

1 Title page

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4 Review article

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6 Analysis of pulmonary metastasis as an indication for operation: an evidence based approach

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9 Torkel Åberg

10 Tom Treasure*

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29 *Corresponding author

30 Tom Treasure MS MD FRCS FRCP

31 Clinical Operational Research Unit

32 University College

33 4 Taviton Street

34 WC1H 0BT

35

36 Phone 00 44 79 57 16 87 54

37 Fax 00 4412 33 74 03 78

38 E-mail: tom.treasure@gmail.com

39

40 ***Introduction***

41 Pulmonary metastasectomy is analysed in this paper according to the rules of Evidenced
42 Based Medicine. Our knowledge of metastasectomy lacks several crucial factors necessary
43 for the tenets of EBM: survival without surgery in this special group of patients; knowledge
44 of the denominator from which the cases are selected; and the biological nature of the
45 individual tumour. If metastasectomy were introduced today as a new treatment, it would not
46 be accepted.

47 Our analysis provides an alternative interpretation of five-year survival rates of 40% after
48 metastasectomy as being a result of selection of the patients at the benign end of the
49 continuous spectrum of malignancies. It is therefore a statistical illusion. Given the many
50 variables and the long time course in many patients with or without metastasectomy, the
51 effect of surgery can only be resolved by a randomised control two armed trial, where the
52 outcomes between an unoperated group (the natural history) and an operated group (the
53 natural history modified by treatment) are compared.

54 Absence of knowledge is readily accepted by many patients if candidly and respectfully
55 explained and so a randomised trial is possible, appropriate and acceptable to sufficient
56 patients. In order to shed light on whether there is truly a survival benefit from
57 metastasectomy a randomised trial has been started. Pulmonary Metastasectomy in Colorectal
58 Cancer (PulMiCC) has so far recruited 86 randomised patients and is open internationally. It
59 is funded for a further five years. Interested groups are invited to join the trial.

60

61 ***An evidence based way of thinking***

62 Evidence Based Medicine has provided a logical way of defining the ‘indication’ for
63 treatment. An ‘indication’ as used in medical English is the base around which we decide to
64 recommend treatment to patients. It can be said to be the centre of the doctor’s professional
65 duty: to identify as unequivocally as possible the indication for treatment. To decide on an
66 indication is to influence the fate of the patient. The indication has therefore to be surrounded
67 by stringent and quality assured rules.

68

69 The ideals of Evidence Based Medicine have been of great value to *patients* but at the same
70 time we must not forget that the evidence has to be individualised. Indications for treatment
71 may be reached from various forms of evidence and encapsulated in clinical guidelines or,
72 when we are less certain, consensus statements. Clinical guidelines[1] seek to make
73 irrefutable recommendations, based on the latest and best available evidence while consensus
74 statements are based on opinions and are more tentative. Nevertheless, we cannot expect
75 even the most secure evidence based guidelines to be implemented in 100% of patients. The
76 guidance has to be personalised according to the treating doctor’s view of the best interests of
77 the individual patient.

78

79 The ideals of EBM have also been of great value to *doctors* who have to advise for or against
80 treatments. This can only be done conscientiously when we are able to point to evidence.

81

82 The ideals of EBM have been of value to *society* so that we are all spared the distress and the
83 cost of needless treatments. The introduction of new drugs and the indications for their use
84 are now subject to stringent rules which must be adhered to. Surgical operations should be
85 just as carefully considered. Society should not be asked to spend its precious resources on

86 ineffective treatments. The nation's nurses and hospitals are a shared resource; the doctors as
87 the main drivers of costs in a health system must be responsible for their proper use.

88
89

90 ***Bringing the evidence base to the individual***

91 The phrase Personalised Medicine came into use, as if in opposition to EBM, but it is a false
92 dichotomy. The tightest evidence based guideline should be overridden for some patients.
93 That is to say they are 'personalised'. But with respect to lung metastasectomy there are no
94 clinical guidelines. The European Society of Thoracic Surgeons Lung Metastasectomy
95 Working Group (LMWG) considered producing guidelines but concluded '... the level of
96 evidence to support current practice is too low to set firm recommendations to the members
97 of ESTS. In the absence of a randomized controlled trial looking at the effectiveness of
98 pulmonary metastasectomy on survival and quality of life, it is unlikely that the current
99 practice will ever be influenced'.[2] More recently the Society of Thoracic Surgeons has
100 searched and not found evidence of the kind on which 'trustworthy' clinical guidance can be
101 based. The result is that there are no guidelines, in Europe or the US because there is no
102 trustworthy evidence base.[1]

103

104 The leaders of ESTS LMWG directed readers to the PulMiCC trial proposal (Pulmonary
105 Metastasectomy in Colorectal Cancer).[3] That was more than five years ago. Since then
106 there have been many further publications but they do not introduce new information based
107 on better evidence. They come to the same conclusions as were reached by the early follow-
108 up studies in the 1970s and the registry data in the 1990s. In this article we will go back to
109 basics and examine the sources of evidence on which we might build the indication for
110 metastasectomy.

111

112

113

114 ***The importance of knowing the 'natural history' of the condition***

115 In the very earliest days of surgery for congenital heart disease Maurice Campbell (1891-
116 1973) made the important decision that the large number of patients they had seen at Guy's
117 Hospital with congenital heart disease, untreatable up to that time, should be categorised in as
118 much detail as possible. He asked that their clinical course be meticulously recorded.
119 Without that record he argued, future cardiologists and surgeons would never know how the
120 newly introduced operations had altered the 'natural history'.

121

122 What is the equivalent 'natural history' of lung metastases? Five year survival of patients
123 with lung metastases is commonly assumed to approach zero. Is this a realistic estimate? It
124 was contradicted by Åberg's finding reported in 1980 of a five year survival of 25% for
125 unoperated patients, similar to that of contemporary patients who had lung
126 metastasectomy.[4] The data were few (3/12) and the confident limits are wide (6%-57%) but
127 they do not include zero.[5] A realistic estimate of the natural history of the disease is an
128 absolute requirement. For present day patients with lung metastasis we still do not have that
129 essential information.

130

131 ***Cancer registries***

132 There are registry data which provide the natural history of patients with cancer usually
133 divided by stage. In Tables 1 and 2 we show cancer registry data for survival of all patients
134 with colorectal cancer and sarcoma in the worst category in the registry, designated Stage 4.
135 This includes only patients who already had metastases at the time of diagnosis. The

136 important piece of information is that even with metastases at presentation (and these are the
137 minority in clinical series) there is a non-trivial number of five-year survivors. It is of the
138 order of 10% for colorectal cancer in the cancer registry. Therefore the number for whom
139 survival can be attributed to lung metastasectomy is already well short of the 40% that is
140 generally inferred from follow-up studies. Survival rates of 40% after lung metastasectomy
141 are compatible with selection of the most favourable patients with no beneficial effect from
142 metastasectomy.[6;7] For many diseases the cancer registry survival data have improved
143 decade by decade so the difference attributable to metastasectomy will have narrowed. We
144 hope that improved survival is a reflection of better treatments and effective operations, but
145 there are other statistical factors which we will now consider.

146

147 ***The illusion of improving results***

148 *Lead time bias.* Detection of metastases much earlier can now be achieved by more available
149 health care and more sensitive diagnostic tests. If the diagnosis is made one year earlier the
150 recorded survival of the patient will be one year longer. This is called lead time bias and it
151 creates an illusion of improving outcomes simply because the stop watch was started sooner.

152

153 *Stage migration.* With the introduction of new methods of detection we have been able to
154 stage patients more precisely. Some patients diagnosed as Stage I lung cancer are now
155 classified as Stage II because we can now see previously undetectable lymphatic
156 involvement. This is called stage migration. Similarly, better detection of mediastinal node
157 involvement with lung metastases, and the exclusion of these patients, produces a group for
158 metastasectomy with a better natural history. Any difference in observed survival would be
159 due to better selection not the metastasectomy.

160

161 *Better detection or more exclusions?* With CT we were able to detect lung metastases. With
162 the addition of PET to CT, some patients with lung metastases are now seen to have
163 unsuspected sites of cancer elsewhere in the body. This results in more exclusions which has
164 the effect of narrowing down the selection of patients in whom metastasectomy is 'indicated'.
165 The survival results will inevitably appear to be better. Higher five-year survival in this more
166 highly selected group may be a consequence of selection rather than metastasectomy.

167

168

169 ***Efficacy and effectiveness***

170 There is a distinction made in EBM between 'efficacy' and 'effectiveness'. [8] Unfortunately
171 the two words are more or less interchangeable in every day English but in the language of
172 EBM, efficacy is used to for interventions that can be seen 'to work'. So if a surgeon removes
173 a solitary lung metastasis and the pathologist reports cancer free margins the operation has
174 efficacy; the metastasis has been removed. Whether the operation is 'effective' in achieving
175 the desired clinical outcome, which is to improve survival, the pathologist cannot say. Even
176 after five years patients may die of their same cancer and the metastasectomy can then be
177 seen to have been ineffective as a means of cure. The many variables and the long time to
178 reach the outcome, means that clinical effectiveness of lung metastasectomy does not meet
179 the criteria for being provable on observational data alone.[9]

180

181 ***When can we trust observational data for evidence that a treatment is effective?***

182 There are many treatments where repeated observation and experience were sufficient proof
183 for a treatment to become established. [9;10] Surgeons do not hesitate to relieve tension
184 pneumothorax or to retrieve an inhaled object obstructing the trachea. Rightly no one asks
185 them for RCT evidence. Cataract and hip surgery, and the relief of mitral and aortic stenosis,

186 all entered practice without RCTs. In these examples the surgeon deals with a single, clearly
187 evident cause of the patient's problem which is then promptly relieved by a mechanically
188 rational intervention. If these principles are used to test the effectiveness of lung
189 metastasectomy, it fails the test. There are multiple factors involved and the time scale is
190 measured in years so attribution of the patient's survival at any time point up to and beyond
191 five years cannot unequivocally be attributed to that surgical action.

192 It is worth noting that for treatments which can be seen to effective by observation alone[9]
193 the more severe the problem, the greater is the benefit to the patient. It is for that reason that
194 we are prepared to observe a small pneumothorax or a mild degree of aortic stenosis: it is for
195 the severe cases that we know we should intervene. This is in contrast to lung
196 metastasectomy. Patients selected for metastasectomy are the least severely affected among a
197 heterogeneous population: they have fewer metastases, longer intervals to their appearance,
198 and progress more slowly. Under those circumstances EBM does not allow us to attribute the
199 patient's survival at any given time point to the lung metastasectomy, without control data.

200 We must remember that lung metastases are rarely the proximate cause of death. Patients in
201 whom the only site of cancer is the lung metastasis have a good prognosis for survival at least
202 in the short term. They are not likely to die 'any time soon' so one year survival data are
203 clearly meaningless in this context. There is an argument that we must hurry to resect a lung
204 metastasis because it in turn may metastasise onwards to the mediastinal nodes and from
205 there disseminate. However, as we will see this is not the basis on which the practice of
206 metastasectomy is founded. On the contrary, results are known to be better if
207 metastasectomy is delayed during a period of observation.

208
209

210 *The traditional approach: surgeons' follow-up studies*

211 It is understandable for a surgeon to want to remove a malignant tumour. Tumours were seen
212 as a 'surgical' disease. The slogan 'when in doubt, take it out' is familiar to all surgeons.
213 The first formulation of the indications for metastasectomy was that there should be a solitary
214 or very few metastases; the original tumour should have been radically resected; and that the
215 patient has the pulmonary reserve to withstand thoracotomy and the necessary loss of lung
216 parenchyma to clear all the disease. These requirements were implicitly understood and were
217 the basis of Thomford's criteria set out fifty years ago.[11]

218

219 It was also understood that there should have been an interval of time since the primary
220 resection. This often included a further period of observation after the metastasis became
221 evident to ensure that there was no rapid progression or residual cancer elsewhere.
222 Systematically reviewing the many follow-up studies, this interval was found to be on
223 average 1-2 years since the primary surgery in cases of sarcoma[12] and three years for
224 colorectal cancer.[13] This meant that only a few of all patients with lung metastases met the
225 criteria. Turney and Haight's paper from 1971[14] is an example that was influential as the
226 practice became established.[15] The overall five-year survival was 40% but the data were
227 from 68 patients including children, operated on between 1939 and 1963, with a very wide
228 range of cancer types. That is an average of fewer than three patients a year. Studying this
229 paper again in preparation for writing our paper it seems to have been widely misquoted
230 and perhaps given more authority than, with hindsight, it deserved.

231

232 Follow-up studies, although they are the commonest form of ‘evidence’ for surgery, have
233 several insurmountable weaknesses.[16] In the context of lung metastasectomy there are two
234 recurring problems illustrated by this study. One is the difficulty in determining the degree of
235 selection. On average only one patient had a metastasectomy in a four month period.[14] If
236 they found patients for metastasectomy that infrequently, how large was the denominator
237 from which the patients were selected? A second is the absence of any control group. These
238 concerns led to Åberg’s study of patients eligible for, but who did not have, lung
239 metastasectomy. He found that some of them survived five years without metastasectomy.[4]
240

241 **Registries**

242 The major landmark work in this field is the International Registry of Lung Metastases
243 (IRLM) published in 1997.[17;18] The analysis of 5206 patients, meticulously carried out
244 and clearly presented, irrefutably showed that the favourable factors for survival were (i) an
245 interval since primary resection of greater than three years and (ii) a solitary metastasis. The
246 IRLM authors choose their words carefully. They call these *prognostic* factors which is
247 indeed correct. These are general prognostic features for cancer survival irrespective of
248 treatment rather than being predictive of a beneficial effect of metastasectomy.[19] The
249 IRLM authors were also quite clear in their recommendation for further work. In their view
250 the registry would ‘define areas of uncertainty concerning surgery and other therapeutic
251 modalities to be explored by prospective randomized trials.’[18]
252

253 Welcoming the registry as ‘the major scientific initiative during the last 20 years Åberg
254 commented that the ‘inclusion in the registry of the probably few patients who abstain from
255 operation after being advised to have it would add to the value of the registry.’[15] That
256 would have provided the critical missing piece of information: the unoperated survival for
257 patients who are similar to those having metastasectomy. That is the ‘natural history’ as
258 outlined already.
259

260 There is another important registry study in which data were collected prospectively to
261 capture practice as completely as possible. Spanish surgeons collected data on 543 patients
262 representing about 60% of all lung metastasectomy operations in their country in a two year
263 period 2008-2010.[20] The starting point was patients who had a histologically confirmed
264 metastasectomy. The opportunity to capture the intention- to-treat outcomes was lost as a
265 consequence, as was the survival of patients declining metastasectomy. From this two year
266 collection of national data, we can deduce that fewer than 3% of patients with colorectal lung
267 metastases have metastasectomy. This is consistent with other database analyses in which this
268 information can be estimated.[20] If we put this high level of selection alongside our
269 knowledge of prognostic features for long survival, it becomes less impressive that follow-up
270 studies include 40% five-year survivors.[6;7]
271

272 **Understanding the biology of the cancer: tumour doubling times**

273 Nodules in the lung characteristically show up clearly as opacities surrounded by radiolucent
274 lung: a white on black measureable image. Their doubling times can be calculated. This has
275 been done for metastases in the CT era. Doubling times varied from 22 to 930 days. [21] A
276 calculation can be made, based on doubling times, of how long it takes a microscopic focus
277 of cancer to become visible and how much further time it takes for a radiologically visible
278 tumour to reach a lethal volume.[22;23] At the upper end of the distribution are indolent
279 cancers which are not going to be life threatening within the likely lifetime of the patient.
280 [Fig.1] The simple measure of repeating the CT scan at an interval and thus getting a closer

281 knowledge of the patient's disease would be one step further in the principles of Personalized
282 Medicine but operating on those who show little increase in size is one way of selecting the
283 natural survivors. It would increase the number of observed five-year survivors in a surgeon's
284 metastasectomy case series without making any actual impact on survival of the patients
285 presenting with metastases.

286 Doubling time as a means of selecting patients for metastasectomy was explored in patients
287 operated on from 1960 to 1970. In 113 patients, doubling time was found to vary from 18 to
288 more than 360 days by Joseph and colleagues. Of these patients 24 had metastasectomy and
289 89 did not. Patients with doubling times of less than 40 days died within two years whether
290 operated on or not. Patients were investigated and the metastases re-measured after three
291 months. They operated on those with lesser rates of growth. (To do that is of course to
292 contradict any imperative to remove them as soon as possible before they metastasise
293 onwards.) The consequences was that a subset of 11 patients with doubling times >40 days,
294 who had a deliberately inserted additional period of observation, *and* who had
295 metastasectomy all survived for five years.[24] Patients with the slowest growing metastases
296 defined their own 'survivability' a term which has been used before in the context of lung
297 metastasectomy.[25]

298 ***Where have we come to?***

299 These various considerations lead us to believe that the attribution of survival of patients after
300 five years to the metastasectomy operation is predominately a mathematical illusion with an
301 element of wishful thinking.[16;26] If we just rely on the data themselves, a meta-analysis of
302 25 well reported follow-up studies of nearly 3000 patients showed that long survival was
303 improbable if there was more than one metastasis and an interval of less than three years. The
304 conclusion is essentially the same as that reached in the follow-up studies in the 1970s,[14]
305 confirmed with larger numbers by the IRLM in 1997,[17;18] and demonstrated again with a
306 more sophisticated meta-analysis in 2013.[27] Nevertheless the surgeon authors concluded
307 '... it seems currently unfair to deny surgery for those patients with two to four lesions.'[27]
308 One wonders what is the point of repeating the same analysis and reaching an ever more
309 certain statistical result and then overriding it with the emotionally laden words 'unfair to
310 deny'?

311
312 We draw an alternative conclusion. It seems to us not only unfair to continue to offer
313 operations without a realistic prospect of benefit to our patients but it is irrational to hold a
314 belief that is so far at odds with the evidence. Why not tell the patient with four metastases
315 the truth: in this and other analyses [28] metastasectomy has been shown to not provide
316 benefit?

317
318 What is happening now is that stereotactic radiotherapy (SABR/ SBRT)[29] and image
319 guided thermal ablation (IGTA)[30;31] are presumed to be effective based on the claims for
320 surgical metastasectomy. They are being offered as a less invasive way of doing the same
321 job. They are being introduced without trials, resting on no more than surgical practice, itself
322 without evidence from control data.[32-34]

323 324 ***Where are we heading?***

325 There are educational and practical problems ahead. As a result of better selection, less
326 traumatic surgery or adjuvant treatment, or for a combination of these reasons, 'improved'
327 survival rates of 40-50% five year survival after lung metastasectomy (taking colorectal
328 cancer as an example) are now common around the world. As we become able to exclude the

329 more aggressive carcinomas with, for instance, genomic analyses we might see even better
330 five-year survival rates perhaps to 70-80%. That would further fortify the belief in the
331 effectiveness of metastasectomy but it would be a statistical mistake.[16]

332

333 ***New evidence from controlled trials***

334 There is new evidence that raises a serious challenge to the practice of metastasectomy. In
335 the case of colorectal cancer, the commonest indication for lung metastasectomy, there is a
336 belief that patients who have had potentially curative primary resection should be monitored
337 in order to detect metastases as early as possible so that they can be resected. There has been
338 a succession of recently published randomised controlled trials aimed at advancing detection
339 of metastases with the intention to remove them. Increased intensity of monitoring does
340 advance the diagnosis compared with current standard care. The surprising finding is that
341 more intensive monitoring does not lead to improved survival. This has been found
342 repeatedly in multicentre randomised controlled trials. It seems counterintuitive: surely
343 earlier detection allows for treatment which must improve survival? That has not been the
344 case.[35-39]

345

346 ***The PulMiCC trial: Pulmonary Metastasectomy in Colorectal Cancer.***

347 Following the tenets of EBM the question about effectiveness of metastasectomy is one that
348 requires a randomised trial to obtain an answer.[10;40] An RCT has the virtue that it ensures
349 that both the known and *unknown* confounding factors are similar in both arms. It is
350 surpassed in scientific value only by meta-analyses of several randomised controlled trials. A
351 treatment with as much uncertainty as lung metastasectomy would not now be introduced
352 into practice without RCTs. An RCT is indeed necessary.

353

354 PulMiCC is based on existing clinical practice in which a minority of patients with lung
355 metastases from colorectal cancer are selected for metastasectomy while the majority are not.
356 [Fig.2] The trial design is built on the logically inescapable fact that on the multifactorial
357 spectrum of disease there must be a zone where there is uncertainty if metastasectomy is
358 offered to some and not to others.[40] Patients should be informed about that uncertainty.
359 Even if it is uncomfortable to admit it, we owe it to patients to tell them when there is no firm
360 knowledge.[41] If the uncertainty is made explicit, random assignment is an understandable
361 course of action for many patients. After several years of preparation, including involvement
362 in the ESTS Lung Metastasectomy Working Group, the randomised trial Pulmonary
363 Metastasectomy in Colorectal Cancer (PulMiCC) was launched in 2011. It has successfully
364 completed a pilot phase and shown feasibility. To date there are over 420 patients in the
365 PulMiCC cohort and more than 80 patients have been randomised. PulMiCC is funded to run
366 for the next five years. Patients randomly assigned to the interventional arm may have
367 surgery or ablation according to clinical judgement of the most suitable method. Those
368 assigned to not have an intervention are monitored and can be treated in any way the clinical
369 team considers appropriate. PulMiCC has now run for four years and is open
370 internationally. Interested groups are welcome to join the trial.[42]

371

372 ***The patient's view***

373 The carefully selected patient with a lung metastasis with proven favourable features, can
374 expect a fairly long survival, not months but years, *with* the metastasis. The metastases that
375 can be seen and removed are very unlikely to be the eventual cause of the patient's death. If
376 metastases are symptomatic that might justify treatment to relieve the symptoms but in
377 general they are asymptomatic and remains so, rarely contributing to symptoms or distress
378 near the end of life. These facts should be shared with the patient.

379

380 In justification some surgeons say they ‘give the patient hope’; giving *false* hope is not good
381 medical practice. Properly and sympathetically informed, and perhaps by someone other than
382 the surgeon, many patients would be grateful to be spared an operation which will not benefit
383 them. The time taken out of the last year or two of their lives can be spent in better ways than
384 undergoing surgery and recovery. Surgeons are quick to point out that there is very low risk
385 associated with metastasectomy. The perioperative mortality is not a point at issues anywhere
386 in our analysis. Dr Hahnemann (1755-1893 introduced highly ritualised dilution to vanishing
387 concentration of the drug to spare his patients therapies with high toxicity. The doctrine of
388 homeopathy of homeopathy was based on reducing risk. Metastasectomy in expert hands
389 carries low risks of death and morbidity but surgery should only be done for a demonstrable
390 benefit. Justifying ineffectual treatments because they do little harm is not cogent reasoning.
391 Investigations and interventions have a cost, they take up doctors’ and patients’ time, and
392 they carry a risk of harm, however infrequent.

393

394 However, we know that the prospect of living with a metastasis may be intolerable for some
395 patients. After comprehensive information about the nature of the disease and the relative
396 prospects of life with or without a metastasis, the patient may still insist on an operation. The
397 indication then becomes their psychological well-being. We are surgeons, not psychiatrists or
398 psychologists, and should be cautious about such a recommendation without expert
399 evaluation of the patient’s mental health. But our aim is not to completely rule out lung
400 metastasectomy but to base the indications on rational thinking, the patient’s needs, and an
401 explicit interpretation of the evidence. Maynard Keynes famously wrote: "When my
402 information changes, I alter my conclusions. What do you do, sir?" Our current position is
403 based on consideration of all the evidence that we are aware of and if this evidence changes
404 we would change our minds.

405

406 Table 1. Colorectal cancer. Five-year survival data of patients with metastases at
407 registration.

Era	Stage 4 cases	Five-year survivors	%5YS
1980 to 1989	7205	501	7.0
1990 to 1999	9767	756	7.7
2000 to 2009	12831	1519	11.8

408

409 Legend to table 1. Thames Cancer Registry cases registered as having metastases from
410 colorectal cancer at the time of diagnosis in three decades from 1980 to 2009. It is unlikely
411 that many of these patients underwent lung metastasectomy. For example the most active
412 group in the Thames region at the time reported 29 patients having lung metastasectomy for
413 carcinoma of any type in an eight year period (<4 per annum).[43] These five year survival
414 figures provide an order of magnitude for the survival of registered patients with metastases
415 of nearly 10%. If the most favourable quartile were identified as lung metastasectomy
416 candidates but not operated on ($10/25=0.4$) about 40% survival would be observed.[6;7] The
417 colorectal cancer patients have usually not had metastases at the time of the primary resection
418 and have already survived longer than 2-3 years from the time of diagnosis before lung
419 metastasectomy. The authors acknowledge Henrich Møller for providing the data for
420 inclusion in these tables.

421

422

423 Table 2. Sarcoma. Five-year survival data of patients with metastases at registration.

Era	Bone	metastasised	Five-years survivors
85-94	281	84	19.8
95-04	310	94	24.8

	Soft tissue	Stage 4	
85-94	2072	398	12.57
95-04	2145	536	14.92

424

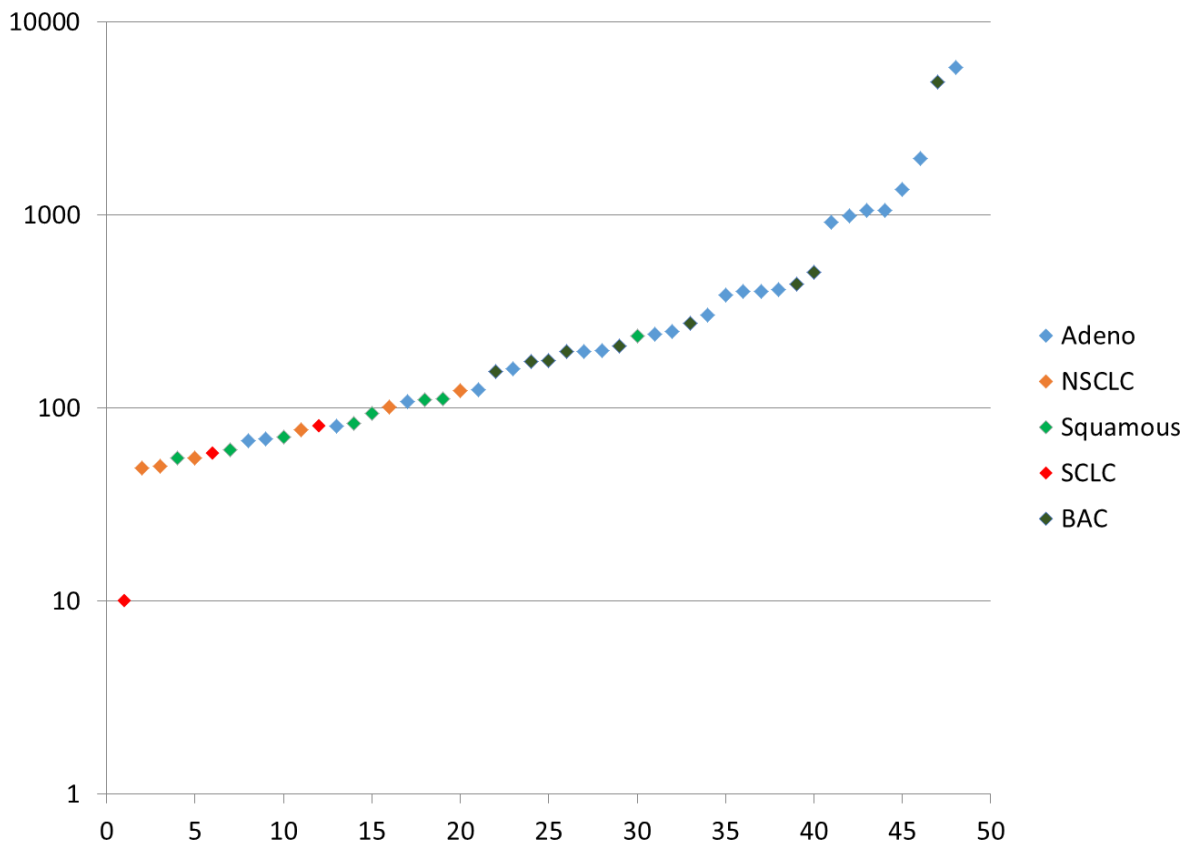
425 Legend to table. Thames Cancer Registry cases registered as having metastases from bone or
426 soft tissues sarcoma at the time of diagnosis in two decades from 1985 to 2004. The group
427 designated to manage sarcoma in the Thames region at the time reported 43 patients having
428 lung metastasectomy for carcinoma of any type in an eight year period (about 5% per
429 annum)[43] so these five year survival figures cannot be attributed to lung metastasectomy.
430 Long survival after lung metastasectomy may reflect selection of patients with favourable
431 natural history of survival.[12] The authors acknowledge Henrich Møller for providing the
432 data for inclusion in these tables.

433

434 *Legend to the figure*

435 These data are from a study of the change of volume over time of nodules detected in a lung
436 cancer screening project.[44] The cancers are distributed on the horizontal axis going from
437 shortest to longest by doubling time in days (Vertical logarithmic scale). All were removed
438 and the histology was established. We have retained the original authors' terminology. It can
439 be seen that adenocarcinoma tended to have much longer doubling times than squamous and
440 small cell lung cancer. The cancers to the right would have taken many years to represent a
441 threat due to the bulk of cancer and would have been unlikely to cause the death of the
442 patient. The patient would have died with the cancer, long before it caused any life-
443 threatening effect. Similar distributions are seen for lung metastases and the same conclusion
444 might be drawn.[21]

445
446



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448

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