

CLINICAL APPLICATION AND ADVANCES IN RADIOFREQUENCY ABLATION OF LUNG NEOPLASMS

Essay

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Abstract

Chest wall involvement by either primary lung cancer or metastatic deposits is common. Large chest wall tumors are difficult to treat with radiation therapy alone, and many patients with intractable pain have already received the maximal dose of radiation.

- Key word: RFA- *Technical*- Epidemiology-sonographic- *MHZ*



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List of Abbreviations

<i>3D</i>	<i>: Three dimention</i>
<i>COPD</i>	<i>: Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease</i>
<i>CM</i>	<i>: Centimeter</i>
<i>CT</i>	<i>: Computed Tomography.</i>
<i>FDA</i>	<i>: food &drug administration</i>
<i>GGO</i>	<i>: Ground glass opacification .</i>
<i>H</i>	<i>: Hounsefeild unit</i>
<i>mA</i>	<i>: Milliamper</i>
<i>MHZ</i>	<i>: Mega hertz.</i>
<i>mm</i>	<i>: Milli-meter.</i>
<i>MRI</i>	<i>: Magnetic resonance imaging</i>
<i>RF</i>	<i>: Radiofrequency</i>
<i>RF A</i>	<i>: Radiofrequency ablation</i>

INTRODUCTION

Lung cancer kills more patients each year than breast, colon and prostate cancer combined (*Terrance et al., 2011*).

Patients with advanced non-small cell lung carcinoma (NSCLC) have a median survival time of 6–8 months and a 1-year survival rate of only 10–20% (*Kelekis et al., 2006*).

Surgical resection remains the treatment of choice for patients with early-stage non small cell lung cancer. However, some patients are not surgical candidates because of medical problems. Therefore, alternative therapies are considered in these medically inoperable patients. Radiofrequency ablation has been used clinically for more than 12 years, with many studies reporting its safety and efficacy (*Terrance et al., 2011*).

RF ablation is becoming a viable option for the treatment of metastatic disease of the lung (*Scheneider et al., 2009*).

The effectiveness of radical Radiotherapy for stage I/II medically inoperable NSCLC patients, overall five-year survival ranged 0–42% (*Rowell et al., 2003*).

The role of chemotherapy in NSCLC has primarily been for patients with more advanced disease alone or in conjunction with radiotherapy (*Strauss et al., 2004*).

RFA of lung malignancies is performed with two basic rationales in the first group it is used with an intention of achieving definitive therapy, in the second group it is used as a palliative measure (*Dupuy et al., 2000*).

Underlying principle of thermal ablation is that coagulative necrosis and cell death occur immediately at temperatures greater than 60-C. In clinical practice, RFA of lung tumors routinely achieves temperatures greater than 70-C (**Terrance et al., 2011**).

Multiple imaging techniques [ultrasound (US), computed tomography (CT), magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and positron emission tomography (PET)] have been used to guide the percutaneous placement of the RF energy applicators. For lung lesions, CT and MRI are the only modalities that can be used (**Kelekis et al., 2006**).

RF ablation is becoming a viable option for the treatment of metastatic disease to the lungs. After ablation, histology shows typical zones of thermal damage, radiating away from the central heat source (**Jaskolka et al., 2010**).

An artificial pneumothorax was assumed to be effective for pain relief in RF of peripherally subpleural tumors (**Lee et al., 2007**).

Intra-parenchymal hemorrhage typically resolves without intervention; however, Proper patient selection for ablation therapy, by means of excluding all possible causes of coagulopathy, and a refined technique of avoiding traversing pulmonary vasculature in the ablation track, can prevent catastrophic results (**Nour-Eldin et al., 2011**).

Re-RF ablation for lung tumors was completed successfully without any major complications. However, re-RF ablation for unresectable lung tumors previously treated with RF ablation showed a high rate of local progression (**Okuma et al., 2008**).

AIM OF THE WORK

The purpose of the essay is to review the principles of radiofrequency ablation, its clinical application and role in the management of primary and metastatic lung tumors.

US & CT RADIOLOGICAL ANATOMY AND TECHNIQUES

i. Normal Sonographic Anatomy:

Ultrasonography is a reliable and efficient imaging method to evaluate a wide range of clinical problems in the chest and to guide diagnostic and therapeutic procedures. Although the ribs, spine, and air filled lung act as barriers to ultrasound visualization of intrathoracic diseases, the presence of fluid in the pleural space and tumor, consolidation, or atelectasis in the lung provide ample sonographic windows for evaluation (*McLoud et al., 1991*).

Up to 99% of the ultrasound wave is reflected in the healthy lung. Intrapulmonary processes can be detected by sonography only when they extend up to the visceral pleura or can be imaged through a sound-conducting medium such as fluid or consolidated lung tissue (*Beckh et al., 2002*).

A high-resolution linear transducer of 5–10 MHz is suitable for imaging the thoracic wall and the parietal pleura (*Mathis et al., 2007*).

More recently introduced probes of 10–13 MHz are excellent for evaluating lymph nodes, pleura and the surface of the lung (*Gritzmann et al., 2005*).

For investigation of the lung a convex or sector probe of 7–10 MHz provides adequate depth of penetration. The investigation is performed as far as possible with the patient seated, during inspiration and expiration, if necessary in combination with respiratory maneuvers such as coughing

or “sniffing.” Raising the arms and crossing them behind the head causes intercostal spaces to be extended and facilitates access. The transducer is moved from ventral to dorsal along the longitudinal lines in the thorax (*Mathis et al., 2007*). (**Fig.1**).

- Parasternal line.
- Mid clavicular line.
- Anterior, middle and posterior axillary line.
- Lateral and medial scapular line.
- Para vertebral line (*Mathis et al., 2007*). (**Fig 1**)

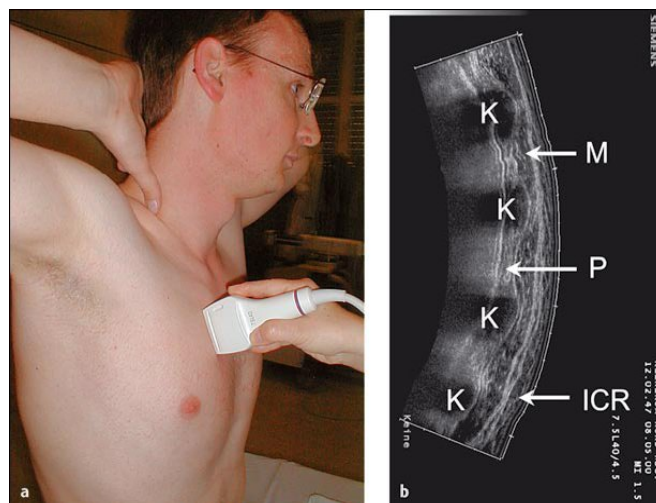


Fig. (1): Examination of the seated patient (a) Linear probe placed longitudinally on the right parasternal line. **(b)** Corresponding sonographic longitudinal panoramic image. **K** cartilage at the point of insertion of the rib, **ICR** intercostal space, **M** muscle, **P** line of the pleura (*Mathis et al., 2007*).

Subsequent transverse transducer movement parallel to the ribs in the intercostal space provides the additional information required for accurate localization of the respective finding (*Mathis et al., 2007*) (**Fig. 2**).