



MRI-guided functional anatomy approach to prostate brachytherapy

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ABSTRACT

PURPOSE: To provide an MRI based functional anatomy guide to prostate brachytherapy.

METHODS AND MATERIALS: We performed a narrative review of periprostatic functional anatomy and the significance of this anatomy in prostate brachytherapy treatment planning.

RESULTS: MRI has improved delineation of gross tumor and critical periprostatic structures that have been implicated in toxicity. Furthermore, MRI has revealed the significant anatomic variants and the dynamic nature of these structures that can have significant implications for treatment planning and dosimetry.

CONCLUSIONS: The MRI-based functional anatomy approach to prostate brachytherapy takes into account extent of disease, its relation to the patient's individual anatomy, and functional baseline to optimize the therapeutic ratio of prostate cancer treatment. © 2016 Published by Elsevier Inc. on behalf of American Brachytherapy Society.

Keywords:

Functional anatomy; Prostate; Prostate cancer; Brachytherapy; MRI

Introduction

There are over 3 million prostate cancer survivors in the United States, with the 15-year survival rate of prostate cancer reaching 95% (1). Therefore, the goal of prostate cancer treatment must emphasize preservation of quality of life just as much as cure. Brachytherapy is a highly effective and economical treatment for prostate cancer (2–10). The highly conformal nature of brachytherapy treatments allows for significant dose escalation to areas of disease while minimizing dose to vulnerable regional anatomy that is critical to daily functions and quality of life. The true potential of brachytherapy is becoming clearer as MRI plays a larger role in prostate cancer management.

There are profound limitations to traditional CT-based postimplant dosimetry (11, 12). The prostate boundaries are obscured, the actual tumor is not defined, and critical adjacent structures merge with and are commonly included in the “prostate” contour, leaving patients at risk of

treatment failure and urinary, bowel, and sexual dysfunction. Functional outcomes after prostate brachytherapy typically fall on a spectrum that ranges from complete preservation of function, to bothersome symptoms which may be transient or controlled with medication, to severe reversible complications which have significant morbidity and may require invasive remedies, and finally to severe irreversible complications which can be life-altering events. Although the majority of severe complications are reversible as demonstrated in brachytherapy trials with long-term followup (13–15), it is difficult to accept even a small number of severe irreversible complications given the impact they have on a patient's quality of life, in the context of a frequently curable or indolent disease course such as early-stage prostate cancer.

The MRI functional anatomy approach replaces CT with MRI-based preimplant and postimplant planning that can improve tumor and functional anatomy delineation, improve implant quality, and ultimately shift the goal of treatment from avoiding complications to preserving function. MRI-based postimplant dosimetry has already defined the mechanism responsible for many severe complications. For example, MRI has clearly identified dose delivery below the prostate apex which contributes nothing to cure and has been implicated in complications such as stricture and rectal-urethral fistula, demonstrating the need for further technical refinement. Vessel-sparing

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radiation is one example in which the MRI-based functional anatomy approach has demonstrated an unprecedented level of sexual function preservation, with further improvement likely as other candidate targets are defined (16).

Functional anatomy is an umbrella term for a wide variety of anatomic categories impacting brachytherapy practice and outcomes (Table 1). Functional anatomy includes mobile (17–19) and immobile (20–22) adjacent structures

Table 1
Anatomic categories

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- 1) Functional anatomy
 - a) Mobile (dynamic)
 - i) Bladder neck
 - ii) Genitourinary diaphragm
 - iii) External sphincter
 - iv) Rectourethralis
 - v) Seminal vesicle
 - vi) Levator ani
 - vii) Rectum, lower rectal segment, and anal sphincter
 - b) Immobile
 - i) Neurovascular elements
 - ii) Internal and accessory pudendal arteries
 - iii) Corpus cavernosa
 - iv) Penile bulb
 - v) Dorsal vascular complex
 - vi) Verumontanum
 - vii) Ejaculatory ducts
 - viii) Prostatic and membranous urethra
 - 2) Variant anatomy
 - a) Bladder neck
 - i) Intact
 - ii) Expanded
 - iii) Effacement (intrabladder extension)
 - iv) Asymmetric intrabladder extension (median lobe)
 - b) External sphincter
 - i) Apex to penile bulb length
 - ii) Intraprostate extension
 - c) Neurovascular elements
 - i) Bundle configuration
 - ii) Plexus configuration
 - 3) Implant anatomy (probe effects)
 - i) Potential space (bound by rectum, apex, and GU diaphragm)
 - ii) Prostate rotation
 - iii) Asymmetric swelling
 - iv) Rectourethralis extension
 - 4) Postimplant dynamic anatomy
 - i) Rectourethralis recoil (potential space obliteration)
 - ii) Bladder neck
 - iii) Levator ani and GU diaphragm
 - 5) Tumor anatomy (mpMRI)
 - a) Peripheral zone and:
 - i) Extraprostatic extension
 - ii) Seminal vesicle involvement
 - iii) GU diaphragm extension
 - iv) Anterior extension
 - b) Transition zone and:
 - i) Absence of bladder neck involvement
 - ii) Bladder neck involvement
 - iii) Intrabladder extension
 - iv) Urethra involvement
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mpMRI = multiparametric MRI.

that play a role in genitourinary, gastrointestinal, and sexual function. One cannot surmise functional status of an active tissue from anatomic configuration alone. For example, an extremely enlarged prostate does not reliably predict urinary obstructive symptoms (23), just as a small prostate does not guarantee normal urination. Furthermore, most common functions adjacent to the prostate are not single tissue dependent but rather are coordinated and carefully sequenced activations of several structures. Variant anatomy is the recognition of the wide diversity in functional anatomic structures and the variable capacities to dose limit some of these variants (24–26). Implant anatomy refers to the profound effect that probe placement has on adjacent anatomic relationships and the potential for misinterpretation of implant quality with the probe in place (27). Postimplant dynamic anatomy refers to the active motion of the prostate and adjacent musculature, and their ability to impact seed position after an implant has been completed (28). Finally, tumor anatomy as defined by multiparametric MRI (mpMRI) may define the actual tumor grade and location within the prostate (peripheral zone or transition zone) and beyond the prostate (29).

To achieve a balance in functional and disease-specific outcomes, it is important to properly define the target volumes and the functional anatomy at risk. Superimposing tumor distribution obtained from mpMRI over individual functional anatomy (best seen on T2-weighted MRIs) will reveal opportunities to achieve cure while protecting quality of life. Herein, we review all relevant anatomic categories by region (base, mid, and apex) and discuss the implications for treatment planning and the unique implant and dosimetric challenges to consider to enhance the therapeutic index of brachytherapy for prostate cancer.

Brachytherapy challenge at the base

The bladder neck and seminal vesicles are two key structures in close proximity to the base of the prostate that play important roles in urinary and sexual function, respectively. The prostate base is comprised purely of transition zone, a region at low risk of harboring prostate cancer in most patients. Using MRI to identify patients with no evidence of disease at the base can allow for de-escalation of dose in this region to reduce urinary and sexual dysfunction after prostate brachytherapy. Most acute urinary toxicity, whether obstructive or irritative, can be attributed to dose at the base.

Mobile functional anatomy

The point of connection between the bladder and the prostate base is a highly active region in the adult male. There is still significant controversy over the true structure of the bladder neck and its mechanism of action (18, 30, 31). Increasing evidence from pathologic and radiographic studies

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