

**Realising the potential of magnetic resonance image guided radiotherapy in  
gynaecological and rectal cancer**

**Review Article**

**Authors**

Ingrid M White FRCR <sup>1</sup>

Erica Scurr BSc<sup>1</sup>

Andreas Wetscherek PhD<sup>1</sup>

Gina Brown FRCR<sup>1</sup>

Aslam Sohaib FRCR<sup>1</sup>

Simeon Nill PhD<sup>1</sup>

Uwe Oelfke PhD<sup>1</sup>

David Dearnaley FRCR <sup>1</sup>

Susan Lalondrelle FRCR <sup>1\*</sup>

Shree A Bhide FRCR <sup>1\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Institute of Cancer Research and Royal Marsden National Health Service Foundation Trust,  
Sutton, Surrey, United Kingdom

\* S.L and S.B are joint last authors.

**Conflicts of interest declaration**

Ingrid White, Erica Scurr, Andreas Wetscherek, Gina Brown, Simeon Nill, Uwe Oelfke and Shree Bhide have nothing to disclose. David Dearnaley reports personal fees from ICR, grants from Cancer Research UK and National Institute for Health Research, outside the submitted work; In addition, David Dearnaley has a patent EP1933709B1 issued and receives personal fees for advisory board/consultancy from Takeda, Amgen, Astellas, Sandoz and Janssen. Susan Lalondrelle reports personal fees from ELEKTA, grants from MSD and personal fees and non-financial support from Roche, outside the submitted work.

**Acknowledgements**

This work was undertaken in The Royal Marsden NHS Foundation Trust who received a proportion of its funding from the NHS Executive; the views expressed in this publication are those of the authors and not necessarily those of the NHS Executive. This work was supported by The Institute of Cancer Research and Cancer Research UK [CRUK] grant number C33589/A19727. We acknowledge NHS funding to the NIHR Biomedical Research

Centre. The Institute of Cancer Research and Royal Marsden National Health Service Foundation Trust are part of the Elekta MR-Linac Research Consortium, which aims to coordinate international research into the magnetic resonance linear accelerator.

### **Abstract**

Computerised tomography based radiotherapy workflow is limited by poor soft tissue definition in the pelvis and reliance on rigid registration methods. Current image guided radiotherapy and adaptive radiotherapy models therefore have limited ability to improve clinical outcomes. The advent of magnetic resonance image guided radiotherapy solutions provides the opportunity to overcome these limitations with the potential to deliver online real time magnetic resonance imaging based plan adaptation on a daily basis, a true “plan of the day”. This review describes the application of magnetic resonance image guided radiotherapy in two pelvic tumour sites likely to benefit from this approach.

## Realising the potential of magnetic resonance image guided radiotherapy in gynaecological and rectal cancer

### Abstract

Computerised tomography based radiotherapy workflow is limited by poor soft tissue definition in the pelvis and reliance on rigid registration methods. Current image guided radiotherapy and adaptive radiotherapy models therefore have limited ability to improve clinical outcomes. The advent of magnetic resonance image guided radiotherapy solutions provides the opportunity to overcome these limitations with the potential to deliver online real time magnetic resonance imaging based plan adaptation on a daily basis, a true “plan of the day”. This review describes the application of magnetic resonance image guided radiotherapy in two pelvic tumour sites likely to benefit from this approach.

### Introduction

Multiple challenges exist in radiotherapy (RT) delivery for gynaecological and rectal targets. The target consists of volumes encompassing the primary tumour and elective nodal regions, which are difficult to visualise on Computerised tomography (CT) and move independently of each other. Tumour targets are highly mobile deformable structures and are influenced by adjacent rectal and bladder filling, which is difficult to standardise throughout treatment. Substantial tumour regression can occur, which results in normal tissue falling into high dose regions, and extended field treatments are susceptible to rotational set up error (1). Intensity modulated radiotherapy (IMRT) reduces dose to normal tissue in gynaecological and rectal radiotherapy (2, 3), but tight conformity and sharp dose gradients mean that adequate planning target volume (PTV) safety margins to account for geometric uncertainty are essential to avoid a geographical miss.

The current PTV margins applied to targets are based on margin recipes that aim to ensure 95% of the prescribed dose is delivered to 99% of the target volume (4), or 95% of the prescribed dose is delivered to 100% of the target volume in 90% of patients (5). Significant inter-patient variability in target motion results in population-based margins that are much larger than necessary in most patients and still miss the target in a small number of cases. The alternative to large margins and increased normal tissue dose is to individualise margins and implement adaptive treatment strategies.

1 RT is currently planned on a single CT dataset obtained at treatment simulation. This may  
2 not reflect target and organ at risk (OAR) geometry at the time of treatment delivery.  
3 Adaptive radiotherapy (ART) uses information from imaging acquired before or during  
4 treatment delivery to modify the treatment plan based on changes in individual target and  
5 OAR geometry and biology. Adaptive strategies are classified based on their timescale  
6 relative to patient treatment (6). Offline strategies occur between treatment fractions and  
7 typically involve a single or multiple re-plans. Online adaptation is based on imaging  
8 acquired immediately prior to treatment and can be used daily or intermittently. In on-line  
9 adaptation, tumour target and OAR interfraction changes are accounted for, which means  
10 that PTV margins can be significantly reduced (7). Adaptive strategies can also use  
11 information from previous treatment imaging to track the actual dose delivered to the  
12 tumour target and OARs and correct for any discrepancy between the planned and delivered  
13 dose distributions (8). Implementation of online adaptive strategies is limited by technical  
14 challenges, which include image quality, image registration, target and OAR segmentation,  
15 and plan re-optimisation. All of which, must be performed whilst the patient remains on the  
16 treatment couch in treatment position.  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29

30 Currently, Image guided radiotherapy with cone beam CT (CBCT) is limited by its ability to  
31 visualise the target and OARs and by artifact from moving gas. Magnetic resonance imaging  
32 (MRI) is the gold standard imaging modality for diagnosis and staging in gynaecological and  
33 rectal cancer and transition from CT-based to MR-based workflow in these tumour sites  
34 offers immediate advantages. MRI-guided RT (MRIGRT) will provide superior image quality at  
35 treatment planning and treatment delivery for image registration and target and OAR  
36 localisation and segmentation. This will facilitate implementation of online adaptive  
37 strategies to reduce normal tissue irradiation, whilst improving target coverage. The purpose  
38 of this article is to review the advantages and challenges in the clinical application of MRIGRT  
39 in radiotherapy treatment planning and treatment adaptation using rectal and  
40 gynaecological cancers as illustrative examples.  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50

### 51 **Search/ selection strategy**

52 PubMed was searched using terms "Rectal Neoplasms/radiotherapy"[Mesh] or "Uterine  
53 Cervical Neoplasms/radiotherapy"[Mesh] or "Endometrial Neoplasms/radiotherapy"[Mesh]  
54 and "motion" or "adaptive" or "MR-guided" or "auto segmentation" or "auto contouring".  
55 Search included meeting abstracts and was limited to English language. Further references  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65

1 were identified by cross-reference of articles. Identified studies were first screened by title  
2 and/or abstract, with further full paper screening to generate the final list of studies relevant  
3 to the scope of the present review. The last PubMed search was performed on 5<sup>th</sup> April  
4 2018.  
5  
6

## 7 **Rationale for MRI-guided adaptive radiotherapy (MRIGART) in gynaecological and rectal** 8 **cancer** 9

10 MRI is the imaging modality of choice for diagnosis and staging in gynaecological and rectal  
11 cancer where it characterises tumour and local macroscopic extent to inform treatment  
12 decisions, assess treatment response and detect recurrent disease (9-11). It is essential in  
13 identifying patients for radiation treatment, determining the radiation treatment field  
14 extent and accurate definition of the tumour target from bladder, sigmoid and small bowel.  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22

### 23 **1. MRI improves target localisation**

24 Target volume delineation on the planning CT in both gynaecological and rectal tumours is  
25 difficult because it is not possible to discriminate between tumour and normal tissue.  
26 Figures 1 and 2 illustrate improved soft tissue contrast seen on MRI compared to CT for RT  
27 treatment planning in rectal and cervix cancer. Compared to CT, target volume delineation  
28 on MRI results in significantly smaller rectal and cervix volumes (12, 13) and low inter-  
29 observer variability in (14, 15). Studies evaluating inter and intra-observer variability in  
30 contour delineation on MRI in gynaecological and rectal radiotherapy are illustrated in tables  
31 1 and 2 (12-23). In rectal radiotherapy MRI delineation results in significantly reduced  
32 tumour length, width and distance of the proximal tumour edge to the anal verge  $p < 0.05$   
33 (12). When GTV is subdivided into tumour located in the sigmoid, rectal and anal sub  
34 regions, coverage of the CT contoured GTV was inadequate for tumours with MRI evidence  
35 of sigmoid or anal invasion (20).  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46

47 In cervix cancer, geometric studies show that agreement between target volumes delineated  
48 on transverse and para-transverse planes of MRI is good with conformity index 0.71- 0.72  
49 (19). In dosimetric studies, overestimation of tumor width on CT results in significant  
50 differences in the volume treated to the prescription dose or higher (13, 24). Compared to  
51 the CT-based imaging RT workflow, MRIGART will provide superior visualisation of the target  
52 and normal tissue immediately before and during treatment delivery.  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65

## 2. MRI for motion assessment

Extensive target motion occurs in gynaecological and rectal radiotherapy and has been reviewed previously (25, 26). With radiotherapy for cervix cancer, the primary clinical target volume (CTV) includes any visible tumour, cervix, uterus, upper vagina and parametrium. The elective nodal CTV includes the pelvic and common iliac lymph nodes (LN) and the para-aortic LN in high-risk disease. Motion is largest at the uterine fundus and studies report maximum interfraction motion of over 3 cm (27). In one study, margins of 15 mm to the primary and nodal CTV failed in 32% of patients and margins of up to 30 mm were required to ensure coverage in 95% of fractions (27).

With radiotherapy for rectal cancer the primary target volume includes the tumour and mesorectum, and the elective nodal volume includes the pelvic LN. The entire circumference of the rectum at the level of the tumour is included, because it is not possible to distinguish tumor from normal rectal tissue on CT. The anterior and lateral rectal wall move more than the posterior wall and motion is larger in the middle and upper rectum compared with the lower rectum (28). Maximum motion occurs anteriorly, particularly in the upper mesorectum, and anterior PTV margins of 24 mm in the upper mesorectum and 15 mm in the lower mesorectum have been recommended (29, 30). Tables 3 and 4 summarise the published data for cervix and rectal interfraction target motion. (27, 28, 31-43)

Bladder and rectal filling influence target motion in gynaecological and rectal radiotherapy. With cervix treatment, bladder volume is correlated with superior/inferior uterine motion and rectal volume is correlated with cervix and vaginal anterior/posterior motion (33). With rectal radiotherapy, deformation of the mesorectum is largely driven by changes in rectal volume (29). In both cervix and rectal radiotherapy there is significant inter-patient variation in bladder volume despite bladder filling protocols, and both bladder and rectal volumes reduce during treatment (27, 28, 34, 44). Laxatives may not significantly reduce target anterior/posterior motion from rectal volume variation, because passage of gas can still cause significant target displacement (37). Figure 3 illustrates CTV positional changes related to bladder volume as seen on CBCT during cervix radiotherapy. MRIgART will facilitate implementation of margin reduction through adaptive strategies that account for these geometric changes.

## 3. MRI for anatomical response assessment and dose escalation

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65

Significant tumor regression is observed during cervix and rectal radiotherapy (31, 34, 45, 46). In 20 cervix patients having weekly MRI during chemoradiotherapy (CRT), average tumour volume reductions of 59.6% at week 4 were observed, which resulted in increased uterine motion, substantial changes in tumor position and movement of normal tissue, particularly small bowel, into the high dose region (47). Repeat MRI and planning after delivery of 30 Gy found that a second IMRT plan significantly reduced the volume of bowel irradiated if the primary gross tumor volumes decreased >30 cc (47).

In a study of 15 rectal cancer patients, mean tumour regression of 46.3% was seen on MRI by week 5 of CRT and regression was fastest in the 1<sup>st</sup> 3 weeks of treatment (45). A further study in 13 patients found that the majority of patients who had a good response to treatment had volume reduction and fibrotic changes during weeks 1-3 (46). There is a move towards organ preservation in rectal patients with a complete radiological response to spare morbidity from surgery (48). Patients who respond to CRT are more likely to benefit from dose escalation to increase the rate of pathological complete response (pCR) (46) and early assessment to identify these patients is therefore important. Response to neo-adjuvant CRT is dose-dependent with dose escalation of >60 Gy resulting in increased rates of pCR and acceptable toxicity (49). Tumour boost volume delineation on the initial radiotherapy planning CT does not take account of tumour regression during treatment. Repeat imaging during treatment could help select patients who would benefit from radiation dose escalation and would produce more accurate and smaller boost volumes, facilitating increased tumor dose without increased OAR dose and toxicity (50).

Figures 4 and 5 illustrate changes in cervix and rectal tumour volume as seen on weekly MRI during radiotherapy.

#### **4. MRI for biological response prediction and dose delivery assessment**

Functional MRI with diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI) and dynamic contrast enhancement (DCE) may predict biological response in rectal and cervix radiotherapy and identify patients for dose escalation (14, 51).

MRI has potential to act as a biomarker, identifying good and poorly responding tumours to select patients for dose adaptation in order to improve treatment outcomes (52-55). Studies suggest that diffusion weighted images (DWI) can predict pathological complete response

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65

early in rectal radiotherapy (53, 54, 56, 57), but there are limitations to the current evidence preventing its routine implementation in patient selection for dose escalation. Most studies were small and did not prospectively determine MRI criteria to differentiate between complete and non-complete response to treatment. Retrospective identification of these parameters introduces selection bias. There was variability in the time-points at which imaging was acquired and surgery was performed. For example patients classified as achieving a non-pCR at 6 weeks following CRT, may have been classified as a pCR if surgery was performed at a later date and meta-analysis reports 6% increase rate of pCR with an interval of greater than 6 weeks from the end of preoperative CRT (58).

In cervix radiotherapy DCE and DWI MRI may predict response to CRT and identify patients for dose escalation (51). Increasing apparent diffusion coefficient (ADC) values from DWI acquired during treatment can detect early signs of treatment response (55). DCE MRI during treatment detects tumour perfusion (59). Persistently low perfusion during CRT is correlated with treatment failure and patients with increases in perfusion during CRT have better outcomes (59). This could identify patients for dose escalation to hypoxic regions, which should increase tumour shrinkage prior to brachytherapy, which we know improves local control (60). There was however, no technical standardisation in these studies, which limits assessment of reproducibility and generalisability. The optimal time to assess biological response and adapt treatment based on these findings has yet to be determined.

MRigRT will also provide quantitative knowledge of the actual delivered dose and the impact of radiation dose on tumour and normal tissue. This would enable dose compensation strategies and tumour and normal tissue radiobiological modeling.

### **Adaptive radiotherapy (ART) strategies**

#### **1. Target volume modification based on individual internal motion**

PTV modification based on data from set up and internal target motion acquired from planning or previous treatment, allows safe reduction of generic population based margins. This is also referred to as a composite volume technique. The range of target motion is modelled during the planning stage or first treatments to generate an internal target volume (ITV). The treatment plan is optimised off-line and applied to subsequent treatments. Individualised ITVs in cervix radiotherapy account for the range of cervix and uterine motion with variable bladder volume and may be based on variable bladder filling CT scans acquired



1 at simulation or using bladder geometry as a predictive tool (61, 62). Compared to  
2 population-based margins, individualised margins reduce CTV-PTV margins by 48% (+/- 6%),  
3 and bladder and rectal volume within the PTV is reduced by 5-45% and 26-74% respectively  
4 (62).  
5  
6

7  
8 For rectal cancer an average CTV can be acquired from the radiotherapy planning (RTP) CT  
9 and repeat CTs during the 1<sup>st</sup> week of treatment (30). Adaptation after day 4 resulted in a 7  
10 mm reduction in the maximum required PTV margin from 24 to 17 mm and a significant  
11 reduction in PTV and dose to the small bowel (30).  
12  
13  
14  
15

## 16 17 18 **2. On-line plan selection strategy**

19 On-line plan selection uses imaging acquired at treatment to select a plan from a library of  
20 treatment plans generated from multiple PTVs. In cervix radiotherapy, evaluated strategies  
21 include a plan library using individualised PTVs based on CTV position at different bladder  
22 volumes, or PTVs created by the application of incremental margins to the CTV as seen on  
23 RTP CT acquired with a full bladder (62, 63). Compared to a standard population margin  
24 approach, plan selection results in significantly better target coverage and OAR sparing (62-  
25 64). Adaptation based on variable bladder filling CTVs enables reductions in PTV margins  
26 from 38 mm to 7 mm and better CTV D98% > 95% in comparison to the non-ART approach  
27 where 17% of treatment fractions have inadequate target coverage (62, 64). When using an  
28 incremental margin approach, a 5 mm margin of the day plan could be used in 25% of  
29 fractions (63). Libraries based on variable bladder filling do not account for rectal filling  
30 variation or the passage of gas, which are difficult to predict and can significantly influence  
31 cervix motion (65).  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43

44 In rectal cancer, target motion is influenced more by rectal than bladder filling, so a library  
45 of plans strategy based on variable bladder volumes is not appropriate. Instead plan  
46 selection has been based on plans with variable PTV margins between -25 mm and + 25mm  
47 applied to the anterior CTV, which is where largest variation is seen (66). This reduced dose  
48 to the bladder and small bowel OARs, although the absolute reductions were small (67).  
49  
50

51 Plan selection in rectal radiotherapy is feasible with good plan selection consistency  
52 between observers of 75% (66). Plan selection in both cervix and rectal radiotherapy is being  
53 implemented clinically, but is limited by the image quality of CBCT. MRIgRT would facilitate  
54 target and OAR localisation for on-line plan selection.  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65

### 3. Plan re-optimisation

The optimal strategy to account for target and OAR motion and deformation, anatomical and biological response, is to generate a new plan with full re-optimization. This determines the dose distribution based on target and OAR geometry and/or physiology at the time of treatment delivery (6).

A number of planning studies in cervix radiotherapy have simulated the benefit of on-line re-planning (7, 68, 69). One study of 33 patients compared a 3 mm PTV margin plan without re-planning, with an automated weekly re-plan on real time patient geometry as seen on MRI (68, 69). Pre-treatment optimisation criteria were automatically re-applied to re-plans without any physics planner intervention. Without re-planning, there was a significant reduction in accumulated dose to the primary CTV, with 9 patients failing  $D_{98\%} > 95\%$  (68). In patients who were re-planned there was a reduction in CTV between 8-68% (median 39%) and the  $D_{98}$  CTV constraint was met in all patients (68). There was no difference in dose to OARs, which might move with the target and remain in the high dose region. This may lead to increased OAR dose in patients where OAR movement is related to the target compared to patients where the OARs move independently (68, 69).

A study in 14 cervix patients used 15 mm PTV margins and re-planning based on target and OAR geometry on MRI after 30 Gy (47). There was a reduction in OAR dose with re-planning, but in this study the re-plans were interactively optimised to reflect new anatomy (47). A planning study to simulate the benefit of online MRIGRT re-planned used weekly MRI in 11 patients receiving IMRT for cervix cancer with 4mm PTV margins (7). This was compared to plans based on the pre-treatment MRI with primary and nodal PTV margins of 15 and 10 mm (7). There was a significant reduction in the dose to the bladder, rectum, sigmoid, and small bowel with online re-planning (7).

### 4. Dose compensation

Adaptation using dose tracking allows reduction in PTV margins because variations in the dose delivered to the CTV compared to the planned dose, can be compensated for in subsequent fractions. The pre-treatment imaging, together with any set up correction applied, is used to determine target and OAR position and the dose delivered at each treatment fraction. This is non-rigidly registered to the planning CT to model anatomical

1 motion and deformation and allows calculation of the accumulated delivered dose. The  
2 treatment plan can then be re-optimised to compensate for any problems with dose  
3 coverage or to account for adaptation of treatment goals.  
4  
5

6  
7 Lim et al looked at pre-treatment and weekly MRI in 30 cervix IMRT patients using a 3mm  
8 PTV margin and dose accumulation (70). They modelled an anatomical driven approach with  
9 a single off-line re-plan mid-treatment to account for tumour regression, and a  
10 dosimetrically triggered approach if the estimated accumulated D98 to the GTV or primary  
11 CTV was low. Without re-planning, there was insufficient target coverage in 27% of patients.  
12 The anatomical approach improved target coverage and reduced OAR dose, but there were  
13 still 3 patients with insufficient target coverage. Dosimetrically triggered re-planning  
14 resulted in target coverage in all patients, but no difference in the accumulated OAR dose  
15 (70). Deformable registration is not consistently accurate and validation is difficult. In  
16 deformable registration for dose accumulation, particular caution must be taken when  
17 tumours have undergone mass change and in areas with sharp dose gradients.  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27

### 28 **Integration of MRI into radiotherapy and its challenges**

29 MRI can be integrated into radiotherapy workflow in a variety of ways. In a CT-MRI  
30 simulation workflow, the MRI is used for contour delineation at radiotherapy treatment  
31 planning (RTP) and the CT provides a robust geometric representation of the patient, an  
32 electron density map required for dose calculation and a reference image for patient set up  
33 during standard treatment. Any error in image registration will however lead to a systematic  
34 geometric error throughout patient treatment (71). MRI-only simulation reduces potential  
35 for image registration error at RTP, but the challenges of geometric distortion and lack of  
36 electron density information and material properties inherent to MRI need to be addressed.  
37 MRI for radiotherapy treatment localisation, planning and verification have different  
38 demands to those acquired for diagnosis and staging. Specific solutions are required. The  
39 main differences relate to patient positioning, image acquisition and sequence parameters  
40 and the need for geometric accuracy (Table 5).  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51

52  
53 A number of MRIGRT technologies are in active development, integrating MRI with external  
54 beam radiotherapy delivery, providing MRI data immediately before and after treatment,  
55 and simultaneously with treatment delivery (72-75). They differ in their imaging and  
56 treatment adaptation capabilities and their approach to tackling the technical challenges of  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65

1 magnetic and radiofrequency interference and treatment beam transmission through the  
2 magnet. Table 6 summarises the different systems, each presenting advantages and  
3 disadvantages (72, 74-77). The MRIdian system (ViewRay Inc, Oakwood Village OH) has  
4 treated over 300 patients since 2014 and integrates a 0.35 Tesla (T) magnet with either  
5 three multileaf collimator (MLC)-equipped Cobalt-60 heads, or a 6 MV linac with one MLC  
6 (73, 78). The Elekta Unity MR-linac solution (Elekta AB, Stockholm, Sweden) started treating  
7 patients in 2017 under pre-CE mark clinical trial protocol. It integrates a 7 MV linac with a  
8 high field 1.5 T MR imaging system from Philips, which uses technology similar to the Philips  
9 Ingenia diagnostic systems (72). Lower magnetic field solutions benefit from a reduction in  
10 image artifacts and patient related geometric distortion, and lower energy deposition by the  
11 radiofrequency pulses. Higher field solutions benefit from enhanced signal to noise, which  
12 improves spatial and temporal resolution and functional imaging capabilities.  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22

### 23 **Technical challenges in the realisation of real-time MRigART**

24 Generation of a new treatment plan based on target and OAR geometry or biology at the  
25 time of treatment delivery is the ultimate goal of MRigART. The main challenge is achieving  
26 this in a short amount of time with the patient on the treatment couch. Its clinical  
27 implementation is limited by;  
28  
29  
30

- 31 1. Requirement for robust automated real-time registration of the newly acquired MRI  
32 with the images used for treatment planning
  - 33 2. Requirement for electron density data necessary for dose calculation
  - 34 3. Target and OAR segmentation on the new MRI
  - 35 4. Plan re-optimisation and dose calculation
  - 36 5. Quality assurance of the newly generated plan.
- 37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43

44 Image registration and approaches to generate electron density information for MRigRT  
45 have been discussed in our previous review. In the first clinical applications of MRigART  
46 using the Elekta Unity MR-Linac (Elekta AB, Stockholm, Sweden) and the MRIdian system  
47 (ViewRay, Oakwood Village, OH), MRI are acquired immediately before treatment and  
48 registered to the reference planning MRI and planning CT using deformable registration (79,  
49 80). Electron density information from the reference planning CT is then transferred to the  
50 MRI of the day using the deformation map (79, 80).  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65

1 The standard treatment-planning process requires segmented contours and generates the  
2 desired dose distribution from scratch. This is achieved through iterative optimisation,  
3 driven by defined objective functions set by the planner, which specify the dose volume  
4 constraints for tumour targets and OARs. The planner then fine-tunes the objective  
5 functions and repeats the optimisation process to further improve the treatment plan by  
6 trial and error. This takes too long to be feasibly implemented in real-time MRIGART and  
7 faster automated re-planning strategies are required.  
8  
9

10  
11  
12  
13 Segmentation of target and OARs on the daily image is a major challenge in online re-  
14 planning. Manual segmentation is time consuming and susceptible to inter and intra-  
15 observer variability. Mean time required to manually delineate the pelvic nodal CTV alone is  
16 over 30 minutes, and automated strategies are necessary to reduce segmentation time and  
17 improve structure definition (81). Autosegmentation without prior knowledge uses imaging  
18 properties such as voxel intensities and gradients (82). Alternative strategies incorporate  
19 prior knowledge into the segmentation process to improve accuracy and reproducibility and  
20 include atlas-based segmentation, statistical shape models, machine learning and hybrid  
21 strategies (82).  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30

31  
32 In atlas-based autosegmentation, an atlas of manually contoured structures is used to  
33 propagate structures onto a new dataset using deformable registration voxels  
34 transformations (83-85). Use of multiple atlases further improves accuracy (86). Cervix  
35 target segmentation on MRI using machine learning results in mean sensitivity and  
36 specificity of 85-93% (87) and is faster than atlas based strategies (88). Accuracy of  
37 autosegmentation is not perfect and visual verification is still required. In MRIGART using  
38 both the Elekta Unity MR-Linac and the ViewRay MRIdian systems, target and OAR contours  
39 are transferred to the online MRI from the reference image using deformable registration  
40 and are then checked and manually edited if necessary by a clinician (78, 80, 89).  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49

50  
51 Daily plan re-optimisation does not need to start from scratch and many components of the  
52 new plan can be extrapolated from the original fully optimised plan. Plan modification with  
53 aperture morphing reduces the number of steps in reoptimisation (90). Segment aperture  
54 morphing adjusts the beam segment shape of the multi-leaf collimator, based on the new  
55 target position and shape, as seen in the projection from the beam's eye view of each  
56 treatment beam. Segment weight optimisation can then be applied to improve dosimetry  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65

(90). More complex aperture morphing methods rely on deformable registration (91, 92).

Plan adaptation based on previous knowledge from the original plan can also speed up the process. Gradient maintenance strategies maintain the same dose gradient around the target, towards the OARs, as in the original treatment plan (93). This requires segmentation of the new target but not segmentation of OARS. It may not be suitable for the larger target volumes seen in gynaecological and rectal radiotherapy. Interactive dose shaping is based on contoured structures and enables direct manipulation of the initial plan isodose surface shape or the dose to individual voxels (94, 95). Advances in computer power, both graphical processing units and modified central core processing units, can now reduce the time of plan optimisation and dose calculation from minutes to seconds (96, 97). Commercial treatment planning systems incorporating advances in adaptive planning are now becoming available.

Plan approval and quality assurance (QA) in real-time MRIGART is challenging. Automation of image acquisition and registration, target and OAR segmentation, treatment dose calculation and adaptive planning optimisation is essential in implementing online MRIGART, but creates additional problems. The detailed plan reviews and QA process that occur at pre-treatment during standard radiotherapy are not appropriate. Limiting physician plan approval to when plan quality is less than the original treatment plan would improve efficiency. Conventional patient specific QA approaches insert physical phantoms in the treatment beam, which cannot be used with the patient on the treatment couch. An alternative solution is to send the treatment plan to an independent dose calculation engine to verify that the dose distributions agree (98).

Delivery of MRIGRT with the ViewRay MRIdian Cobalt 60 was feasible in 11 rectal patients receiving neoadjuvant chemoradiation with IMRT and simultaneous integrated boost (99).

Daily MRI were acquired for patient set up and verification, and all patients completed treatment. The ViewRay MRIdian has also been used for imaging and radiotherapy planning in brachytherapy for cervical cancer (100). No studies have yet been published for MRIGRT delivery in cervix external beam radiotherapy.

## Conclusions

MRIGRT in rectal and gynaecological radiotherapy will improve all aspects of the treatment workflow. Its most exciting application in gynaecological and rectal radiotherapy will be to

1 refine GTV to CTV definition, increased accuracy and precision of target localisation for  
2 treatment verification and implementation of adaptive strategies to personalise the  
3 therapeutic approach. This will facilitate reduced PTV margins and normal tissue irradiation  
4 whilst maintaining target coverage. Together with dose adaptation, this will translate into  
5 improved tumour control and reduced toxicity for patients. Optimal adaptive strategies  
6 need to be determined and challenges remain for the implementation of MRIGART clinical  
7 workflow. But technology is exponentially increasing and the ability to personalise and  
8 intensify treatment with MRIGART at these tumour sites is no longer an improbable blue-sky  
9 ideology but is now within reach.  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19

## 20 **References**

- 21  
22  
23 1. Laursen LV, Elstrom UV, Vestergaard A, Muren LP, Petersen JB, Lindegaard JC, et al.  
24 Residual rotational set-up errors after daily cone-beam CT image guided radiotherapy of  
25 locally advanced cervical cancer. *Radiother Oncol.* 2012;105(2):220-5.  
26
- 27 2. Roeske JC, Lujan A, Rotmensch J, Waggoner SE, Yamada D, Mundt AJ. Intensity-  
28 modulated whole pelvic radiation therapy in patients with gynecologic malignancies. *Int J*  
29 *Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2000;48(5):1613-21.  
30
- 31 3. Duthoy W, De Gerssem W, Vergote K, Boterberg T, Derie C, Smeets P, et al. Clinical  
32 implementation of intensity-modulated arc therapy (IMAT) for rectal cancer. *Int J Radiat*  
33 *Oncol Biol Phys.* 2004;60(3):794-806.  
34
- 35 4. Stroom JC, de Boer HC, Huizenga H, Visser AG. Inclusion of geometrical uncertainties  
36 in radiotherapy treatment planning by means of coverage probability. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol*  
37 *Phys.* 1999;43(4):905-19.  
38
- 39 5. van Herk M, Remeijer P, Rasch C, Lebesque JV. The probability of correct target  
40 dosage: dose-population histograms for deriving treatment margins in radiotherapy. *Int J*  
41 *Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2000;47(4):1121-35.  
42
- 43 6. Yan D. Adaptive radiotherapy: merging principle into clinical practice. *Semin Radiat*  
44 *Oncol.* 2010;20(2):79-83.  
45
- 46 7. Kerkhof EM, Raaymakers BW, van der Heide UA, van de Bunt L, Jurgenliemk-Schulz  
47 IM, Lagendijk JJ. Online MRI guidance for healthy tissue sparing in patients with cervical  
48 cancer: an IMRT planning study. *Radiother Oncol.* 2008;88(2):241-9.  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65

- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65
8. Orlandini LC, Coppola M, Fulcheri C, Cernusco L, Wang P, Cionini L. Dose tracking assessment for image-guided radiotherapy of the prostate bed and the impact on clinical workflow. *Radiat Oncol*. 2017;12(1):78.
  9. Hricak H, Gatsonis C, Coakley FV, Snyder B, Reinhold C, Schwartz LH, et al. Early invasive cervical cancer: CT and MR imaging in preoperative evaluation - ACRIN/GOG comparative study of diagnostic performance and interobserver variability. *Radiology*. 2007;245(2):491-8.
  10. Haie-Meder C, Potter R, Van Limbergen E, Briot E, De Brabandere M, Dimopoulos J, et al. Recommendations from Gynaecological (GYN) GEC-ESTRO Working Group (I): concepts and terms in 3D image based 3D treatment planning in cervix cancer brachytherapy with emphasis on MRI assessment of GTV and CTV. *Radiother Oncol*. 2005;74(3):235-45.
  11. Brown G, Daniels IR, Richardson C, Revell P, Peppercorn D, Bourne M. Techniques and trouble-shooting in high spatial resolution thin slice MRI for rectal cancer. *Br J Radiol*. 2005;78(927):245-51.
  12. O'Neill BD, Salerno G, Thomas K, Tait DM, Brown G. MR vs CT imaging: low rectal cancer tumour delineation for three-dimensional conformal radiotherapy. *Br J Radiol*. 2009;82(978):509-13.
  13. Viswanathan AN, Dimopoulos J, Kirisits C, Berger D, Potter R. Computed tomography versus magnetic resonance imaging-based contouring in cervical cancer brachytherapy: results of a prospective trial and preliminary guidelines for standardized contours. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2007;68(2):491-8.
  14. Burbach JP, Kleijnen JP, Reerink O, Seravalli E, Philippens ME, Schakel T, et al. Inter-observer agreement of MRI-based tumor delineation for preoperative radiotherapy boost in locally advanced rectal cancer. *Radiother Oncol*. 2016;118(2):399-407.
  15. Lim K, Erickson B, Jurgenliemk-Schulz IM, Gaffney D, Creutzberg CL, Viswanathan A, et al. Variability in clinical target volume delineation for intensity modulated radiation therapy in 3 challenging cervix cancer scenarios. *Pract Radiat Oncol*. 2015;5(6):e557-65.
  16. Lim K, Small W, Jr., Portelance L, Creutzberg C, Jurgenliemk-Schulz IM, Mundt A, et al. Consensus guidelines for delineation of clinical target volume for intensity-modulated pelvic radiotherapy for the definitive treatment of cervix cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2011;79(2):348-55.
  17. Dimopoulos JC, De Vos V, Berger D, Petric P, Dumas I, Kirisits C, et al. Inter-observer comparison of target delineation for MRI-assisted cervical cancer brachytherapy: application of the GYN GEC-ESTRO recommendations. *Radiother Oncol*. 2009;91(2):166-72.



- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65
18. Hellebust TP, Tanderup K, Lervag C, Fidarova E, Berger D, Malinen E, et al. Dosimetric impact of interobserver variability in MRI-based delineation for cervical cancer brachytherapy. *Radiother Oncol*. 2013;107(1):13-9.
19. Petric P, Dimopoulos J, Kirisits C, Berger D, Hudej R, Potter R. Inter- and intraobserver variation in HR-CTV contouring: intercomparison of transverse and paratransverse image orientation in 3D-MRI assisted cervix cancer brachytherapy. *Radiother Oncol*. 2008;89(2):164-71.
20. Tan J, Lim Joon D, Fitt G, Wada M, Lim Joon M, Mercuri A, et al. The utility of multimodality imaging with CT and MRI in defining rectal tumour volumes for radiotherapy treatment planning: a pilot study. *J Med Imaging Radiat Oncol*. 2010;54(6):562-8.
21. Regini F, Gourtsoyianni S, Cardoso De Melo R, Charles-Edwards GD, Griffin N, Parikh J, et al. Rectal tumour volume (GTV) delineation using T2-weighted and diffusion-weighted MRI: Implications for radiotherapy planning. *Eur J Radiol*. 2014;83(5):768-72.
22. Curvo-Semedo L, Lambregts DM, Maas M, Thywissen T, Mehsen RT, Lammering G, et al. Rectal cancer: assessment of complete response to preoperative combined radiation therapy with chemotherapy--conventional MR volumetry versus diffusion-weighted MR imaging. *Radiology*. 2011;260(3):734-43.
23. Taylor A, Rockall AG, Reznek RH, Powell ME. Mapping pelvic lymph nodes: guidelines for delineation in intensity-modulated radiotherapy. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2005;63(5):1604-12.
24. Wachter-Gerstner N, Wachter S, Reinstadler E, Fellner C, Knocke TH, Potter R. The impact of sectional imaging on dose escalation in endocavitary HDR-brachytherapy of cervical cancer: results of a prospective comparative trial. *Radiother Oncol*. 2003;68(1):51-9.
25. Jadon R, Pembroke CA, Hanna CL, Palaniappan N, Evans M, Cleves AE, et al. A systematic review of organ motion and image-guided strategies in external beam radiotherapy for cervical cancer. *Clin Oncol (R Coll Radiol)*. 2014;26(4):185-96.
26. Gwynne S, Webster R, Adams R, Mukherjee S, Coles B, Staffurth J. Image-guided radiotherapy for rectal cancer: a systematic review. *Clin Oncol (R Coll Radiol)*. 2012;24(4):250-60.
27. Tyagi N, Lewis JH, Yashar CM, Vo D, Jiang SB, Mundt AJ, et al. Daily online cone beam computed tomography to assess interfractional motion in patients with intact cervical cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2011;80(1):273-80.

- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65
28. Chong I, Hawkins M, Hansen V, Thomas K, McNair H, O'Neill B, et al. Quantification of organ motion during chemoradiotherapy of rectal cancer using cone-beam computed tomography. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2011;81(4):e431-8.
29. Nijkamp J, de Jong R, Sonke JJ, van Vliet C, Marijnen C. Target volume shape variation during irradiation of rectal cancer patients in supine position: comparison with prone position. *Radiother Oncol.* 2009;93(2):285-92.
30. Nijkamp J, Marijnen C, van Herk M, van Triest B, Sonke JJ. Adaptive radiotherapy for long course neo-adjuvant treatment of rectal cancer. *Radiother Oncol.* 2012;103(3):353-9.
31. Beadle BM, Jhingran A, Salehpour M, Sam M, Iyer RB, Eifel PJ. Cervix regression and motion during the course of external beam chemoradiation for cervical cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2009;73(1):235-41.
32. Chan P, Dinniwell R, Haider MA, Cho YB, Jaffray D, Lockwood G, et al. Inter- and intrafractional tumor and organ movement in patients with cervical cancer undergoing radiotherapy: a cinematic-MRI point-of-interest study. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2008;70(5):1507-15.
33. Taylor A, Powell ME. An assessment of interfractional uterine and cervical motion: implications for radiotherapy target volume definition in gynaecological cancer. *Radiother Oncol.* 2008;88(2):250-7.
34. van de Bunt L, Jurgenliemk-Schulz IM, de Kort GA, Roesink JM, Tersteeg RJ, van der Heide UA. Motion and deformation of the target volumes during IMRT for cervical cancer: what margins do we need? *Radiother Oncol.* 2008;88(2):233-40.
35. Kaatee RS, Olofsen MJ, Verstraate MB, Quint S, Heijmen BJ. Detection of organ movement in cervix cancer patients using a fluoroscopic electronic portal imaging device and radiopaque markers. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2002;54(2):576-83.
36. Lee CM, Shrieve DC, Gaffney DK. Rapid involution and mobility of carcinoma of the cervix. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2004;58(2):625-30.
37. Haripotepornkul NH, Nath SK, Scanderbeg D, Saenz C, Yashar CM. Evaluation of intra- and inter-fraction movement of the cervix during intensity modulated radiation therapy. *Radiother Oncol.* 2011;98(3):347-51.
38. Collen C, Engels B, Duchateau M, Tournel K, De Ridder M, Bral S, et al. Volumetric imaging by megavoltage computed tomography for assessment of internal organ motion during radiotherapy for cervical cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2010;77(5):1590-5.

- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65
39. Lim K, Kelly V, Stewart J, Xie J, Cho YB, Moseley J, et al. Pelvic radiotherapy for cancer of the cervix: is what you plan actually what you deliver? *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2009;74(1):304-12.
40. Brierley JD, Dawson LA, Sampson E, Bayley A, Scott S, Moseley JL, et al. Rectal motion in patients receiving preoperative radiotherapy for carcinoma of the rectum. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2011;80(1):97-102.
41. Tournel K, De Ridder M, Engels B, Bijdekerke P, Fierens Y, Duchateau M, et al. Assessment of intrafractional movement and internal motion in radiotherapy of rectal cancer using megavoltage computed tomography. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2008;71(3):934-9.
42. Nuyttens JJ, Robertson JM, Yan D, Martinez A. The variability of the clinical target volume for rectal cancer due to internal organ motion during adjuvant treatment. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2002;53(2):497-503.
43. Nijkamp J, Swellengrebel M, Hollmann B, de Jong R, Marijnen C, van Vliet-Vroegindewij C, et al. Repeat CT assessed CTV variation and PTV margins for short- and long-course pre-operative RT of rectal cancer. *Radiother Oncol.* 2012;102(3):399-405.
44. Ahmad R, Hoogeman MS, Bondar M, Dhawtal V, Quint S, De Pree I, et al. Increasing treatment accuracy for cervical cancer patients using correlations between bladder-filling change and cervix-uterus displacements: proof of principle. *Radiother Oncol.* 2011;98(3):340-6.
45. Van den Begin R, Kleijnen JP, Engels B, Philippens M, van Asselen B, Raaymakers B, et al. Tumor volume regression during preoperative chemoradiotherapy for rectal cancer: a prospective observational study with weekly MRI. *Acta Oncol.* 2017:1-5.
46. Lambregts DMJ, Yassien AB, Lahaye MJ, Betgen A, Maas M, Beets GL, et al. Monitoring early changes in rectal tumor morphology and volume during 5 weeks of preoperative chemoradiotherapy - An evaluation with sequential MRIs. *Radiother Oncol.* 2018;126(3):431-6.
47. van de Bunt L, van der Heide UA, Ketelaars M, de Kort GA, Jurgenliemk-Schulz IM. Conventional, conformal, and intensity-modulated radiation therapy treatment planning of external beam radiotherapy for cervical cancer: The impact of tumor regression. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2006;64(1):189-96.
48. Appelt AL, Ploen J, Harling H, Jensen FS, Jensen LH, Jorgensen JC, et al. High-dose chemoradiotherapy and watchful waiting for distal rectal cancer: a prospective observational study. *Lancet Oncol.* 2015;16(8):919-27.

- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65
49. Burbach JP, den Harder AM, Intven M, van Vulpen M, Verkooijen HM, Reerink O. Impact of radiotherapy boost on pathological complete response in patients with locally advanced rectal cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Radiother Oncol*. 2014;113(1):1-9.
50. Seierstad T, Hole KH, Saelen E, Ree AH, Flatmark K, Malinen E. MR-guided simultaneous integrated boost in preoperative radiotherapy of locally advanced rectal cancer following neoadjuvant chemotherapy. *Radiother Oncol*. 2009;93(2):279-84.
51. Bowen SR, Yuh WTC, Hippe DS, Wu W, Partridge SC, Elias S, et al. Tumor radiomic heterogeneity: Multiparametric functional imaging to characterize variability and predict response following cervical cancer radiation therapy. *J Magn Reson Imaging*. 2018;47(5):1388-96.
52. Lambrecht M, Deroose C, Roels S, Vandecaveye V, Penninckx F, Sagaert X, et al. The use of FDG-PET/CT and diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance imaging for response prediction before, during and after preoperative chemoradiotherapy for rectal cancer. *Acta Oncol*. 2010;49(7):956-63.
53. Sun YS, Zhang XP, Tang L, Ji JF, Gu J, Cai Y, et al. Locally advanced rectal carcinoma treated with preoperative chemotherapy and radiation therapy: preliminary analysis of diffusion-weighted MR imaging for early detection of tumor histopathologic downstaging. *Radiology*. 2010;254(1):170-8.
54. Barbaro B, Vitale R, Valentini V, Illuminati S, Vecchio FM, Rizzo G, et al. Diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance imaging in monitoring rectal cancer response to neoadjuvant chemoradiotherapy. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2012;83(2):594-9.
55. Harry VN, Semple SI, Gilbert FJ, Parkin DE. Diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance imaging in the early detection of response to chemoradiation in cervical cancer. *Gynecol Oncol*. 2008;111(2):213-20.
56. Lambrecht M, Vandecaveye V, De Keyzer F, Roels S, Penninckx F, Van Cutsem E, et al. Value of diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance imaging for prediction and early assessment of response to neoadjuvant radiochemotherapy in rectal cancer: preliminary results. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2012;82(2):863-70.
57. Curvo-Semedo L, Lambregts DM, Maas M, Beets GL, Caseiro-Alves F, Beets-Tan RG. Diffusion-weighted MRI in rectal cancer: apparent diffusion coefficient as a potential noninvasive marker of tumor aggressiveness. *J Magn Reson Imaging*. 2012;35(6):1365-71.

- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65
58. Petrelli F, SgROI G, Sarti E, Barni S. Increasing the Interval Between Neoadjuvant Chemoradiotherapy and Surgery in Rectal Cancer: A Meta-analysis of Published Studies. *Ann Surg.* 2016;263(3):458-64.
59. Mayr NA, Wang JZ, Zhang D, Grecula JC, Lo SS, Jaroura D, et al. Longitudinal changes in tumor perfusion pattern during the radiation therapy course and its clinical impact in cervical cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2010;77(2):502-8.
60. Tanderup K, Fokdal LU, Sturdza A, Haie-Meder C, Mazon R, van Limbergen E, et al. Effect of tumor dose, volume and overall treatment time on local control after radiochemotherapy including MRI guided brachytherapy of locally advanced cervical cancer. *Radiother Oncol.* 2016;120(3):441-6.
61. Bondar L, Hoogeman M, Mens JW, Dhawtal G, de Pree I, Ahmad R, et al. Toward an individualized target motion management for IMRT of cervical cancer based on model-predicted cervix-uterus shape and position. *Radiother Oncol.* 2011;99(2):240-5.
62. Bondar ML, Hoogeman MS, Mens JW, Quint S, Ahmad R, Dhawtal G, et al. Individualized nonadaptive and online-adaptive intensity-modulated radiotherapy treatment strategies for cervical cancer patients based on pretreatment acquired variable bladder filling computed tomography scans. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2012;83(5):1617-23.
63. Ahmad R, Bondar L, Voet P, Mens JW, Quint S, Dhawtal G, et al. A margin-of-the-day online adaptive intensity-modulated radiotherapy strategy for cervical cancer provides superior treatment accuracy compared to clinically recommended margins: a dosimetric evaluation. *Acta Oncol.* 2013;52(7):1430-6.
64. van de Schoot A, de Boer P, Visser J, Stalpers LJA, Rasch CRN, Bel A. Dosimetric advantages of a clinical daily adaptive plan selection strategy compared with a non-adaptive strategy in cervical cancer radiation therapy. *Acta Oncol.* 2017;56(5):667-74.
65. Heijkoop ST, Langerak TR, Quint S, Bondar L, Mens JW, Heijmen BJ, et al. Clinical implementation of an online adaptive plan-of-the-day protocol for nonrigid motion management in locally advanced cervical cancer IMRT. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2014;90(3):673-9.
66. de Jong R, Lutkenhaus L, van Wieringen N, Visser J, Wiersma J, Crama K, et al. Plan selection strategy for rectum cancer patients: An interobserver study to assess clinical feasibility. *Radiother Oncol.* 2016;120(2):207-11.
67. Lutkenhaus LJ, Vestergaard A, Bel A, Hoyer M, Hulshof MC, van Leeuwen CM, et al. A biological modeling based comparison of two strategies for adaptive radiotherapy of urinary bladder cancer. *Acta Oncol.* 2016;55(8):1009-15.

- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65
68. Stewart J, Lim K, Kelly V, Xie J, Brock KK, Moseley J, et al. Automated weekly replanning for intensity-modulated radiotherapy of cervix cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2010;78(2):350-8.
69. Oh S, Stewart J, Moseley J, Kelly V, Lim K, Xie J, et al. Hybrid adaptive radiotherapy with on-line MRI in cervix cancer IMRT. *Radiother Oncol.* 2014;110(2):323-8.
70. Lim K, Stewart J, Kelly V, Xie J, Brock KK, Moseley J, et al. Dosimetrically triggered adaptive intensity modulated radiation therapy for cervical cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2014;90(1):147-54.
71. Nyholm T, Jonsson J. Counterpoint: Opportunities and challenges of a magnetic resonance imaging-only radiotherapy work flow. *Semin Radiat Oncol.* 2014;24(3):175-80.
72. Raaymakers BW, Lagendijk JJ, Overweg J, Kok JG, Raaijmakers AJ, Kerkhof EM, et al. Integrating a 1.5 T MRI scanner with a 6 MV accelerator: proof of concept. *Phys Med Biol.* 2009;54(12):N229-37.
73. Mutic S, Dempsey JF. The ViewRay system: magnetic resonance-guided and controlled radiotherapy. *Semin Radiat Oncol.* 2014;24(3):196-9.
74. Keall PJ, Barton M, Crozier S, Australian Mri-Linac Program icfIIICCLHSUUoNQSWS, Wollongong. The Australian magnetic resonance imaging-linac program. *Semin Radiat Oncol.* 2014;24(3):203-6.
75. Fallone BG. The rotating biplanar linac-magnetic resonance imaging system. *Semin Radiat Oncol.* 2014;24(3):200-2.
76. Woodings SJ, Bluemink JJ, de Vries JHW, Niatsetski Y, van Veelen B, Schillings J, et al. Beam characterisation of the 1.5 T MRI-linac. *Phys Med Biol.* 2018;63(8):085015.
77. Hu Y, Rankine L, Green OL, Kashani R, Li HH, Li H, et al. Characterization of the onboard imaging unit for the first clinical magnetic resonance image guided radiation therapy system. *Med Phys.* 2015;42(10):5828-37.
78. Fischer-Valuck BW, Henke L, Green O, Kashani R, Acharya S, Bradley JD, et al. Two-and-a-half-year clinical experience with the world's first magnetic resonance image guided radiation therapy system. *Adv Radiat Oncol.* 2017;2(3):485-93.
79. Acharya S, Fischer-Valuck BW, Kashani R, Parikh P, Yang D, Zhao T, et al. Online Magnetic Resonance Image Guided Adaptive Radiation Therapy: First Clinical Applications. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2016;94(2):394-403.
80. Raaymakers BW, Jurgenliemk-Schulz IM, Bol GH, Glitznier M, Kotte A, van Asselen B, et al. First patients treated with a 1.5 T MRI-Linac: clinical proof of concept of a high-

1 precision, high-field MRI guided radiotherapy treatment. *Phys Med Biol.* 2017;62(23):L41-  
2 L50.

3 81. Young AV, Wortham A, Wernick I, Evans A, Ennis RD. Atlas-based segmentation  
4 improves consistency and decreases time required for contouring postoperative  
5 endometrial cancer nodal volumes. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2011;79(3):943-7.

6 82. Sharp G, Fritscher KD, Pekar V, Peroni M, Shusharina N, Veeraraghavan H, et al.  
7 Vision 20/20: perspectives on automated image segmentation for radiotherapy. *Med Phys.*  
8 2014;41(5):050902.

9 83. Klein S, Staring M, Murphy K, Viergever MA, Pluim JP. elastix: a toolbox for intensity-  
10 based medical image registration. *IEEE Trans Med Imaging.* 2010;29(1):196-205.

11 84. van der Put RW, Kerkhof EM, Raaymakers BW, Jurgenliemk-Schulz IM, Lagendijk JJ.  
12 Contour propagation in MRI-guided radiotherapy treatment of cervical cancer: the accuracy  
13 of rigid, non-rigid and semi-automatic registrations. *Phys Med Biol.* 2009;54(23):7135-50.

14 85. Staring M, van der Heide UA, Klein S, Viergever MA, Pluim JP. Registration of cervical  
15 MRI using multifeature mutual information. *IEEE Trans Med Imaging.* 2009;28(9):1412-21.

16 86. Sjoberg C, Lundmark M, Granberg C, Johansson S, Ahnesjo A, Montelius A. Clinical  
17 evaluation of multi-atlas based segmentation of lymph node regions in head and neck and  
18 prostate cancer patients. *Radiat Oncol.* 2013;8:229.

19 87. Torheim T, Malinen E, Hole KH, Lund KV, Indahl UG, Lyng H, et al. Autodelineation of  
20 cervical cancers using multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging and machine learning.  
21 *Acta Oncol.* 2017;56(6):806-12.

22 88. Lustberg T, van Soest J, Gooding M, Peressutti D, Aljabar P, van der Stoep J, et al.  
23 Clinical evaluation of atlas and deep learning based automatic contouring for lung cancer.  
24 *Radiother Oncol.* 2018;126(2):312-7.

25 89. Bohoudi O, Bruynzeel AME, Senan S, Cuijpers JP, Slotman BJ, Lagerwaard FJ, et al.  
26 Fast and robust online adaptive planning in stereotactic MR-guided adaptive radiation  
27 therapy (SMART) for pancreatic cancer. *Radiother Oncol.* 2017;125(3):439-44.

28 90. Ahunbay EE, Peng C, Chen GP, Narayanan S, Yu C, Lawton C, et al. An on-line  
29 replanning scheme for interfractional variations. *Med Phys.* 2008;35(8):3607-15.

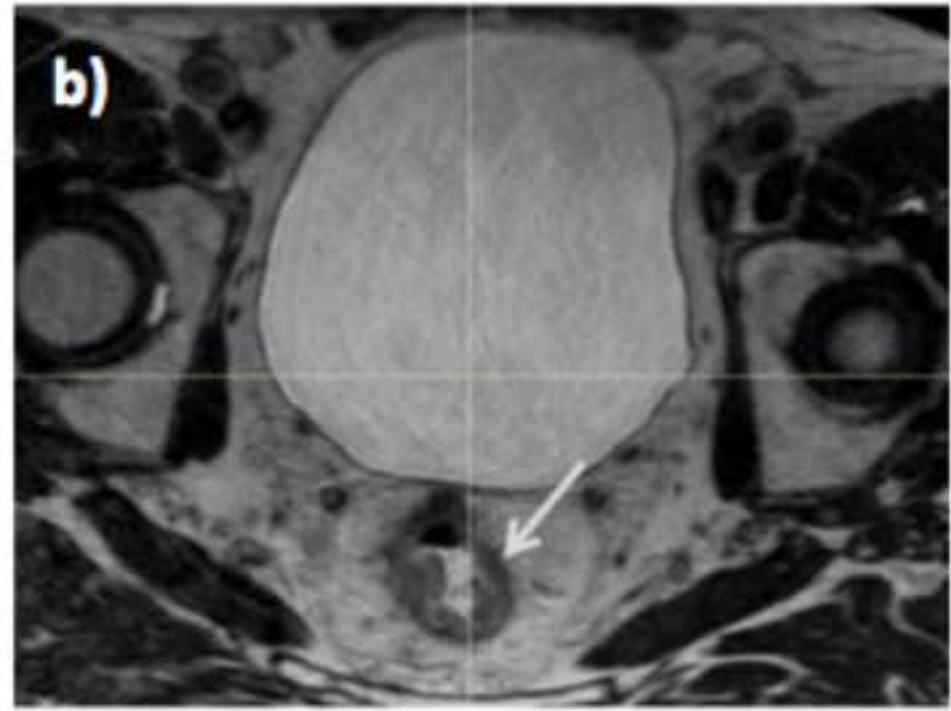
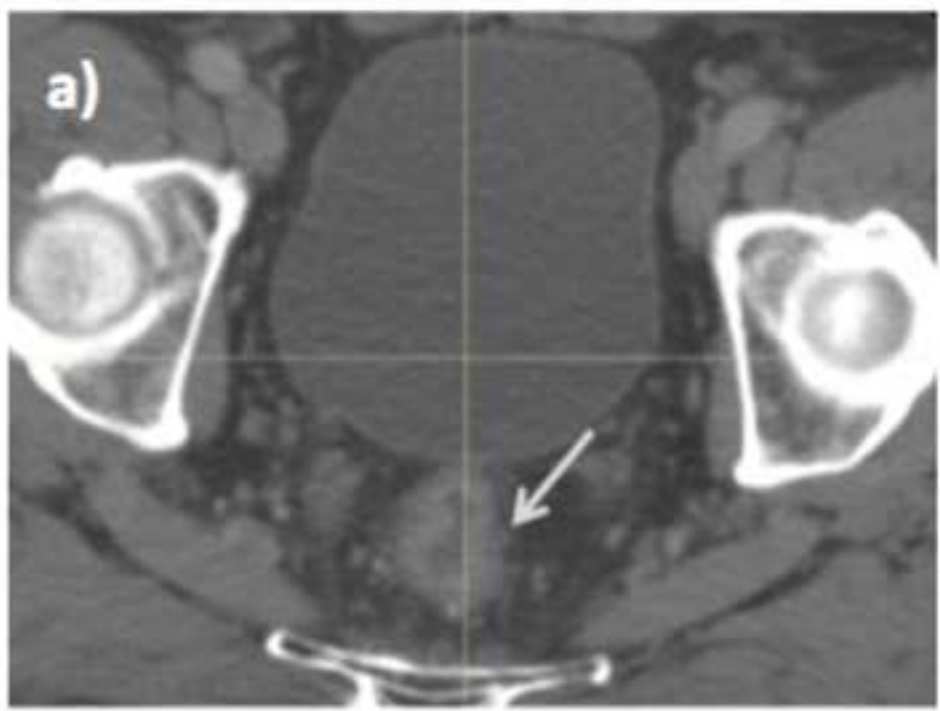
30 91. Mohan R, Zhang X, Wang H, Kang Y, Wang X, Liu H, et al. Use of deformed intensity  
31 distributions for on-line modification of image-guided IMRT to account for interfractional  
32 anatomic changes. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2005;61(4):1258-66.

33 92. Feng Y, Castro-Pareja C, Shekhar R, Yu C. Direct aperture deformation: an  
34 interfraction image guidance strategy. *Med Phys.* 2006;33(12):4490-8.

35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65

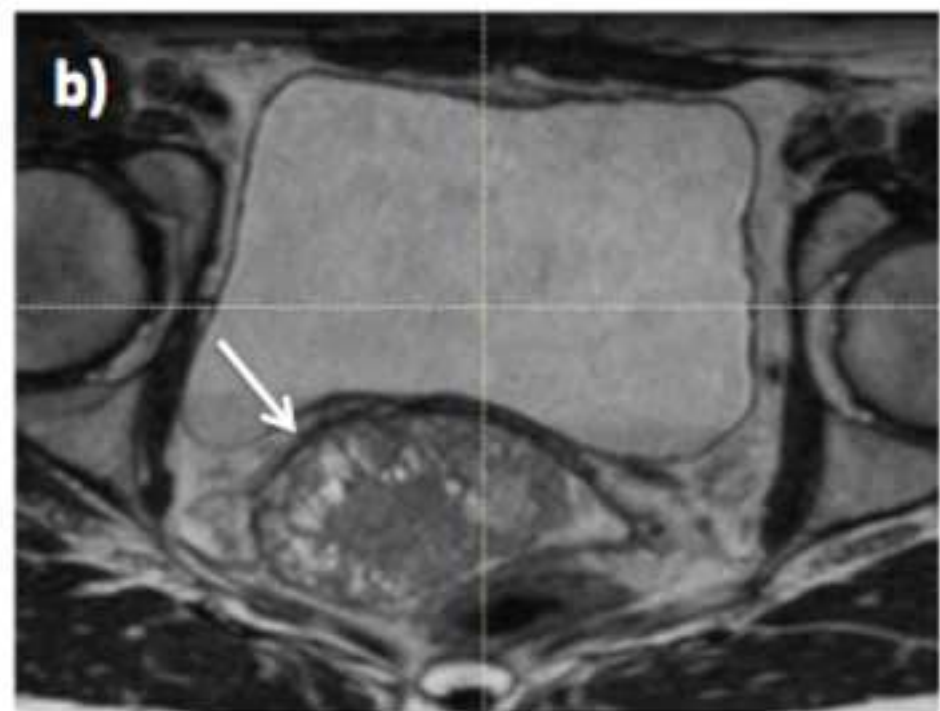
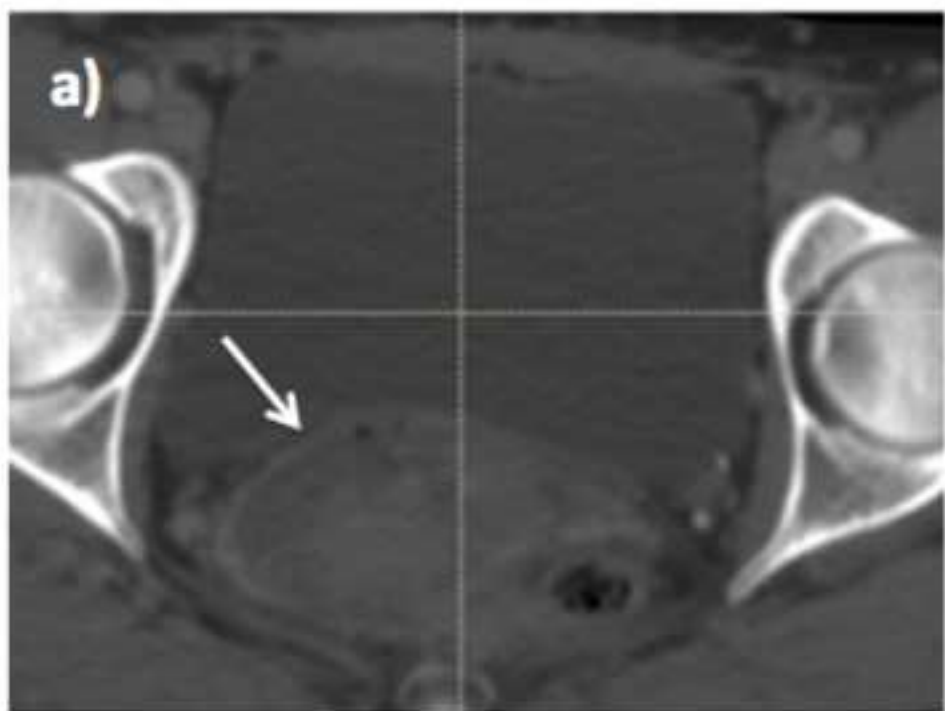
- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65
93. Ahunbay EE, Li XA. Gradient maintenance: A new algorithm for fast online replanning. *Med Phys*. 2015;42(6):2863-76.
94. Otto K. Real-time interactive treatment planning. *Phys Med Biol*. 2014;59(17):4845-59.
95. Ziegenhein P, Ph Kamerling C, Oelfke U. Interactive dose shaping part 1: a new paradigm for IMRT treatment planning. *Phys Med Biol*. 2016;61(6):2457-70.
96. Ziegenhein P, Kamerling CP, Bangert M, Kunkel J, Oelfke U. Performance-optimized clinical IMRT planning on modern CPUs. *Phys Med Biol*. 2013;58(11):3705-15.
97. Men C, Gu X, Choi D, Majumdar A, Zheng Z, Mueller K, et al. GPU-based ultrafast IMRT plan optimization. *Phys Med Biol*. 2009;54(21):6565-73.
98. Noel CE, Parikh PJ, Spencer CR, Green OL, Hu Y, Mutic S, et al. Comparison of onboard low-field magnetic resonance imaging versus onboard computed tomography for anatomy visualization in radiotherapy. *Acta Oncol*. 2015;54(9):1474-82.
99. Cellini F CG, Boldrini L, Massaccesi M, Mattiucci G, Antonelli M V, Frascino V, Luzi S, Manfrida S, Masiello V, Petrone A, Pollutri V, Votta C, Catucci F, Fionda B, Balducci M, Gambacorta M and Valentini V. EP-1501: Feasibility of MRgRT neoadjuvant treatment for locally advanced rectal cancer. *Radiotherapy and Oncology*. 2018;127:S814.
100. Ko HC, Huang JY, Miller JR, Das RK, Wallace CR, De Costa AA, et al. Novel use of ViewRay MRI guidance for high-dose-rate brachytherapy in the treatment of cervical cancer. *Brachytherapy*. 2018;17(4):680-8.





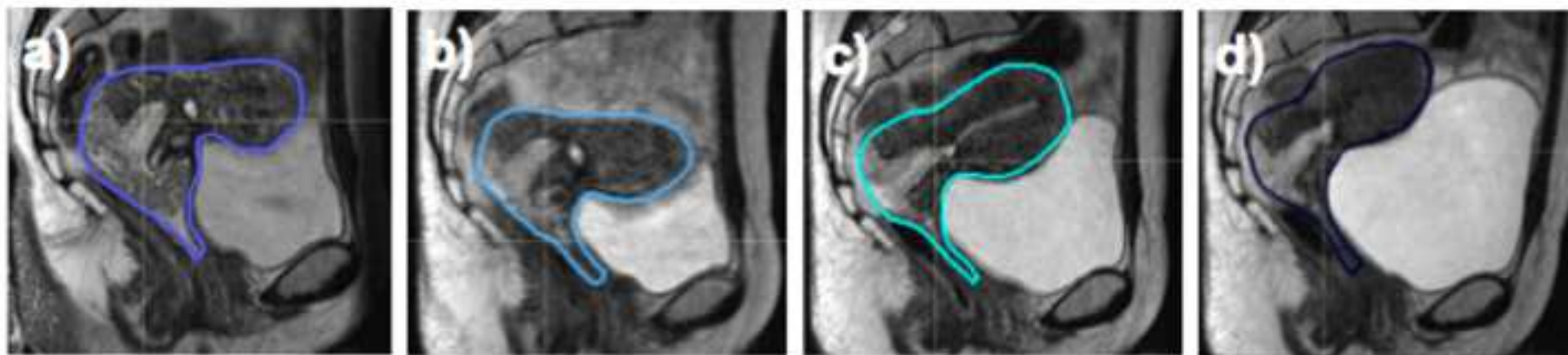
BJR UK

PROOFS



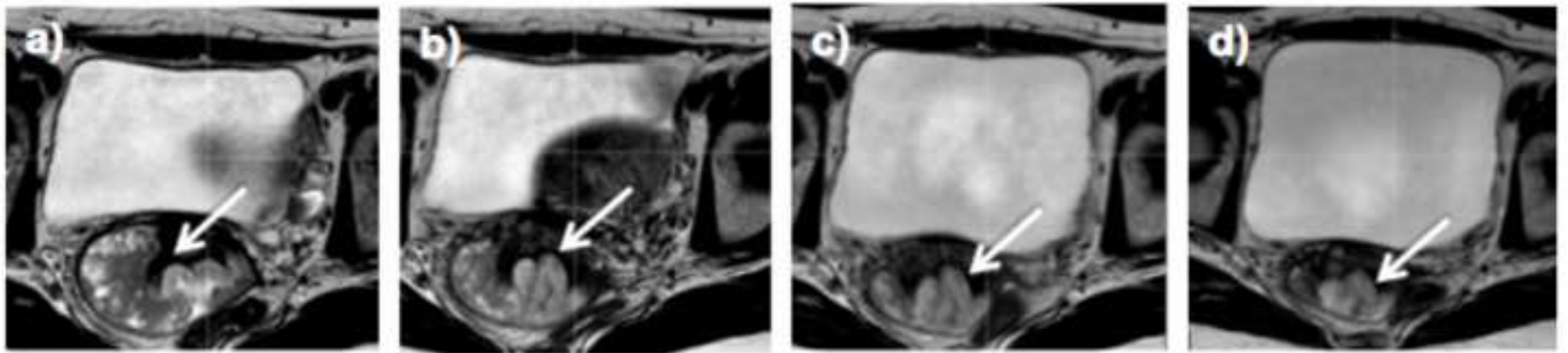
BJR UK

PROOFS



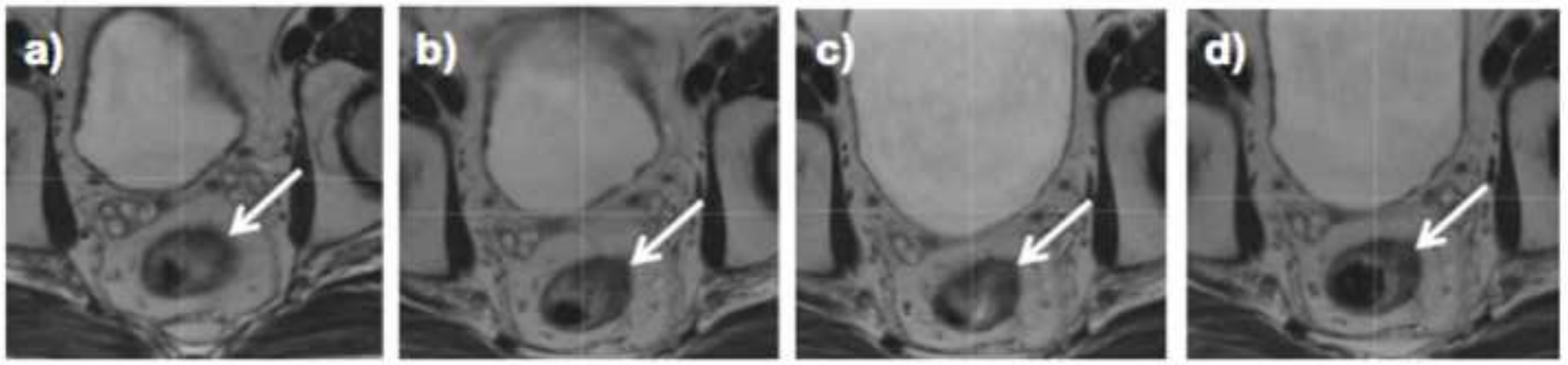
BJR UNCC

PROOFS



BJR UNCC

PROOFS



BJR UNCC

PROOFS

Figure 1. Radiotherapy planning imaging in a male patient with T3N1 rectal cancer; a) CT and b) MRI. On MRI the tumour (arrow) is easily differentiated from normal rectum, which is not possible on CT

Figure 2. Radiotherapy planning imaging in stage 2B cervix cancer (a) CT and (b) MRI. On MRI the cervix tumour (arrow) is easily differentiated from normal bladder and rectum, which is not possible on CT

Figure 3. Changes in clinical target volume position during cervix radiotherapy as seen on MRI at a) week 0, b) week 2, c) week 3 and d) week 4.

Figure 4. Changes in cervix tumour volume (arrow), as seen on weekly MRI during treatment at a) week 0, b) week 2, c) week 3 and d) week 4.

Figure 5. Changes in rectal tumour volume (arrow), as seen on weekly MRI during treatment at a) week 0, b) week 2, c) week 3 and d) week 4.

BJR UNCORRECTED PROOFS

Table 1. Contour delineation on MRI for cervix cancer

Ref	No of patients	Structures contoured/ Contour guidelines used	Method	MR sequence	Results
13	10	HRCTV and IRCTV  GEC/ESTRO guidelines	MRI versus CT  1 radiation oncologist	T2w Axial	HRCTV height, thickness and total volume were similar  Significant difference in width of HRCTV and IRCTV on CT compared to MRI  Significant difference in volume of HRCTV treated to prescription dose or more (MRI 96%, CT 86% $p \leq 0.01$ )
15	3	GTV, nodal CTV, uterus and parametrium  RTOG guidelines	Inter-observer variability  12 radiation oncologists	T2w Axial	High GTV agreement (sensitivity 0.54-0.92, specificity 0.97-0.98)  Moderate agreement for nodal CTV, uterus and parametrium (kappa statistic 0.45-0.77 $p < 0.0001$ )  Contouring variability largest at cervix and vagina
16	1	GTV Cervix, uterus, vagina and parametrium  RTOG guidelines	Inter-observer variability  19 radiation oncologists	T2w Axial	Good sensitivity and specificity for GVT (0.84 and 0.96 respectively)  Moderate agreement for cervix, uterus and vagina (kappa 0.42–0.57 $P < 0.001$ )  Parametrium good specificity 0.99 but low sensitivity 0.48
17	19	GTV, HRCTV and/IRCTV  GEC/ESTRO guidelines	Inter-observer variability  2 radiation oncologists	T2w Axial	No significant difference in mean volume of GTV and HRCTV $p > 0.05$ Significant difference in mean volume IRCTV $p < 0.05$  Conformity indices (range); GTV 0.6 (0.1- 0.9), HRCTV 0.7 (0.4- 0.8) and IRCTV 0.7 (0.5- 0.8)
18	6	GTV HR-CTV  GEC-ESTRO guidelines	Inter-observer variability  10 radiation oncologists	T2w Axial	Mean relative SD of 8–10% for GTV and HRCTV D <sub>90</sub>  Mean relative SD for D <sub>2cc</sub> was 5–8% for rectum and bladder, 11% for sigmoid
19	13	HRCTV  GEC/ESTRO guidelines	Inter-observer variability  2 experienced observers	T2w Transverse versus para- transverse plane	Interplane conformity index did not differ significantly between observers (0.72v 0.71) Interobserver conformity index between planes was not significantly different (0.79v 0.78)  Contouring on para-transverse plane was quicker  No significant difference in DVH of plans using contours from transverse or para-transverse planes
23	20	Elective pelvic LN volume	MRI with iron oxide particles to delineate LNs and establish pelvic LN contouring guidelines	T2w with administration of iron oxide particles	Blood vessels with a 7 mm margin, edited off muscle and bone, are a good surrogate target for the elective pelvic LN volume

HRCTV= High risk clinical target volume

IRCTV= Intermediate risk clinical target volume

GTV= Gross tumour volume

RTOG= Radiation therapy oncology group

GEC/ESTRO= Group European de Curietherapie and European Society for Radiotherapy and Oncology

LN= Lymph node

BJR UNCORRECTED PROOFS



Table 2. Contour delineation on MRI for rectal cancer

Reference	No of patients	Structures contoured	Method	MR sequence	Results
12	10	GTV (entire rectal wall at level of tumour)	MRI v CT (MR<2-3/52 from CT) 1 radiologist	T2w sagittal	CT overestimated all tumour radiological parameters  Mean MRI GTV volume 18 cm <sup>3</sup> smaller than on CT p<0.05  Mean MRI GTV length, max width and distance of proximal tumour to anal verge significantly less than on CT (mean reduction 3.2 cm, 0.5 cm, 2.9 cm respectively) p<0.05
20	15	GTV	MRI V CT  1x radiologist in consultation with 1x radiation oncologist	T2 axial	Mean CT-GTV/ MRI- GTV volume ratio was 1.2cc (range 0.5- 2.9)  CT-GTV coverage inadequate for tumours with sigmoid or anal invasion and in the 2 cases this occurred there was significant underestimation of GTV on CT.
14	24	GTV	MRI T2 v DWI  Inter-observer variation  3 radiation oncologists	T2w, DWI and a combination of both  Axial	T2 GTV volumes significantly larger than on DWI (approx. 2-3 x larger)  No significant difference between observers per modality (mean conformity index 0.7 for T2w and 0.71 for DWI)  Mean distance between contours T2= 1.8 mm and DWI= 1.5 mm
21	27	GTV	MRI T2w v DWI  Inter-observer variation  2 radiologists	T2w v DWI axial	T2W MRI GTVs were slightly larger but not statistically different from DWI volumes  Inter-observer mean difference in volume was not improved with DWI  Mean difference and 95% limits of agreement for T2W MRI and DWI GTVs were -9.8 (-55 to 35) cm <sup>3</sup> and -14.8 (-54 to 24.4) cm <sup>3</sup> respectively.
22	50	GTV	MRI pre and post CRT  Inter-observer variation  2 radiologists  Histology reference standard for post CRT radiology	Pre and Post CRT DWI and T2w MRI axial	Pre CRT MRI; Inter-observer agreement for T2w and DWI was excellent (ICC 0.97)  ICC all modalities; pre CRT 0.91- 0.96 and post CRT 0.61- 0.79  ROC for post CRT volume T2w= 0.7, DWI= 0.93 and ADC=0.54

GTV= Gross tumour volume

CRT= Chemoradiotherapy

ICC= intraclass correlation coefficient

ROC = receiver operating characteristic

Table 3 Interfraction motion in cervix cancer radiotherapy

Ref	Target Measured	No of Pts	Imaging modality and Frequency	Method of measurement/ registration	Statistic used	Motion (mm)			Suggested Margins (mm)			Volume change	Bladder/ rectum correlation
						AP	LR	SI	AP	LR	SI		
31	Cervix	16	Weekly CT	Cervix COM  Cervix contour	Mean max Range  Mean max	16 5.1-25  A=17 P=18	8.2 4.4-14  L=9.4 R=7.6	21 12-33  S=23 I=13				Cervix volume reduced by mean 62.3% after 45Gy	Bladder volume affects AP and SI but not lateral margins
32	Cervix Uterus	20	MR at baseline and weekly x5	Cervical os Uterine canal Uterine fundus  Cervical os Uterine canal Uterine fund us	Grand mean  Mean range	2.4 -4.8 -4.6  11.2 13.1 14.5		1.5 5.7 7.8  11.3 15.7 24.4	Isotropic internal margin to encompass 90% of motion was 40 mm at the fundus and 15 mm at the cervix			Significant reduction in bladder volume during RT.  No systematic change in rectosigmoid volume.	Bladder volume associated with SI motion of fundus and AP motion of cervical os. Rectal volume associated with SI motion of uterine canal and cervical os.
33	Cervix Uterus Upper vagina	33	MR on 2 days 24hrs apart	Post cervix Uterine body Upper vagina	Mean (SD)  CTV-PTV margins	2.7 (2.8) 7 (9) 2.6 (3)	0.3 (0.8) 0.8 (1.3) 0.3 (1)	4.1 (4.4) 7.1 (6.8)	15 30 11	7 8	13 25 7		SI uterine motion correlated to bladder filling. AP cervix and vaginal motion related to rectal filling
34	GTV CTV	20	MR at baseline and weekly	GTV  CTV	Margin to encompass 95% cases (internal motion)				A=12 P=14  A=24 P=17	R=12 L=11  R=12 L=16	S=4 I=8  S=11 I=8	Significant regression GTV p<0.001  Mean GTV 57cc week 0, 43.3cc, 32cc and 23cc at weeks 2, 3 and 4	AP shift in GTV and CTV weakly correlated with rectal vol. Significant difference in margins required if pre-treat rectum volume > 70 cc.
27	CTV	10	Daily CBCT	COM	Mean SD Range	3 5 -9.4-18.9	-0.28 1.3 +3.3- 3.5	-4.6 3.9 -15.3- 3.8	Mean margin to encompass CTV motion=15 mm, but fails in 32%  Margins up to 30 mm could be required to ensure coverage in ≥95% fractions.			Mean reduction in CTV of 20% (586.4 to 469cc)  Mean bladder volume relative to the planning CT -48.5 cc	Increased rectal and bladder volume associated with significant superior shifts (P<0.001)
35	Cervix	10	Daily EPID	Cervix fiducials	Mean of mean Random error Internal motion	3.5 3.9	3.7 2.2	4.1 3.7	9.7	10.8	8.9		
36	Cervix	15	Portal films weekly	Radiopaque ring	Median Max	16 23	10 24	8 36				50% reduction in tumour size at 30Gy (21 days)	
37	Cervix	10	Daily 2D kvi	Cervix fiducials	Mean SD Max	4.2 3.5 18	1.9 1.9 14	4.1 3.2 18					
38	Cervix	10	MVCT daily	Cervix contour  Uterus contour  95% margin for internal motion and set up	Mean SD Mean SD	A=0.4 P=-3 A=10.1 P=6.9 A=3.3 P=0.3 A=11.9 P=11.7	L=-3.5 R=0.2 L=4.9 R=4.5 L=0.7 R=-0.6 L=8.1 R=7.5	S=2.2 I=0.5 S=8 I=5 S=6.1 I=5 S=11.6 I=11.2	A=17 P=12  A=19 P=19	R=8 L=9  R=13 L=13	S=15 I=9  S=20 I=19	Significant reduction in mean cervix volume (106 cc pre-treatment to 74 cc last week of treatment)	Average bladder volume reduced from 156 cc in wk1 to 88 cc in the last week (p < 0.01).
39	Cervix	20	MRI baseline and weekly x5	GTV Cervix Uterus	Euclidean vector displacement	1.2 +/- 0.4 (0.5-3) 1.1 +/- 0.3 (0.5- 2.8) 1.7 +/- 0.2 (0.5- 4.5)			15mm GTV to PTV margin covered the GTV to >98% of prescription dose			The relative reduction in the GTV from baseline to the end treatment was	Individually, the planned dose was not the same as the simulated delivered

			Upper vagina	0.7 +/- 0.3 (0.3- 1.3)		48-96%.	dose
--	--	--	--------------	------------------------	--	---------	------

BJR UNCORRECTED PROOFS

Table 4 Inter and Intrafraction motion in rectal cancer

Ref	Target Measured	No of Pts	Imaging modality and Frequency	Method of measurement/ registration	Statistic used	Motion (mm)			Suggested Margins (mm)			Volume change	Other
						AP	LR	SI	AP	LR	SI		
40	GTV Rectum Mesorectum	17	RTP CT Wk1, 3 and 5	Displacement of points on GTV, rectum and mesorectum surface	Mean (SD) GTV Rectum Mesorectum	0.7 (3.1) 1.1 (5.1) 1.1 (2.7)	-1.2 (2.8) -0.2 (4.5) -0.3 (2.2)	4.2 (3.6)	A=14 P=7 A=8 P=9 A=7 P=6	L=7 R=8 L=8 R=8 L=5 R=4	S=16 I=12		Greatest motion of rectum in upper 1/3  No correlation of motion direction and bladder filling
41	Mesorectum	10	Helical MVCT before and after treatment x2/week	Contour displacement by bony landmarks	Mean (SD)  Margins for intrafraction motion and set up	A=-2(6.8) P=-0.4 (3.8)	L=-1.6(4.2) R=0.1(4)	S=-3.2(5.6) I=-3.2(6.8)	A=11 P=7	8	S=10 I=12		If new margins applied instead of standard 1 cm margins, there would be an average decrease in PTV by 21.5% (SD, 1.45%).
28	Rectum	16	CBCT D1-3, then weekly  GTV to PTV margin	Upper rectum  Mid rectum  Low rectum	Mean of mean Mean of SD  Mean of mean Mean of SD  Mean of mean Mean of SD	A= -4 P=-0.1 A= 7.4 P= 4.2  A= -1 P=-0.1 A= 7 P= 3.6  A= 1.8 P= 1.2 A= 4.2 P= 4.7	L= 1.3 R=-2.8 L= 6.9 R= 5.2  L= -0.4 R= 0 L= 5.1 R= 4.1  L= 0.1 R=0.0 L= 3 R= 3	A=17 P=14.4  A=16.7 P=14.9  A=14.2 P=16	L=4.2 R=4.2  L=11 R=10.3  L=9 R=10.1		No significant change in rectal volume on CBCT compared to baseline CT	No relationship between rectal and bladder volume and time  Significant day to day bladder volume variation	
42	CTV Rectum	10	Weekly RTP CT  CTV  Rectum	At AV 5.5cm from anus 9cm from anus  At anus 4.5cm from anus 9cm from anus	CTV SD of motion  Rectum SD of motion	A=3-4 A=6 A=10  P= No motion  P=4 P=7 P=2  A= 'very similar to CTV'	No motion observed  Motion similar to CTV, ie. no motion						Motion dependent on location in pelvis  Increased motion of CTV at ≥5.5cm from anus caused by bladder filling  Biggest motion at 10 cm from anus  The biggest difference in CTV volume between a full and empty bladder was 51 cm <sup>3</sup>
43	Mesorectum	63	Repeat RTP CT  LCRT daily CT for 1 <sup>st</sup> week and then weekly.  SCRT cohort daily CT	LCRT Upper Mesorectum Lower mesorectum  SCRT Upper Mesorectum Lower Mesorectum	PTV margins for 95% prescribed dose to 90% patients				A= 24 P=7  A=15 P=7  A=32 P=7  A=18 P=7	L=7 R=7  L=7 R=7  L=7 R=7  L=10 R=10	S=10 I=10  S=10 I=10  S=10 I=10  S=10 I=10	Significant reduction in rectal volume in LCRT by 35%  Reduced bladder volume during RT	Significant reduction in rectal volume resulted in 5 mm post shift of upper ant CTV

Table 5: Different demands of MRI acquired for diagnostic and radiotherapy purposes in cervix and rectal cancer

	<b>MRI for diagnosis</b>	<b>MRI for radiotherapy</b>
<b>Couch</b>	Soft, often concave Maximised for patient comfort	Needs to be flat, the same as in RT delivery
<b>Patient positioning</b>	Comfortable Supine	As for RT delivery Supine
<b>Immobilisation devices</b>	None	Combifix knee support to stabilise pelvis
<b>Bowel artefact management</b>	IM Buscopan Anterior abdominal wall compression Saturation bands	IM Buscopan may be used in MRI simulation but may not be acceptable during daily treatment within MRI treatment workflow
<b>Bladder status</b>	Empty	Full
<b>Coil placement</b>	Pelvic coil centred on tumour	Anterior coil supports prevent distortion of external body contour Customised MR simulators may incorporate posterior coils into a flat couch
<b>Field strength</b>	Increasing strength improves signal to noise, but is more expensive and requires more room	Increasing field strength increases geometric distortion
<b>Coverage</b>	High resolution FOV limited to tumour	High resolution FOV must encompass entire tumour target Sequences including external body contour required for dose calculation
<b>Preferred Sequence</b>	2d T2w high resolution at tumour with <3 mm slice thickness and voxel size <1 mm Imaging plane perpendicular to the rectum or cervical canal	T2w 3d <1 mm isotropic voxel size for target delineation Imaging plane true axial acquired perpendicular to the system
<b>Geometric accuracy</b>	Less important	Essential to localise the target
<b>Electron density/ material composition information</b>	Not required	Not required in a CT/ MRI combined workflow, but essential in MR-only simulation and MR treatment workflow

Table 6: Magnetic resonance image guidance radiotherapy systems

	<b>Elekta Unity MR Linac</b> (72, 76)	<b>ViewRay MRIdian Cobalt 60</b> (73, 77)	<b>ViewRay MRIdian Linac</b>	<b>Australian MRI-Linac</b> (74)	<b>Canadian Aurora Magnet X MR Linac</b> (75)
<b>Magnet</b>	1.5 T closed	0.35 T split bore	0.35 T split bore	1.0 T split bore	0.5 T biplanar rotating geometry
<b>Radiotherapy source</b>	7 MV	3 Cobalt-60 heads	6 MV	6 MV	6 MV
<b>MLC effective leaf width at isocentre</b>	0.72 cm	1.05 cm	0.83 cm		
<b>MLC maximum leaf speed</b>	6 cm/sec	2.0 ± 0.1 cm/sec	> 2cm/ sec		
<b>Magnetic field orientation to delivery</b>	Perpendicular	Perpendicular	Perpendicular	Perpendicular and parallel	Perpendicular and parallel
<b>Bore Size</b>	70 cm	70 cm	70 cm	50 cm	60 cm
<b>Magnetic field homogeneity</b>	≤ 2.0 ppm over 50x 50x 45 cm <sup>3</sup>	<25 ppm over 45 cm DSV	<25 ppm over 45 cm DSV		
<b>Maximum imaging field of view</b>	50 cm DSV	50 cm DSV	50 cm DSV		
<b>Maximum treatment field size</b>	57.4x 22 cm <sup>2</sup>	27.3x 27.3 cm <sup>2</sup>	27.4x 24.1 cm <sup>2</sup>		
<b>4D capabilities</b>	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No
<b>Functional imaging</b>	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No
<b>Treating patients</b>	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No
<b>CE Marked/ FDA approved</b>	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No

MLC= Multileaf collimator

DSV= Diameter of spherical volume

Ppm= Parts per million