Applied Optimization Application to Intensity-Modulated Radiation Therapy (IMRT)

2009-05-08

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History of radiotherapy

• X-rays were accidentally discovered in 1895 by W. C. Röntgen—first Nobel Prize in Physics

• ”X-rays” because nature of the rays was initially unknown
  – not penetrate bones or lead
  – could be captured on photographic plates

• First used for diagnostic radiology
History of radiotherapy

• Discovery of spontaneous radioactivity in 1898 A. H. Becquerel - *Nobel Prize in Physics together with Marie and Pierre Curie who studied the "Becquerel radiation"

• Spontaneous radioactivity (\(\gamma\)-rays) has similar properties as X-rays

• Emitted by radioactive isotopes and represents the excess energy that is given off as the unstable nucleus breaks up and decays in order to reach stable form
History of radiotherapy

• X-rays were noted to have the ability to cause biological effects when deposited in tissue one year after its discovery (1896)
• Early treatments mainly skin (dermatological) conditions – deep tumors problematic
• First textbook of radiotherapy in 1903 by L. Freund - ”Father of radiotherapy”
• Radiotherapy in MeV around 1950 by the use of linear accelerators (LINACs) – treatment of all tumours

The Sahlgrenska University Hospital in Göteborg has 7 (9) LINACs and treat approximately 6000 cancer patients yearly
History of radiotherapy

• X-rays electronically produced
• Electrons are accelerated to high energies and stopped in a target usually made of Tungsten
• Hitting the target, some of the electrons kinetic energy is converted to photons (*electromagnetic waves, ”packets of energy”) through bremsstrahlung
• Collimators situated in the head of the LINAC shapes the photons into beams before the energy is deposited in the patient and measured in Gray (Gy) [J/kg]
History of radiotherapy

- Photons shaped into treatment fields by collimators situated in the head of the LINAC

- Initially only rectangularly-shaped fields – with blocks

- Multileaf collimators (MLC) give flexible geometric field shaping
History of radiotherapy

(a) Early treatments (~1950s): conventional radiotherapy
rectangularly-shaped fields with additional blocks and wedges

(b) Modern treatments (late 1980s): conformal radiotherapy (CRT) more convenient geometric field shaping using MLC

(c) CRT with non-uniform intensities or intensity modulation (mid 1990s): intensity modulated radiotherapy (IMRT) varied intensity beamlet-by-beamlet using physical compensators or MLC

Aim of radiotherapy is to eradicate the tumour cells while minimizing unavoidable damage to normal tissue

\[ \Rightarrow \text{maximize conformity to tumour volume!} \]

Beams with *uniform* intensities brought around the same point (isocenter) have a *convex intersection*; beams with *non-uniform* intensities have a *concave intersection*.
Conventional radiotherapy
Two opposing beams

Prostate treatment AIM: Conform the high dose to the Prostate; spare Rectum as much as possible
Dose to prostate limited because of rectal exposure.
Prostate + margin = Planning target volume (PTV); Rectum = Organ at risk (OAR)
Red isodose = 100% of prescribed dose; Yellow isodose = ~55% of prescribed dose
Prostate treatment AIM: Conform the high dose to the Prostate; spare Rectum as much as possible

Better target conformity and sparing of rectum in some directions

Prostate + margin = Planning target volume (PTV); Rectum = Organ at risk (OAR)

Red isodose = 100% of prescribed dose; Yellow isodose = ~55% of prescribed dose
Prostate treatment AIM: Conform the high dose to the Prostate; spare Rectum as much as possible

Increased target conformity and sparing of rectum in all directions

Prostate + margin = Planning target volume (PTV); Rectum = Organ at risk (OAR)

Red isodose = 100% of prescribed dose; Yellow isodose = ~55% of prescribed dose
Conclusion

• Less conformally shaped fields

  => dose to tumour ↓
  because of large volume
  irradiation of normal
  tissue

• More conformally shaped fields

  => dose to tumour ↑
  because of less irradiated
  normal tissue

First patient treated with the IMRT-technique in Huston, Texas 1994;
first patient in Göteborg at the Sahlgrenska University Hospital 2003.
The IMRT process

- Treatment is often delivered once or twice daily during a 3-5 weeks period
  \[\Rightarrow \text{reproduction of patient positioning crucial}\]

- Aids for patient positioning by body molds such as vacuum cradels, face masks, etc.
The IMRT process

Patient fixation

CT/imaging

Definition of target and OAR

- Three-dimensional representation of the patient
  
  => diagnostic CT-images transferred to the treatment planning system to create a 3D computerized electron density matrix used to calculate absorbed dose in tissue

- Information about where the tumour is
  
  => Oncologist deliniates the tumour with surrounding margins (target) and the critical normal tissue (organs-at-risk, OARs)
The IMRT process

- Treatment planning for IMRT involves the definition of a given set up scenario...

  => determine # treatment fields, entry angles and energy – fixed during optimization

• •

Number of beams, entry angles, energy and optimization problem

⇒ Inverse planning and optimization

⇒ Dose calculation

⇒ Treatment plan evaluation

⇒ Intensity modulation

• … and an optimization problem often modeled as a constrained optimization problem

  • objective function minimized/maximized subject to certain constraints
  • represents desired 3D dose distribution
  • physically or biologically based
The IMRT process

- Goal of optimization is to find the treatment plan that best meets the goals stated in the optimization problem

1. calculate 3D dose distribution for initial/current set of parameters (beamlet intensities)
2. reduce 3D dose distribution to a single number via the objective function

3. convergence criteria fulfilled?
   a) yes => solution found or objective function value between two successive iterations "small enough"; goto 4
   b) no  => suggest new beamlet intensities; goto 1

4. Satisfied with suggested dose distribution?
   a) yes => done!
   b) no  => redo!

- Number of beams, entry angles, energy and optimization problem
- Inverse planning and optimization
- Dose calculation
- Treatment plan evaluation
- Intensity modulation
- Redo
The IMRT process

- Intensity modulation is achieved by fabrication of complex physical compensators to be placed in the beam between the radiation source and the patient or..

  .. by MLC
  - dynamically moving during treatment
  - statically altered in shape for each treatment field

Conversion of an optimal treatment plan to a deliverable plan degrades the quality (collimator leakage, scatter and transmission) and is therefore sometimes included into the formulation of the optimization problem.
The IMRT process

Patient fixation

CT/imaging

Definition of target and OAR

Number of beams, entry angles, energy and optimization problem

Inverse planning and optimization

Dose calculation

Treatment plan evaluation

Intensity modulation

Redo

Quality assurance

Treatment
Inverse planning for IMRT

The process by which the intensity distribution of each beam (beamlet) in a treatment plan is determined by an optimization algorithm so that the resulting dose distribution best meets the specified criteria.

Methodology proposed 1988 by a Swede, Anders Brahme.
Inverse planning for IMRT

- Each beam divided into beamlets
  - $\gg 100$ beamlets / treatment field
  - beamlet size 5-10 mm$^2$
- Each volume (target and OAR) divided into a number of volume elements (voxels) organized into 3D matrices
  - $\gg 1000$ voxels / volume
  - voxel size $\sim 5$ mm$^3$
- Typically, the dose contribution of one beamlet is to a small number of voxels in its neighbourhood
Inverse planning for IMRT

• Dose, $D_i$, in a voxel $i$, is the sum of dose contributions, $K_{ij}$, multiplied by their weights, $w_j$, from all the beamlets ($j$) taken over all the beams

$$D_i = \sum_{j} K_{ij} w_j$$

- $D_i$ = dose in voxel $i$
- $w_j$ = intensity level (weight) of beamlet $j$
- $K_{ij}$ = dose contribution from beamlet $j$ to voxel $i$
Inverse planning for IMRT

- Elements in $K$ (influence matrix) depend on the physics of photon-tissue interaction and are precalculated using dose calculation algorithms that simulates the effects of a radiation beam penetrating through human tissue.

- Inversion of $K$ to find beamlet weights NOT appropriate
  - negative weights
  - $K$ matrix too large
  - takes too long…

Assumed linear relationship between beam intensity and dose in a voxel; the optimization parameters are the beamlet intensities (weights).
Physical optimization criteria

- Optimization problem formulation
  
  (i) Target objective function + constraints on OARs
  (ii) OAR objective function + constraints on target
  (iii) Target and OAR objective function

- Optimization criteria involves constraints to the target and OARs and are determined in terms of doses and irradiated volumes
  
  - Dose limits
  - Limits on volumes receiving certain specified dose
Physical optimization criteria

- A strict fulfillment of a set limit is usually too restrictive
  \[\Rightarrow\] penalty factors

- Magnitude of penalty associated with the severity of the consequence of violation
  - Mild complication - soft constraints (may be violated)
  - Severe complication - hard constraints (may NOT be violated)
Physical optimization criteria

• Some volumes of interest may be of more interest
  => relative importance factors

• Magnitude of importance will bias the optimization algorithm to select the treatment plan that favors one or more selected volumes of interest
  – Less important – low importance factor
  – More important – high importance factor
Physical optimization criteria

- Dose limits are set by defining points on a dose-volume histogram (DVH)
- A DVH is the 2D representation of the 3D dose distribution showing the irradiated volume at each dose level

DVH over a prostate treatment
Physical optimization criteria
Maximal dose limits

• A **maximum dose limit** for the dose to be less than or equal to a tolerance threshold in any voxel of the volume (target or OAR) =>

\[ D_i \leq D_{\text{max}}, \forall i \in V \]

A) Effect of **soft constraint**;  
B) Effect of **hard constraint**

*Bortfeld T.: Optimized planning using physical objectives and constraints. Seminars in Radiation Oncology, Vol 9, No 1, 20-34, 1999.*
Physical optimization criteria

Minimum dose limits

• A **minimum dose limit** for the dose to be more than or equal to a tolerance threshold in any voxel of the volume (target)  

$$D_i \geq D_{\text{min}}, \forall i \in V$$

Effect of **hard (minimum)** and **soft (maximum) constraints**

*Bortfeld T.: Optimized planning using physical objectives and constraints. Seminars in Radiation Oncology, Vol 9, No 1, 20-34, 1999.*
Physical optimization criteria

DVH limits

- A DVH limit for the dose to a subvolume of a structure to be less than a tolerance threshold
- No more than $V_{\text{max}}$% of the volume should receive a dose of $D_{\text{max}}$

$D_i \leq D_{\text{max}}, \forall i \in V_{\text{max}}$

$V_{\text{max}}$ controls the amount of voxels, NOT their specific position in the 3D dose matrix

The objective function is represented by structure specific subfunctions for the target and the OARs with attached relative importance factors.

\[
F = w_t \ F_{\text{target}} + \sum_{k} w_{O,k} \ F_{OAR}
\]

- \(F\) = overall objective function
- \(w_t\) = relative importance of target
- \(F_{\text{target}}\) = target objective function
- \(k\) = number of OARs
- \(w_{O,k}\) = relative importance of OAR \(k\)
- \(F_{OAR}\) = OAR objective function
Physical optimization criteria

Target objective function

The target sub-function includes the target prescription dose and dose-uniformity limits

\[
F_{\text{target}} = \frac{1}{N_t} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N_t} \left[ D_i - D_{\text{presc}} \right]^2 \right)
\]

\(+ c_{t,\text{min}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_t} \left[ D_i - D_{\text{min}} \right]^2 \cdot H \left( D_{\text{min}} - D_i \right) \)

\(+ c_{t,\text{max}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_t} \left[ D_i - D_{\text{max}} \right]^2 \cdot H \left( D_{\text{max}} - D_i \right) \)

\(N_t = \text{number of voxels in target}\)
\(D_i = \text{dose to voxel } i\)
\(D_{\text{presc}} = \text{prescribed dose to target}\)
\(D_{\text{min}} = \text{minimum dose to voxel } i\)
\(D_{\text{max}} = \text{maximum dose to voxel } i\)

\(c_{t,\text{min}} = \text{penalty associated with underdosage}\)
\(c_{t,\text{max}} = \text{penalty associated with overdosage}\)

*Heaviside function*

\[H(D_1 - D_2) = \begin{cases} 
1, & D_1 > D_2 \\
0, & D_1 \leq D_2 
\end{cases} \]
Physical optimization criteria

*Heaviside function

• Has the impact that a constraint only contributes to the objective function score when it is violated in the wrong direction

• For a **minimum** dose constraint, Heaviside is activated when the calculated dose is **below** the given limit

• For a **maximum** dose constraint, Heaviside is activated when the calculated dose is **above** the given limit
Physical optimization criteria

OAR objective function

The OAR sub-functions include maximum dose and DVH-limits

\[
F_{OAR} = \frac{1}{N_O} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N_O} p_i - D_{max} \cdot H \bigcirc i - D_{max} \right)
+ \sum_{i=1}^{N_{dv}} c_{O,dv} \left( p_i - D_{dv} \cdot H \bigcirc i - D_{dv} \right)
\]

\( N_O \) = number of voxels in OAR

\( D_{max} \) = maximum dose to voxel \( i \)

\( D_{dv} \) = maximum dose to voxel \( i, i \in N_{dv} \)

\( c_{O,max} \) = penalty weight for overdosage

\( c_{O,dv} \) = penalty weight for violation of dose-volume constraint

\( N_{dv} \) = number of voxels in OAR whose dose must be below the DVH constraint
Using software for inverse planning of IMRT, each criterion that specifies the patient specific optimization problem will be given as dose values or placed as points in a DVH.

The structure specific criterions will then automatically be converted to voxel-specific doses by the software.
IMRT treatment planning system

IMRT treatment planning view – reflects dose distribution state at the 13:th iteration

Top left: Objective function value; Top right: DVH; Bottom: Dose distribution in transversal view (left) and sagittal view (middle); Bottom right: Beamlet intensity profile in 2D for one selected treatment field

RaySearch Laboratories: http://www.raysearchlabs.com
Radiobiology
What happens in the body after radiotherapy?

• When radiation is absorbed in biological material there will be interactions with atoms and molecules in the tissue (excitations and ionisations)

• Released $e^-$ will produce free radicals that are highly reactive

• Free radicals cause damage (double strand breaks) on the DNA in the cells which may eventually lead to cell death $\Rightarrow$ biological damage

Tumour cells have less repair capacity than normal tissue

• Hall (1988): The oxygen fixation hypothesis.
Radiobiology

Linear-quadratic (LQ) model

• The cell survival curve describes the relationship between the radiation dose and the proportion of cells that survives.

• The surviving fraction of target cells $SF(d)$, after a single radiation dose $d$ can be fitted to experimental data using an exponential function with the parameters $\alpha$ and $\beta$.

$$SF(d) = e^{-\alpha d - \beta d^2}$$

$LQ$ model used to compare the biological effect of different treatment fractionation schedules.
Radiobiology
Tissue architecture

• The tolerance to irradiation in a tissue depends on
  – the radiosensitivity of the cells in the tissue
  – the **structural organisation** of the tissue/organ and its ability to maintain organ function when damage occurs

• **Serial organization**
  – damage to **any** part of the organ will cause a complication e.g. spinal cord (ryggmärgen)

• **Parallel organization**
  – damage to a **substantial fraction** of the organ is necessary to cause a complication e.g. parotid gland (spottkörteln)
Radiobiology
Volume effect

• The tissue architecture of an organ is closely related to its volume effect
  => changes the tolerance dose of an organ

  *High dose to a small part of the organ may be well tolerated; same dose to whole organ not tolerated at all...*

• Serial organization
  – small volume effect - maximum dose important
• Parallel organization
  – large volume effect - mean dose important
Radiobiology
Radiobiological modeling

- Radiobiological models relate dose plus volume of irradiated tissue to predict a biological response

- Clinical and animal data show that this relation follows a sigmoid curve
  - low probability of response at low doses
  - high probability of response at high doses

- Steepness of curve gives estimate of change in response for a change of dose
Radiobiology
Radiobiological modeling

• Basic requirements of a radiobiological model
  – the sigmoid shape,
  – volume effect
  – fractionation effect
  – non-uniform dose distributions

• Mechanistic models are developed based on our best understanding of the underlying biological process, i.e. the cell kill (LQ model) and/or other known interactions of radiation with cells and DNA

• Phenomenological models are based on the observed characteristics of the dose-volume-response curve, i.e. fitting functions to clinical data BUT…

  only valid for the situations described by the original data
Radiobiology
Radiobiological modeling

- Different models for tumours and OARs
- Tumour probability control (TCP) models for tumours
- Normal tissue complication (NTCP) models for OARs

**Per cent Response**

**TCP curve placed left of NTCP curve**
*normal tissue tolerates more dose than what is needed to eradicate the tumour – treatment OK*

**TCP curve placed right of NTCP curve**
*normal tissue tolerates less dose than what is needed to eradicate the tumour – treatment suitable?*
Radiobiology
Mechanistic model

- Damage induction considered stochastic and well modeled by Poisson statistics

- All cells are assumed to respond identically

- Tumour/OAR response is assumed to depend on individual cells
  - TCP=1 when there are no clonogenic cells left in tumour
  - NTCP=1 when the critical amount of cells in OAR are lost

\[ P(D) = e^{-N_0e^{-\alpha D - \beta D}} \]

- \( P \) = probability of response
- \( D \) = total dose
- \( N_0 \) = initial number of clonogenic or critical amount of cells
- \( \alpha \) = linear coefficient of LQ-model
- \( \beta \) = quadratic coefficient of LQ-model
- \( d \) = dose/fraction

Inhomogenously irradiated organs handled by taking product of subvolumes where dose can be considered uniform
Radiobiology
Phenomenological models

• Probit model (1)
  – based on the cumulative normal distribution
  – mainly used for normal tissue

\[ P(D, v) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-t^2/2} dt \] (1)

\[ D = \text{total uniform dose to volume } v \]
\[ v = \text{volume irradiated} \]

• Logit model (2)
  – based on Logistic regression
  – used for both tumours and normal tissue

\[ P(D, v) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x(D,v)}} \] (2)

\[ D = \text{total uniform dose to volume } v \]
\[ v = \text{volume irradiated} \]

• The top limit in the integral in the Probit model and the exponent in the Logit model?

Radiobiology
Phenomenological models

• … are given by

\[ x(D, v) = \frac{D - TD_{50}(v)}{mTD_{50}(v)} \quad (3) \]

where \( m \) is inversely proportional to the slope of the dose-volume-response curve;

\( TD_{50}(v) \) is the tolerance dose giving a 50 % probability of effect for uniform irradiation of volume \( v \) assumed to be related to uniform whole organ irradiation by

\[ TD_{50}(v) = TD_{50}(1)v^{-n} \quad (4) \]

and \( n \) is the volume dependence parameter.
Radiobiology
Phenomenological models

• Non-uniformly irradiated tissue handled by using DVH reduction schemes

• Non-uniform dose distributions are reduced to a uniform dose distribution assumed to cause the same biological effect by
  – Effective volume – maximum dose to smaller volume of organ
  – Effective dose – reference dose to whole organ

*Effective dose also known as generalized equivalent uniform dose (gEUD)*
• gEUD is based on the concept of a generalized mean dose, and is a means to reduce a complex 3D dose distribution to a single, biologically representative dose value

• The \( a \) parameter is tissue specific and describes the volume effect of the tissue under consideration

- \( a < 0 \): minimum dose (tumour)
- \( a \approx 1 \): mean dose (parallel tissue)
- \( a \to \infty \): maximum dose (serial tissue)

\[
gEUD \Phi, a = \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} D_i^a \right)^\frac{1}{a}
\]

\( D = \) total dose
\( a = \) tissue specific volume parameter
\( N = \) number of voxels in tissue
\( D_i = \) dose in voxel \( i \)

\textit{gEUD is not a sigmoid function and does not predict a response, however, it is a convex function…}
Biological optimization criteria

• Radiobiologically based function gives a better representation of the biological consequences of the dose distribution

• Optimization problem formulation
  
  (i) Target objective function + constraints on OARs
  (ii) OAR objective function + constraints on target
  (iii) Target and OAR objective function

• Optimization criteria involves estimated biological effects in tumours and OARs and are determined in terms of probability of an effect
  – TCP
  – NTCP

... may also include maximum, minimum and/or DV dose limits
**Biological Optimization Criteria**

**Objective function example (iii)**

- The objective function includes combinations of the Logistic function and the gEUD function for both target and OARs.
- Target sub-function includes the gEUD prescription dose and a relative importance factor.
- OAR sub-functions include the gEUD limit dose and relative importance factors.

\[
F = F_{\text{target}} \prod F_{\text{OAR}}
\]

\[
F_{\text{target}} = \frac{1}{1 + \left( \frac{\text{gEUD}_{\text{presc}}}{\text{gEUD}} \right)^{w_t}}
\]

\[
F_{\text{OAR}} = \frac{1}{1 + \left( \frac{\text{gEUD}}{\text{gEUD}_{\text{presc}}} \right)^{w_{oar}}}
\]
Biologically based optimization compared to physically based optimization

Physically based optimization

Biologically based optimization


Aim of Head-and-neck cancer treatment: Conform the high dose to the target; spare the Brainstem and Parotid glands as much as possible
Yellow isodose = 100% of prescribed dose; Green isodose = ~40% of prescribed dose; Dotted line in DVH = BIO_OPT; Solid line = PHYS_OPT
Optimization algorithms for IMRT
Global and local extreme points

- In both physically and biologically based optimization for IMRT, multiple extreme points can be present.
- Local and global extreme points may not be important in a clinical application.

=> if a solution meets all the specified requirements, it is acceptable although it may not be the best possible solution.

=> it may also be more desirable from a physical point of view – delivery of globally optimal == more complex plans may be more prone to mistakes.
Optimization algorithms for IMRT
Global and local extreme points

- Objective function frequently encountered in IMRT (b) - many beam configurations correspond to similar dose distributions

*Any dose distribution that meets the given requirements might be clinically acceptable*
Optimization algorithms for IMRT

Deterministic methods

• The rules that determine the modifications made to the beam intensities in each iteration step does not contain any random element

• Converges to the nearest extreme point and are reasonable fast

  => typically less than 100 iterations

• Gradient optimization algorithms
  • Steepest descent
  • Conjugate gradient
  • (Quasi) Newton’s method

  *Differs in the selection of gradient and step-size*
Optimization algorithms for IMRT

Gradient optimization algorithm

• \( x \) is the parameter to be minimized
• The graph of the objective function measures the quality of the treatment plan
• Start in \( x_0 \)
• At each iteration the beam intensities will be updated according to the rule
  \[
  x_{i+1} = x_i - \alpha \nabla F(x_i)
  \]
• The algorithm follows the negative of the gradient of the objective function until the gradient becomes 0 at \( x_3 \)

Optimization algorithms for IMRT

Stochastic methods

- The rules that determine the modifications made to the beam intensities involves an element of randomness - repeating the process with the same set-up and initial conditions will not necessarily yield the same result

- Element of randomness allows the escape from local extreme points but are slow
  $\Rightarrow$ typically 10 000 iterations or more

- Simulated annealing algorithm
  - Bolzmann annealing process
  - Fast simulated annealing process

*Differs in the selection of speed of cooling temperature and step-size*
Optimization algorithms for IMRT

Simulated annealing

• Mimics the physical process in which a material is slowly cooled down after being rapidly heated to high temperatures

• The temperature is lowered from one iteration to the next and determines the average size of the amount by which the beamlet intensities are changed

• In each iteration step, a step-size is randomly selected from a displacement distribution of shrinking width (tunneling)

  => an improvement is always accepted

  => a worse treatment plan is accepted with a probability that depends on the temperature (hill climbing)

That’s it!

Thanks for your attention and good luck with the assignment!