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## Research article

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# **Dosimetric Effects on skin of supine Immobilization Device in Intensity Modulated Radiation Therapy for breast cancer: a retrospective study**

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## Abstract

13 **Background:** Breast immobilization devices are commonly used in supine  
14 breast radiotherapy while the dose perturbation effect is often overlooked in  
15 Intensity Modulated Radiation Therapy for breast cancer (BC). This study is to assess  
16 the dosimetric effect of supine immobilization devices on skin with a commercial  
17 treatment planning system.

18 **Methods:** 40 women with BC were divided into four groups according to the type of  
19 primary surgery, group A and B corresponding to patients with left and right BC after  
20 radical mastectomy, received a radiotherapy of 50Gy in 25 fractions, group C and D  
21 corresponding to patients with left and right BC after breast-conservation surgery.

22 received a prescription of 40.05Gy in 15 fractions and tumor bed simultaneous  
23 integrated boost to 45Gy. A 0.2 cm thick skin contour and two sets of body contours  
24 were outlined for each patient. Dose calculations were conducted for the two sets of  
25 contours using the same plan, the dose difference was assessed by comparing the  
26 dose-volume histogram parameter results and by plan subtraction.

27 **Results:** The supine immobilization devices for BC caused a significantly increase in  
28 the skin dose which may finally lead to skin toxicity. The mean dose increased by  
29 approximately 0.5Gy and 0.45Gy in left (group A) and right (group B) BC after  
30 radical mastectomy, 2.7Gy and 3.25Gy in left (group C) and right (group D) BC after  
31 BCS; corresponding to group A, B, C, D, the V10 of skin increased 1.27%, 1.83%,  
32 1.36%, 2.88%; the V20 of skin increased 0.85%, 1.87%, 2.76%, 4.86%; the V30 of  
33 skin increased 1.3%, 1.24%, 10.58%, 11.91%; the V40 of skin increased 1.29%,  
34 0.65%, 10%, 10.51%. The dose encompassing of planning target volume, as well as  
35 the HI and CI, showed little distinction between plan- and plan+.

36 **Conclusion:** The supine immobilization devices significantly increased the dose of  
37 skin, especially for patients with BCS. The immobilization devices should be included  
38 in the external contour to account for the dose attenuation and skin dose increment.

39 **Trial registration:** This is a retrospectively study and it has no intervention on human  
40 health care, so this study was not registered.

41 Key words: Supine immobilization devices; Breast cancer; Intensity Modulated  
42 Radiation Therapy; Skin dose

43

44 **Background**

45 Breast immobilization devices are commonly used in radiation oncology to  
46 provide patient support and improve positional reproducibility during their  
47 fractionated radiotherapy. In actual clinical practice, the beam attenuation and  
48 build-up perturbations effect caused by the immobilization devices is often  
49 overlooked because carbon fiber material are widely used in immobilization  
50 devices and are believed to be radio translucent for mega-voltage photons(1).  
  
51 However, the density of carbon fiber is not equivalent to air, attenuation and scattering  
52 can occur when the radiation beam pass cross these immobilization systems(2, 3).  
  
53 Previous researches have indicated that immobilization devices used in radiotherapy  
54 reduced tumor dose, increased skin dose (bolus effect) and altered dose  
55 distribution(4-6). A. De Puyseleyr and his colleagues have reported that irradiating  
56 through the carbon fiber immobilization device for prone breast radiotherapy resulted  
57 in a considerable beam attenuation (range from 5.33% to 7.57%) and degradation of  
58 skin sparing(4). For Chinese BC patients, due to small and compact glands, supine  
59 positioning is still the most common approach and has multiple advantages, such as  
60 methodological simplicity, comfort and accurate, reproducible positioning, and  
61 reduction mean dose to heart(7, 8).

62 When compared with conventional wedge-based breast radiotherapy,  
63 intensity-modulated radiotherapy is capable of delivering highly conformal and  
64 homogenous dose distribution to targets and, herein, significantly decrease clinical  
65 toxicities such as dermatitis and edema(9-11), which, in turn, substantially increased

66 the adoption of Intensity Modulated Radiation Therapy (IMRT) during breast  
67 radiotherapy(12, 13). However, the increased beams and monitor unit (MU) have an  
68 increased propensity to deliver radiation beam through the immobilization devices,  
69 and, then, radiation immobilization device attenuation happened, ultimately  
70 compromising the target coverage and organs-at-risk (OARs) protection(14). But no  
71 study has yet assessed the dosimetric effects of supine breast immobilization devices  
72 on the delivered doses to the target volume and OARs for breast IMRT. In this study,  
73 we quantified the dosimetric effect of supine immobilization device by comparing the  
74 dose distribution calculated with the breast immobilization to that calculated without  
75 it, and investigated the potential skin sparing for BC patients achievable with 6 MV  
76 photon beams in IMRT plans.

77

## 78 **Methods**

### 79 **Patient data and setup**

80 Forty women with BC were randomly selected and enrolled in this study; they  
81 were divided into four groups according to the type of primary surgery and the lesion  
82 location. Patients with left or right BC receiving radical mastectomy were assigned  
83 into group A or B respectively. In the same way, patients with left or right BC  
84 receiving breast-conservation surgery (BCS) were divided into group C or D  
85 respectively. The patients' age ranged from 32 to 65 years, with a median age of 47  
86 years.

### 87 **Simulation**

88 All patients were simulated in the head first, supine position using the carbon  
89 fiber breast bracket (Klarity Inc, Guangzhou, China) for body immobilization. The  
90 supporting board inclined at a certain angle ( $7^\circ/12^\circ/17^\circ/23^\circ$  for choose) to assure that  
91 the sternum was horizontal. The head was positioned straight on a circle sponge head  
92 support, with the chin slightly upwards, avoiding skin folds at the lower neck. Both  
93 arms rose over the head using a pair of arm-support to expose the breast adequately,  
94 and a knee support to prevent the body sliding down. A thermoplastic film (electron  
95 density 0.3~0.7, thickness2.4mm) (Klarity Medical Products, Newark OH) was  
96 custom molded over the chest and attached to the bracket by a plastic batten (electron  
97 density1~1.1). Computed tomography (CT) image with a 3-mm-slice was performed  
98 using a large aperture CT Simulation scanner (Brilliance, Philips Medical System,  
99 Amsterdam, Netherlands) (Fig.1). The scan range was from the first cervical vertebra  
100 to 2 cm below breast ruffle. The obtained simulation CT images were transferred to  
101 the treatment planning system (TPS, Monaco V5.11, Elekta AB, Stockholm, Sweden)  
102 for target and OAR delineation and formulate treatment planning.

103 **Regions of interest**

104 Regions of interest were delineated on CT images with the CT data set as soft  
105 tissue (window 600, level 40) by experienced oncologists according to  
106 recommendation of international Commission on Radiation Units and Measurements  
107 Reports 83 (ICRU)(15) and China Society for Radiation Oncology (CSTRO)  
108 consensus(16). For patients underwent breast-conservation surgery, the clinical target  
109 volumes (CTVs) include CTV breast, which includes all mammary glandular tissue,

110 and CTV boost, which is defined as the tumor bed including clips and seroma plus 5  
111 mm's margin in all directions without exceeding the CTV breast. The corresponding  
112 planning target volumes (PTVs) were generated by uniformly expanding 5mm from  
113 CTVs respectively. In view of smaller mammary gland of eastern female, the ventral  
114 border is designed 3mm below the skin surface(16). For patients with modified  
115 radical mastectomy, CTV include chest wall and regional lymph nodes, the ventral  
116 border is next to the skin surface(16). Organs at risk (OARs) including heart, left  
117 anterior descending artery (LAD), left ventricle (LV), contralateral breast, ipsilateral  
118 lung, and contralateral lung were countered for left-side BC, and liver was countered  
119 especially for right-side BC. In this study, to assess the surface dose variance from  
120 immobilization devices in TPS, the skin contour was especially delineated in the  
121 treatment region with 2mm thickness below the skin surface for each patient  
122 [Fig.1](17).

123 As a commercial treatment planning system, an external structure, which should  
124 contain the materials involving in calculation, must be defined for calculating the dose  
125 distributions. In this study, two sets external body contours were created for each  
126 patient: one set included only the patient body without immobilization devices, and  
127 the other set included the patient external body contours and the whole breast  
128 immobilization devices.

129 **Treatment planning and dose calculation**

130 The prescription doses to PTV boost and PTV breast were 45Gy and 40.05Gy,  
131 respectively, with a total of 15 fractions in case of BCS. And, in the mastectomy

132 situation, a prescription of 50Gy in 25 fractions was given. All patients were planned  
133 on Monaco TPS with the energy of 6MV, using the dynamic inverse IMRT technique.  
134 Multi-beam IMRT employs three groups of similarly-opposed lateral field spaced  
135 through a 290° -150° sector for left-side tumors and 200° -60°sector for right-side  
136 tumors around the target volume, which includes the breast/chest wall and regional  
137 nodes, as indicated in Fig.1. 0° field was added when periclavicular node region was  
138 included. A 0.5cm bolus was added to the surface skin in the treatment region for  
139 patients with radical mastectomy for compensating the build-up effect of X-ray; on  
140 the contrary, bolus was avoided for patients with breast-conserving surgery for  
141 improving the cosmetic outcome. The optimization was accomplished by Monaco's  
142 build-in Monte Carlo (MC) algorithm combined with Dynamic Multi-Leaf Collimator  
143 (DMLC) technology.

144 For each patient, two IMRT plans were generated. The IMRT plans without  
145 immobilization devices taking into calculation were recorded as Plan-. Under the  
146 same irradiation constraints, the dose distribution was recalculated with the external  
147 body contour containing the immobilization device and this plan was recorded as  
148 Plan+.

149 **Statistical Analysis**

150 Dose-volume histogram (DVH) was the popular method to evaluate the dose  
151 coverage of PTVs and OARs. For the PTVs, the parameters were the mean dose  
152 (Dmean), the homogeneity index (HI) and the conformity index (CI). HI and CI were  
153 respectively calculated as follow(18, 19).

154             $HI = \frac{D_{5\%}}{D_{95\%}}$       (1)

155             $CI = \frac{TV1}{TV} * \frac{TV1}{VR1}$       (2)

156            In formula (1),  $D_{5\%}$  and  $D_{95\%}$  were the doses received by 5% and 95% of the  
157            volume of Region of Interest (ROI), respectively. The HI value closer to 1 indicates  
158            the better uniformity of dose distribution in target volume. In formula (2), TV1 is the  
159            volume of target that receives the prescription dose and TV is Target Volume. VR1 is  
160            the Total Volume within prescription isodose curve. The CI value is between 0 and 1,  
161            and higher CI value indicates better dose conformity. For the OARs, the average dose  
162            Dmean, sometimes the maximum dose Dmax and the dose-volume were calculated.

163            For each patient, the dosimetric effect caused by the immobilization devices was  
164            calculated by plan subtraction in the TPS.  $\bar{D}$  represents the average of parameters  
165            difference between Plan+ and Plan- as in formula 3, and  $\bar{D}\%$  represents the average of  
166            relative difference between Plan+ and Plan-.

167             $\bar{D} = \sum_1^{10} [(plan+) - (plan-)] / 10$       (3)

168             $\bar{D}\% = \sum_1^{10} \{[(plan_n+) - (plan_n-)] * 100 / (plan_n+)\} / 10$       (4)

169            The Statistical Package for Social Sciences V22.0 software (SPSS Inc., Chicago,  
170            IL, USA) was used to analyze all data. The Wilcoxon matched-paired signed-rank test  
171            was used to evaluate the significance of the observed differences between the plan+  
172            and plan-. The differences were considered statistically significant when  $p < 0.05$ .

173            **Results**

174            The comparison of dosimetric difference between Plan- and Plan+ for BC  
175            patients receiving radical mastectomy are presented in Table 1 and 2. The parameters

176 (Coverage Index, Dmean, D<sub>2%</sub>, and CI) of PTV have little difference, except for HI of  
177 left-side cancer ( $\bar{D} = -0.006$ ) and D<sub>98%</sub> of right-side cancer ( $\bar{D} = 0.38$  Gy) with  
178 indistinctive difference. Due to bolus effect of breast immobilization devices, the  
179 mean dose and relative volume receiving 10, 20, 30, and 40Gy of skin were  
180 significantly increased for Plan+ ( $\bar{D}$  and  $\bar{D}\%$  were 0.45Gy and 1.11%, 1.83% and  
181 2.01%, 1.87% and 2.27%, 1.24% and 1.56% and 0.65 and 0.96% for right breast  
182 cancer, and 0.50 Gy and 1.25%, 1.27% and 1.37%, 0.85% and 1.00%, 1.30% and  
183 1.67% and 1.29% and 1.99% for left breast cancer, respectively, all  $p < 0.05$ , Fig. 3A).  
184 However, there was no statistically significant difference in other OARs.

185 For patients with breast-conserving surgery, dosimetric effects of immobilization  
186 devices were calculated between Plan- and Plan+ too. As showed in Table 3 and 4  
187 and Fig. 2B, plans calculation with breast immobilization devices had higher mean  
188 skin dose ( $\bar{D}\% = 10.21 \pm 2.95\%$  for right breast cancer and  $9.07 \pm 1.60\%$  for left lesion)  
189 and more volume of skin receiving interested dose (10-40Gy) radiation ( $\bar{D}\%$  were  
190 3.17%, 5.84%, 16.49% and 51.63% for right breast cancer and 1.65%, 3.57%,  
191 15.85% and -151.86% for left breast lesion, Fig. 3B), which again displayed the bolus  
192 effect of immobilization devices. For left-side BC patients, the mean dose and relative  
193 irradiation volume of interested dose of left lung were decreased with little clinically  
194 significance in Plan+ ( $\bar{D}$  were -0.21Gy for Dmean, -1.18% for V<sub>5</sub>, -0.98% for V<sub>10</sub>,  
195 -0.47% for V<sub>20</sub>, -0.28% for V<sub>30</sub>, respectively). When it came to planning target  
196 volume, the coverage index, HI and CI were also altered with statistical but not  
197 clinical significance. As for the other OARs which far away from planning target

198 volume, such as contra-lung, heart, LV, LAD, liver, showed indistinctive difference  
199 between two plans.

200 **Dose difference distribution map (Plan+ - Plan-)**

201 The dose difference distribution was calculated by Plan+ subtracted Plan-. As  
202 shown in Fig. 2A, the blue to red gradient represented different absolute dose values  
203 ranging from -5Gy to 5Gy. The build-up effect and radiation scattering caused by the  
204 immobilization devices dramatically altered the dose distribution. The skin dose was  
205 observably increased in irradiation region when the immobilization devices were  
206 taking into calculation. In other word, the skin dose was underestimated by  
207 approximately 6Gy if the immobilization devices were not included in the external  
208 contour. Dose in other regions including Lung-L and PTV was decreased, which is  
209 similar to DVH and data comparison results.

210 **Discussion**

211 Patient immobilization devices have become an important tool to guarantee  
212 accurate delivery of highly conformal dose distribution(20). As the materials used in  
213 immobilization devices are not completely X-ray transmission and can cause  
214 attenuation of delivering dose, the dosimetric effects of immobilization devices  
215 should be included in dose calculations(14, 21) . In addition, the bolus-effect cannot  
216 be avoided either. When the beams, especially the posterior oblique orientations ones,  
217 passing through the immobilization devices involved in the treatments, the  
218 unexpected skin doses can be increased and the dosimetric effect would be modified  
219 finally(5, 22).

220 Beam attenuation from the couch, additional inserts and immobilization devices  
221 can cause a misrepresentation of the actual dose delivered to the PTV, a deviation by  
222 more than the recommended 3% to 5% accuracy range were reported by Olch(20). Li  
223 Chen found the attenuation of the head and neck immobilization devices, which  
224 reduce dose coverage rate (reduced by from 1.51% to 9.92%) and average dose  
225 (reduced by from 0.93% to 1.92%) of planning target volumes in nasopharyngeal  
226 carcinoma(21). Alyssa Olson assessed dose variance from immobilization devices in  
227 VMAT head and neck treatment planning, and found that plan calculated without  
228 immobilization devices was problematic with compromising V95, D100 and PTV  
229 coverage(14). However, in our study, there was no clinically important effect of  
230 supine breast immobilization devices on dosimetric parameters of PTV and PGTV,  
231 with less than 3% deviation. The potential reason may lie in that all radiation beam  
232 does not pass through the couch in our study. Puysseleyr *et al.* measured the  
233 dosimetric impact of a prone breast immobilization device and found that beam  
234 attenuation amounted to 7.6% (6 MV X-ray) for beam pass through the couch  
235 top-base plate combination and almost 5% beam attenuation for beam traversing the  
236 couch-top(4). Then, there are less than 3% beam attenuation happened when beam  
237 passing through base plate only, which is similar to our study.

238 Radiation-induced skin toxicity (RIST) is one of the predominant side effects for  
239 BC patients, and deserves consideration as severe skin toxicity can lead to cession of  
240 treatment and cosmetic changes. Francesco *et al.* stated that breast skin receiving dose  
241  $\geq 30\text{Gy}$  is the most predictive parameters of acute RIST(23). While Tsair-Fwu

242 showed that skin receiving a dose >35Gy (V35) was the most significant dosimetric  
243 predictor associated with radiation dermatitis grade 2+ toxicity(24). In our study, a  
244 bolus effect of immobilization devices has been observed as the skin mean dose and  
245 volume of receiving 10-40Gy are significantly increased in Plan+. This effect is more  
246 obvious for patients after BCS. And V<sub>30</sub> seems to be the most sensitive parameter  
247 except for patients with right breast cancer and receiving radical mastectomy.  
248 Currently, there is no standard of practice to include immobilization devices within  
249 body contour, then actual skin dose was underestimated, which in turn induced more  
250 and severer dermatitis. Take all above, we suggest the immobilization devices should  
251 be included in dose calculations, and skin of breast region should be delineated as an  
252 organ at risk and a dose-volume constraint for skin should be defined whenever  
253 possible.

254 Although the positive results of this study, it has its limitations yet, a larger  
255 patient population, different TPS or calculation algorithms, dosimetry techniques and  
256 dose measurements are needed for further study.

## 257 **Conclusions**

258 In this study, dosimetric effects on skin of supine immobilization devices for BC  
259 were calculated and evaluated in IMRT. The data shows the skin dose was  
260 significantly increased, especially for patients with BCS, both the V30%andV40% of  
261 skin increased sharply more than 10%.This research will remind radiation  
262 practitioners to pay attention to the skin dose caused by the immobilization devices  
263 and seek solution to remove the negative effects finally, continued research is

264 imperative. We prefer to include the immobilization devices within external body  
265 contour and account for the skin dose increment in the TPS calculation.

266

267 **Declarations**

268 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

269 This study was approved by the Second Affiliated Hospital of Fujian Medical  
270 University Ethic Committee [2020(371)]. As the data are anonymous and no  
271 intervention was happened in the treatment of patient, the Second Affiliated Hospital  
272 of Fujian Medical University Ethic Committee ruled that no formal ethics approval  
273 was required in this particular case.

274 **Consent for publication**

275 Not applicable

276 **Availability of data and materials**

277 The datasets used and/or analysed during the current study are available from the  
278 corresponding author on reasonable request.

279 **Competing interests**

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

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286 **Authors' contributions**

287 RL drafted the manuscript, conducted IMRT plans and collected the data. YW  
288 conceived and designed this study, contoured the reigns of interest, and revised the  
289 manuscript. GY conducted IMRT plans and performed the analysis. YH selected the  
290 patient collective and helped to conducted IMRT plans. All authors read and approved  
291 the final manuscript.

292 **Acknowledgements**

293 Not applicable

294 **Abbreviation**

295 BC: breast cancer; BCS: breast-conservation surgery; IMRT: Intensity Modulated  
296 Radiation Therapy; OAR: organs-at-risk; CT: Computed tomography; ICRU:  
297 international Commission on Radiation Units and Measurements; CSTRO: China  
298 Society for Radiation Oncology; DMLC: Dynamic Multi-Leaf Collimator; LAD: left  
299 anterior descending artery; LV: left ventricle; CTV: clinical target volumes; PTV:  
300 planning target volumes; ROI: Region of Interest; HI: homogeneity index; CI:  
301 conformity index; RIST: Radiation-induced skin toxicity;

302

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382

383      **Figure legend**

384      **Fig. 1,** Display of the immobilization devices in the axial (a) and sagittal view (b).  
385      The orange portion is couch, the purple portion is the breast-board, the green portion  
386      is the chest fixation mask of thermoplastic, the skin contour is displayed in yellow and  
387      the PTV is red.

388      **Fig. 2,** (a) Dose difference distribution of Cross-sectional plane for a typical patient  
389      with left-side breast cancer after BCS. Dose difference was calculated by subtracting  
390      Plan- from Plan+. (b) DVH results of Plan- and Plan+ for one typical patient with  
391      left-side breast cancer after BCS. The solid lines represent the results of Plan-  
392      (calculated without immobilization devices), and the dotted lines represent the results

393 of Plan+ (calculated with the whole immobilization devices included in the external  
394 body structure).

395 **Fig. 3**, The  $\bar{D}$  % of skin dosimetry for breast cancer after radical mastectomy (a) and  
396 after BCS (b). Error bars reflect the standard error of the mean ( $r/\sqrt{n}$ ). The lines are  
397 drawn only to guide the eye.

398 **Table 1.** Dosimetric parameters of PTV and OARs of left breast cancer after radical  
399 mastectomy.

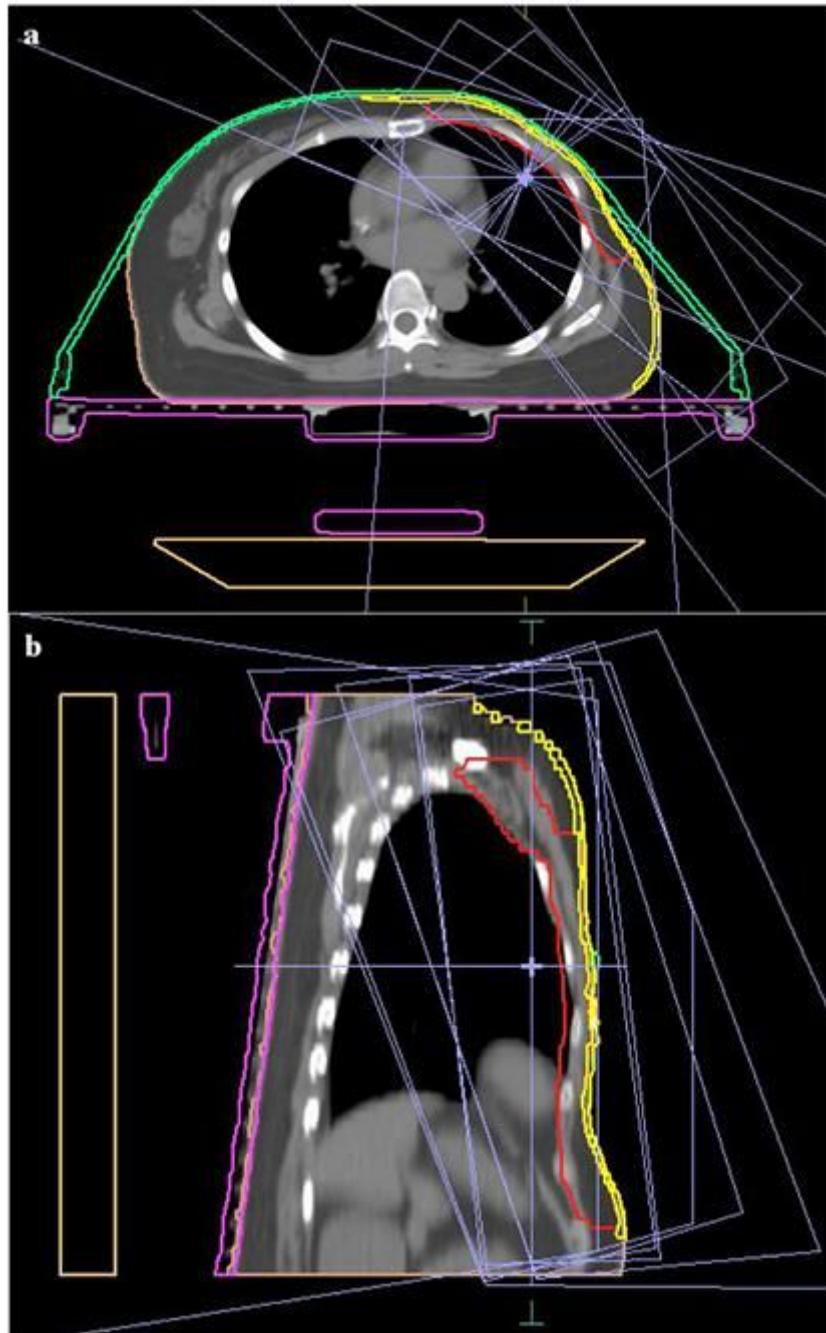
400 **Table 2.** Dosimetric parameters of PTV and OARs of right breast cancer after radical  
401 mastectomy.

402 **Table 3.** Dosimetric parameters of PTV and OARs of left breast cancer after  
403 breast-conserving surgery.

404 **Table 4.** Dosimetric parameters of PTV and OARs of right breast cancer after  
405 breast-conserving surgery.

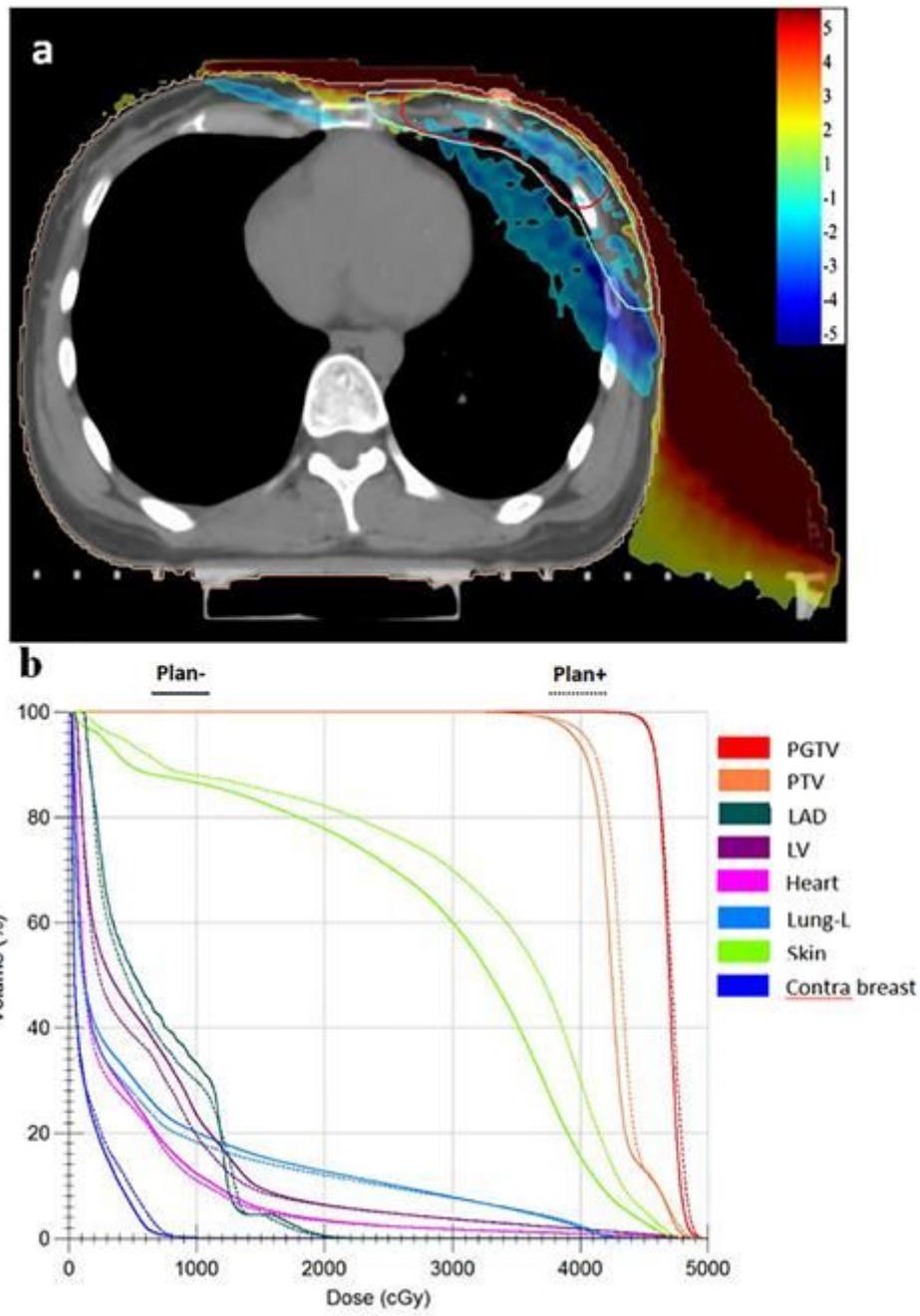
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# Figures



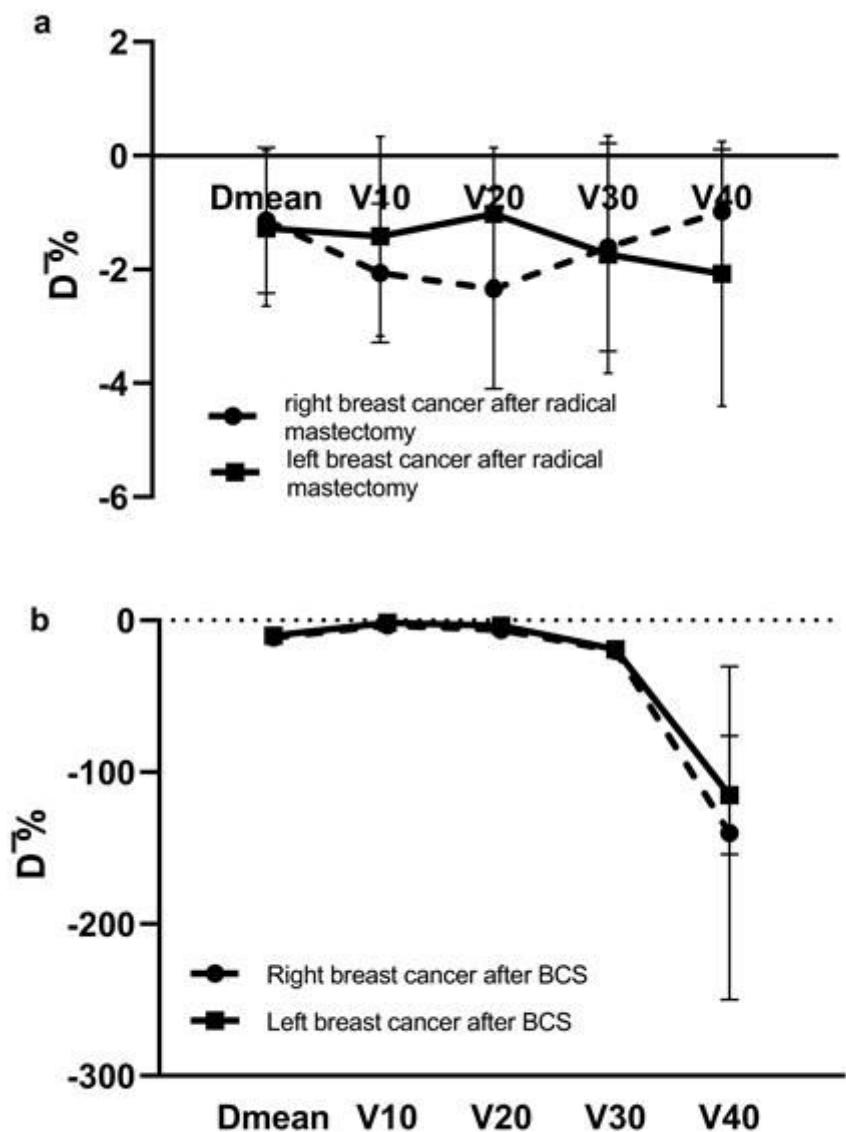
**Figure 1**

Display of the immobilization devices in the axial (a) and sagittal view (b). The orange portion is couch, the purple portion is the breast-board, the green portion is the chest fixation mask of thermoplastic, the skin contour is displayed in yellow and the PTV is red.



**Figure 2**

(a) Dose difference distribution of Cross-sectional plane for a typical patient with left-side breast cancer after BCS. Dose difference was calculated by subtracting Plan- from Plan+. (b) DVH results of Plan- and Plan+ for one typical patient with left-side breast cancer after BCS. The solid lines represent the results of Plan- (calculated without immobilization devices), and the dotted lines represent the results of Plan+ (calculated with the whole immobilization devices included in the external body structure).



**Figure 3**

The D% of skin dosimetry for breast cancer after radical mastectomy (a) and after BCS (b). Error bars reflect the standard error of the mean ( $r/n$ ). The lines are drawn only to guide the eye.