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1	Invited review
2	Tailoring lymphadenectomy according to the risk of lymph node
3	metastasis in endometrial cancer
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24	Running title

25 Tailoring lymphadenectomy in endometrial cancer

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### 27 Abstract

It has been strongly suggested that patients with endometrial cancer with low risk of 28 29 lymph node metastasis do not benefit from lymphadenectomy and intermediate-risk/high-risk endometrial cancer patients benefit from complete pelvic 30 and para-aortic lymphadenectomy. This hypothesis needs to be validated by prospective 31 32 studies. For randomized controlled trials (RCTs), heterogeneity of intervention compromises internal validity and non-participation of experienced doctors 33 compromises external validity. As these situations easily occur in randomized surgical 34 trials (RSTs) intended for high-risk patients, the effects of complicated surgery, such as 35 full lymphadenectomy, might be underestimated in RSTs. In a famous RST, data for all 36 eligible patients implied that survival outcome for the non-randomized group was 37 significantly better than for the randomized group. One of plausible explanations is that 38 physicians' judgement and experience produce better treatment decisions than do 39 40 random choices. Although two RCTs from European countries showed negative results 41 of lymphadenectomy on prognosis, valuing the care of individual patients may be more important than uncritically adopting the results of RCTs. In endometrial cancer, 42 43 lymphadenectomy must be tailored to maximize the therapeutic effect of surgery and minimize its invasiveness and adverse effects. Two strategies are: (1) to remove lymph 44 nodes most likely to harbor disease while sparing lymph nodes that are unlikely to be 45 46 affected; and (2) to perform full lymphadenectomies only on patients who can 47 potentially benefit from them. Here, we focus on the second strategy. Preoperative risk assessments used in Japan and Korea to select low-risk patients who would not benefit 48

49 from lymphadenectomy are discussed.

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### 51 Reasons for tailor-made surgery

Traditional medicine has been conducted on the basis of disease concept, but 52 53 the status of disease depends on each individual and the sensitive differences show their originality. It is well known that uniform treatment for patients with the same disease is 54 not always appropriate. Although the term personalized medicine was coined in the 55 context of genetics, this notion make sense also in the context of surgical therapy. In the 56 evidence-based medicine era, results of randomized controlled trials (RCTs) tend to be 57 uncritically accepted. In a famous RCT called the Emory Angioplasty versus Surgery 58 Trial (EAST), the outcomes of percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty (PTCA) 59 and coronary angioplasty bypass grafting (CABG) surgery were compared [1]. Of the 60 842 eligible patients, 392 (46.6%) agreed to participate, but 450 (53.4%) were not 61 approached due to the attending or referring physician's refusal to participate (n = 353) 62 or refusal by the patient (n = 97). Two interesting results were provided by EAST: (1) 63 64 there was no survival difference between the PTCA group and the CABG group on the basis of data for 392 patients included in the trial and (2) survival outcome for the 65 non-randomized group was significantly better than that for the randomized group on 66 67 the basis of data for all 842 eligible patients [2]. Two plausible explanations can be provided to account for the result of the latter. One is that prognosis of patients in the 68 non-randomized group may have been better than that of patients in the randomized 69 70 group. The other is that physicians' judgement based on experience may be more important for treatment decision-making than a random choice. CABG generally tends 71 to be performed for patients who have three-vessel disease or proximal left anterior 72

descending artery stenosis. Therefore, the right treatment may have been conducted in
the right disease status on the basis of physicians' appropriate experience. Valuing the
care of individual patients may be more important than uncritically adopting the results
of RCTs.

77 Two reports in The Lancet [3,4] strongly suggest that pelvic lymphadenectomy (PLX) has no survival benefit for patients with endometrial cancer with low risk of 78 lymph node metastasis and that combined pelvic and para-aortic lymphadenectomy 79 (PLX+PALX) improves survival of patients with intermediate-risk/high-risk 80 endometrial cancer. The former report was based on a randomized controlled trial by A 81 Study in the Treatment of Endometrial Cancer (ASTEC), while the latter report was 82 based on a retrospective cohort study. Some gynecologists seem to have been skeptical 83 about the efficacy of lymphadenectomy in endometrial cancer based on the results of 84 the ASTEC trial. Some physicians have believed that standard surgery for endometrial 85 cancer does not include lymphadenectomy despite many previous reports suggested the 86 efficacy of lymphadenectomy. Such an idea is an overgeneralization of the results of the 87 ASTEC trial because the study population included only a small number of patients 88 with high-risk endometrial cancer. If lymphadenectomy has a survival benefit for 89 high-risk patients and lymphadenectomy is excluded from standard surgery in 90 91 endometrial cancer, high-risk patients would not be able to receive optimal treatment. On the other hand, full lymphadenectomy was shown to have a survival benefit for 92 93 patients with intermediate-risk/high-risk endometrial cancer in the Survival Effect of 94 Para-aortic Lymphadenectomy (SEPAL) study [4]. Although omission of lymphadenectomy can be applied to patients with clinical stage I endometrial cancer 95 according to the results of the ASTEC trial, clinical stage I includes not only low-risk 96

97 patients but also intermediate-risk and high-risk patients. The range of application for 98 omission of lymphadenectomy should probably be limited to patients with low-risk 99 endometrial cancer. Although the results of these two studies in The Lancet are referred 100 to as contradictory statements, they can be compatible. We need to deepen discussions 101 regarding tailoring of lymphadenectomy in endometrial cancer.

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# 103 <u>A problem inherent in surgical studies in high-risk cancer</u>

104 The SEPAL study was based on a retrospective observational study [4]. Another observational study from the Mayo Clinic also showed the effectiveness of full 105 lymphadenectomy for patients with high-risk endometrial cancer [5]. Some physicians 106 107 have underestimated these results due to the study design inherent in a retrospective cohort study. However, the authors believe that study design is not grounds for 108 underestimating the value of the SEPAL study. Well-designed cohort studies may in 109 fact be more appropriate formats than RCTs for assessing optimal surgery in high-risk 110 111 cases. Special difficulties are encountered in randomized surgical trials intended for 112 high-risk patients. Some physicians would decline participation in a randomized controlled trial in which pelvic lymphadenectomy versus combined pelvic and 113 para-aortic lymphadenectomy is compared for patients with high-risk endometrial 114 115 cancer because they might be familiar with para-aortic lymphadenectomy and its benefits and would be reluctant to perform pelvic lymphadenectomy alone. Conversely, 116 117 doctors with limited experience may be assigned the task of performing complicated 118 surgery. However, they might not achieve the optimal desired outcome due to inadequate experience. Both scenarios create a situation where quality control of 119 treatment might be reduced in the para-aortic lymphadenectomy group. The situation 120

121 easily occurs in randomized surgical trials intended for high-risk patients. It is generally accepted that RCTs are internally valid. However, non-participation of experienced 122 doctors is a threat to external validity. Heterogeneity of intervention is also a threat to 123 internal validity. Should we stick to randomized surgical trials intended for high-risk 124 patients? A high risk group is not suitable for a randomized surgical trial. In my humble 125 opinion, a prospective cohort study is an option for assessing the role of 126 lymphadenectomy in high-risk EM cancer because it would promote homogeneity of 127 128 surgical intervention.

There are two interesting reports published in the New England Journal of 129 Medicine in which results of RCTs and those of well-designed observational studies on 130 131 the same topics were compared [6-7]. Benson et al. reviewed 136 reports about 19 132 diverse treatments, such as calcium channel-blocker therapy for coronary artery disease, and hormone-replacement therapy for osteoporosis, and showed that well-designed 133 observational studies and RCTs overall produce similar results [6]. Concato et al. 134 135 reviewed 99 reports published in five major journals (Annals of Internal Medicine, the 136 British Medical Journal, the Journal of Amerian Medical Association, the Lancet, and 137 the New England Journal of Medicine) about five clinical topics and showed that results of RCTs are inconsistent in some series. In contrast, results of well-designed 138 139 observational studies are mostly consistent [7]. In view of the reproducibility of study results, observational studies were superior. How can we account for these results? 140 141 McKee et al. pointed out that RCTs have been conducted using very small groups and 142 that subjects excluded from an RCT tend to have a poorer prognosis than that of subjects included in the trial [8]. RCTs definitely rank at the top of all types of clinical 143 studies because they are internally valid. However, the results of RCTs are relevant to 144

just a definable group of patients in a particular setting. Therefore, results of RCTscannot be easily overgeneralized.

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# 148 **Reasons for preoperative risk assessment in surgical studies**

149 What should we do in order to maximize the therapeutic effect of surgery and minimize its invasiveness? Two strategies are: (1) to remove lymph nodes most likely to harbor 150 disease and spare lymph nodes that are unlikely to be affected and (2) to allocate only 151 152 patients with potential benefit from lymphadenectomy to full lymphadenectomy. The first strategy includes sentinel lymph node (SLN) mapping surgery [9-11] and 153 circumflex iliac nodes distal to the external iliac nodes (CINDEIN)-sparing surgery 154 155 [12-14]. The second strategy needs preoperative risk assessment. However, it has not been clarified which patients have potential benefit from lymphadenectomy. In this 156 session, we focus on the second strategy. GOG #33 showed that there was no case with 157 nodal metastasis in the low-risk group defined as having no myometrial invasion, grade 158 159 1 endometrioid histology, and no intraperitoneal disease [15]. Mariani et al. confirmed a 160 low-risk group with grade 1 to 2 endometrioid histology, depth of invasion of  $\leq 50\%$ , 161 and tumor size of  $\leq 2$  cm [16]. They concluded that lymphadenectomy does not benefit patients in the low-risk group (so-called Mayo criteria). Milam et al. also demonstrated 162 163 that these criteria led to a rate of nodal metastasis of only 0.8% in the low-risk group of the Mayo criteria [17]. However, all of these criteria depend on surgicopathologic 164 165 findings. There have been only a few studies that aimed to establish preoperative risk 166 assessment for predicting lymph node metastasis in endometrial cancer [18-19]. The results of these studies are shown in Table 1. In 2007, Todo et al. proposed a low-risk 167 group with grade 1 to 2 endometrioid histology by endometrial biopsy, volume index of 168

169  $\leq$ 36 by MRI, and low CA125 level (70 U/ml for patients aged less than 50 years and 28 U/ml for patients aged 50 years or over) before surgery; only 2.1% of the patients in the 170 171 group had lymph node metastasis at the assumed prevalence of nodal metastasis of 10% [18]. In 2012, Kang et al. confirmed a low-risk group with endometrioid histology by 172 173 endometrial biopsy, <50% myometrial invasion with no extension beyond the corpus and no enlarged lymph nodes by MRI, and cancer antigen (CA)125 level ≤35 U/ml 174 before surgery; only 1.3% of the patients in the group had lymph node metastasis when 175 176 assuming that the prevalence of lymph node metastasis is 10% in the target patient 177 cohort [19]. Since many physicians are not familiar with measuring tumor volume of endometrial cancer, volume index could not be easily used as a factor of preoperative 178 179 risk assessment. On the other hand, myometrial invasion assessment by MRI has a problematic issue, namely, interobserver inconsistency or variability. MRI-based 180 evaluation of deep myometrial invasion in a multi-institutional cooperative study 181 showed sensitivity of 54% and specificity of 89%, indicating that results of previous 182 single institutional studies might have been biased [20]. There would be some occasions 183 184 where attending physicians have difficulty in judging myometrial invasion using MRI. 185 Although each set of criteria have their merits and demerits, it is possible to reconcile these criteria. When it is difficult to judge myometrial invasion using MRI, volume 186 187 index could be used as a substitute index. When planning a prospective clinical trial on the therapeutic significance of lymphadenectomy, an adequate population is needed to 188 assess the full benefit of lymphadenectomy. If a population comprises a large proportion 189 190 of low-risk patients, the significance of lymphadenectomy would be underestimated because low-risk patients do not benefit from lymphadenectomy. 191

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- 260
- Table 1. Results of preoperative risk assessment for excluding lymph node metastasis inendometrial cancer

Author	Todo	et al.	Kang	et al.
Journal	Gynecol O	Incol (2007)	J Clin On	col (2012)
Study design	retrospective	e cohort study	retrospective	cohort study
Study aim	Model Derivation	Validation	Model Derivation	Validation
Cases (number)	214	211	360	180
Median age (range)	56 (23-80)	57 (24-77)	53 (29-76)	54 (31-82)
FIGO stage (1988)	I:68%	I:64%	I:71%	1:76%
	II : 5%	II : 8%	II : 7%	II:5%
	III/IV : 27%	III/IV : 28%	III/IV : 20%	III/IV : 19%
	unknown : 0%	unknown : 0%	unknown : 2%	unknown : 0%
Histological subtype	Endometrioid : 97%	Endometrioid : 94%	Endometrioid : 94%	Endometrioid : 94%
	Non-endometrioid : 3%	Non-endometrioid : 6%	Non-endometrioid : 6%	Non-endometrioid : 6%
LNM (rate)	14.5%	17.1%	12.5%	12.8%
PANM (rate)	8.9%	12.3%	n/a	n/a
Number of lymph nodes harvested (median)	70	77	27	22
Para-aortic node dissection (rate)	%66	100%	61%	51%
Low risk criteria for LNM	Histologic subtype/grade (endomet Tumor volume	trial biopsy): endometrioid G1 or G2, (MRI):< 36cmื.	Histologic subtype (endome Myometrial invas	strial biopsy):Endometrioid, sion (MRI):< 1/2.
	CA125:< 70U/ml (less than 50 y	/ears),< 28U/ml (50years or over)	Extension beyond uteri Lymph node size (MRI CA125:<	ine corpus (MRI): none, I):< 1cm in short axis, < 35U/ml
Proportion of patients in the low- risk group	54%	45%	53%	43%
LNM (false-negative) rate in the low-risk group	3.6%	3.2%	1.7%	1.4%
Bayesian-adjusted LNM (false- negative) rate in the low-risk group #	2.5%	1.9%	1.4%	1.1%
NM: home podo motortacio DAN				
I NM: himsh podo motostasia DAN	W: poro-portio podo motostacio #:	adinated water of the providence of p	odal materia of 10%	

LNM: lymph node metastasis, PANM: para-aortic node metastasis, , #: adjusted rate at the prevalence of nodal metastasis of 10%.

Figure 1. Results of preoperative risk assessment for excluding lymph node metastasis in endometrial cancer