performed before surgery to assess resectability. Lymph node dissections can be performed using the standard or extended (en-bloc) technique.²⁴ The optimum number of nodes to be removed and examined after resection is unknown. A recent retrospective analysis assessed the association between the number of lymph nodes examined and survival in 29,659 patients diagnosed with invasive esophageal cancer in the Surveillance Epidemiology and End Results (SEER) database.²⁵ Overall and cancer-free survival were significantly longer in patients who had 11 or more lymph nodes examined.

Esophageal resection may be appropriate for all physiologically fit patients with localized resectable thoracic esophageal cancer in the thorax (greater than 5 cm from cricopharyngeus) and intra-abdominal esophagus or GE junction cancer. It should be performed in high

N<u>CCN</u>®

volume esophageal cancer centers by experienced surgeons.²⁶ The type of esophageal resection is determined by the surgeon's experience, location of the primary, and patient's preference. Acceptable surgical approaches include transthoracic esophagectomy with anastomosis in the chest or neck, transhiatal esophagectomy with anastomosis in the neck and minimally invasive esophagectomy with anastomosis in neck or chest.²⁷ Palliative esophagectomy can be considered for patients who develop localized, resectable esophageal recurrence with no distant recurrence.²⁸

Tis or T1a tumors are defined as those involving the mucosa but not invading the submucosa. Tis or T1a tumors can be considered for esophagectomy, endoscopic mucosal resection (EMR) or ablation.^{29,30,31} Ablation may be performed using various evolving techniques including photodynamic therapy using a photosensitizer such as photophrin. Tumors in the submucosa or deeper may be treated with resection. EMR represents a major advance in minimally invasive surgery in the gastrointestinal tract. EMR is used widely for treating superficial early SCC of esophagus in Japan and it is gaining acceptance in the Western countries.³²⁻³⁵ EMR has been reported to accurately determine the depth of tumor invasion before surgical resection.³⁶ Indications for EMR for esophageal cancer include well and/or moderately differentiated SCC confined to lamina propria with no evidence of venous or lymphatic involvement. No randomized studies have compared EMR with other surgical techniques for GI cancers. Nevertheless, EMR continues to evolve as a promising technology in the diagnosis and treatment of esophageal and gastric cancers.

T1 through T3 tumors are resectable even in the presence of regional nodal metastases (N1). T4 tumors with involvement of pericardium, pleura or diaphragm may be resectable. Stage IVA tumors in the lower esophagus with celiac node involvement and no involvement of the celiac artery, aorta or other organs, are considered potentially

resectable. T4 tumors (with involvement of heart, great vessels, trachea or adjacent organs including liver, pancreas, lung and spleen) are considered unresectable. Stage IVB tumors with systemic metastases or nonregional lymph node involvement are often considered unresectable.

Surgical Approaches

Various surgical approaches may be used, depending on the size and location of the primary tumor and the surgeon's preferences. The optimal location of the anastomosis has been debated. Advantages of a cervical anastomosis include more extensive resection of the esophagus, possibility of avoiding thoracotomy, less-severe symptoms of reflux, and less-severe complications related to anastomotic leak. Advantages of a thoracic anastomosis include a lower incidence of anastomotic leak and lower stricture rate.³⁷ Although some surgeons prefer the colon interposition, most surgeons use the stomach as the conduit to replace the esophagus after esophagogastrectomy. Colon interposition is usually reserved for patients who have undergone previous gastric surgery or other procedures that might have devascularized the stomach. The use of the gastric conduit simplifies the procedure and is associated with equivalent patient satisfaction and fewer postoperative complications.³⁸

Several approaches are acceptable for esophagogastrectomy. Ivor-Lewis esophagogastrectomy uses abdominal and right thoracic incisions, with upper thoracic esophagogastric anastomosis (at or above the azygos vein).³⁹ Mobilization of the stomach for use as the conduit is performed, with dissection of the celiac and left gastric lymph nodes, division of the left gastric artery, and preservation of the gastroepiploic and right gastric arteries. This approach may be used for lesions at any thoracic location, but margins may be inadequate for tumors in the middle esophagus.

NCCN[®] Practice Guidelines in Oncology – v.1.2009 Esophageal Cancer

Transhiatal esophagogastrectomy is performed using abdominal and left cervical incisions.⁴⁰ The mobilization of the stomach for use as the conduit is performed as in the Ivor-Lewis esophagogastrectomy. This procedure is completed through the abdominal incision, and the gastric conduit is drawn through the mediastinum and exteriorized in the cervical incision for the esophagogastric anastomosis. This approach may be used for lesions at any thoracic location; however, transhiatal dissection of large, middle esophageal tumors adjacent to the trachea is difficult and may be hazardous. Transhiatal esophagectomy was associated with lower morbidity than transthoracic esophagectomy with extended en bloc lymphadenectomy.⁴¹ Left thoracoabdominal esophagogastrectomy uses a contiguous abdominal and left thoracic incision, through the eighth intercostal space. Mobilization of the stomach for use as the conduit is performed as described previously, and esophagectomy is accomplished through the left thoracotomy. Esophagogastric anastomosis is performed in the left chest, usually just superior to the inferior pulmonary vein, although it may be performed higher if the conduit is tunneled under the aortic arch. This approach may be used for lesions in the distal esophagus.

Minimally invasive esophagectomy is associated with decreased morbidity and shorter recovery times when compared with open procedures. ^{42,43} Luketich et al. recently published a study of minimally invasive esophagectomy (mainly using thoracoscopic mobilization) in 222 patients. Mortality rate was only 1.4% and hospital stay was only 7 days, which is less than most open procedures; only 16 patients (7.2%) required conversion to an open procedure.⁴³ However, it is important to note that 62% of their patients had early-stage disease. Minimally invasive esophagectomy is useful for older patients.⁴⁴

No randomized trials have assessed whether minimally invasive esophagectomy improves survival when compared with open procedures. Open esophagectomy is still preferred in many settings (eg, large and bulky tumors, concerns about the location of positive margins, concerns that the gastric conduit may not be useable, patient has undergone multiple previous upper abdominal surgeries). Open surgery should remain the standard for many patients.

Surgical Outcomes

One of the major developments in the surgical therapy of esophageal cancer has been the marked reduction in surgical morbidity and mortality as a result of improvements in staging techniques, patient selection, support systems and surgical experience.⁴⁵ Recent randomized trials have showed that preoperative chemoradiation (CALGB 9781) and perioperative chemotherapy (MAGIC trial, predominantly a gastric cancer trial including a small group of patients with lower esophageal and GE junction cancers) significantly improved survival in patients with resectable esophageal and gastroesophageal cancer.^{46,47}

Stage I, II, and III cancers are assumed to be potentially resectable. Modern preoperative staging including esophageal ultrasound, combined PET and CT scans, and molecular biologic techniques may result in improved prognostic stratification, improved patient selection for surgical therapy, and improved overall survival.^{48,49,50} A recent study reported that serum c-reactive protein levels, body weight change, and clinical TNM staging before treatment can be combined in an index to predict the prognosis of patients with esophageal cancer.⁵¹ C-reactive protein needs to be further investigated before its routine incorporation into initial staging. Pretreatment weight loss is a documented prognostic factor.

Radiation Therapy

Several historical series have reported results of using external-beam radiation therapy (RT) alone. Most of these series included patients with unfavorable features, such as clinical T4 cancer. Overall, the

5-year survival rate for patients treated with conventional doses of RT alone is 0-10%.^{52,53,54} Shi et al. reported a 33% 5-year survival rate with the use of late-course accelerated fractionation to a total dose of 68.4 Gy.⁵⁵ However, in the Radiation Therapy Oncology Group (RTOG) 85-01 trial, in which patients in the RT-alone arm received 64 Gy at 2 Gy/d with conventional techniques, all patients died of cancer by 3 years.^{56,57} Therefore, the panel recommends that RT alone should generally be reserved for palliation or for patients who are medically unable to receive chemotherapy.

Alternative radiation approaches, such as hypoxic cell sensitizers and hyperfractionation, have not resulted in a clear survival advantage. Experience with intraoperative radiation as an alternative to external-beam radiation is limited.⁵⁸⁻⁶² Intensity-modulated radiation therapy (IMRT) is currently being investigated. Retrospective planning studies comparing three dimensional (3D) conformal versus IMRT treatment plans for esophagus cancer have generally shown superior dose conformity and homogeneity with IMRT and reduction of radiation dose to the lungs and heart.

In the adjuvant setting, randomized trials do not show a survival advantage for preoperative or postoperative RT alone.⁶³ A meta-analysis from the Oesophageal Cancer Collaborative Group also showed no clear evidence of a survival advantage with preoperative radiation.⁶⁴

Principles of Radiation Therapy

NCCN®

RT (definitive, preoperative, postoperative or palliative) can be an integral part of treatment for esophageal cancer. The panel recommends a multidisciplinary team, which should include medical, radiation and surgical oncologist, radiologists, gastroenterologists and pathologists. The panel encourages the use of CT simulation and 3D treatment planning. Intravenous and /or oral contrast may be used

when appropriate for CT simulation to aid target localization. Use of immobilization device is strongly recommended for reproducibility.

The gross tumor volume (GTV) should include the primary tumor and involved regional lymph nodes as identified by imaging studies such as CT scan, barium swallow, EUS and PET/CT scans. The clinical tumor volume (CTV) should include the areas at risk for microscopic disease. The planning target volume (PTV) should include the tumor plus a cephalad and caudal margin of 5 cm, and a radial margin of 1.5-2 cm.

The panel recommends a dose range of 50-50.4 Gy delivered in fractions of 1.8-2 Gy per day. Every effort should be made to reduce unnecessary radiation doses to vital organs such as liver, kidneys, spinal cord, heart (especially the left ventricle) and lungs. Optimal dose ranges for these vital organs are included in <u>ESOPH-D</u>. Lung dose volume histogram (DVH) parameters should be considered as predictors of pulmonary complications in patients with esophageal cancer. Optimal criteria for DVH parameters are being actively developed in NCCN institutions.

Close patient monitoring and aggressive supportive care are essential during radiation treatment. Management of acute toxicities is necessary to avoid treatment interruptions or dose reductions. Antiemetics should be given on a prophylactic basis when appropriate. Antacid and antidiarrheal medications may be prescribed when needed. If the caloric intake is inadequate, oral, enteral and /or intravenous hyperalimentation should be considered. Feeding jejunostomies may be placed if clinically indicated.

Brachytherapy

Brachytherapy alone is a palliative modality and results in a local control rate of 25-35% and in a median survival of approximately 5 months. In the randomized trial from Sur et al., no significant difference was seen in local control or survival with high dose brachytherapy

compared with external beam.⁶⁵ In the RTOG 92-07 trial, 75 patients received the RTOG 85-01 combined modality regimen (5-fluorouracil and cisplatin with 50 Gy of external beam RT) followed by an intraluminal boost.⁶⁶ Local failure was 27%, and acute toxicity included 58% with grade 3, 26% with grade 4, and 8% with grade 5. The cumulative incidence of fistula was 18% per year, and the crude incidence was 14%. Therefore, the additional benefit of adding intraluminal brachytherapy to radiation or combined modality therapy, although reasonable, remains unclear.

Combined Modality Treatments: Concomitant Chemotherapy and Radiation Therapy

Multiple modalities have been employed for treatment of esophageal cancer because of the overall poor survival rates of patients who have been treated with resection alone.^{67,68,69} Concomitant chemoradiation therapy versus RT, each without resection, was studied in the only randomized trial (RTOG 85-01) designed to deliver adequate doses of systemic chemotherapy with concurrent RT. ^{56,57,70}

Primary Chemoradiation Therapy

In the RTOG 85-01 trial, patients with SCC received 4 cycles of 5-fluorouracil and cisplatin.^{56,57,70} RT (50 Gy at 2 Gy/d) was given concurrent with day 1 of chemotherapy. The control arm was RT alone, albeit a higher dose (64 Gy) than in the combined modality therapy arm. Patients who were randomly assigned to receive combined modality therapy showed a significant improvement in both median survival (14 vs. 9 months) and 5-year survival (27% vs. none).⁵⁷ With a minimum follow-up of 5 years, the 8-year survival was 22%. The incidence of local failure as the first site of failure (defined as local persistence plus recurrence) was also lower in the combined modality arm (47% vs. 65%).

The INT 0123 trial was the follow-up trial to RTOG 85-01, comparing 2 different RT doses used with the same chemotherapy regimen (5-fluorouracil and cisplatin).⁷¹ In this trial, 218 patients with either SCC (85%) or adenocarcinoma (15%) were randomly assigned to a higher dose (64.8 Gy) of RT or the standard dose of 50.4 Gy used with same chemotherapy regimen (5-fluorouracil and cisplatin). No significant difference was observed in median survival (13.0 vs.18.1 months), 2-year survival (31% vs. 40%), and local/regional failure or local/regional persistence of cancer (56% vs. 52%) between the high-dose and standard-dose RT arms.

After the results of these studies, primary chemoradiation therapy with 5-fluooruracil and cisplatin using the RT dose of 50.4 Gy was established as the standard of care for patients with esophageal cancer.

Preoperative Chemoradiation Therapy

Preoperative chemoradiation followed by surgery is the most common approach for patients with resectable esophageal cancer, although this approach remains investigational.⁷² In patients with advanced unresectable esophageal cancer, chemoradiation may be appropriate and occasionally can facilitate surgical resection in selected cases. For non-surgical candidates, with technically resectable cancer, definitive chemoradiation therapy is also an appropriate option.

Phase I and II studies have shown preoperative chemoradiation therapy to be effective for localized esophageal cancer.⁷³⁻⁷⁷ Chemoradiation therapy plus surgery significantly reduces 3-year mortality and locoregional recurrence when compared with surgery alone as shown in a recent meta-analysis.⁷⁸ Preoperative chemoradiation therapy also downstaged the tumor.⁷⁹ Retrospective analysis of 363 patients with localized esophageal cancer showed that the overall survival (overall survival) after preoperative chemoradiation was significantly shorter for patients with Barrett's esophagus compared to those without Barrett's esophagus (32 months vs. 51 months respectively).⁸⁰

Another recent meta-analysis (1,209 patients, 10 randomized comparisons of preoperative chemoradiation vs. surgery alone), showed a significant survival benefit for preoperative chemoradiation in patients with adenocarcinoma of the esophagus.⁸¹ However, randomized trials comparing preoperative combined modality therapy with surgery alone in patients with clinically resectable cancer have shown conflicting results.⁸²⁻⁸⁸

Stahl et al. studied the effect of adding surgery to chemoradiation therapy in patients with locally advanced esophageal cancer. ⁸⁹ In this study, 172 patients with locally advanced esophageal cancer were treated with induction chemotherapy followed by chemoradiation therapy and were then randomized to undergo surgery or receive additional chemoradiation therapy. Two-year progression-free survival (PFS) was better in the surgery group (64.3%) than in the chemoradiation therapy group (40.7%). However, there was no difference was seen in overall survival between the two groups. The surgery group had significantly higher treatment-related mortality than the chemoradiation therapy group (12.8% vs. 3.5%, respectively). Long-term results with a median follow-up of 10 years also showed no clear difference in survival between the two groups.⁹⁰

Recently, Bedenne et al (FFCD 9102 trial) also showed that adding surgery to chemoradiation provided no benefit compared with treatment with additional chemoradiation, especially in patients with locally advanced SCC of the esophagus who experience response to initial chemoradiation therapy.⁹¹

CALGB 9781 was a prospective randomized Intergroup trial comparing trimodality therapy with surgery alone for the treatment of stage I-III

esophageal cancer.⁴⁶ The study fell short of its accrual goals with only 56 patients enrolled. Those patients were randomized to undergo either surgery alone or receive concurrent chemoradiation therapy with cisplatin and 5-fluorouracil. Median follow-up was 6 years. An intent-to-treat analysis showed a median survival of 4.5 years vs.1.8 years, favoring trimodality therapy. Patients receiving trimodality therapy also had a significantly better 5-year survival rate (39% vs.16%). Although the accrual rate was low, the observed difference in survival was significant and this study showed that trimodality therapy might be an appropriate standard of care for patients with localized esophageal cancer.

Postoperative Chemoradiation Therapy

Macdonald et al. investigated the effect of surgery plus postoperative chemoradiation on the survival of patients with resectable adenocarcinoma of the stomach or GE junction.⁹² This study randomly assigned 556 patients with resected adenocarcinoma of the stomach or GE junction were randomly assigned to surgery plus postoperative chemoradiation (5-flurouracil/leucovorin) or surgery alone. Median overall survival in the surgery only group was 27 months, as compared with 36 months in the chemoradiation group. The hazard ratio for death was 1.35. The chemoradiation group had better 3-year survival rates (50% vs. 41%) and 3-year relapse-free survival (RFS) rates (48% vs.31%) than the surgery-only group. Postoperative chemoradiation therapy significantly improved overall survival and RFS for all patients at high risk for recurrence of adenocarcinoma of the stomach or GE junction. One major criticism of this trial is that 54% of patients had a D0 resection (with sub optimal dissection of N1 lymph nodes) and only 36% of patients had a D1 resection. However, surgery was not an integral part of this protocol and eligible patients were randomized only after surgery was completed.

Chemotherapy

Preoperative Chemotherapy

Chemotherapy alone has been investigated in the preoperative setting. RTOG 8911 (Intergroup 0113) trial randomized patients with potentially resectable esophageal cancer of both histologic types to receive either preoperative chemotherapy (5-fluorouracil plus cisplatin) or undergo surgery alone. The preliminary results of this study did not show any survival benefit between the two groups.⁹³ Long-term results of this study showed that 63% of patients treated with chemotherapy followed by surgery underwent complete resection (R0) compared with 59% of patients treated with surgery alone. Although preoperative chemotherapy decreased the incidence of R1 resection (4% compared with 15% in the surgery only group), no improvement was seen in the overall survival between the two groups.⁹⁴

The Medical Research Council (MRC) published their trial (MRC OEO2), which involved 802 patients with potentially resectable esophageal cancer.⁹⁵ In this trial, patients were randomly assigned to receive either 2 cycles of preoperative 5-fluorouracil (1000 mg/m² per day by continuous infusion for 4 days) and cisplatin (80 mg/m² on day 1) repeated every 21 days followed by surgery, or surgery alone. However, this trial had several clinical methodology problems. Nearly 10% of patients received off-protocol preoperative RT, and patients accrued in China were excluded. At a short median follow-up time of 2 years, the group treated with preoperative chemotherapy had a 3.5 month survival time advantage (16.8 vs.13.3 months). Long-term follow-up confirmed that preoperative chemotherapy improves survival in patients with resectable esophageal cancer. At a median follow-up of 6 years, disease-free and overall survival were significantly longer for the preoperative chemotherapy group. The difference in survival favoring the preoperative chemotherapy group (23% vs.17% for surgery) was consistent in patients with adenocarcinoma and SCC.⁹⁶

The phase III study conducted by the French Study group (FNLCC ACCORD07-FFCD 9703), compared preoperative chemotherapy [5-fluorouracil and cisplatin (FP)] with surgery alone in patients with adenocarcinoma of the stomach and lower esophagus.⁹⁷ This study randomized 224 patients between surgery alone and preoperative chemotherapy (FP) followed by surgery. Post-operative FP was recommended for patients responding to preoperative FP. At a median follow-up of 5.7 years, 3 and 5-year disease free survival rates were 40% and 34% respectively for patients who received preoperative FP compared with 25% and 21% respectively for those treated with surgery alone. The preoperative chemotherapy group also had better 3- and 5-year overall survival rates (48% and 38% respectively) compared with the surgery-alone group (35% and 24%, respectively).

An individual patient data-based meta-analysis showed a small but significant overall and disease-free survival benefit favoring preoperative chemotherapy over surgery alone. A 4% increase in 5-year overall and disease-free survival favored the preoperative chemotherapy group.⁹⁸

Perioperative Chemotherapy

The British Medical Research Council performed the first well-powered phase III trial (MAGIC trial) for perioperative chemotherapy.⁴⁷ This trial evaluated the effect of perioperative chemotherapy with the ECF (epirubicin, cisplatin and 5-fluorouracil) regimen given before and after surgery in resectable gastroesophageal cancer. Most (74%) of the patients had stomach cancer, whereas a small group of patients had lower esophageal cancer (14%) and cancer of esophagogastric junction (11%). The perioperative chemotherapy group had a greater proportion of pathologic T1 and T2 tumors (51.7%) than the surgery group (36.8%). Five-year survival rates were 36% among those who received perioperative chemotherapy with the ECF regimen significantly

improved PFS and overall survival in patients with operable gastric and lower esophageal adenocarcinomas.

Chemotherapy for Advanced Disease

Combination chemotherapy for metastatic esophageal cancer continues to evolve. Compared with adenocarcinoma, SCC seems to be more sensitive to chemotherapy, chemoradiation, and RT, but the long-term outcome is the same.²⁰ In randomized clinical trials, no consistent benefit was seen for any specific chemotherapy regimen and chemotherapy showed no survival benefit compared with best supportive care for patients with advanced esophageal cancer.⁹⁹ Adequately powered phase III studies are lacking. Palliative chemotherapy is not known to provide any survival advantage, but it may improve quality of life in patients with metastatic or unresectable esophageal cancer.¹⁰⁰

Cisplatin is one of the most active agents, with a single-agent response rate consistently in the range of 20% or greater.¹⁰¹ Older agents that are active include 5-fluorouracil, mitomycin, bleomycin, methotrexate, mitoguazone, doxorubicin, and vindesine.^{102,103} Newer agents such as irinotecan, docetaxel, paclitaxel and oxaliplatin have shown activity in advanced esophageal cancer.¹⁰⁴⁻¹⁰⁷ Novel targeted therapies are in development for advanced esophageal cancer.¹⁰⁸⁻¹¹¹

Fluorouracil plus cisplatin is the most investigated and most commonly used regimen for patients with esophageal cancer. Reported response rates to this combination vary between 20-50%.¹⁰³ Paclitaxel combined with 5-fluorouracil and cisplatin has demonstrated activity in patients with SCC and adenocarcinoma.¹¹² In addition, the combination of irinotecan and cisplatin seems to have activity, particularly against SCC of the esophagus.¹¹³ In a phase II study, docetaxel, cisplatin, and irinotecan yielded a 63% response rate (10 out of 16 patients).¹¹⁴

Cisplatin in combination with gemcitabine has also been evaluated in phase II studies in patients with metastatic and advanced esophageal cancer. ^{115,116} Median survival was 7.3 months in patients with patients with metastatic esophageal cancer. In patients with advanced esophageal cancer the combination of gemcitabine and cisplatin yielded a 45% response rate. In a prospective randomized study, the combination of mitomycin, cisplatin and protracted intravenous infusion of fluorouracil (PVI 5-FU) [MCF] was equally efficient to the combination of epirubicin, cisplatin and PVI 5-FU (ECF) for patients with advanced esophagogastric cancer, but the quality of life was superior with ECF regimen.¹¹⁷

Capecitabine is an orally administered fluoropyrimidine that is converted to 5-flurouracil preferentially in the tumor tissue. Capecitabine has been evaluated in combination with other agents in advanced esophagogastric cancers.¹¹⁸ The REAL-2 trial (30% of patients with esophageal cancer) was a randomized multicenter phase III study comparing capecitabine with fluorouracil and oxaliplatin with cisplatin in 1002 patients with advanced esophagogastric cancer.¹¹⁹ Patients with histologically confirmed adenocarcinoma, SCC or undifferentiated cancer of the esophagus, GE junction or stomach were randomized to receive 1 of 4 epirubicin-based regimens [ECF, epirubicin, oxaliplatin, 5-fluorouracil (EOF), epirubicin, cisplatin and capecitabine (ECX) and epirubicin, oxaliplatin and capecitabine (EOX)]. Median follow-up was 17.1 months. No significant differences in response rates were seen among the ECF (41%) and EOF, ECX, and EOX regimens (42%, 46%, and 48%, respectively). Overall survival at one year was 37.7% for ECF compared with 40.4%, 40.8%, and 46.8% for EOF, ECX and EOX regimens, respectively. Overall survival and response rates were better for EOX than ECF. This trial concluded that capecitabine is non inferior to 5-fluorouracil and that oxaliplatin is non inferior to cisplatin in the treatment of patients with advanced gastroesophageal cancers.

In phase II studies, non-cisplatin containing regimens have shown activity in patients with advanced esophageal cancer.^{120,121} The combination of 5-fluorouracil, leucovorin and irinotecan was found to be active in primary refractory and platinum resistant advanced esophageal cancer. Overall response rate was 29% and an additional 34% had stable disease. Median failure-free survival was 3.7 months and median overall survival was 6.4 months.¹²⁰ The combination of carboplatin and paclitaxel regimen was moderately active with a response rate of 43% in patients with advanced esophageal cancer. However, 52% of patients had neutropenia (grade 3-4).¹²¹

Recently published results from the phase III trial conducted by the German Study Group showed that the combination of fluorouracil, leucovorin and oxaliplatin (FLO) was associated with significantly less toxicity than fluorouracil, leucovorin and cisplatin (FLP) in patients with metastatic gastroesophageal cancer.¹²² There was a trend toward improved median PFS with FLO (5.8 v 3.9 months). However, no significant differences were seen in median overall survival (10.7 vs. 8.8 months, respectively) between the FLO and FLP. In patients older than 65 years, FLO resulted in significantly superior response rates (41.3% vs.16.7%), time to treatment failure (5.4 vs. 2.3 months), and PFS (6.0 vs. 3.1 months), and an improved overall survival (13.9 vs. 7.2 months) compared with FLP, respectively.

Treatment Guidelines

The management of esophageal cancer requires the expertise of several disciplines (thoracic surgery, radiation oncology, medical oncology, nutritional and pulmonary support, and endoscopy). Hence, the panel believes that multidisciplinary evaluation is preferred for the treatment of patients with esophagogastric cancer. The guidelines have now included a section on Principles of Multidisciplinary Team Approach for Gastroesophageal Cancers (ESOPH-A).

Esophagogastric Junction

Cancer of the esophagogastric junction has been characterized by Siewert et al.^{123,124} If the tumor center or more than 66% of the tumor mass is located more than 1 cm above the anatomic GE junction, then the tumor is classified as an adenocarcinoma of the distal esophagus, type I. If the tumor center or tumor mass is located within 1-cm oral and 2-cm distal to the anatomic GE junction, this adenocarcinoma is classified as type II. If the tumor center or more than 66% of the tumor mass is located more than 2 cm below the anatomic GE junction, the tumor is classified as adenocarcinoma of the GE junction, type III.¹²⁴

In 2000, the classification changed slightly. Patients whose tumors have a center that is 5-cm proximal or distal to the anatomic cardia are classified as having adenocarcinomas of the esophagogastric junction. These tumors include type I adenocarcinoma, which may infiltrate the esophagogastric junction from above; type II adenocarcinoma, which arises from the esophagogastric junction; and type III adenocarcinoma, or subcardial gastric carcinoma, which infiltrates up to the esophagogastric junction from below.¹²⁴

Siewert et al noted that the description of these types of tumors is based purely on the anatomic location of the epicenter of the tumor or the location of the tumor mass.¹²³ Various techniques used to determine this include barium esophagography, esophagoscopy, and CT. An individualized therapeutic approach may be preferred for specific patients and tumor locations, based on thorough pretreatment staging. Therapeutic decisions may be refined according to the location of the individual tumor and specific requirements for local control.

Workup

Newly diagnosed patients should undergo a complete history, physical examination, and endoscopy of the entire upper GI tract (<u>ESOPH-1</u>). Histological confirmation of cancer is required. For patients in whom the

upper GI tract cannot be visualized, a double-contrast barium study of the upper GI tract is optional. A complete blood count (CBC), multichannel serum chemistry analysis, coagulation studies, and CT scan (with contrast) of the chest and abdomen should also be performed. At this point, if metastatic cancer is not evident, EUS with fine-needle aspiration is recommended if indicated. If the cancer is locate/ at or above the carina, bronchoscopy (including biopsy of any abnormality and cytology of the washings) should be performed. In addition, if the cancer is located at the GE junction, laparoscopic staging of the peritoneal cavity is optional. Suspicions for metastatic cancer should be confirmed by biopsy.

Practice Guidelines

in Oncology - v.1.2009

PET/CT scans may be useful for detection of distant lymphatic and hematogenous metastases.¹²⁵ PET/CT scan has been shown to improve lymph node staging and the detection of stage IV esophageal cancer.¹²⁶ It was also shown to be an independent predictor of overall survival in patients with non-metastatic esophageal cancer.¹²⁷ In addition, PET scan was also found to be useful in predicting responses to chemoradiation therapy before surgery.¹²⁸⁻¹³¹

Combined PET-CT imaging has many advantages over PET scan alone and it significantly improves the diagnostic accuracy.¹³² It is also useful in the initial staging and evaluation of patients after chemoradiation prior to surgical resection.¹³³ A recent study in patients with esophageal cancer reported that combined PET-CT scans are more accurate than esophageal ultrasound-fine needle aspiration and CT scan for predicting nodal status and complete response after neoadjuvant therapy.¹³⁴ When used alone, PET-CT and CT suggest targets for biopsy; however, false-positive results are common. Combined PET-CT scans are emerging and seem to be useful for restaging patients and monitoring response to primary therapy. Additional studies are needed to assess the efficacy of combined PET-CT scan in esophageal cancer. PET-CT scans are useful if there is no evidence of metastatic disease.

Additional Evaluation

In patients with apparent locoregional cancer, additional evaluations may be warranted to assess their medical condition and feasibility of resection, especially for patients with celiac-positive disease. These evaluations may include pulmonary function studies, cardiac testing, and nutritional assessment. Nasogastric or jejunostomy tube should be considered for preoperative nutritional support. Percutaneous endoscopic gastronomy is not recommended. Moreover, evaluation of the colon using barium radiograph or colonoscopy may be warranted if colon interposition is planned as part of the surgical procedure. A superior mesenteric artery angiogram should be considered only in selected cases when colon interposition is planned.

Initial workup enables patients to be classified into two groups: patients with apparent locoregional cancer (stages I-III, IVA) and those with metastatic cancer (stage IVB). Patients with locoregional cancer are further classified into the following groups after additional evaluation (<u>ESOPH-1</u>):

- Resectable cancer (Tis, T1-T4, N0-1, NX, or stage IVA) in medically fit patients
- Unresectable cancer (T4 or stage IVA) in patients medically unfit for surgery or surgery not elected and patient is medically able to tolerate chemotherapy
- Medically unfit for surgery and patient is unable to tolerate chemotherapy
- Metastatic cancer

Resectable Esophageal Cancer

Esophagectomy, EMR or other ablative techniques is the primary treatment option for patients with Tis or T1a tumors (<u>ESOPH-2</u>). Esophagectomy is the preferred treatment option for medically fit patients with non-cervical T1b, N0, NX tumors, whereas chemoradiation therapy is the preferred modality for cervical T1b tumors.

Primary treatment options for medically fit patients with resectable T1b, N1 or T2-T4, N0-1, NX, or stage IVA tumors include preoperative chemotherapy (only for adenocarcinoma of distal esophagus or GE junction), preoperative chemoradiation or definitive chemoradiation (ESOPH-2). In patients receiving preoperative therapy, CT and PET-CT scan can be considered before surgery or initiation of postoperative treatment. After preoperative therapy, esophagectomy is the preferred treatment option for all patients with no evidence of disease and for surgical candidates with persistent local disease with no metastases. Palliative treatment including chemotherapy is recommended for non-surgical candidates with persistent local disease and for those with unresectable or metastatic disease after preoperative chemoradiation (ESOPH-2). No further treatment is recommended for patients receiving definitive chemoradiation as primary treatment.

Postoperative treatment is based on the surgical margins, nodal status and histology (<u>ESOPH-3</u>). In patients with no residual disease at surgical margins (R0 resection), no further treatment is necessary for those with SCC, irrespective of their nodal status. In patients with node negative adenocarcinoma, no further treatment is essential for those with Tis, T1, N0 and T2, N0 tumors. Fluoropyrimidine-based chemoradiation is recommended for patients with T3, N0 tumors and for selected high-risk patients (poorly differentiated histology, younger patients, and lymphovascular or neurovascular invasion) with T2, N0 tumors, only if they have not received preoperative chemoradiation. In patients with positive nodes, those with adenocarcinoma of proximal or mid esophagus can either be observed or be treated with fluoropyrimidine-based chemoradiation, although comparative data for this recommendation are lacking (category 2B). Fluoropyrimidine-based chemoradiation is recommended for patients with adenocarcinoma of the distal esophagus and GE junction (category 1). Postoperative chemotherapy is recommended for patients who were treated with preoperative chemotherapy. Based on the results of the MAGIC trial, perioperative chemotherapy with ECF regimen (epirubicin, cisplatin and 5-fluorouracil) or its modifications is recommended only for patients with adenocarcinoma of the distal esophagus or GE junction.⁴⁷

Fluoropyrimidine-based chemoradiation is recommended for all patients after esophagectomy with microscopic (R1 resection) or macroscopic residual disease with no distant disease (R2 resection). Palliative therapy is an alternative option for patients with macroscopic residual disease (<u>ESOPH-3</u>).

The regimens included in the guidelines for preoperative or definitive chemoradiation are based on the preferences of the participating institutions mainly in the context of phase II trials. These regimens may not be superior to other regimens that are included with a category 1 recommendation. The following regimens are included in the guidelines for preoperative or definitive chemoradiation (ESOPH-C):

- Cisplatin in combination with fluoropyrimidine (5-fluorouracil or capecitabine) or irinotecan or docetaxel or paclitaxel
- Oxaliplatin, docetaxel or paclitaxel in combination with fluoropyrimidine (5-fluorouracil or capecitabine)

Cisplatin in combination with 5-fluorouracil has a category 1 recommendation when used as definitive chemoradiation, whereas cisplatin plus 5-fluorouracil or capecitabine has a category 2A recommendation for preoperative chemoradiation. All of the other regimens are listed as category 2B recommendation. Leucovorin or levoleucovorin can be used with certain infusional 5-fluorouracil-based regimens.

Unresectable Non-metastatic Esophageal Cancer

EMR, endoscopic ablation or best supportive care is recommended for patients with Tis or T1a tumors. Chemotherapy or fluoropyrimidine-based concurrent chemoradiation therapy or best supportive care is recommended for patients with unresectable non-metastatic cancer (T4 or stage IVA) who are medically unfit for surgery, have technically unresectable cancer, or choose not to undergo surgery (ESOPH-4). In a recent randomized phase II trial, patients with inoperable esophageal cancer were randomized to definitive chemoradiation therapy with either FOLFOX 4 or 5-fluorouracil and cisplatin.¹³⁵ Median time to progression (TTP) was 15 months for FOLFOX arm compared to 9.5 months for 5-fluorouracil and cisplatin. Median event free survival (11.6 vs. 7.8 months) and median overall survival (22.7 vs.14.7 months) were better with FOLFOX 4. This study is continuing as a phase III trial.

Best supportive care is a reasonable alternative for patients with inoperable cancers and is the recommended for those who cannot tolerate chemotherapy and are medically unfit for surgery.

Follow-up After Resection or Definitive Chemoradiation

All patients should be followed systematically. For asymptomatic patients, follow-up should include a complete history and physical examination every 4 months for 1 year, then every 6 months for 2 years, and annually thereafter (<u>ESOPH-5</u>). CBC, multichannel serum chemistry evaluation, endoscopy and imaging studies should be obtained as clinically indicated. Patients with Tis or T1a tumors who undergo EMR or other ablation procedures should undergo endoscopic surveillance every 3 months for one year and then annually. In addition,

some patients may require dilatation of an anastomotic or a chemoradiation-induced stricture. Nutritional counseling may be extremely valuable.¹³⁶

Recurrent and Metastatic Esophageal Cancer

Treatment for recurrent disease can range from aggressive intervention with curative intent in patients with locoregional relapse to therapy intended strictly for palliation in patients for whom cure is not a possibility. Local or regional recurrence after surgery in patients, who have not received prior RT or chemotherapy, can be treated with concurrent chemoradiation therapy (ESOPH-5). Other options include best supportive care or surgery. Selected patients with anastomotic recurrences can undergo re-resection. When recurrence develops after chemoradiation therapy with no prior surgery, the clinician should determine whether the patient is medically fit for surgery and if the relapse is resectable. If both criteria are met, surgery remains an option. When patients experience another relapse after surgery, the cancer is assumed to be incurable and palliative therapy should be provided as described for metastatic disease. Palliative therapy is also recommended for medically unfit patients and those who develop an unresectable recurrence.

Best supportive care is the appropriate treatment option for patients with metastatic cancer. Patients' performance status should determine whether chemotherapy is added to best supportive care. Several scales are available to measure performance status in patients with cancer. Karnofsky scale of Performance Status (KPS) and Eastern Cooperative Group Performance Status (ECOG PS) are the two commonly used scales.^{137,138,139} KPS is an ordered scale with 11 levels (0 to 100) and the general functioning and survival of a patient is assessed based on their health status (activity, work and self-care). Low Karnofsky scores are associated with poor survival and more serious illnesses (http://www.hospicepatients.org/karnofsky.html). ECOG PS is a 5-point

scale (0–5) based on the level of symptom interference with normal activity. Patients with higher levels are considered to have poor performance status (<u>http://www.ecog.org/general/perf_stat.html</u>).

Patients with a Karnofsky performance score of 60 or less or an ECOG performance score of 3 or more should probably be offered best supportive care. Patients with better performance status (Karnofsky performance score of 60 or more, or an ECOG performance score of 2 or less) may be offered chemotherapy along with best supportive care. Further treatment after two sequential regimens depends on the performance status and availability of clinical trials (ESOPH-6).

Phase III trials for metastatic esophageal cancer have not been performed for many years. The regimens listed in the guidelines are derived from the gastric adenocarcinoma phase III trials that have included patients with lower esophageal and/or GE junction cancer. The following regimens are listed in the guidelines for metastatic or locally advanced cancer when chemoradiation is not an option (ESOPH-C):

- Docetaxel, cisplatin or 5-fluorouracil (DCF) or its modifications
- Epirubicin, cisplatin and 5-fluorouracil (ECF) or its modifications
- Irinotecan in combination with cisplatin or fluoropyrimidine (5-fluorouracil or capecitabine)
- Oxaliplatin in combination with fluoropyrimidine (5-fluorouracil or capecitabine)
- Paclitaxel-based regimens

ECF regimen or its modifications and DCF regimen have a category 1 recommendation. DCF modifications and all other regimens have a category 2B recommendation. Leucovorin or levoleucovorin can be used with certain infusional 5-fluorouracil-based regimens.

Best Supportive Care

The goal of best supportive care is to prevent and relieve suffering and improve quality of life for patients and their caregivers regardless of the disease stage. In patients with unresectable or locally advanced cancer, palliative interventions provide symptomatic relief and may result in significant improvement in nutritional status, the sensation of well-being, and overall quality of life.¹⁴⁰ Palliative interventions for the management of dysphagia (swallowing impairment), pain and GI bleeding are described in detail in <u>ESOPH-E</u>.

Dysphagia

Dysphagia is the most common symptom in patients with esophageal cancer, especially those with locally advanced disease. Assessing the severity of the disease and swallowing impairment is essential to initiate appropriate interventions for long-term palliation of dysphagia in patients with esophageal cancer. Available endoscopic palliative methods for the management of dysphagia include endoscopic lumen restoration (guide wire or balloon dilatation), placement of permanent or temporary self-expanding metal stents (SEMS), argon plasma coagulation, endoscopic injections of ethanol, RT, brachytherapy, laser therapy, photodynamic therapy and chemotherapy alone or in combination with a radiosensitizing agent.^{141,142} Placement of jejunostomy or gastronomy tubes may be necessary to provide adequate hydration and nutrition.

Although various treatment options are available for the management of dysphagia, optimal treatment is still debated.¹⁴³⁻¹⁵⁶ Single-dose brachytherapy was associated with fewer complications and better long-term relief of dysphagia compared with metal stents.¹⁵⁷ The combination of photodynamic therapy and the self-expanding stents provided excellent palliation of dysphagia for patients with obstructive adenocarcinoma of the esophagus.¹⁵⁸ Temporary placement of SEMS with concurrent radiation therapy was found to be beneficial for

increasing survival rates compared with permanent stent placement.¹⁵⁹ Although SEMS is the preferred treatment for patients with tracheoesophageal fistula and those who are not candidates for chemoradiation, it is not an effective endoscopic approach.¹⁶⁰ Treatment options for the management of dysphagia should be individualized. Multimodality interdisciplinary approach is strongly recommended.

Pain

Patients experiencing tumor related pain should be assessed and treated according to <u>NCCN Clinical Practice Guidelines in Oncology:</u> <u>Adult Cancer Pain</u>. Severe uncontrolled pain after placement of stent should be treated with its immediate removal.

Bleeding

Bleeding in patients with esophageal cancer may be secondary to tumor related aorto-esophageal fistualization. Surgery or external beam RT and/or endoscopic therapy may be indicated in patients with brisk bleeding from the cancer. Bleeding that occurs primarily from the tumor surface may be controlled with endoscopic electrocoagulation techniques such as bipolar electrocoagulation or argon plasma coagulation.

Management of Barrett's Esophagus

Medical management of patients with Barrett's esophagus continues to evolve and is based on the symptomatic control of gastroesophageal reflux using histamine-receptor antagonists or proton pump inhibitors. Endoscopy is performed on patients with severe symptoms of gastroesophageal reflux, especially those with a family history of Barrett's esophagus or esophageal cancer. Endoscopic surveillance is performed to evaluate progression from metaplasia to low-grade dysplasia (LGD), high-grade dysplasia (HGD), or adenocarcinoma. However, controversy exists when recommending a surveillance schedule for patients with Barrett's metaplasia. Once the diagnosis of metaplasia is established, routine endoscopic screening with 4-quadrant biopsy every 1 to 3 years is indicated.¹⁶¹ The screening interval is decreased to 6 to 12 months if LGD is present. For patients with metaplasia or LGD, acid reflux is controlled with histamine-receptor antagonists or proton pump inhibitors (omeprazole, esomeprazole, lansoprazole, rabeprazole, or pantoprazole).

If HGD is discovered during surveillance, second pathologist should provide pathologic confirmation. Among patients found to have HGD, adenocarcinoma actually may be present in up to 50% of patients In a study of 15 patients preoperatively diagnosed with HGD who underwent esophagogastrectomy, the final pathologic study showed carcinoma-in-situ in 3 patients (20%) and invasive cancer in 8 (53%).²¹ A meta-analysis of published results of 119 patients undergoing resection showed a 2.6% operative mortality rate, a 47% incidence of invasive cancer, and an 82% 5-year survival rate in patients with invasive cancer., a substantial percentage of patients with HGD already have invasive cancer at diagnosis, with surgical resection the preferred treatment. Many alternatives to surgical resection are being investigated.

Alternative strategies for patients with HGD include mucosal ablation or further surveillance every 3 months. Mucosal ablation can be achieved with photodynamic therapy, argon beam coagulation, thermal laser ablation, or EMR.¹⁶² Among these methods of mucosal ablation, photodynamic therapy is superior for achieving ablation of metaplastic and dysplastic epithelium as well as for obviating the need for further interventions.¹⁶³ However, lifelong surveillance with deep biopsies is still required for patients with HGD who are treated with photodynamic therapy or EMR. For patients who are at high risk for cancer or refuse EMR, continued surveillance every 3 months is an option if definitive therapy would be offered for those who develop adenocarcinoma.

Summary

Esophageal cancer is a major health hazard in many parts of the world. Several advances have been made in staging procedures and therapeutic approaches. Unfortunately, esophageal cancer is often diagnosed late; therefore, most therapeutic approaches are palliative. Multidisciplinary team management is essential for treating patients with esophageal cancer.

SCC and adenocarcinoma are the 2 major types of esophageal cancer. SCC is most common in the endemic regions of the world, whereas adenocarcinoma is most common in nonendemic regions. Smoking and alcohol abuse are major risk factors for SCC. Barrett's esophagus, obesity, and GERD seem to be major risk factors for development of adenocarcinoma of the esophagus or GE junction.

Esophagectomy is considered the preferred primary treatment option for patients with resectable T1b, N0, or NX tumors. In medically fit patients with more advanced cancers, such as T1b, N1 to T4, N0-1, NX, or stage IVA, primary treatment options include definitive chemoradiation, preoperative chemotherapy, or chemoradiation followed by esophagectomy. Medically unfit patients may be offered definitive chemoradiation therapy.

Postoperative treatment is based on histology, surgical margins, and nodal status. In patients with SCC who have no residual disease at surgical margins (R0 resection), no further treatment is recommended, irrespective of their nodal status. Fluoropyrimidine-based chemoradiation is recommended for patients with node-positive and negative adenocarcinoma who have T2, N0 tumors with high-risk features and T3, N0 tumors. Postoperative chemotherapy may be considered (only if they underwent preoperative chemotherapy) for patients with resectable adenocarcinoma of the lower esophagus and GE junction. All patients with residual disease at surgical margins (R1 and R2 resections) may be treated with fluoropyrimidine-based chemoradiation.

Concurrent chemoradiation with a fluoropyrimidine-based regimen is recommended for unresectable disease in patients medically unfit for surgery and able to tolerate chemotherapy.

Best supportive care is an integral part of treatment, especially in patients with locally advanced disease. Assessing disease severity and related symptoms is essential to initiate appropriate palliative interventions that will prevent and relieve suffering and improve quality of life for patients and their caregivers. Metastatic disease in patients with good performance status can be treated with chemotherapy plus best supportive care, whereas best supportive care is recommended for those with poor performance status. Endoscopic palliation of esophageal cancer has improved substantially because of improving technology.

The NCCN Esophageal Cancer Guidelines emphasize that considerable advances have been made in the treatment of locoregional esophageal cancer. Novel therapeutic modalities, such as targeted therapies, vaccines, gene therapy, and antiangiogenic agents, are being studied in clinical trials for patients with esophageal cancer. The panel encourages patients with esophageal cancer to participate in well-designed clinical trials to enable further advances.

References

1. Jemal A, Siegel R, Ward E, et al. Cancer Statistics, 2008. CA Cancer J Clin. 2008;58(2):71-96.

2. Blot WJ, Devesa SS, Kneller RW, et al. Rising incidence of adenocarcinoma of the esophagus and gastric cardia. JAMA 1991;265:1287-1289.

3. Powell J, McConkey CC. Increasing incidence of adenocarcinoma of the gastric cardia and adjacent sites. Br J Cancer 1991;62:440-443.

4. Reed PI. Changing pattern of esophageal cancer. Lancet 1991;338:178.

5. Kamangar F, Dores GM, Anderson WF. Patterns of Cancer Incidence, Mortality, and Prevalence across Five Continents: Defining Priorities to Reduce Cancer Disparities in Different Geographic Regions of the World. J Clin Oncol. 2006;24(14):2137-2150.

6. Day NE, Varghese C. Oesophageal cancer. Cancer Surv 1994;19-20:43-54.

7. Corley DA, Buffler PA. Oesophageal and gastric cardia adenocarcinomas: analysis of regional variation using the Cancer Incidence in Five Continents database. Int J Epidemiol 2001;30:1415-1425.

8. Parkin DM, Muir CS. Cancer Incidence in Five Continents. Comparability and quality of data. IARC Sci Publ 1992;:45-173.

9. Munoz N, Day NE. Esophageal Cancer. In: Cancer Epidemiology and Prevention, 2nd ed. New York: Oxford University Press, 1996:681-706.

10. Younes M, Henson DE, Ertan A, Miller CC. Incidence and survival trends of esophageal carcinoma in the United States: racial and gender differences by histological type. Scand J Gastroenterol). 2002;37(12):1359-1365.

11. Lagergren J, Bergstrom R, Lindgren A, et al. The role of tobacco, snuff and alcohol use in the aetiology of cancer of the oesophagus and gastric cardia. Int J Cancer 2000;85:340-346.

12. Enzinger PC, Mayer RJ. Esophageal Cancer. N Engl J Med. 2003;349(23):2241-2252.

13. Layke JC, Lopez PP. Esophageal cancer: a review and update. Am Fam Physician. 2006;73(12):2187-2194.

14. Gammon M, Schoenberg J, Ahsan H, et al. Tobacco, alcohol, and socioeconomic status and adenocarcinomas of the esophagus and gastric cardia. J. Natl. Cancer Inst. 1997;89(17):1277-1284.

15. Cameron AJ, Romero Y. Symptomatic gastro-oesophageal reflux as a risk factor for oesophageal adenocarcinoma. Gut 2000;46:754-755.

16. Altorki NK, Oliveria S, Schrump DS. Epidemiology and molecular biology of Barrett's adenocarcinoma. Semin Surg Oncol 1997;13:270-280.

17. Drewitz DJ, Sampliner RE, Garewal HS. The incidence of adenocarcinoma in Barrett's esophagus: a prospective study of 170 patients followed 4.8 years. Am J Gastroenterol 1997;92:212-215.

18. Spechler SJ, Robbins AH, Rubins HB, et al. Adenocarcinoma and Barrett's esophagus. Gastroenterol 1984;87:927-933.

19. Greene FL, Page DL, Fleming ID, et al, eds. AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, 6th ed. New York: Springer-Verlag, 2002.

20. Korst RJ, Altorki NK. Imaging for esophageal tumors. Thorac Surg Clin 2004;14:61-69.

21. Ferguson MK, Naunheim KS. Resection for Barrett's mucosa with high-grade dysplasia: implications for prophylactic photodynamic therapy. J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg 1997;114:824-829.

22. Krasna MJ, Reed CE, Jaklitsch MT, et al. Thoracoscopic staging of esophageal cancer: A prospective multi-institutional trial. Ann Thorac Surg 1995;60:I337-1340.

Practice Guidelines

in Oncology – v.1.2009

23. Steyerberg EW, Neville BA, Kopper LB, Lemmens YE, Tilanus HW, Coebergh JW, Weeks JC, and Earle CC. Surgical mortality in patients with esophageal cancer: development and validation of a simple risk score. J Clin Oncol. 2006 ;24 (26):4277-4284.

24. Hofstetter WL. Lymph Node Dissection in Esophageal Cancer Current Therapies in Thoracic and Cardiovascular Surgery, edited by SC Yang and DE Cameron. Mosby, Inc., Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, pp. 360-363, 2004.

25. Groth SS, Whitson BA, Li Z, DeFor TE, et al. Determination of the ideal number of lymph nodes to examine to optimize survival in patients with esophageal carcinoma: Data from the surveillance epidemiology and end results database. 2008 ASCO Annual Meeting. J Clin Oncol 2008; 26(May 20 suppl): Abstract 4528.

26. Birkmeyer JD, Siewers AE, finlayson EVA, Stukel TA, Lucas FL, Batista I, Welch HG, and Wennber DE. Hospital volume and surgical mortality in the United States. N Engl J Med. 2002;346(15):1128-1137.

27. de Hoyos A, Litle VR, and Luketich JD. Minimally invasive esophagectomy. Surg Clin North Am. 2005;85 (3):631-647.

28. Swisher SG, Wynn P, Putnam JB, Mosheim MB, Correa AM, Komaki RR, Ajani JA, Smythe WR, Vaporciyan AA, Roth JA, and Walsh GL. Salvage esophagectomy for recurrent tumors after definitive chemotherapy and radiotherapy. J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg. 2002; 123:175-183.

29. Larghi A, Lightdale CJ, Ross AS, Fedi P, et al. Long-term follow-up of complete Barrett's eradication endoscopic mucosal resection (CBE-EMR) for the treatment of high-grade dysplasia and intramucosal carcinoma. Endoscopy 2007;39:1086-1091.

30. Lopes CV, Hela M, Pesenti C, Bories E, et al. Circumferential endoscopic resection of Barrett's esophagus with high-grade dysplasia or early adenocarcinoma. Surgical Endoscopy 2007; 21:820-824.

31. Overholt BF, Wang KK, Burdick S, Lightdale CJ, et al. Five-year efficacy and safety of photodynamic therapy with Photofrin in Barrett's high-grade dysplasia. Gastrointestinal Endoscopy 2007;66(3): 460-468.

32. Soetikno R, Kaltenbach T, Yeh R, Gotoda T. Endoscopic Mucosal Resection for Early Cancers of the Upper Gastrointestinal Tract. J Clin Oncol. 2005;23(20):4490-4498.

33. Fujita H, Sueyoshi S, Yamana H, Shinozaki K et al., Optimum treatment strategy for superficial esophageal cancer: Endoscopic mucosal resection versus radical esophagectomy. World Journal of Surgery. 2001; 25:424-431.

34. Ell C, May A, Gossner L, Pech O, et al. Endoscopic mucosal resection of early cancer and high-grade dysplasia in Barrett's esophagus. Gastroenterology 2000;118:670-677.

35. Conio M, Repici A, Cestari R, Blanchi S, et al., Endoscopic mucosal resection for high-grade dysplasia and intramucosal carcinoma in Barrett's esophagus: An Italian experience. World Journal of Gastroenterology 2005;11(42):6650-6655.

36. Maish MS, DeMeester SR. Endoscopic Mucosal Resection as a Staging Technique to Determine the Depth of Invasion of Esophageal Adenocarcinoma. Ann Thorac Surg. 2004;78(5):1777-1782.

37. Sonnett JR. Esophagectomy: The role of intrathoracic anastomosis. Chest Surg Clin North Am 2000;10:519-530.

38. Loinaz C, Altorki NK. Pitfalls and complications of colon interposition. Chest Surg Clin North Am 1997;7:530-549.

39. Bains MS. Ivor Lewis esophagectomy. Chest Surg Clin North Am 1995;5:515-526.

40. Orringer MB, Marshall B, Iannettoni MD. Transhiatal esophagogastrectomy: Clinical experience and refinements. Ann Surg 1999;230:392-397.

Practice Guidelines

NCCN°

41. Hulscher JBF, van Sandick JW, de Boer AGEM, et al. Extended Transthoracic Resection Compared with Limited Transhiatal Resection for Adenocarcinoma of the Esophagus. N Engl J Med. 2002;347(21):1662-1669.

42. Luketich JD, Schauer PR, Christie NA, et al. Minimally invasive esophagectomy. Ann Thorac Surg 2000;70:906-911.

43. Luketich JD, Alvelo-Rivera M, Buenaventura PO, et al. Minimally invasive esophagectomy: outcomes in 222 patients. Ann Surg 2003;238:486-494; discussion 494-495.

44. Perry Y, Fernando HC, Buenaventura PO, et al. Minimally invasive esophagectomy in the elderly. JSLS 2002;6:299-304.

45. Birkmeyer JD, Siewers AE, Finlayson EVA, et al. Hospital volume and surgical mortality in the United States. N Engl J Med 2002:346:1128-1137.

46. Tepper J, Krasna MJ, Niedzwiecki D, et al. Phase III trial of trimodality therapy with cisplatin, fluorouracil, radiotherapy, and surgery compared with surgery alone for esophageal cancer: CALGB 9781. J Clin Oncol. 2008:26(7):1086-1092.

47. Cunningham D, Allum WH, Stenning SP, et al. Perioperative Chemotherapy versus Surgery Alone for Resectable Gastroesophageal Cancer. N Engl J Med. 2006;355(1):11-20.

48. Flamen P, Lerut A, Van Cutsem E, et al. Utility of positron emission tomography for the staging of patients with potentially operable esophageal carcinoma. J Clin Oncol 2000;18:3202-3210.

49. Aloia TA, Harpole DH, Reed CE, et al. Tumor marker expression is predictive of survival in patients with esophageal cancer. Ann Thorac Surg 2001;72:859-866.

50. Swisher SG, Maish M, Erasmus JJ, et al. Utility of PET, CT, and EUS to identify pathologic responders in esophageal cancer. Ann Thorac Surg 2004;78:1152-1160.

51. Ikeda M, Natsugoe S, Ueno S, et al. Significant host- and tumor-related factors for predicting prognosis in patients with esophageal carcinoma. Ann Surg 2003;238:197-202.

52. De-Ren S. Ten-year follow-up of esophageal cancer treated by radical radiation therapy: analysis of 869 patients. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys. 1989;16:329-334.

53. Newaishy GA, Read GA, Duncan W, et al. Results of radical radiotherapy of squamous cell carcinoma of the esophagus. Clin Radiol 1982;33:347-352.

54. Okawa T. Kita M. Tanaka M. et al. Results of radiotherapy for inoperable locally advanced esophageal cancer. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys 1989;17:49-54.

55. Shi X, Yao W, Liu T. Late course accelerated fractionation in radiotherapy of esophageal carcinoma. Radiother Oncol 1999:51:21-26.

56. Herskovic A, Martz K, Al-Sarraf M, et al. Combined chemotherapy and radiotherapy compared with radiotherapy alone in patients with cancer of the esophagus. N Engl J Med 1992;326:1593-1598.

57. Al-Sarraf M, Martz K, Herskovic A, et al. Progress report of combined chemoradiotherapy versus radiotherapy alone in patients with esophageal cancer: an intergroup study. J Clin Oncol. 1997;15(1):277-284. Erratum appears in J Clin Oncol 1997;15(2):866.

58. Hosokawa M, Shirato H, Ohara K, et al. Intraoperative radiation therapy to the upper mediastinum and nerve-sparing three-field lymphadenectomy followed by external beam radiotherapy for patients with thoracic esophageal carcinoma. Cancer 1999;86:6-13.

59. Nutting CM, Bedford JL, Cosgrove VP, et al Intensity-modulated radiotherapy reduces lung irradiation in patients with carcinoma of the oesophagus. Frontiers of Radiation Therapy & Oncology. 37:128-31, 2002.

Practice Guidelines

60. Chandra A, Guerrero TM, Liu HH, et al. Feasibility of using intensity-modulated radiotherapy to improve lung sparing in treatment planning for distal esophageal cancer. Radiother Oncol. 2005;77(3):247-253.

61. Fu WH, Wang LH, Zhou ZM, Dai JR, Hu YM, Zhao LJ. Comparison of conformal and intensity-modulated techniques for simultaneous integrated boost radiotherapy of upper esophageal carcinoma. World J Gastroenterol. 2004;10(8):1098-1102.

62. Mayo CS, Urie MM, Fitzgerald TJ, Ding L, Lo YC, Bogdanov M. Hybrid IMRT for Treatment of Cancers of the Lung and Esophagus. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys. 2008;71(5):1408-1418.

63. Schrump DS, Altorki N, Forastiere A, et al. Cancer of the esophagus. In: DeVita VT, Hellman S, Rosenberg SA, eds. Cancer: Principles and Practice of Oncology. (6th ed). Philadelphia: Lippincott, Williams and Wilkens, 2001:1051-1091.

64. Arnott SJ, Duncan W, Gignoux M, et al. Preoperative radiotherapy in esophageal carcinoma: a meta-analysis using individual patient data (Oesophageal Cancer Collaborative Group). Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys 1998;41:579-583.

65. Sur RK, Donde B, Levin VC, et al. Fractionated high dose rate intraluminal brachytherapy in palliation of advanced esophageal cancer. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys 1998;40:447-453.

66. Gaspar LE, Qian C, Kocha WI, et al. A phase I/II study of external beam radiation, brachytherapy and concurrent chemotherapy in localized cancer of the esophagus (RTOG 92-07): preliminary toxicity report. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys 1997;37:593-599.

67. Anderson SE, Minsky BD, Bains M, et al. Combined modality therapy in esophageal cancer: the Memorial experience. Semin Surg Oncol 2003:21:228-232.

68. Koshy M, Esiashvilli N, Landry JC, et al. Multiple management modalities in esophageal cancer: Combined modality management approaches. The Oncologist 2004;9:147-159.

69. Kleinberg L, Forastiere AA. Chemoradiation in the management of esophageal cancer. J Clin Oncol. 2007;25(26):4110-4117.

70. Cooper JS, Guo MD, Herskovic A, et al. Chemoradiotherapy of locally advanced esophageal cancer. Long-term follow-up of a prospective randomized trial (RTOG 85-01). JAMA 1999:281:1623-1627.

71. Minsky BD, Pajak T, Ginsberg RJ, et al. INT 0123 (RTOG 94-05) phase III trial of combined modality therapy for esophageal cancer: high dose (64.8 Gy) vs. standard dose (50.4 Gy) radiation therapy. J Clin Oncol 2002;20:1167-1174.

72. Iver R, Wilkinson N, Demmy T, et al. Controversies in the multimodality management of locally advanced esophageal cancer: Evidence-based review of surgery alone and combined-modality therapy. Ann Surg Oncol 2004;11:665-673.

73. Meluch AA, Greco FA, Gray JR, et al. Preoperative Therapy with Concurrent Paclitaxel/Carboplatin/Infusional 5-FU and Radiation Therapy in Locoregional Esophageal Cancer: Final Results of a Minnie Pearl Cancer Research Network Phase II Trial. Cancer Journal. 2003;9(4):251-260.

74. Pasini F, de Manzoni G, Pedrazzani C, et al. High pathological response rate in locally advanced esophageal cancer after neoadjuvant combined modality therapy: dose finding of a weekly chemotherapy schedule with protracted venous infusion of 5-fluorouracil and dose escalation of cisplatin, docetaxel and concurrent radiotherapy. Ann Oncol. 2005;16(7):1133-1139.

75. Khushalani NI, Leichman CG, Proulx G, et al. Oxaliplatin in combination with protracted-infusion fluorouracil and radiation: report of a clinical trial for patients with esophageal cancer. J Clin Oncol 2002;20:2844-2850.

Esophageal Cancer in Oncology – v.1.2009

76. Ajani JA, Walsh G, Komaki R, et al. Preoperative induction of CPT-11 and cisplatin chemotherapy followed by chemoradiotherapy in patients with locoregional carcinoma of the esophagus or gastroesophageal junction. Cancer 2004;100:2347-2354.

Practice Guidelines

77. Tew WP, Minsky B, Bains M, et al. Phase II trial of preoperative combined modality therapy for esophageal carcinoma: Induction cisplatin-irinotecan followed by concurrent cisplatin-irinotecan and radiotherapy. J Clin Oncol (Meeting Abstracts). 2005;23(16_suppl):4017.

78. Urschel JD, Vasan H. A meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials that compared neoadjuvant chemoradiation and surgery to surgery alone for resectable esophageal cancer. Am J Surg 2003;185:538-543.

79. Fiorica F, Di Bona D, Schepis F, et al. Preoperative chemoradiotherapy for oesophageal cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Gut 2004;53:925-930.

80. Cen P, Ajani JA, Correa AM, Lee JH, et al. Adenocarcinoma of the lower esophagus with Barrett's or without Barrett's: differences in patients survival after preoperative chemoradiation. 2008 ASCO Annual Meeting. J Clin Oncol 2008; 26(May 20 suppl): Abstract 4524.

81. Gebski V, Burmeister B, Smithers BM, Foo K, et al. Survival benefits from neoadjuvant chemoradiotherapy or chemotherapy in oesophageal carcinoma: a meta-analysis. Lancet Oncol. 2007;8(3):226-234.

82. Urba SG, Orringer MB, Turrisi A, et al. Randomized trial of preoperative chemoradiation versus surgery alone in patients with locoregional esophageal carcinoma. J Clin Oncol 2001;19:305-313.

83. Ajani JA, Komaki R, Putnam JB, et al. A three-step strategy of induction chemotherapy then chemoradiation followed by surgery in patients with potentially resectable carcinoma of the esophagus or gastroesophageal junction. Cancer 2001;92:279-286.

84. Kaklamanos IG, Walker GR, Ferry K, et al. Neoadjuvant treatment for resectable cancer of the esophagus and the gastroesophageal junction: a meta-analysis of randomized clinical trials. Ann Surg Oncol 2003;10:754-761.

85. Walsh TN, Noonan N, Hollywood D, et al. A comparison of multimodal therapy and surgery for esophageal adenocarcinoma. N Engl J Med 1997;335:462-467.

86. Bosset JF, Gignoux M, Triboulet JP, et al. Chemoradiotherapy followed by surgery compared with surgery alone in squamous cell cancer of the esophagus. N Engl J Med 1997;337:161-167.

87. Bains MS, Stojadinovic A, Minsky B, et al. A phase II trial of preoperative combined-modality therapy for localized esophageal carcinoma: initial results. J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg 2002;124:270-277.

88. Burmeister BH, Smithers BM, Gebski V, Fitzgerald L, et al. Surgery alone versus chemoradiotherapy followed by surgery for resectable cancer of the oesophagus: a randomised controlled phase III trial. Lancet Oncology. 2005;6(9):659-668.

89. Stahl M, Stuschke M, Lehmann N, et al. Chemoradiation with and without surgery in patients with locally advanced squamous cell carcinoma of the esophagus. J Clin Oncol 2005;23:2310-2317. Erratum in: J Clin Oncol. 2006;24(3):531.

90. Stahl M, Wilke H, Lehmann N, Stuschke M. Long-term results of a phase III study investigating chemoradiation with and without surgery in locally advanced squamous cell carcinoma (LA-SCC) of the esophagus. 2008 ASCO Annual Meeting. J Clin Oncol 2008; 26(May 20 suppl): Abstract 4530.

91. Bedenne L, Michel P, Bouche O, et al. Chemoradiation followed by surgery compared with chemoradiation alone in squamous cancer of the esophagus: FFCD 9102. J Clin Oncol. 2007;25(10):1160-1168.

92. Macdonald JS, Smalley SR, Benedetti J, et al. Chemoradiotherapy after surgery compared with surgery alone for adenocarcinoma of the

stomach or gastroesophageal junction. N Engl J Med 2001;345:725-730.

NCCN®

93. Kelsen DP, Ginsberg R, Pajak TF, et al. Chemotherapy followed by surgery compared with surgery alone for localized esophageal cancer. N Engl J Med 1998;339:1979-1984.

Practice Guidelines

in Oncology – v.1.2009

94. Kelsen DP, Winter KA, Gunderson LL, et al. Long-term results of RTOG trial 8911 (USA Intergroup 113): a random assignment trial comparison of chemotherapy followed by surgery compared with surgery alone for esophageal cancer. J Clin Oncol. 2007;25(24):3719-3725.

95. MRC Oesophageal Cancer Working Party. Surgical resection with or without preoperative chemotherapy in oesophageal cancer: A randomized controlled trial. Lancet 2002;359:1727-1733.

96. Allum WH, Fogart PJ, Stenning SP Langley RE, NCRI Upper GI Cancer Clinical Studies Group. Long-term results of the MRC OEO2 randomized trial of surgery with or without preoperative chemotherapy in resectable esophageal cancer. 2008 Gastrointestinal Cancers Symposium. Abstract 9.

97. Boige, V, J. Pignon, et al. Final results of a randomized trial comparing preoperative 5-fluorouracil (F)/cisplatin (P) to surgery alone in adenocarcinoma of stomach and lower esophagus (ASLE): FNLCC ACCORD07-FFCD 9703 trial. J Clin Oncol (Meeting Abstracts) 25(18_suppl): 4510.

98. Thirion PG, Michiels S, Le Maitre A, Tierney J, on behalf of the MetaAnalysis of Chemotherapy in Esophagus Cancer Collaborative Group. Individual patient data-based meta-analysis assessing pre-operative chemotherapy in resectable oesophageal carcinoma. J Clin Oncol (Meeting Abstracts). 2007;25(18_suppl):4512.

99. Chemotherapy for metastatic carcinoma of the esophagus and GE junction. Cochrane database review 2006, Issue 4. Art. No. CD004603.

100. Shah MA and Schwartz GK. Treatment of metastatic esophageal and gastric cancer. Seminars in Oncology. 2004;31(4):574-587.

101. Leichman L, Berry BT. Experience with cisplatin in treatment regimens for esophageal cancer. Semin Oncol 1991;18:64-72.

102. Wittes RE, Adrianza ME, Parsons R, et al. Compilation of phase II results with single antineoplastic agents. Cancer Treat Rep 1985;4:91-130.

103. Ajani JA. Contribution of chemotherapy in the treatment of carcinoma of the esophagus: Results and commentary. Semin Oncol 1994;21:474-482.

104. Muhr-Wilkenshoff F, Hinkelbein W, Ohnesorge I, et al. A pilot study of irinotecan (CPT-11) as single-agent therapy in patients with locally advanced or metastatic esophageal carcinoma. Int J Colorectal Dis 2003;18:330-334.

105. Muro K, Hamaguchi T, Ohtsu A, et al. A phase II study of single-agent docetaxel in patients with metastatic esophageal cancer. Ann Oncol 2004;15:955-959.

106. Ajani JA, Ilson DH, Daugherty K, et al. Activity of Taxol in patients with squamous cell carcinoma and adenocarcinoma of the esophagus. J Natl Cancer Inst 1994;86:1086-1091.

107. Mauer AM, Kraut EH, Krauss SA, et al. Phase II trial of oxaliplatin, leucovorin and fluorouracil in patients with advanced carcinoma of the esophagus. Ann Oncol. 2005;16(8):1320-1325.

108. Janmaat ML, Gallegos-Ruiz MI, Rodriguez JA, et al. Predictive Factors for Outcome in a Phase II Study of Gefitinib in Second-Line Treatment of Advanced Esophageal Cancer Patients. J Clin Oncol. 2006;24(10):1612-1619.

109. Tew WP, Shah M, Schwartz D, Kelsen D, Ilson DH. Phase II trial of erlotinib for second-line treatment in advanced esophageal cacner. 2005 Gastrointestinal cancers Symposium. Abstract No. 5.

110. Dragovich T, McCoy S, Fenoglio-Preiser CM, et al. Phase II Trial of Erlotinib in Gastroesophageal Junction and Gastric Adenocarcinomas: SWOG 0127. J Clin Oncol. 2006;24(30):4922-4927.

111. Tew WP, Kelsen DP, Ilson DH. Targeted Therapies for Esophageal Cancer. Oncologist. 2005;10(8):590-601.

NCCN®

112. Ilson DH, Ajani JA, Bhalla K, et al. A phase II trial of paclitaxel, fluorouracil, and cisplatin in patients with advanced carcinoma of the esophagus. J Clin Oncol 1998;16:1826-1834.

Practice Guidelines

in Oncology – v.1.2009

113. Ilson DH, Saltz L, Enzinger P, et al. Phase II trial of weekly Irinotecan plus Cisplatin in Advanced Esophageal Cancer. J Clin Oncol. 1999;17(10):3270-3275.

114. Enzinger PC, Clark J, Ryan D, et al. Phase II study of docetaxel, cisplatin, and irinotecan in advanced esophageal and gastric cancer. J Clin Oncol (Meeting Abstracts). 2004;22(14_suppl):4040.

115. Urba SG, Chansky K, VanVeldhuizen PJ, et al. Gemcitabine and cisplatin for patients with metastatic or recurrent esophageal carcinoma: a Southwest Oncology Group Study. Invest New Drugs 2004;22:91-97.

116. Millar J, Scullin P, Morrison A, et al. Phase II study of gemcitabine and cisplatin in locally advanced/metastatic oesophageal cancer. Br J Cancer. 2005;93(10):1112-1116.

117. Ross P, Nicolson M, Cunningham D, et al. Prospective randomized trial comparing mitomycin, cisplatin, and protracted venous-infusion fluorouracil (PVI 5-FU) With epirubicin, cisplatin, and PVI 5-FU in advanced esophagogastric cancer. J Clin Oncol. 2002;20(8):1996-2004.

118. Ajani J. Review of capecitabine as oral treatment of gastric, gastroesophageal, and esophageal cancers. Cancer. 2006;107(2):221-231.

119. Cunningham D, Starling N, Rao S, et al. Capecitabine and oxaliplatin for advanced esophagogastric cancer. N Engl J Med. 2008;358(1):36-46.

120. Assersohn L, Brown G, Cunningham D, et al. Phase II study of irinotecan and 5-fluorouracil/leucovorin in patients with primary

refractory or relapsed advanced esophageal and gastric carcinoma. Ann Oncol. 2004;15(1):64-69.

121. El-Rayes BF, Shields A, Zalupski M, et al. A phase II study of carboplatin and paclitaxel in esophageal cancer. Ann Oncol 2004;15:960-965.

122. Al-Batran SE, Hartmann JT, Probst S, et al. Phase III trial in metastatic gastroesophageal adenocarcinoma with fluorouracil, leucovorin plus either oxaliplatin or cisplatin: a study of the Arbeitsgemeinschaft Internistische Onkologie. J Clin Oncol. 2008;26(9):1435-1442.

123. Siewert JR. Carcinoma of the Cardia: Carcinoma of the gastroesophageal junction-classification, pathology, and extent of resection. Dis Esophagus 1996;9:173-182.

124. Stein HJ, Feith M, Siewert JR. Cancer of the esophagogastric junction [Review]. Surgical Oncology 2000;9:35-41.

125. Van Westreenen HL, Westerterp M, Bossuyt PM, et al. Systematic review of the staging performance of 18F-fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography in esophageal cancer. J Clin Oncol 2004;22:3805-3812.

126. Flamen P, Lerut A, Van Cutsem E, et al. Utility of Positron Emission Tomography for the Staging of Patients With Potentially Operable Esophageal Carcinoma. J Clin Oncol. 2000;18(18):3202-3210.

127. Flamen P, Lerut T, Haustermans K, Van Cutsem E, Mortelmans L. Position of positron emission tomography and other imaging diagnostic modalities in esophageal cancer. Q J Nucl Med Mol Imaging. 2004;48(2):96-108.

128. Swisher SG, Maish M, Erasmus JJ, et al. Utility of PET, CT, and EUS to Identify Pathologic Responders in Esophageal Cancer. Ann Thorac Surg. 2004;78(4):1152-1160.

129. Levine EA, Farmer MR, Clark P, et al. Predictive value of 18-fluoro-deoxy-glucose-positron emission tomography

NCCN[®] Practice Guidelines in Oncology – v.1.2009 Esophageal Cancer

(18F-FDG-PET) in the identification of responders to chemoradiation therapy for the treatment of locally advanced esophageal cancer. Annals of Surgery. 2006;243(4):472-478.

130. Weber WA, Ott K, Becker K, et al. Prediction of Response to Preoperative Chemotherapy in Adenocarcinomas of the Esophagogastric Junction by Metabolic Imaging. J Clin Oncol. 2001;19(12):3058-3065.

131. Flamen P, Van Cutsem E, Lerut A, et al. Positron emission tomography for assessment of the response to induction radiochemotherapy in locally advanced oesophageal cancer. Ann Oncol. 2002;13(3):361-368.

132. Rosenbaum S, Stergar H, Antoch G, Veit P, Bockisch A, Kahl H. Staging and follow-up of gastrointestinal tumors with PET/CT. Abdominal Imaging. 2006;31(1):25-35.

133. Munden R, Macapinlac H, Erasmus J. Esophageal Cancer: The Role of Integrated CT-PET in Initial Staging and Response Assessment After Preoperative Therapy. Journal of Thoracic Imaging. 2006;21(2):137-145.

134. Cerfolio RJ, Bryant AS, Ohja B, et al. The accuracy of endoscopic ultrasonography with fine-needle aspiration, integrated positron emission tomography with computed tomography, and computed tomography in restaging patients with esophageal cancer after neoadjuvant chemoradiotherapy. J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg 2005;129:1232-1241.

135. Conroy T, Yataghene Y, Etienne PL, et al. Definitive chemoradiotherapy (CRT) with FOLFOX 4 or 5-FU-cisplatin as first line treatment for patients (pts) with inoperable esophageal cancer (IEC): Final results of a randomized phase II study. J Clin Oncol (Meeting Abstracts). 2007;25(18_suppl):4532.

136. Colasanto JM, Prasad P, Nash MA, et al. Nutritional support of patients undergoing radiation therapy for head and neck cancer. Oncology 2005;19:371-382.

137. Karnofsky DA, Burchenal JH. The Clinical Evaluation of Chemotherapeutic Agents in Cancer. In: MacLeod CM (Ed): Evaluation of Chemotherapeutic Agents. New York, Columbia University Press, 1949:199-205.

138. Oken M, Creech RH, Tormey DC, Horton, J, et al. Toxicity And Response Criteria Of The Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group. Am J Clin Oncol. 1982; 5:649-655.

139. Schag CC, Heinrich RL, Ganz PA. Karnofsky performance status revisited: reliability, validity, and guidelines. J Clin Oncol. 1984;2(3):187-193.

140. Angueira CE, Kadakia SC. Esophageal stents for inoperable esophageal cancer: Which to use? Am J Gastroenterol 1997;92:373-376.

141. Javle M, Ailawadhi S, Yang GY, Nwogu CE, Schiff MD, Nava HR. Palliation of malignant dysphagia in esophageal cancer: a literature-based review. J Support Oncol. 2006;4(8):365-373, 379.

142. Adler DG, Baron TH. Endoscopic palliation of malignant dysphagia. Mayo Clin Proc. 2001;76(7):731-738.

143. Payne-James JJ, Spiller RC, Misiewicz JJ, et al. Use of ethanol-induced tumor necrosis to palliate dysphagia in patients with esophagogastric cancer. Gastrointest Endosc North Am 1990;36:43-46.

144. Heier SK, Rothman KA, Heier LM, et al. Photodynamic therapy for obstructing esophageal cancer: Light dosimetry and randomized comparison with Nd:YAG laser therapy. Gastroenterology 1995;109:63-72.

145. Loizou LA, Grigg D, Atkinson M, et al. A prospective comparison of laser therapy and intubation in endoscopic palliation for malignant dysphagia. Gastroenterology 1991;100:1303-1310.

146. Wright RA, O'Conner KW. A pilot study of endoscopic injection chemo/sclerotherapy of esophageal carcinoma. Gastrointest Endosc Clin North Am 1991;36:47.

ICCN® Practice Guidelines in Oncology – v.1.2009 **Esophageal Cancer**

147. DePalma GD, DiMatteo E, Romano G, et al. Plastic prosthesis versus expandable stents for palliation of inoperable esophageal thoracic carcinoma: A controlled prospective study. Gastrointest Endosc North Am 1996;43:478-482.

148. Nwokolo CU, Payne-James JJ, Silk DB, Misiewicz JJ, Loft DE. Palliation of malignant dysphagia by ethanol induced tumour necrosis. Gut. Mar 1994;35(3):299-303.

149. Kinsman KJ, DeGregorio BT, Katon RM, et al. Prior radiation and chemotherapy increase the risk of life-threatening complications after insertion of metallic stents for esophagogastric malignancy. Gastrointest Endosc North Am 1996;43:196-203.

150. Kozarek RA, Raltz S, Brugge WR, et al. Prospective multicenter trial of esophageal Z-stent placement for malignant dysphagia and tracheoesophageal fistula. Gastrointest Endosc North Am 1996;44:562-567.

151. Mitty RD, Cave DR, Birkett DH. One-stage retrograde approach to Nd-YAG laser palliation of esophageal carcinoma. Endoscopy 1996;28:350-355.

152. Shmueli E, Srivastava E, Dawes P, et al. Combination of laser treatment and intraluminal radiotherapy for malignant dysphagia. Gut 1996;38:803-805.

153. Raijman I, Siddique I, Ajani J, et al. Palliation of malignant dysphagia and fistulae with coated expandable mental stents: Experience with 101 patients. Gastrointest Endosc 1998;48:172-179.

154. Raijman I, Siddique I, Lynch P. Does chemoradiation therapy increase the incidence of complications with self-expanding coated stents in the management of malignant esophageal strictures? Am J Gastroenterol 1997;12:2192-2196.

155. Segalin A, Little AG, Ruol A, et al. Surgical and endoscopic palliation of esophageal carcinoma. Ann Thorac Surg 1989;48:267-271.

156. McCaughan JS Jr, Ellison EC, Guy JT, et al. Photodynamic therapy for esophageal malignancy: a prospective twelve-year study. Ann Thorac Surg 1996;62:1005-1009.

157. Homs MY, Steyerberg EW, Eijkenboom WM, et al. Single-dose brachytherapy versus metal stent placement for the palliation of dysphagia from oesophageal cancer: multicentre randomised trial. Lancet. 2004;364(9444):1497-1504.

158. Scheider DM, Siemens M, Cirocco M, et al. Photodynamic therapy for the treatment of tumor ingrowth in expandable esophageal stents. Endoscopy. 1997;29(4):271-274.

159. Shin JH, Song HY, Kim JH, et al. Comparison of temporary and permanent stent placement with concurrent radiation therapy in patients with esophageal carcinoma. J Vasc Interv Radiol. 2005;16(1):67-74.

160. Ross WA, Alkassab F, Lynch PM, et al. Evolving role of self-expanding metal stents in the treatment of malignant dysphagia and fistulas. Gastrointest Endosc. 2007;65(1):70-76.

161. Sampliner RE. Practice guidelines on the diagnosis, surveillance, and therapy of Barrett's esophagus. The Practice Parameters Committee of the American College of Gastroenterology. Am J Gastroenterol 1998;93:1028-1032.

162. Ruol A, Zaninotto G, Costantini M, et al. Barrett's esophagus: management of high-grade dysplasia and cancer. J Surg Res 2004;117:44-51.

163. Overholt BF, Panjehpour M, Haydek JM. Photodynamic therapy for Barrett's esophagus: follow-up in 100 patients. Gastrointest Endosc 1999;49:1-7.

Recommended Reading

Arnott SJ, Duncan W, Kerr GR, et al. Low-dose preoperative radiotherapy for carcinoma of the oesophagus: Results of a randomized clinical trial. Radiother Oncol 1992;24:108-113.

CCN[®] Practice Guidelines in Oncology – v.1.2009 Esophageal Cancer

<u>Guidelines Index</u> <u>Esophageal Table of Contents</u> <u>Staging, Discussion, References</u>

Barkley HT, Hussey DH, Saxton JP, et al. Radiotherapy in the treatment of carcinoma of the esophagus. In: Stroehlein JR, Romsdahl MM, eds. Gastrointestinal Cancer. New York: Raven Press 1981:171-187.

Caspers RJ, Welvaart K, Verkes RJ, et al. The effect of radiotherapy on dysphagia and survival in patients with esophageal cancer. Radiother Oncol 1988;12:15-23.

Erlam R, Cunha-Melo J. Oesophageal squamous cell carcinoma. II: A critical review of radiotherapy. Br J Surg 1980;67:457-461.

Feussner H, Kraemer SJ, Siewert JR. Staging laparoscopy: A review. Chirurg 1997;68:201-209.

Launois B, Delarue D, Campion JP, et al. Preoperative radiotherapy for carcinoma of the esophagus. Surg Gynecol Obstet 1981;153:690-692.

Mie W, Xian-Zhi G, Weibo Y, et al. Randomized clinical trial on the combination of preoperative irradiation and surgery in the treatment of esophageal carcinoma: A report on 206 patients. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys 1989;16:325-327.

Morita K, Takagi I, Watanabe M, et al. Relationship between the radiological features of esophageal cancer and the local control by radiation therapy. Cancer 1985;55:2668-2676.

Nygaard K, Hagen S, Hansen HS, et al. Preoperative radiotherapy prolongs survival in operable esophageal carcinoma: A randomized, multicenter study of preoperative radiotherapy and chemotherapy: The second Scandinavian trial in esophageal cancer. World J Surg 1992;16:1104-1109.

Sur RK, Singh DP, Sharma SC. Radiation therapy of esophageal cancer: Role of high dose rate brachytherapy. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys 1992;22:1043-1046.

Teniere P, Hay JM, Fingerhut A, et al. Post-operative radiation therapy does not increase survival after curative resection for squamous cell carcinoma of the middle and lower esophagus as shown by a

multicenter controlled trial: French University Association for Surgical Research. Surg Gynecol Obstet 1991;173:123-130.

Turnbull ADM, Ginsberg RJ. Options in surgical treatment of esophageal carcinoma. Chest Surg Clin North Am 1994;4:315-329.