

# Influence of dosimetry method on bone lesion absorbed dose estimates in PSMA therapy: application to mCRPC patients receiving Lu-177-PSMA-I&T

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## Original research

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2 **application to mCRPC patients receiving Lu-177-PSMA-I&T**

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27 **Abstract**

28 **Background**

29 Patients with metastatic, castration-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC) present with an increased  
30 tumor burden in the skeleton. For these patients, Lutetium-177 (Lu-177) radioligand therapy  
31 targeting the prostate-specific membrane antigen (PSMA) has gained increasing interest with  
32 promising outcome data. Patient-individualized dosimetry enables quantification of therapy success  
33 with the aim of minimizing absorbed dose to organs at risk while maximizing absorbed dose to  
34 tumors. Different dosimetric approaches with varying complexity and accuracy exist for this purpose.  
35 The relatively simple OLINDA method applied to tumors assumes a homogeneous activity  
36 distribution in a sphere with unit density. Voxel S value (VSV) approaches can account for  
37 heterogeneous activities but are simulated for a specific tissue. Full patient-individual Monte Carlo  
38 (MC) dose simulation addresses both, heterogeneous activity and density distributions. Subsequent  
39 CT-based density correction has the potential to overcome the assumption of homogeneous density  
40 in OLINDA and VSV methods, which could be a major limitation for the application in bone  
41 metastases with heterogeneous density. The aim of this investigation is a comparison of these  
42 methods for bone lesion dosimetry in mCRPC patients receiving Lu-177-PSMA therapy.

43 **Results**

44 In total, 289 bone lesions in 15 mCRPC patients were analyzed. Percentage deviation (PD) of  
45 absorbed lesion doses compared to full MC was  $+7 \pm 13$  % (min: -60 %; max: +47 %) for the OLINDA  
46 unit density sphere model. With an applied CT-based density weighting to account for density  
47 differences in bone lesions, PD was  $-15 \pm 6$  % (min: -54 %; max: -2 %). For a soft tissue VSV approach,  
48 large PDs of  $+16 \pm 13$  % (min: -56 %; max: +57 %) were found; after voxel-wise density correction this  
49 was reduced to  $-5 \pm 2$  % (min: -15 %; max: -2 %). The use of a combination of standard soft tissue and  
50 cortical bone VSVs showed deviations of  $-35 \pm 8$  % (min: -76 %; max: +5 %). With additional voxel-wise  
51 density weighting, the PD was  $-3 \pm 2$  % (min: -13 %; max: 0 %).

52 **Conclusion**

53 Based on our bone lesion dosimetry results, a VSV approach with subsequent CT-based, voxel-wise  
54 density correction enabled dose estimates, that closely replicate computationally-demanding gold-  
55 standard full MC dose simulations.

56 **Keywords**

57 Radioligand therapy, mCRPC, PSMA, Lutetium-177, 3D dosimetry, tumor dosimetry, OLINDA/EXM®,  
58 voxel S value, Monte Carlo simulation

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71 **Background**

72 The incidence of prostate cancer has been steadily increasing over the past decades in western  
73 populations (1, 2). Patients with castration-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC) typically present a  
74 large metastatic tumor burden in the bones (3). Radioligand therapies (RLT) targeting the prostate-  
75 specific membrane antigen (PSMA) such as Lutetium-177-PSMA (Lu-177-PSMA) and Actinium-225-  
76 PSMA have shown promising results in patients ineligible for other therapies or showing progress  
77 after receiving other systemic treatment options (4). The clinical value of personalized dosimetry in  
78 RLT lies in a possible increase of the therapeutic window by limiting absorbed dose to organs at risk  
79 (OARs) while maximizing absorbed dose to tumors. Thus, personalized dosimetry is indispensable for  
80 correlation with therapy response and patient outcome and enables adjustments for subsequent  
81 therapy cycles. First Lu-177-DKFZ-PSMA-617 absorbed dose estimates were published in 2015 (5).  
82 Nonetheless, up to now there are still few publications addressing the absorbed doses delivered to  
83 tumors after Lu-177-PSMA therapy (5-11). There are different approaches for calculation of absorbed  
84 doses, each with varying complexity and accuracy. The use of pre-calculated organ specific S values  
85 has become more prevalent using the OLINDA/EXM<sup>®</sup> 2.0 software (HERMES Medical Solutions,  
86 Sweden) (12). However, this approach relies on the unit density sphere model for calculation of  
87 tumor S values that assumes homogeneous activity distribution within the tumor and a tumor  
88 density of 1 g/cm<sup>3</sup> (i.e. soft tissue). Thus, this fast and simple approach has limited applicability to  
89 bone lesions with higher densities and non-uniform activity distributions. An alternative dosimetry  
90 approach includes radionuclide specific dose kernels or voxel S values (VSVs), which are pre-  
91 simulated for a specific tissue type and voxel size. The use of VSVs enables a three-dimensional (3D)  
92 absorbed dose calculation and is capable to account for heterogeneous activity distributions under  
93 the assumption of a homogeneous material and density (13). The inherent complexity of Monte  
94 Carlo (MC) absorbed dose simulations makes this technique superior in addressing patient-individual  
95 heterogeneous density and activity distributions for a 3D absorbed dose calculation. However, the

96 majority of publications reporting tumor absorbed dose estimates in Lu-177-PSMA therapies use the  
97 OLINDA unit density sphere model approach (5-7, 9-11).

98 The aim of this work is to provide further insight into various dosimetry techniques especially for  
99 accurate and reproducible bone lesion dose estimation in Lu-177-PSMA therapy of mCRPC. The  
100 methods being investigated for this purpose made use of the OLINDA unit density sphere model for  
101 VOI-based dosimetry, VSVs for different tissue types for voxel-based dosimetry, and were extended  
102 by considering a tissue-specific density weighting approach. Their capability of absorbed dose  
103 quantification was evaluated in comparison to patient-individual dosimetry by Monte Carlo  
104 simulations. The latter is assumed to be the most accurate and is referred to as the gold-standard  
105 approach.

## 106 **Methods**

### 107 **Patients**

108 The study was conducted retrospectively on anonymized data and was approved by the local ethics  
109 committee of our institution. 15 patients with metastatic, castration-resistant prostate cancer  
110 (mCRPC) and pronounced metastases in the skeleton were included in this study. Table 1 presents  
111 the detailed patient characteristics. Patients received a first cycle of radioligand therapy using Lu-  
112 177-PSMA-I&T with activities of  $7.45 \pm 0.02$  GBq in 10 patients and  $9.06 \pm 0.06$  GBq in 5 patients. The  
113 higher initial therapy activities were used in case of severe bone metastasis and/or presence of  
114 visceral metastasis.

### 115 **Image acquisition and reconstruction**

116 Following the standard clinical routine imaging protocol of our institution, patients underwent  
117 quantitative Lu-177 SPECT/CT imaging (Symbia Intevo™ T16 SPECT/CT, 3/8" crystal, medium-energy  
118 low-penetration collimator, Siemens Healthcare, Germany) at 24 h, 48 h and 72 h post injection (p.i.).  
119 At least two SPECT bed positions were acquired in auto-contour mode followed by a low dose CT.

120 Image acquisition parameters included a 128x128 matrix with 64 angular steps and a duration of 5 s  
121 per step. The imaging energy window was centered at the energy of the upper photo peak of Lu-177  
122 at 208 keV (width 15 %). Quantitative SPECT reconstruction was performed with collimator-specific  
123 depth-dependent detector response modelling, corrections for photon attenuation and scattering  
124 and using a system-specific calibration factor (16 MAP iterations, 8 subsets, Bayesian weight 0.01,  
125 Hermes Hybrid Recon v.2.1.1, HERMES Medical Solutions, Sweden) (14, 15).

## 126 **Image processing**

127 All images were processed with PMOD (v4.005; PMOD Technologies LLC). Rigid co-registration of all  
128 CT and SPECT volumes was performed onto the SPECT/CT image data at 24 h p.i., which served as  
129 reference. An individual bone map and a whole-body volume of interest (VOI) were derived from the  
130 reference CT by threshold-based segmentation, and kidney VOIs were defined by manual  
131 delineation. To further segment individual bone lesions within the skeletal bone map, the semi-  
132 automatic k-means cluster segmentation of PMOD 3D tool was used on the 24 h SPECT (3). All VOIs  
133 were copied to the co-registered SPECT data sets. VOI activities for whole-body, kidneys and tumor  
134 lesions were fitted using a mono-exponential fit model to acquire the effective half-lives per VOI.  
135 Time-integrated activity images per patient were consequently generated with MATLAB (R2019b,  
136 The MathWorks, Inc. Natick, MA) based on the reference SPECT at 24 h p.i. and the individual VOI  
137 map:

$$138 \quad \tilde{A}^{voxel} = \frac{A_{t=0}^{voxel}}{\lambda_{VOI}}, \quad (1)$$

139 where  $\tilde{A}^{voxel}$  denotes the time-integrated activity per voxel,  $A_{t=0}^{voxel}$  is the activity at time point zero  
140 in a voxel, and  $\lambda_{VOI}$  equal to  $\ln(2)$  divided by the effective half-life obtained from mono-exponential  
141 fitting in the related VOI.  $A_{t=0}^{voxel}$  was computed as:

$$142 \quad A_{t=0}^{voxel} = A_{t=24h}^{voxel} \cdot e^{\lambda_{VOI} \cdot t(t=24h)}. \quad (2)$$

## 143 **Dosimetry calculations**

144 We investigated 7 different dosimetry approaches by utilizing the aforementioned time-integrated  
145 activity images and the reference CT of each patient, and evaluated them based on their accuracy  
146 (with respect to Monte Carlo), complexity, and feasibility to integrate into clinical practice.

#### 147 **1) MC method: Patient-specific Monte Carlo (MC) dose simulation**

148 Patient-specific MC dose simulation accounts for the patient's anatomy by using the geometry and  
149 density information from the patient's CT image (16). The radioactive decay, the interactions of the  
150 radioactive decay products with matter and consequently the absorbed dose deposition are  
151 simulated based on the patient-individual time-integrated activity distribution. Hence, MC dose  
152 simulations contain the highest level of complexity for modelling the physical processes for dose  
153 estimation amongst all other applied methods in this study and are considered the gold-standard for  
154 dosimetry. In concordance with Dieudonné et al. (17) and Grimes et al. (18), we considered MC  
155 dosimetry as the reference method assessing the suitability and accuracy of the other methods for  
156 bone lesion dosimetry. Monte Carlo simulations in this study were performed using the GATE MC  
157 code version 8.2, based on GEANT4 version 10.5.1. This code has previously been validated for use in  
158 nuclear medicine therapies (19-21). In detail, Hounsfield Units (HU) of patients' CT data were  
159 converted into material compositions and densities according to Schneider et al. (16), giving a HU to  
160 density conversion table. The time-integrated activity image of each patient was normalized with its  
161 total number of decays and used as the input for the simulations. The total number of  $10^9$  primary  
162 decays per patient simulation was divided into 20 sub-simulations for parallel execution on separate  
163 CPUs to increase simulation speed. The relative statistical uncertainty in the absorbed dose per voxel  
164 was calculated as described by Chetty et al. (22). The voxel size of the simulation was  $(4.7952 \text{ mm})^3$   
165 corresponding to the voxel sizes of the SPECT acquisitions. All particle range thresholds were set to  
166 0.1 mm.

#### 167 **2) OLINDA method: OLINDA unit density sphere model**

168 The OLINDA uniform and unit density sphere model (OLINDA/EXM® 2.0, HERMES Medical Solutions,  
169 Sweden) represents the model with the lowest level of complexity and can be considered as the most  
170 simple and applicable method, yet clinically available. Since the total time-integrated activity per  
171 lesion and the lesion volume were known from the processing steps described above, the mean  
172 lesion absorbed dose was calculated following the Medical Internal Radiation Dose (MIRD)  
173 Committee formalism (23) by multiplication of the OLINDA S value for the selected tumor volume  
174 with the tumor time-integrated activity. OLINDA S values are available for a limited number of sphere  
175 volumes/masses. Hence, the appropriate OLINDA S value per lesion was obtained by fitting the  
176 available OLINDA S values and subsequent calculation of the S value for the lesion mass with the fit  
177 parameters assuming the lesion mass being equal to the lesion volume expressing a unit density. This  
178 method includes solely the tumor self-dose (24) and is further based on the assumption that tumors  
179 and lesions were all of spherical shape with unit density and uniform activity distribution (12).

### 180 **3) OLINDA<sub>weighted</sub> method: OLINDA unit density sphere model with additional density weighting**

181 As stated above, the unit density sphere model does not only neglect the actual tumor shape but  
182 also the actual tumor density. A simple method aiming to improve this dose estimate and to account  
183 for the tissue-specific tumor density is to convert the average HU from the lesion VOI on the CT-  
184 image to an average lesion density using the HU to density conversion table and to adjust the dose  
185 estimate. This was achieved by weighting the lesion absorbed dose value  $D^{lesion}$  with the ratio of  
186 unit density by the average lesion density  $\rho_{lesion}$  according to:

$$187 \quad D_{weighted}^{lesion} = D^{lesion} \cdot \frac{1 \text{ g/ccm}}{\rho_{lesion}}. \quad (3)$$

### 188 **4) VSV<sup>soft</sup> method: Dose convolution model using voxel S values (VSVs) based on ICRP soft tissue**

189 The OLINDA methods assume uniform distributions of activity within organs and tumors neglecting  
190 the heterogeneous distributions that are observed in SPECT images. To account for the non-uniform  
191 activity distribution in 3D dosimetry, the use of VSVs for dosimetry has gained increasing interest  
192 (13). For this purpose, GATE MC code was used for the simulation of Lu-177 VSVs using the voxel size

193 of the time-integrated activity images, namely (4.7952 mm)<sup>3</sup>. The simulation used the soft tissue  
194 composition according to the International Commission On Radiological Protection (ICRP) (25, 26).  
195 For simulation, the central voxel of the ICRP soft tissue medium in a 51 x 51 x 51 matrix was set as Lu-  
196 177 source voxel and 10<sup>8</sup> primaries were simulated. All particle range threshold were set to 0.1 mm.  
197 The VSVs represent the dose distribution per decay such that when convolved with the time-  
198 integrated activity image this results in a patient-specific 3D voxel dose map.

199 **5) VSV<sub>weighted</sub><sup>soft</sup> method: Dose convolution model using VSVs based on ICRP soft tissue with**  
200 **additional density weighting**

201 A limitation of the VSV<sup>soft</sup> method was that the VSVs were simulated exclusively for soft tissue, and  
202 hence the applicability for bone lesion dosimetry is hindered.

203 Similar to the density weighting presented in the OLINDA<sub>weighted</sub> method, it is possible to adjust for  
204 the different densities of the patient-individual anatomy and the density of the simulated VSVs. For  
205 this, the HUs of the patients' CT were voxel-wise converted into density values, giving a density map.  
206 Consequently, the 3D absorbed dose map from the VSV<sup>soft</sup> method is voxel-wise weighted with the  
207 ratio of the VSV density of ICRP soft tissue  $\rho_{ICRP}$  to the actual voxel density  $\rho_{voxel}$  (17):

$$208 \quad D_{weighted}^{voxel} = D^{voxel} \cdot \frac{\rho_{ICRP}}{\rho_{voxel}}. \quad (4)$$

209 **6) VSV<sup>soft+bone</sup> method: Dose convolution model using VSVs based on ICRP soft tissue and VSVs**  
210 **based on ICRP cortical bone**

211 We extended the VSV<sup>soft</sup> method by simulation of cortical bone VSVs using a standard ICRP cortical  
212 bone composition (25, 26) with a similar simulation setup as for the ICRP soft tissue VSVs in the  
213 VSV<sup>soft</sup> method. Making use of the patient's bone map to distinguish between regions containing  
214 bone or soft tissue, the corresponding tissue-specific VSVs were applied in their respective regions  
215 similar to Lee et al. (27). Subsequently, to obtain a total 3D voxel dose map, the soft tissue 3D voxel

216 dose map (in soft tissue regions) and the cortical bone 3D voxel dose map (in bone regions) are  
217 combined into a single image.

218 **7)  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft+bone}}$  method: Dose convolution model using VSVs based on ICRP soft tissue and VSVs**  
219 **based on ICRP cortical bone with additional density weighting**

220 The skeleton itself is not merely composed of cortical bone, and shows a heterogeneous composition  
221 of tissues with varying densities. Therefore, to further account for the variations in bone  
222 composition, beyond the above-mentioned standard cortical model, a similar voxel-wise density  
223 weighting as in equation (4) is applied to the obtained combined 3D absorbed voxel dose map from  
224 the  $VSV^{\text{soft+bone}}$  method in order to correct for differences in density per voxel.

225 **Comparisons**

226 To evaluate the 3D voxel dose maps obtained from MC,  $VSV^{\text{soft}}$ ,  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft}}$ ,  $VSV^{\text{soft+bone}}$  and  
227  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft+bone}}$ , VOIs from the initial bone lesion segmentation were utilized to quantify lesion absorbed  
228 dose estimates.

229 For objective assessment of quantification quality, the percentage difference PD of the mean  
230 absorbed dose per lesion of  $\bar{D}_{\text{method}}^{\text{lesion}}$  obtained from the methods (OLINDA, OLINDA<sub>weighted</sub>,  $VSV^{\text{soft}}$ ,  
231  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft}}$ ,  $VSV^{\text{soft+bone}}$  and  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft+bone}}$ ) were compared with the mean absorbed dose per lesion  
232 obtained from MC  $\bar{D}_{MC}^{\text{lesion}}$ :

$$233 \quad PD = \frac{\bar{D}_{\text{method}}^{\text{lesion}} - \bar{D}_{MC}^{\text{lesion}}}{\bar{D}_{MC}^{\text{lesion}}} \cdot 100. \quad (5)$$

234 Further comparison was performed by MATLAB Pearson's correlation and by Bland-Altman plots  
235 (28).

236 Cumulative dose volume histograms (DVHs) were created for the 3D dose methods for some  
237 exemplarily chosen lesions to enable a dose distribution comparison of the methods.

238 **Results**

239 In total, 289 bone lesions in the 15 mCRPC patients were evaluated. The segmented lesion volumes  
240 were on average 19.1 ml (range: 1.1 to 453.2 ml).

241 **MC simulations**

242 The overall simulation time per patient for the MC method was less than 4.5 h using the 20 parallel  
243 running MC sub-simulations. The maximum relative statistical uncertainty in absorbed dose  
244 simulations was below 2.4 % for all voxels in all lesions, with on average being below 0.9 % over all  
245 lesion voxels. The maximum statistical uncertainty in the absorbed dose for the target region of ICRP  
246 soft tissue and ICRP cortical bone VSVs of the  $VSV^{\text{soft}}$ ,  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft}}$ ,  $VSV^{\text{soft+bone}}$  and  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft+bone}}$  methods  
247 was below 3.2 %. This was for the most distant voxel from the source voxel. The average over all  
248 target voxels was below 2.0 %.

249 **Comparison of dosimetry methods**

250 The mean percentage difference (PD) of lesion absorbed dose estimates for each of the methods  
251 compared to full MC simulation based dose estimate, averaged over all investigated lesions, are  
252 summarized in Table 2.  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft+bone}}$  showed the smallest percentage deviation of  $-3 \pm 2$  %  
253 accompanied with a relatively small range between the minimum percentage deviation of -13 % and  
254 maximum percentage deviation of 0 %. The additional density weighting of  $OLINDA_{\text{weighted}}$ ,  
255  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft}}$ , and  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft+bone}}$ , led to an overall smaller range of percentage deviations than the  
256 associated method without weighting, which is illustrated in Figure 1.

257 A very strong correlation with the MC absorbed dose estimates was found for all methods:  $OLINDA$  ( $r$   
258  $= 0.982$ ,  $p \ll 0.001$ ,  $R^2 = 0.965$ ),  $OLINDA_{\text{weighted}}$  ( $r = 0.994$ ,  $p \ll 0.001$ ,  $R^2 = 0.988$ ),  $VSV^{\text{soft}}$  ( $r = 0.983$ ,  $p$   
259  $\ll 0.001$ ,  $R^2 = 0.967$ ),  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft}}$  ( $r = 1.000$ ,  $p \ll 0.001$ ,  $R^2 = 0.999$ ),  $VSV^{\text{soft+bone}}$  ( $r = 0.983$ ,  $p \ll 0.001$ ,  
260  $R^2 = 0.965$ ), and  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft+bone}}$  ( $r = 1.000$ ,  $p \ll 0.001$ ,  $R^2 = 0.999$ ).

261 The Bland-Altman plots in Figure 2 show low biases compared to MC for the absorbed bone lesion  
262 dose estimates achieved with the density weighted  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft}}$  and  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft+bone}}$ . Furthermore, their  
263 corresponding limits of agreement were the smallest with fewest outliers of all investigated  
264 methods. Figure 3 visualizes a patient example showing the same sagittal slice of 3D voxel absorbed  
265 dose maps from the 3D dosimetry methods fused with the corresponding image slice of the patient's  
266 CT (Figure 3 b). The 3D absorbed dose maps for bone lesions obtained from MC (Figure 3 a),  
267  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft}}$  (Figure 3 d), and  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft+bone}}$  (Figure 3 f) are comparable. The 3D absorbed dose map of  
268  $VSV^{\text{soft}}$  (Figure 3 c) generally overestimates and  $VSV^{\text{soft+bone}}$  (Figure 3 e) underestimates the 3D  
269 absorbed dose map obtained from MC (Figure 3 a).

270 The cumulative DVH shown in Figure 4 represents the percentage of the volume receiving at least a  
271 certain absorbed dose in the VOI for one randomly chosen bone lesion. The curves of the  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft}}$   
272 and  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft+bone}}$  methods show the highest concordance with the reference MC method. In contrast,  
273 without weighting,  $VSV^{\text{soft+bone}}$  shows an underestimation and  $VSV^{\text{soft}}$  an overestimation of absorbed  
274 doses. Vertical red lines represent the OLINDA and OLINDA<sub>weighted</sub> absorbed dose estimates for the  
275 lesion, and the horizontal and vertical black line represent the percentage of volume receiving the  
276 mean absorbed lesion dose estimate from MC simulation. Similar to the  $VSV^{\text{soft}}$  approach, the  
277 OLINDA method yields higher values compared to the mean MC lesion absorbed dose. With applied  
278 density weighting, OLINDA<sub>weighted</sub> underestimates the absorbed lesion dose estimate. This provides a  
279 closer look at why the results shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2 are following those trends.

## 280 Discussion

281 Patients with advanced mCRPC often present with a significantly high tumor burden in the bone.  
282 Furthermore, osteosclerotic bone metastases can develop an increased number of osteoblasts  
283 leading to an elevated bone mass and increased density in the bone lesions (29). Consequently, bone  
284 lesion absorbed dose estimates in Lu-177-PSMA therapy are affected by regional variations in bone  
285 tissue density, and the accuracy of computed dose estimates may significantly depend on the

286 capability of the dosimetry method of choice to account for these local changes. In this study,  
287 different techniques for VOI-wise and 3D voxel-wise dosimetry with varying complexity and  
288 practicability were compared. Simplified methods with reduced complexity were tested against dose  
289 estimation by full Monte Carlo simulation. The latter served as reference standard, since it  
290 inherently accounts for local differences in activity distribution and tissue density changes in the  
291 individual patient. For this purpose, dosimetry results of 289 bone lesions of 15 mCRPC patients  
292 receiving their first cycle of Lu-177-PSMA-I&T therapy were assessed. To our knowledge, this study is  
293 the first approach to analyze and compare varying dosimetric approaches for dose estimation in a  
294 high number of bone lesions in Lu-177-PSMA therapy. However, accurate, personalized tumor  
295 dosimetry is mandatory for patient tailored approaches to increase tumor doses and thus  
296 improvement of patient outcome, to examine dose response relationships and to build predictive  
297 models for therapy outcomes. Moreover, our results have the potential to enable a comparability of  
298 published absorbed doses in bone lesions from different authors using different dosimetry methods.

299 The first method being investigated was based on the classical application of OLINDA/EXM<sup>®</sup>, which is  
300 widely clinically available and has been commonly used for dosimetry estimations in Lu-177-PSMA  
301 therapies (5-7, 9-11). However, our results indicate that OLINDA bone lesion absorbed doses have a  
302 wide variation when compared to MC. The percentage deviations of absorbed lesion doses compared  
303 to the reference MC dose ranged from an underestimation of -60 % to an overestimation by +47 %,  
304 yielding a mean overestimation of  $+7 \pm 13$  % in all lesions. This broad range of deviations can partly be  
305 explained by the different assumptions made within this approach: the tumor is of a spherical shape,  
306 the activity distribution is uniform, and the tumor is of unit density. The various different densities of  
307 bone lesions may have the greatest impact. Howard et al. (30) compared lesion absorbed dose  
308 estimates from OLINDA sphere model against MC simulation for Iodine-131 (I-131)  
309 radioimmunotherapy of lymphoma patients and concluded that the lesion shape has a minor impact  
310 when comparing the self-dose component. Their investigations revealed a dose underestimation  
311 compared to MC dose with a range of percentage deviations from -2 % to -31 %. Grimes et al. (18)

312 found good agreement of neuroendocrine tumor absorbed doses for Lu-177 from the OLINDA sphere  
313 model and MC simulations with average deviations smaller than  $-3.5 \% \pm 5.1 \%$ . Similar results with  
314 differences smaller than  $-5 \%$  were found by Divoli et al. (31), comparing absorbed doses of OLINDA  
315 and MC for artificial spherical tumors in liver and lung. These publications addressed soft tissue  
316 lesions with relatively comparable densities.

317 In contrast, this work focusses on the estimation of the absorbed dose in bone lesions with varying  
318 intra-lesion density. Introducing the VOI-based method  $OLINDA_{\text{weighted}}$ , we hence attempted to  
319 correct for the different density of bone lesions compared to the OLINDA unit density sphere model  
320 by using the average lesion density obtained from the patient's CT scan. This approach resulted in a  
321 reduction of the spread of the PD of absorbed dose estimates (min:  $-54 \%$ ; max:  $-2 \%$ ) but led to an  
322 average dose underestimation of  $-15 \pm 6 \%$ , in contrast to the dose overestimation of  $+7 \pm 13 \%$  (min:  $-$   
323  $60 \%$ ; max:  $+47 \%$ ) observed with the unaltered OLINDA method without subsequent density  
324 weighting. Our proposed  $OLINDA_{\text{weighted}}$  dosimetry method prevents absorbed tumor dose  
325 overestimation. To the best of our knowledge, density weighting approaches applied to the OLINDA  
326 framework in bone lesions are not found in the literature. We recommend a density weighting as  
327 proposed in our work for future investigations, since we observed a risk of overestimating tumor  
328 absorbed doses by assuming a soft tissue density in bone lesions in our investigations.

329 The 3D dosimetry approach for Lu-177-PSMA therapy recently published by Violet et al. (8) reported  
330 the application of an ICRP soft tissue voxel dose kernel for deriving absorbed dose estimates for  
331 organs and tumors in lymph nodes and bone lesions. In our present work, we further investigated the  
332 utilization of VSVs for bone lesion dosimetry by direct comparison with the Monty Carlo dose  
333 simulation as the reference standard. Based on our results for 3D absorbed dose calculations, we  
334 observed that both approaches, the utilization of singular soft tissue VSVs ( $VSV^{\text{soft}}$ ) and of separate  
335 VSVs for soft tissue and bone ( $VSV^{\text{soft+bone}}$ ), reveal limitations in accurate estimation of absorbed dose  
336 in bone lesions. While on average  $VSV^{\text{soft}}$  demonstrated a strong overestimation by  $+16 \pm 13 \%$  (min:  $-$   
337  $56 \%$ ; max:  $+57 \%$ ),  $VSV^{\text{soft+bone}}$  on the other hand still showed limited capability of adequately

338 estimating the absorbed dose in each individual bone lesion, it exhibited a large underestimation of  
339 absorbed dose by  $-35 \pm 8 \%$  (min:  $-76 \%$ ; max:  $+5 \%$ ). These observations may be explained by the  
340 underestimated tissue density, which is an inherent characteristic of the soft tissue voxel dose kernel  
341  $VSV^{soft}$ , compared to the actual bone lesion density. Therefore, this underestimation of voxel density  
342 results in an underestimation of the voxel's mass and consequently in an overestimation of the  
343 absorbed dose, which is the deposited energy per unit mass. On the other hand,  $VSV^{soft+bone}$  relies on  
344 the assumption that bone lesions consist merely out of cortical bone, although a typical bone lesion  
345 has different components and densities (32). In this case, a larger mass than the actual lesion mass is  
346 assumed, and consequently the observed absorbed dose is artificially smaller.

347 So far, dosimetry calculations using VSVs were mainly applied in settings with heterogeneous activity  
348 distributions in homogeneous density distributions. For these implementations, a high agreement for  
349 tumor absorbed doses obtained from VSVs for soft tissue and MC simulation for soft tissue lesions  
350 was reported. Grimes et al. (18) reported only  $-1.5 \% \pm 4.6 \%$  difference for Lu-177 and Dieudonné et  
351 al. (33) stated  $-0.33 \%$  difference for Yttrium-90 (Y-90) and  $-0.15 \%$  difference for I-131 for a hepatic  
352 tumor phantom. In general, VSVs dosimetry calculations can account for heterogeneous activity  
353 distributions but not for density differences since they were simulated for a single homogeneous  
354 medium. For the majority of organs and lesions in the abdomen, only small density variations are  
355 assumed and a  $VSV^{soft}$  approach can therefore be safely used in the clinical setting. However, the  
356 above mentioned assumption has to be questioned in situations with significantly large local tissue  
357 density changes. Especially for bone lesions in mCRPC patients, the lesion densities can vary to a  
358 large extent, on average and per voxel. Therefore, a dosimetry calculation method needs to address  
359 these density changes and an adapted dose estimation approach becomes mandatory.

360 The VSV dosimetry methods with subsequent density weighting, as investigated in our study, seem  
361 to better address voxel-wise density changes, and may therefore yield to improved absorbed lesion  
362 dose estimate agreements with MC simulation. The proposed methods  $VSV_{weighted}^{soft}$  and  $VSV_{weighted}^{soft+bone}$   
363 expressed significantly reduced deviations of estimated lesion dose compared to the reference

364 Monte Carlo simulation, with an underestimation of on average  $-5 \pm 2 \%$  (min:  $-15 \%$ ; max:  $-2 \%$ ) and -  
365  $3 \pm 2 \%$  (min:  $-13 \%$ ; max:  $0 \%$ ), respectively. This observation is in concordance with Dieudonné et al.  
366 (17), who reported improved dose agreement for a density corrected VSV approach compared to full  
367 MC 3D dosimetry for three clinical cases with focus on soft tissue. Dieudonné et al. observed a lesion  
368 absorbed dose difference for a I-131-Tositumomab case of  $-3.1 \%$ , an organ absorbed dose difference  
369 of maximum  $-1.1 \%$  for a Lu-177-peptide case and an organ absorbed dose difference of maximum +  
370  $0.8 \%$  for a Y-90-microspheres case. Besides, Lee et al. (27) noted an overall improvement of whole-  
371 body dose estimates when introducing multiple tissue-specific VSVs, when compared to the  
372 utilization of a single tissue VSV. However, our results for bone lesion dosimetry indicate that the  
373 effect of additional density weighting onto a single VSV ( $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft}}$  compared to  $VSV^{\text{soft}}$ )  
374 outperformed the effect of adding multiple VSVs for various tissues without density weighting  
375 ( $VSV^{\text{soft+bone}}$  compared to  $VSV^{\text{soft}}$ ).

376 The advantage of 3D absorbed dose maps generated by VSV or MC approaches is obviously the  
377 visualization of lesion regions receiving higher or lower absorbed doses on a voxel level. The  
378 investigated VSV dosimetry methods as well as the MC simulation provide 3D absorbed dose maps,  
379 while the OLINDA dosimetry methods are losing the distribution information. Cumulative DVHs  
380 accompanying 3D absorbed dose distribution maps may provide detailed information of regional  
381 lesion absorbed dose estimates. Individual voxels might potentially be influenced by image artifacts  
382 and hence have an impact on the shape of the DVH. Consequently, DVHs should be interpreted  
383 cautiously. The exemplarily DVH in Figure 4 furthermore confirms the finding that the curves of  
384 weighted VSV dosimetry approaches show a dose distribution closest to the one of full MC dosimetry  
385 simulation.

386 Regarding the simplicity and ease to use, the OLINDA unit density sphere method is superior to the  
387 other investigated dosimetry methods in this study. On the other hand, with respect to the accuracy,  
388 the MC absorbed dose simulation is superior to all alternative approaches. However, at the same  
389 time it is the most complex method because of the requirement of additional pre- and post-

390 processing steps, and additional approximately 4.5 h MC simulation time in our investigation. This  
391 limits the use in clinical routine and this approach is likely to remain an in-house solution for research  
392 purposes and a tool for developing, evaluating and establishing approaches with increased  
393 applicability and usability. However, first approaches of using commercially available software  
394 solutions with VSVs for different radionuclide therapies have already been presented, see Maughan  
395 et al. (34), Kafrouni et al. (35). For bone lesion dosimetry in Lu-177-PSMA therapy, our results suggest  
396 that adding the density correction to the VSV based dosimetry approaches provides similar results to  
397 MC. Consequently, this proposed method may become a suitable and applicable clinical tool for  
398 combined soft tissue and bone lesion dosimetry in Lu-177-PSMA therapy.

399 To make tumor dosimetry widely available in clinical routine, ideally an existing software approach  
400 would be preferred. Furthermore, it needs to be adaptable to existing software and workflows in  
401 clinics, which can range from OLINDA/EXM<sup>®</sup> to customized in-house solutions. With our investigation  
402 and results for Lu-177-PSMA bone lesion dosimetry, we aimed at providing an estimate for the  
403 accuracy of the different tested dosimetry methods and the possible range of deviations. We are  
404 aware that the proposed density weighting approaches require an implementation into existing  
405 dosimetry solutions in an institute or clinic. However, this is justified by the improved accuracy of  
406 absorbed dose estimates demonstrated by our results.

407 Besides the minimization of absorbed radiation dose to organs at risk, routinely performed tumor  
408 dosimetry in Lu-177-PSMA therapy of mCRPC patients is important to improve patients' outcome. By  
409 increasing the accuracy of the personalized dosimetry estimates, a deeper understanding of therapy  
410 response could be achieved. Furthermore, our results facilitate the inter-center comparability of  
411 reported bone lesion dose estimates.

## 412 **Conclusions**

413 In our study of 289 bone lesions in mCRPC patients receiving Lu-177-PSMA-I&T therapy, the  
414 proposed voxel S value dosimetry approach with subsequent density weighting was associated with

415 comparable absorbed dose estimates for bone lesions as obtained with full patient-individual Monte  
416 Carlo dosimetry simulation. Density-weighted voxel S value dosimetry may provide accurate and  
417 reproducible tissue and bone-lesion dose estimation at tremendously reduced time and effort  
418 compared to full MC simulation. It therefore has the potential to enable routine therapy response  
419 evaluations.

#### 420 **List of abbreviations**

421 mCRPC: metastatic, castration-resistant prostate carcinoma; PMSA: prostate-specific membrane  
422 antigen; Lu-177: Lutetium-177; OAR: organ at risk; VSV: voxel S value; 3D: three-dimensional; MC:  
423 Monte Carlo; p.i.: post injection; MELP: medium-energy low-penetration; VOI: volume of interest;  
424 HU: Hounsfield Unit; MIRD: Medical Internal Radiation Dose; ICRP: International Commission On  
425 Radiological Protection; PD: percentage difference; DVH: dose volume histogram; I-131: Iodine-131;  
426 Y-90: Yttrium-90

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437 **Declaration**

438 ***Ethics approval and consent to participate***

439 This study is based on retrospective and anonymized data, which was acquired for routine clinical  
440 dosimetry (Ethics Committee of LMU Munich 20-520).

441 ***Consent for publication***

442 Not applicable.

443 ***Availability of data and material***

444 Please contact author for data requests.

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448 ***Authors' contributions***

449 JB, CU, AG, LK, AT, HI, PB, AR, AC, SZ and GB designed the concept of the study. FG was responsible  
450 for the radiopharmaceutical production. JB, AG, AT, HI, GB reviewed the clinical data for dosimetry.  
451 All data analysis was carried out by JB, CU, AG, GB. All authors contributed to the drafting of the  
452 manuscript, and all authors read and approved the manuscript.

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456 Medicine, University Hospital, LMU Munich for their participation in data collection.

457 ***Competing interests***

458 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Patient	Age	Activity [GBq]	PSA [ng/ml] prior to therapy	Gleason score	Previous treatment				
					OP	RTx	AHT	CTx	Ra-223
1	61	7.44	25.9	9	0	1	1	1	0
2	75	7.46	38.4	9	1	0	1	1	0
3	75	7.44	1070	8	1	1	1	1	1
4	78	9.04	570	9	0	0	1	1	0
5	62	7.47	848	-	0	1	1	0	0
6	59	7.47	5.38	7b	0	1	1	1	0
7	74	9.19	1696	-	1	1	1	0	0
8	63	7.46	149	8	0	1	1	1	0
9	82	7.44	20.2	9	1	1	1	0	0
10	70	7.42	127	9	1	1	1	1	1
11	75	9.05	436	9	0	1	1	1	0
12	49	9.00	121	9	1	1	1	1	1
13	64	7.47	1268	8	0	1	1	1	0
14	79	7.46	72.7	7b	0	0	1	0	0
15	73	9.04	19.6	9	1	0	1	1	0

463 **Table 1.** Summary of patients being included. Previous treatment (1: yes; 0: no): OP surgery, RTx  
464 radiotherapy, AHT anti-hormonal therapy (including second line AHT with bicalutamide,  
465 enzalutamide, abiraterone acetate), CTx chemotherapy (docetaxel, cabazitaxel), Ra-223 radium-223  
466 dichloride.

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Method	OLINDA	OLINDA <sub>weighted</sub>	VSV <sup>soft</sup>	VSV <sup>soft weighted</sup>	VSV <sup>soft+bone</sup>	VSV <sup>soft+bone weighted</sup>
Mean PD ±SD	7 ±13 %	-15 ±6 %	16 ±13 %	-5 ±2 %	-35 ±8 %	-3 ±2 %
Minimum PD	-60 %	-54 %	-56 %	-15 %	-76 %	-13 %
Maximum PD	47 %	-2 %	57 %	-2 %	5 %	0 %

468 **Table 2.** Percentage deviation (PD) with standard deviation (SD) of absorbed dose to bone lesions  
469 compared to the reference MC absorbed dose estimate: averaged deviation over all lesions,  
470 minimum and maximum deviation per lesion.

471 **Figures**

472 **Figure 1.** Percentage difference per bone lesion compared to the reference MC dose simulation.

473 **Figure 2.** Bland-Altman plots of lesion-wise dose estimates from each method, compared against the  
474 MC absorbed dose simulation.

475 **Figure 3.** Patient example showing the same sagittal slice of 3D absorbed dose maps, fused with the  
476 patient's CT image in (b). Maps in units of Gy/GBq were achieved with methods: MC (a),  $VSV^{\text{soft}}$  (c),  
477  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft}}$  (d),  $VSV^{\text{soft+bone}}$  (e), and  $VSV_{\text{weighted}}^{\text{soft+bone}}$  (f).

478 **Figure 4.** Exemplary cumulative DVH for a bone lesion with 80.4 ml volume, the therapy activity was  
479 9.044 GBq. The vertical red lines represent the absorbed lesion dose from the OLINDA and  
480  $OLINDA_{\text{weighted}}$  method. The horizontal and vertical black line represent the percentage of volume  
481 receiving the mean absorbed lesion dose from MC simulation.

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# Figures

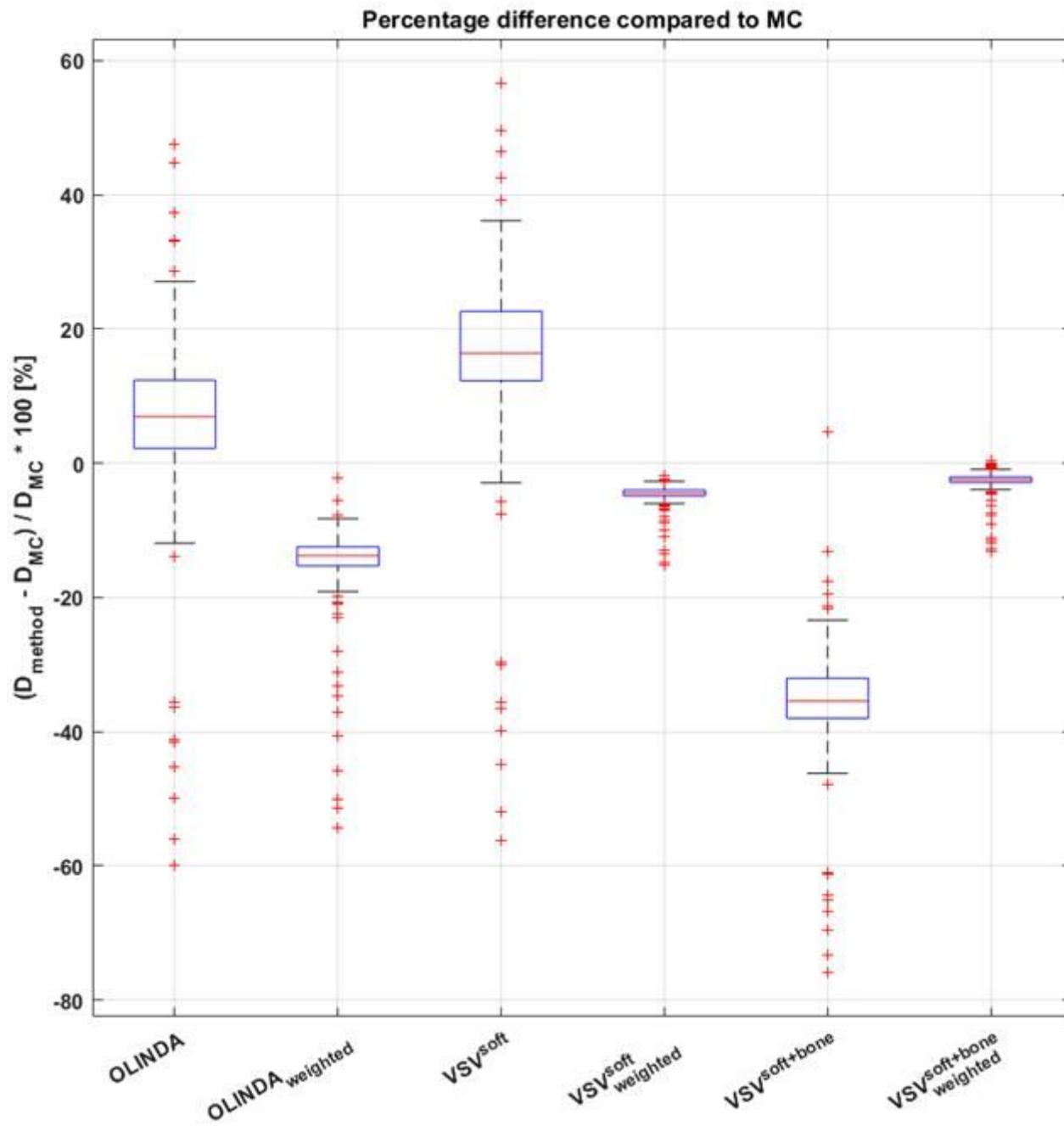
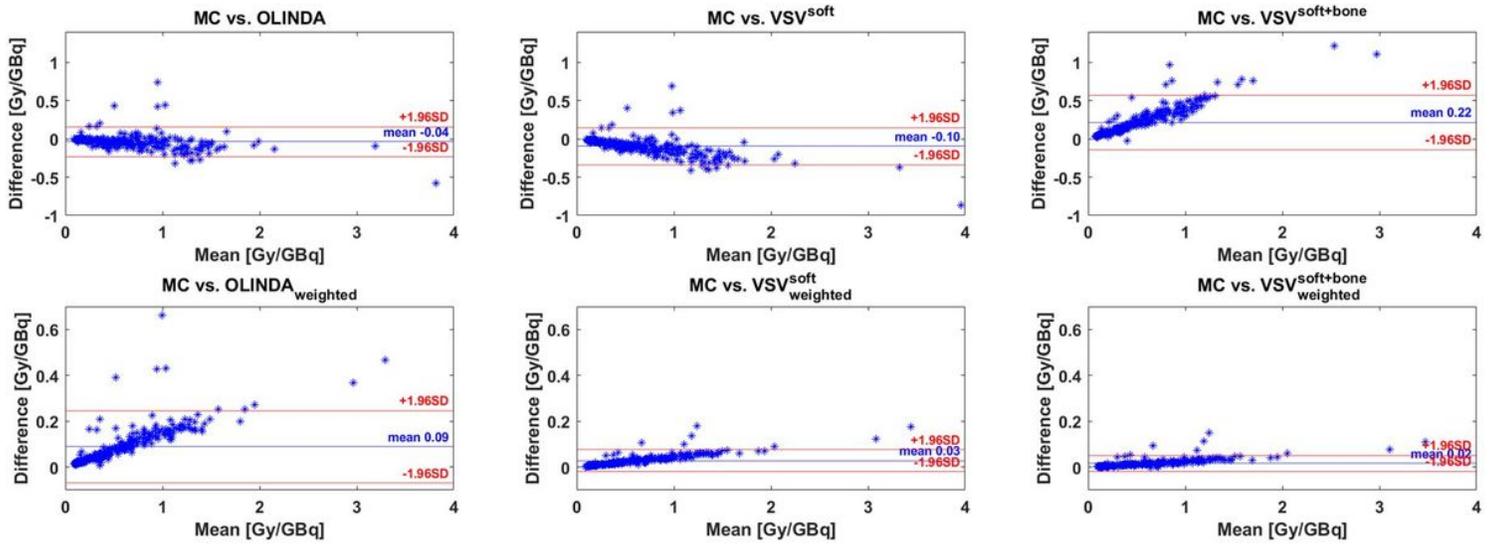


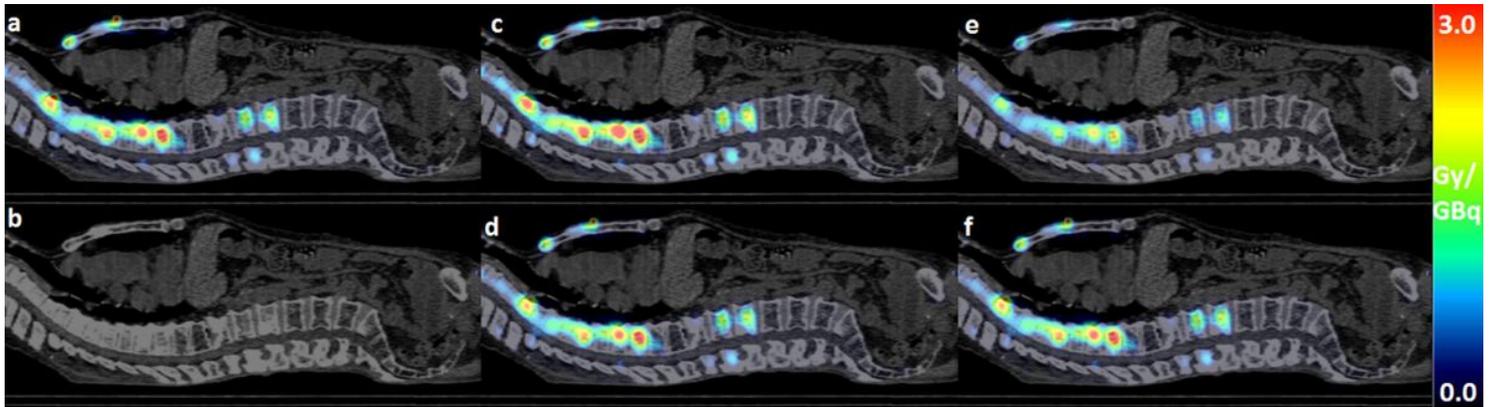
Figure 1

Percentage difference per bone lesion compared to the reference MC dose simulation.



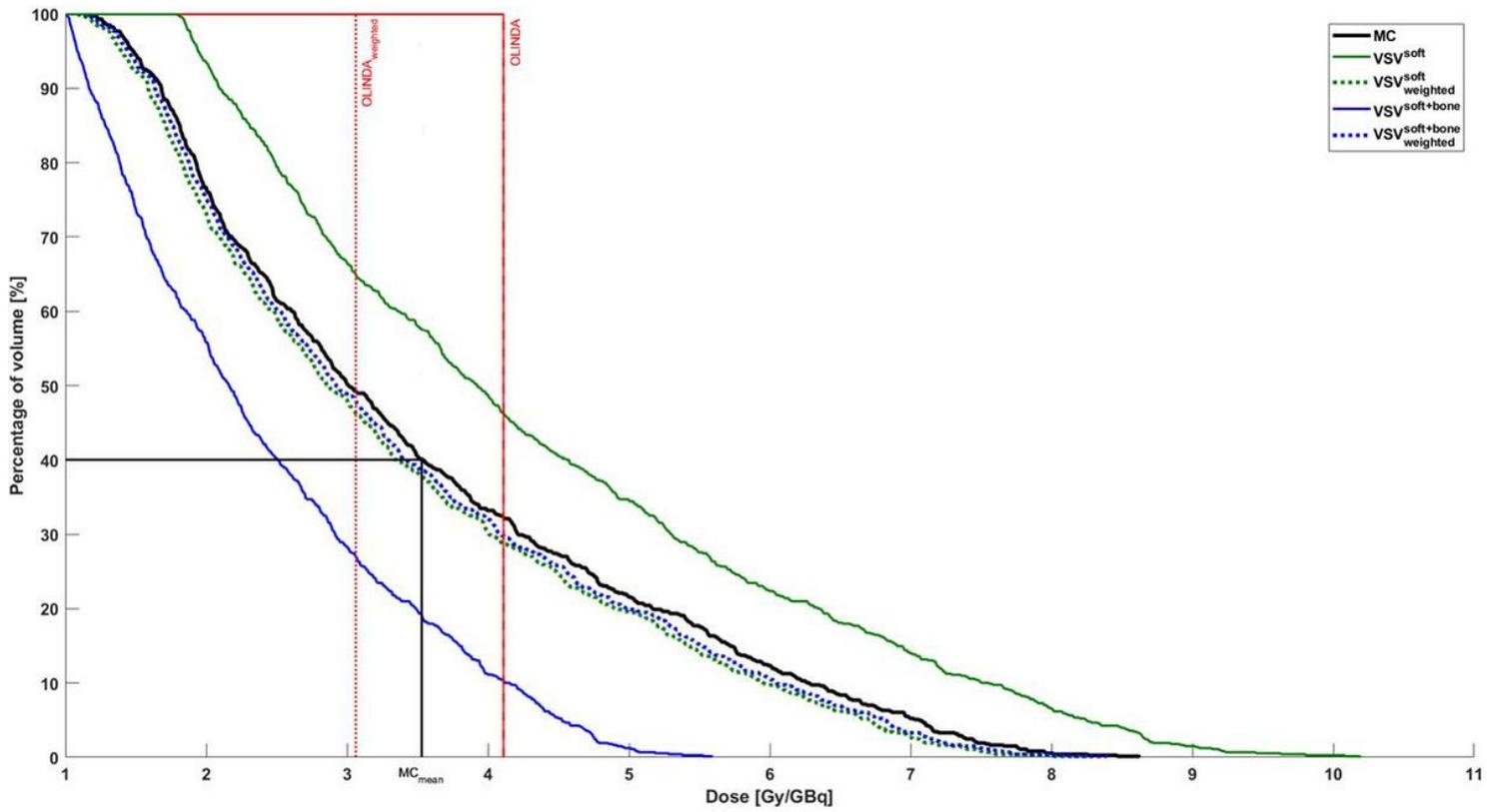
**Figure 2**

Bland-Altman plots of lesion-wise dose estimates from each method, compared against the MC absorbed dose simulation.



**Figure 3**

Patient example showing the same sagittal slice of 3D absorbed dose maps, fused with the patient's CT image in (b). Maps in units of Gy/GBq were achieved with methods: MC (a), VSVsoft (c), (d), VSVsoft+bone (e), and (f).



**Figure 4**

Exemplary cumulative DVH for a bone lesion with 80.4 ml volume, the therapy activity was 9.044 GBq. The vertical red lines represent the absorbed lesion dose from the OLINDA and OLINDAweighted method. The horizontal and vertical black line represent the percentage of volume receiving the mean absorbed lesion dose from MC simulation.