

SURGICAL MANAGEMENT OF  
**ADVANCED  
PELVIC CANCER**

EDITED BY  
MICHAEL E. KELLY AND DESMOND C. WINTER



WILEY Blackwell



## **Surgical Management of Advanced Pelvic Cancer**



# **Surgical Management of Advanced Pelvic Cancer**

*Edited by Michael E. Kelly and Desmond C. Winter*

*St. Vincent's University Hospital  
Dublin, Ireland*

**WILEY** Blackwell

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## Preface

The management of advanced pelvic malignancies has evolved substantially over the last few decades. This book aims to outline all aspects of patient care, from perioperative decision-making and prehabilitation, to treatment strategies, operative approaches, and more. The topics discussed are succinctly covered by experts from around the world. Key recommendations and references highlight international consensus on optimal treatment planning.

This book is only possible by the immense effort and involvement of the entire PelvEx Collaborative network. First established in

2015, PelvEx has grown to include over one-hundred institutions across the globe. Our mission is to provide a platform for clinical studies and trials to improve perioperative and survival outcomes, while ensuring better quality of life for patients with advanced pelvic malignancy. We would like to thank everyone involved in PelvEx, the contributors who have made this book possible, and you for reading it. We hope you find it useful and informative.

*Michael E. Kelly & Desmond C. Winter*  
On Behalf of the PelvEx Collaborative





## 1

## From Early Pioneers to the PelvEx Collaborative

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### Background

Pelvic exenteration, involving radical multivisceral resection of the pelvic organs, represents the best treatment option. The first report of pelvic exenteration was in 1948 by Alexander Brunschwig of the Memorial Hospital (New York USA), as a palliative procedure for cervical cancer [1]. Due to high morbidity and mortality rates many considered palliative exenteration too radical, and it was performed only in a small number of centers in North America [2].

Technologic advancements, surgical innovations, and improved perioperative care facilitated the evolution of safer and more radical exenterative techniques for the treatment of advanced gastrointestinal and urogynecological malignancies [3]. Worldwide collaborative data [4, 5] have demonstrated that a negative resection margin is crucial in predicting survival and quality of life after surgery. Carefully selected patients who undergo en-bloc resection of contiguously involved anatomic structures with R0 resection margins can expect good long-term survival with acceptable levels of morbidity [4, 5].

### The Pioneers

Eugene M. Bricker (Columbia, USA), a contemporary of Brunschwig, had been independently performing exenterative procedures beginning in 1940 [6]. Due to adverse outcomes and the interruption of World War II, his experience remained unpublished [6]. Jesse E. Thompson (Dallas, USA), one of the founders of vascular surgery as a subspecialty, and Chester W. Howe (Boston, USA) reported the first case of “complete pelvic evisceration” for locally advanced rectal cancer (LARC) in 1950. Other early advocates of the concept included Lyon H. Appleby (Vancouver, Canada), who performed a procedure he termed a “proctocystectomy” [7], and Edgar S. Brintnall (a general and vascular surgeon) and Rubin H. Flocks (an early urologist from Iowa, USA), who termed their procedure “pelvic viscerectomy” [8].

### Brunschwig's Operation

While elsewhere PE was being developed principally for patients with LARC, in New York, Alexander Brunschwig was performing PE as

a palliative procedure for locally advanced gynecologic malignancies. Before the introduction of PE, the prognosis for locally advanced cervical cancer was particularly poor. External beam radiation therapy was the mainstay of management. Local extension commonly occurred and cure rates were as low as 20% for primary disease [9]. Forty percent of deaths were the result of advanced disease confined to the pelvis [10]. Patients with end-stage malignancy suffered refractory pain, as well as intestinal and ureteric obstruction as major complications [11, 12].

Brunschwig, who had been among the first to report a one-stage radical pancreaticoduodenectomy in 1937 [1, 13], observed that PE was a “procedure of desperation since all other attempts to control the disease had failed.” Initially his only selection criterion was that disease must be “confined to the pelvis.” Interestingly, “not a single patient refused the operation even after detailed explanation of the procedure and the complications associated with surgery” [1]. The operative approach was similar (Figure 1.1).

Although Many surgeons were critical, considering it “a thoughtless form of mutilation, with limited chance of success for palliation, much less cure” [14]. In the earliest series, the survival outcomes were poor, with one in every three operations resulting in perioperative mortality [1, 15]. In Brunschwig’s 1948 article, he reported operating on 22 patients with 5 deaths. [4].

By 1950, Bricker was also investigating the role of PE in the management of cervical cancer. His first patient, despite widespread local invasion, had a disease-free survival of 42 years [6]. The suitability of PE for the management of cervical and other gynecological cancers was later confirmed by Brunschwig in several series [16, 17]. In the ensuing decades, several units (mostly in North America) increasingly performed PE for advanced cancer of the vulva [18], ovary [19], and prostate [20], and for pelvic sarcoma [21]. The first documented non-malignant application for PE

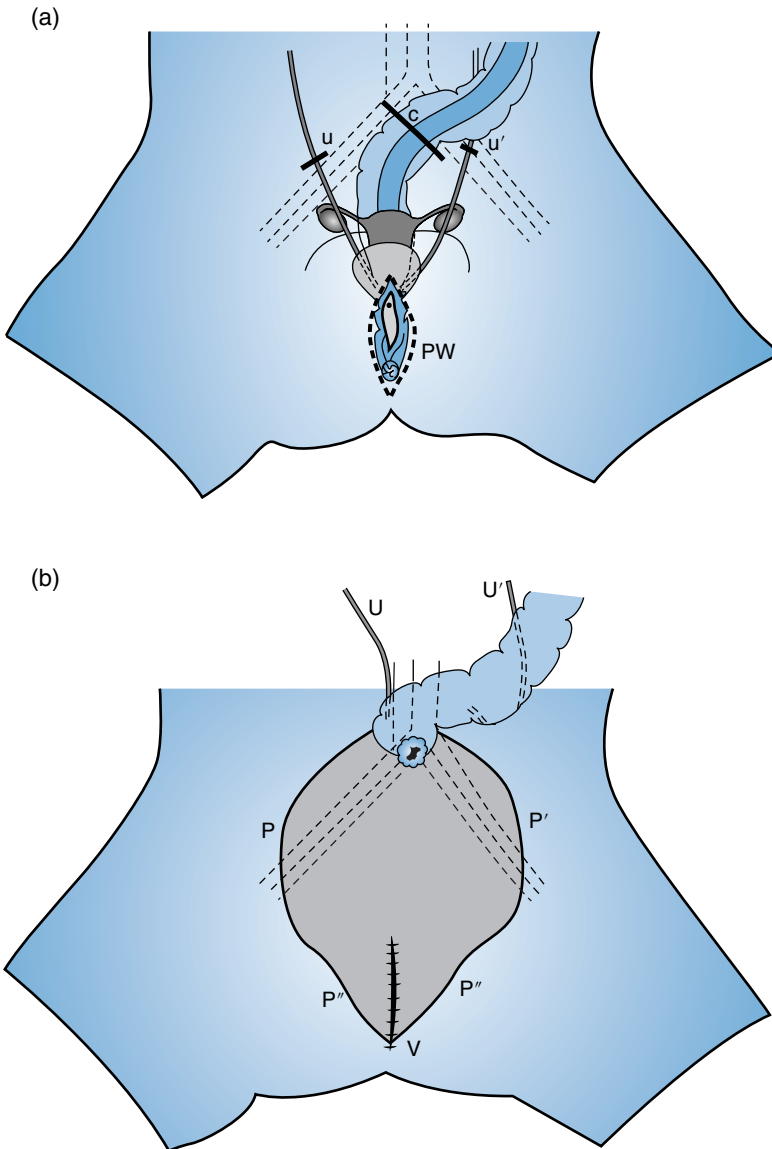
was for management of severe radiation necrosis of several pelvic organs in 1951. This remained a relatively common indication for PE until more contemporary radiation therapies became available [22].

## Evolution in Pelvic Exenterative Surgery

### Urinary Reconstruction

The key challenge in extended pelvic resection was urinary tract reconstruction. Though urinary diversion techniques had been described since 1852, leakage and infection issues resulted in many modifications in technique over the last century [23]. In 1909, Verhoogan and De Graeuwe (Brussels, Belgium) implanted ureters into an isolated segment of terminal ileum draining via an appendicostomy [24]. However, isolated ileal segments temporarily fell out of use [25]. Over the next three decades, Robert C. Coffey (Oregon, USA) experimented with various methods of bladder substitution by implanting ureters into the residual colon [26, 27]. Although he presented his outcomes in 1925 they were never published because “exposure of the ureters and kidneys to the fecal stream often led to sepsis, hyperchloremic acidosis, and kidney failure” [24]. Brunschwig’s favored technique of “wet colostomy” was essentially reproduction of Coffey’s method and suffered from the same shortcomings [22].

Other pioneers interested in this type of surgery had also attempted the creation of artificial bladders from bowel or alternatively developing cutaneous ureterostomies [22]. Appleby (Vancouver, Canada) examined the possibility of transferring both ureters to an intact cecum draining through a sigmoid colostomy, but with limited effect [7]. Similarly, Bricker created a diversion that involved isolation of a cecal segment “to be drained intermittently of urine through a catheter” [6]. Gilchrist and colleagues reported attaining successful

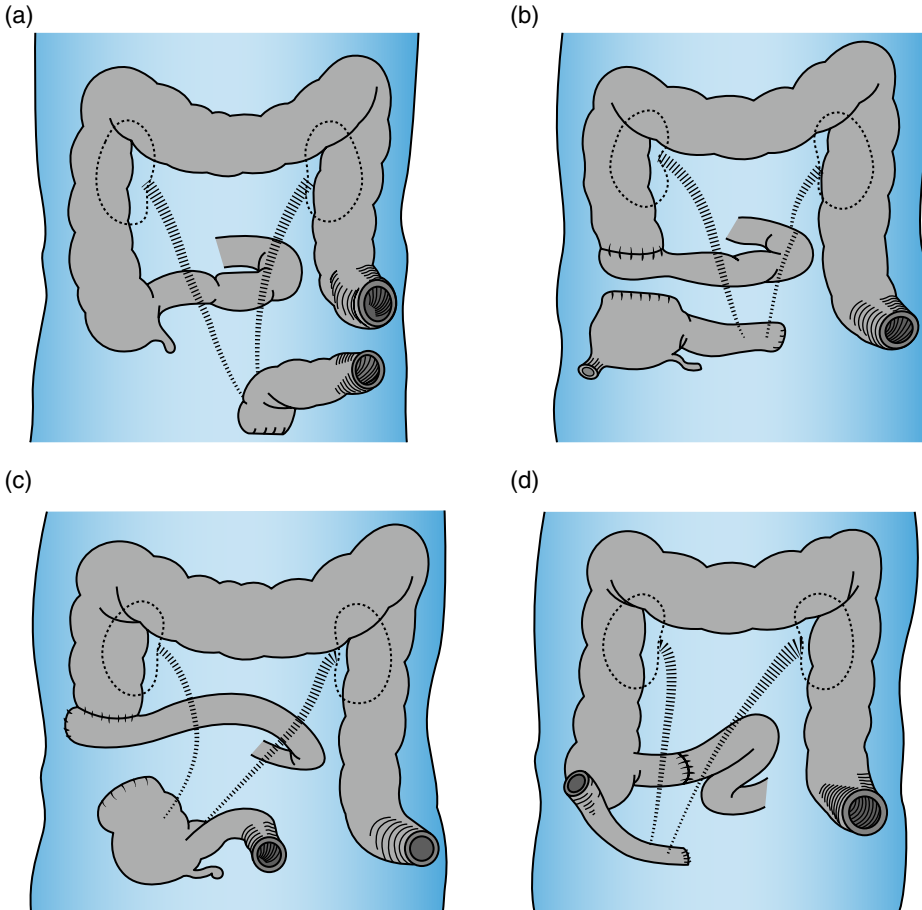


**Figure 1.1** (a) Levels of transection of the ureters (U) and colon (C) and incision encompassing the vulva (V) and anus (PW) from Brunshwig's original article. (b) Conditions at end of operation, indicating areas of peritonectomy (shaded area, P, P', P'', and P'''). Midline colostomy is shown with both ureters (U and U') implanted into the colon a short distance above colostomy. Copyright © 1948 American Cancer Society. Source: Reproduced with permission from John Wiley & Sons Ltd. [1].

continence with the construction of an intra-abdominal reservoir from isolated cecum draining via the terminal ileum [28]. However, Bricker was unable to duplicate these results and chronic leakage of urine frustrated clinicians and patients alike (Figure 1.2) [29].

### The Koenig–Rutzen Bag

In 1944, Alfred Strauss (Chicago, USA) encouraged a young engineering student named Koenig who had an ileostomy following colectomy for ulcerative colitis to develop an



**Figure 1.2** Diagram from Bricker's original article on urinary diversion demonstrating the evolution of various intestinal reconstruction techniques, including bilateral ureteric anastomosis to an isolated segment of sigmoid colon (A), terminal ileum with cecal reservoir (B), cecum with terminal ileum for urinary drainage tract (C), and contemporary ileal conduit (D). Copyright © 1950 Surgical Clinics of North America. Source: Reproduced with permission from Elsevier [29].

ileostomy appliance. Koenig designed a slender bag with a circular faceplate to accommodate the stoma. This was held in place with a latex sealant, Koenig formed a commercial partnership with Rutzen and the device was known as the Koenig–Rutzen bag. When Bricker heard of the device, he and his colleagues began to direct their efforts toward refining the construction of the uretero-ileal conduit [24].

### Evolution of the Uretero-Ileal Conduit

By the late 1950s, the ileal conduit became the established urinary diversion technique, and the high mortality and morbidity rates associated with pelvic exenteration began to decline [30]. In particular the procedure avoided the complications of implanting ureters into an intact colon and could be fashioned from ileum that was undisturbed by any pre-existing

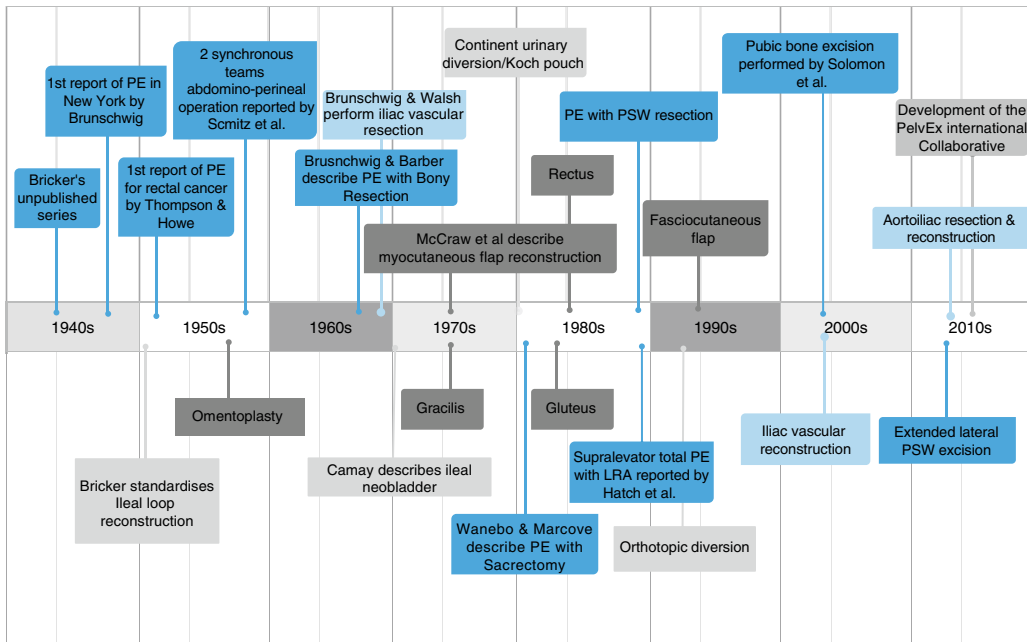
radiotherapeutic field [31]. Despite these benefits, the complex nature of exenterative surgery made significant postoperative complications associated with urinary diversion were considered unavoidable, particularly the development of urinary fistulas [15, 32]. Brunschwig observed that, in patients who survived > 5 years “the most frequent subsequent cause of death is the deterioration of the diverted urinary tract” [33]. He advocated continuous surveillance of the urinary diversion and for the early use of temporary or permanent nephrostomy tubes for any evidence of obstruction [33].

Today, en-bloc cystectomy is required in approximately half of all patients undergoing pelvic exenteration [34–37]. Despite much progress, postoperative urological complications remain a major cause of morbidity, prolonging hospital admission and impacting on quality of life [35]. Major complication rates between 9 and 24% are reported, with urinary leak rates occurring in 7–16% of patient [35–37]. Newer techniques for continent urinary diversion, such as the internal ileal pouch reservoir [38, 39], remain controversial. Alternatives like the

Indiana pouch and the Miami pouch are suitable in highly selected patients [40, 41].

### Subspecialization and Partial Exenteration

The synchronous abdomino-perineal pelvic exenteration performed by the majority of exenterative units today was adapted from the technique for LARC described by Schmitz (Chicago, USA) in 1959 [42]. Over time it was recognized that the malignancy did not always extend to all of the adjacent pelvic organs. Consequently, partial exenteration was described, preserving urinary and/or rectal function. The later part of the twentieth century also saw the intensification of surgical subspecialization, driven in part by returning surgical veterans from World War II who had gained experience in specialties such as orthopedics and plastic and reconstructive surgery. The rapid subspecialization that ensued, combined with major advances in perioperative care, including intensive care and cardiac monitoring contributed to the progress seen in exenterative surgery (Figure 1.3) [2].



**Figure 1.3** Evolution of pelvic exenterative surgery.

## Composite Pelvic Exenterations

The development of compartmentalization of the pelvis and of partial exenteration resulted in more targeted approaches. Bone resection was necessary for tumors involving the sacrum, coccyx, ischium, pubic symphysis, and/or ischiopubic rami [2]. Recent collaborative data show that bone resection (where needed) along with R0 margins are the most important factors influencing overall survival following PE for LRRC [5]. Disease proximal to the S1/S2 level was considered unresectable in many centers, and this represents another challenge [43–46].

Brunschwig and Barber reported a series of 28 patients, perioperative mortality was 29%, with five-year survival of 15% [47]. These initial outcomes discouraged many from pursuing en-bloc bone resection. Research and better operative techniques developed for the management of sacral chordomas rekindled interest in composite PE in the 1980s [48]. Wanebo and Marcove (Charlottesville, USA) described the abdominal-trans-sacral approach for resecting LARC with sacral extension in 1981 (Figure 1.4) [49]. The initial dissection of the intrapelvic organs was accomplished through the traditional anterior approach followed by resection of the sacrum with the patient repositioned lying prone [46, 49]. Takagi and colleagues (Nagoya, Japan) encountered no postoperative mortality with this technique [50].

These outcomes stimulated research into the role of composite sacral resection for LARC and led to various units undertaking more radical resections, reporting morbidity rates between 40 and 91%, with < 5% perioperative mortality and five-year survival of almost 50% [51–55]. In recent years, specialist units developed techniques for en-bloc partial sacral resection. Hemisacrectomy, a procedure involving resection of the anterior cortex of the sacrum to preserve the sacral nerve roots, and segmental sacrectomy are alternatives [55–59].

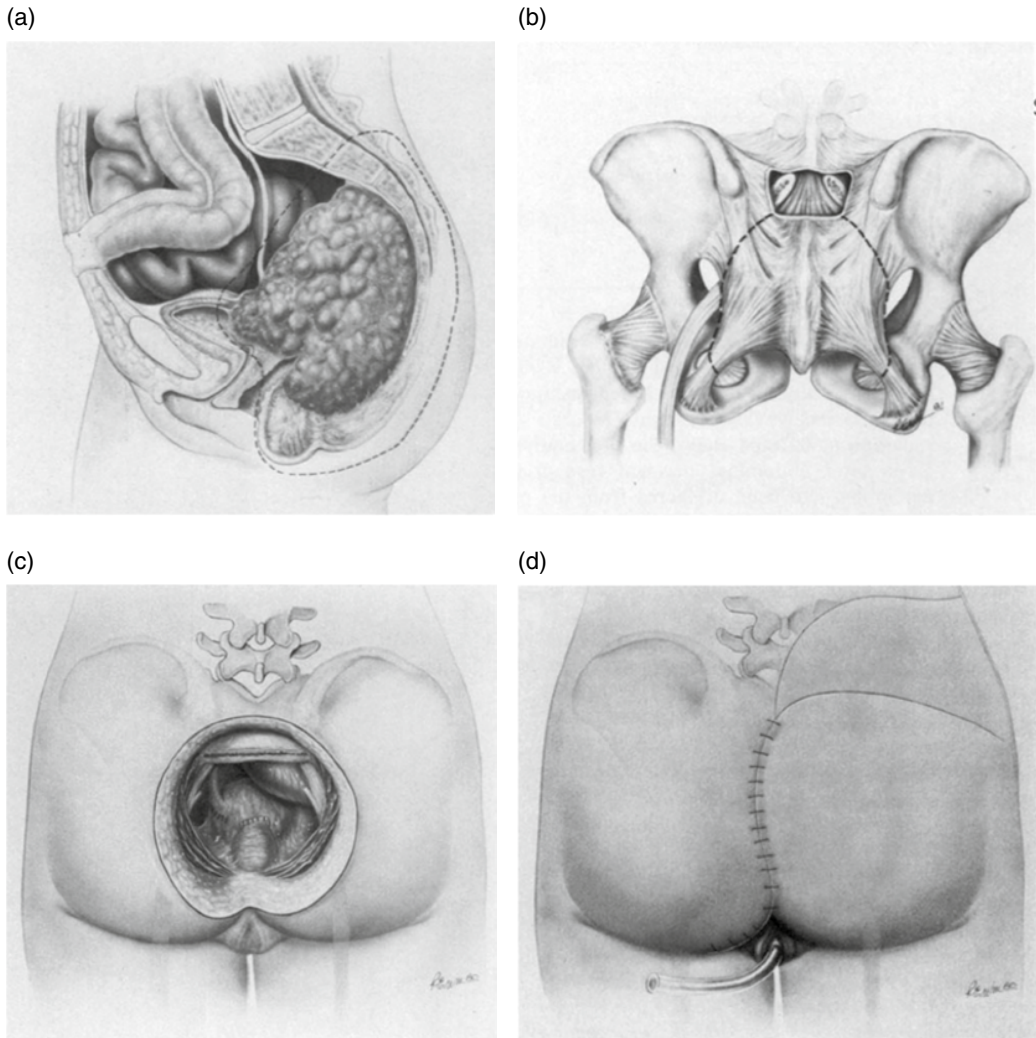
## Lateral Pelvic Sidewall Resection

Brunschwig and Walsh described “resection of the great veins of the lateral pelvic wall” to gain clearance for advanced gynecological tumors in the late 1940s [60]. However, extension of pelvic cancer into the pelvic sidewall was traditionally been considered contraindication to resection. Due to the technical difficulty of safely attaining an R0 resection margin. Efforts at vascular reconstruction were hampered by the procedure being frequently preformed in a grossly contaminated and often previously heavily irradiated field [61]. Due to these poor early outcomes, few undertook such radical resections until very recently [62].

Contemporary studies have reported en-bloc resection of the pelvic sidewall for both locally advanced and recurrent rectal cancer involving the lateral pelvic neurovasculature with good outcomes [63]. Similarly, extended lateral wall resection is possible in advanced gynecological tumors [64]. Some units are providing “higher and wider” resections for tumors involving the common and external iliac vessels [65, 66] and extending to the sciatic nerve and ischial bone [2, 57, 67]. Reported R0 resection rates range from 38 to 58%, with no perioperative mortality, and 96–100% long-term graft patency [65, 66].

## Perineal Reconstruction

In the original series, after the exenteration was performed, the pelvis was generally packed and allowed to heal by secondary intention. Later, surgeons closed the perineum in two layers, to prevent the small intestine prolapsing into the pelvic cavity [1]. In recent decades, various techniques for filling the “dead-space” have been examined. The omental pedicle flap was reported as an adjunct in keeping the small bowel and urinary conduit from prolapsing into the pelvic cavity, with the hope of reducing fistula rates [68, 69]. In addition, the use of mesh reconstruction of the pelvic inlet, colonic advancement, and locoregional myocutaneous flaps have been advocated with varying degrees



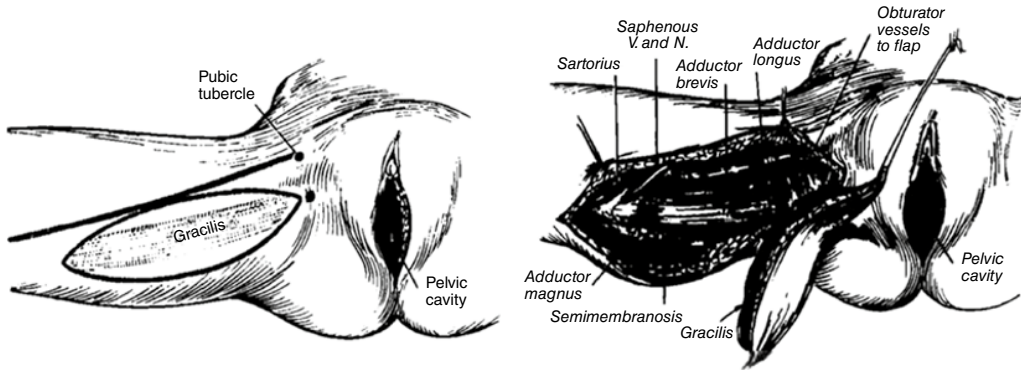
**Figure 1.4** Diagrams from the first description by Wanebo and Marcove of abdomino-prone sacral resection showing the extent of resection required for recurrence of rectal cancer in the posterior compartment (A), lines of transection of the sacrum from the posterior approach (B), the operative defect after sacral resection (C), and rotational skin flaps for wound closure (D). Copyright © 1981 J.B. Lippincott Company. *Source:* Reproduced with permission from Wolters Kluwer [49].

of success (Figure 1.5) [70–72]. The use of flaps in particular was an important development that simultaneously allowed closure of perineal wounds not amenable to primary closure and transfer of viable tissue into the pelvis to decrease septic and perineal complications [73, 74]. Moreover, myocutaneous flaps may be used to construct a neovagina [75, 76].

## Future Directions

The ability to perform radical and extended pelvic cancer surgery is the only potentially curative treatment for patients with locally advanced or recurrent pelvic tumors.

Better diagnostics and chemotherapeutics are likely to be “key” in personalizing



**Figure 1.5** Gracilis myocutaneous flap for reconstruction of the perineum after PE as described by McCraw et al. in 1976. Copyright © 1976 Plastic & Reconstructive Surgery. *Source:* Reproduced with permission from Wolters Kluwer [70].

patient care, improving survival, or converting unresectable disease to resectable. In addition, there is growing research on quality-of-life outcome data following extended radical surgery. This is increasingly becoming as important an outcome measure as survival. The PelvEx

Collaborative, offers an unique opportunity to prospectively assess exenterative outcomes, refine treatment options and further improve the management of advanced pelvic malignancies.

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## 2

# The Role of the Multidisciplinary Team in the Management of Locally Advanced and Recurrent Rectal Cancer

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## Background

Multidisciplinary team meetings (MDTMs) have been implemented to deal with the complexity of cancer care [1]. The aim of these meetings is to provide a structured discussion platform to plan patient care [2–7]. The goal is to benefit from the collective knowledge of all specialties in order to optimize staging, treatment, and follow-up. Furthermore, it can facilitate assessment for patients' inclusion in clinical trials.

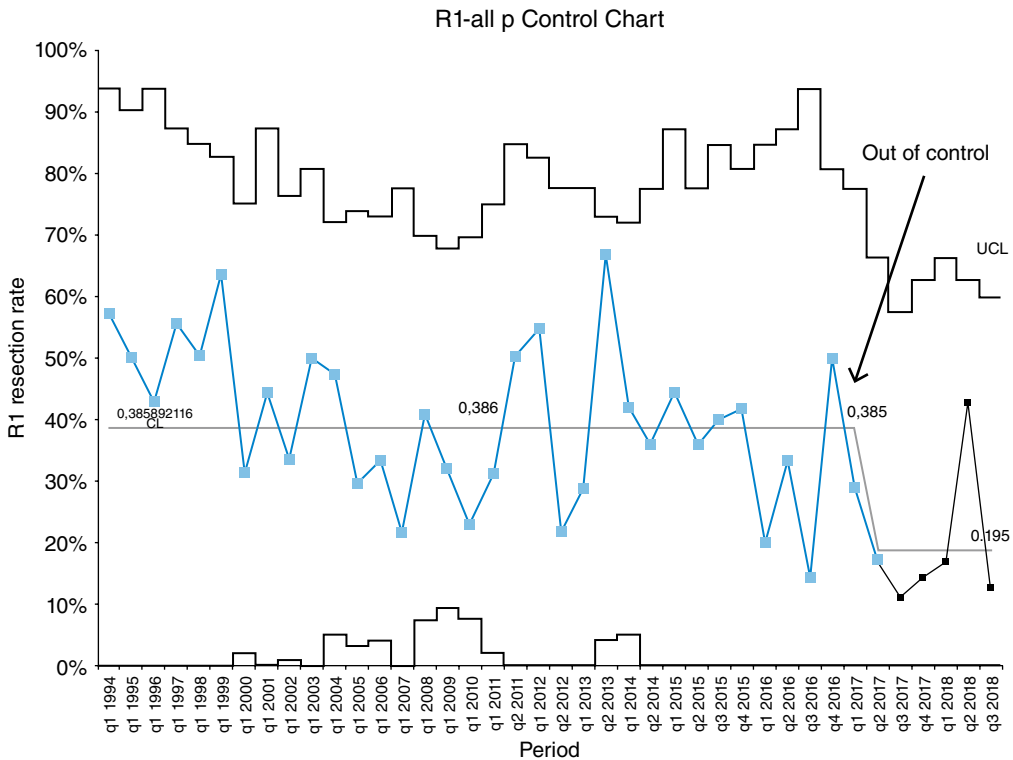
The organization of the MDTM is time consuming and comes with costs. Delaying decisions until the MDTM has taken place can sometimes delay treatment. MDTM results in a significant change in diagnosis or treatment planning, ranging from 18.5 to 36% and 11.0 to 14.5% respectively [8–14]. The role of adequate preoperative tumor staging and discussion in an MDTM resulted in more patients receiving neoadjuvant treatment, increased local control, and R0 resections [15].

The governing body for the quality of care for patients with cancer in the Netherlands is the Stichting voor Oncologische Samenwerking (Foundation for Oncological Collaboration, SONCOS) [16]. SONCOS represents 29 national societies involved in

cancer care, including the Society for Medical Oncology, the Society of Surgical Oncology, and the Society of Radiation Oncology. SONCOS delivers a yearly report stating the conditions that must be fulfilled by any multidisciplinary team caring for cancer patients. Dutch physicians are obliged to adhere to these conditions. Furthermore, all Dutch medical centers have agreed to standardize data registry with a national database to monitor the effect of changes in treatment strategy on quality measurements as shown in Figure 2.1. Hence, factors improving the quality of care can be identified and applied easily in order to improve patient outcome. MDTMs across the Netherlands can deal with the majority of patients with pelvic cancer from gastroenterological, urological, or gynecological origin. However, patients with locally advanced and recurrent pelvic cancer should be discussed in a specialized MDTM [16].

## Complex Pelvic Cancer MDTM

Patients with locally advanced primary and recurrent pelvic cancers are associated with a higher risk of local recurrence, distant



**Figure 2.1** National registries help to monitor outcome. In this control chart for proportions, a decrease in R+ resection rate seems to be statistically significant and leads to differences in the mean R+ resection rate. This moment (referred to as 'out of control') coincides with the change of preoperative treatment in locally recurrent pelvic cancer patients (unpublished data). CL, Control limit; UCL, upper control limit.

metastases, and poor survival. Furthermore, these complex pelvic tumors require several specialties for an accurate preoperative evaluation, neoadjuvant and/or adjuvant therapy with a multidisciplinary surgical approach, (Table 2.1). Preoperative treatments providing downstaging are essential to both increase the chance of radical resections and prevent unnecessarily extensive resections that lead to impairment. Centralization is warranted, to identify those patients who require this specialized care.

In order to work toward a situation in which all patients with locally advanced cancers are discussed in a complex cancer MDTM, it is essential that it is easily accessible for physicians outside the specialized center.

## Staging, Restaging, and Pathological Assessment

### Staging

Radiologic assessment of local and distant disease in the setting of advanced pelvic cancer can be challenging. Therefore all diagnostic imaging is assessed by radiologists and nuclear medicine physicians with specific expertise in cancer imaging prior to the MDTM. An expert radiologist familiar with surgical principles may anticipate the expected organ involvement. Regular contact in the oncological network ensures that referring hospitals know which scan sequences and modalities that are required.

**Table 2.1** Differences between hospitals caring for “regular” colorectal cancer patients and hospitals caring for locally advanced and recurrent pelvic cancer patients (Example from The Netherlands).

Regular care for colorectal cancer	Specialized pelvic cancer care
Consultants with special interest in colorectal cancer	Consultants with special interest in locally advanced and pelvic cancer
Two radiologists	Two radiologists with verifiable expertise in evaluation of locally advanced and recurrent pelvic cancer, before and after neoadjuvant treatment
Two surgeons	Two surgeons with verifiable technical expertise in treatment of locally advanced and recurrent pelvic cancer. At least one surgeon with expertise in treatment of stage 4 colorectal cancer
One pathologist	Pathologist with specific expertise in evaluation of specimens of the pelvis and effects of neoadjuvant therapy
One radiation oncologist	Radiation oncologist with expertise in treatment of locally advanced and recurrent pelvic cancer. Expertise in IORT = Intra-operative radiotherapy
One medical oncologist	Medical oncologist with specific expertise in curative treatment of patients with locally advanced and recurrent pelvic cancer <i>Extra:</i> Oncological urologist with expertise in urinary deviation <i>Extra:</i> Oncological gynecologist with expertise in postoperative care and recovery <i>Extra:</i> plastic and reconstructive surgeon with expertise in reconstruction of large oncological defects
24/7 intervention radiology	Experience with acquiring tissue from the pelvis and placing drains in the pelvis, including transgluteal approaches
Stomatherapy nurse clinic protocol for referral for IORT	Stomatherapy nurse experienced in care of urinary stoma Provides IORT
MDTM operates according to national guideline	MDTM discusses many patients that cannot be treated according to national guideline
Includes all patients in Dutch Surgical Colorectal Audit (DSCA)	Includes only T4 in audit. Registers all patients in prospective databases, compares with other T4/locally recurrent rectal cancer (LRRC) centers, and publishes results

### Restaging

In patients who receive neoadjuvant treatment, response evaluation can be challenging due to the difficulties in distinguishing between malignant and fibrotic changes. Visualizing and assessing complete remission or downsizing of the tumor after neoadjuvant treatment, may alter the surgical planning in highly selected cases the surgical planning. Complete remission after (chemo)radiation

cannot be predicted reliably with non-invasive imaging techniques, because of the spatial limitations to detecting microscopic tumor residue [17]. Even magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) can result in false positive predictions. Addition of diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI) to standard MRI makes detection more accurate. Overall, an experienced radiologist with considerable expertise is an essential part of the complex cancer MDTM [18–20].