



Original Article

Can the mean linear energy transfer of organs be directly related to patient toxicities for current head and neck cancer intensity-modulated proton therapy practice?

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ABSTRACT

Background and purpose: The relative biological effectiveness (RBE) of proton therapy is predicted to vary with the dose-weighted average linear energy transfer (LET_d). However, RBE values may substantially vary for different clinical endpoints. Therefore, the aim of this study was to assess the feasibility of relating mean D-LET_d parameters to patient toxicity for HNC patients treated with proton therapy.

Materials and methods: The delivered physical dose (D) and the voxel-wise product of D and LET_d (D·LET_d) distributions were calculated for 100 head and neck cancer (HNC) proton therapy patients using our TPS (Raystation v6R). The means and covariance matrix of the accumulated D and D·LET_d of all relevant organs-at-risk (OARs) were used to simulate 2,500 data sets of different sizes. For each dataset, an attempt was made to add mean D-LET_d parameters to a multivariable NTCP model based on mean D parameters of the same OAR for xerostomia, tube feeding and dysphagia. The likelihood of creating an NTCP model with statistically significant parameters (i.e. power) was calculated as a function of the simulated sample size for various RBE models.

Results: The sample size required to have a power of at least 80% to show an independent effect of mean D-LET_d parameters on toxicity is over 15,000 patients for all toxicities.

Conclusion: For current clinical practice, it is not feasible to directly model NTCP with both mean D and mean D-LET_d of OARs. These findings should not be interpreted as a contradiction of previous evidence for the relationship between RBE and LET_d.

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The biological damage of proton therapy is generally considered to be higher than that of conventional X-ray radiotherapy of the same physical dose for tumors and healthy tissues [1]. Current guidelines recommend a constant relative biological effectiveness (RBE) model equal to 1.1 for clinical proton therapy treatments, meaning the equivalent physical photon dose equals 1.1 times the physical proton dose [2]. The RBE is used to calculate the RBE-weighted dose (D_{RBE}) which is the multiplication of physical dose D and RBE. The D_{RBE} has the unit Gy_{RBE} and represents the equivalent photon dose in Gy. However, a large body of preclinical evidence suggests the RBE varies and multiple variable RBE models have been suggested based on the dose-weighted average linear energy transfer (LET_d), fraction dose and tissue-specific α/β value [3–6].

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Better understanding of the role of LET_d is necessary to give patients the best possible radiation treatment in the near future. Several recent studies have shown the benefit of integrating LET_d into treatment planning optimization in terms of RBE-weighted dose when a variable RBE model is assumed [7–11]. Once these tools become available in commercial treatment planning systems (TPS), treatment planners will have the ability to manipulate the clinical LET_d distribution. Consequently, clinically validated variable RBE models will be required to decide between planning strategies with different LET_d and dose distributions [12].

The evidence for the variability of RBE for in-vitro cell kill is convincing. However, the RBE for cell kill is not necessarily equivalent to the RBE for clinically relevant endpoints such as patient toxicity [12]. Therefore, a recent report by the American Association of Physics in Medicine recommended that variable RBE models need to be cross-validated against clinically relevant endpoints before introduction into clinical treatment planning and optimization [12]. Previous in-patients retrospective investigations showed that the formation of contrast-enhancing brain lesions visible on

MRI were independently related to both dose (D) and the voxel-wise product of D and LET_d, (D·LET_d) [13,14]. The contribution of D·LET_d to contrast-enhancing brain lesions was in agreement with predictions from an existing variable RBE model [5,13]. While contrast-enhancing brain lesions may be considered an adverse event, they are not typically accompanied by clinical symptoms. This indicates that while this endpoint might be a useful surrogate, it is not a clinically relevant outcome itself.

Treatment of head and neck cancer (HNC) typically involves the irradiation of several healthy tissues and organs-at-risk (OARs), as these are often in close proximity to the tumor. Therefore, HNC patients commonly suffer from multiple radiotherapy-induced side effects such as xerostomia, dysphagia and sticky saliva, which can start within the first year of follow-up and may persist for years after treatment [15,16]. In the Netherlands, HNC patients are treated with proton therapy after model-based selection and their toxicities are prospectively scored [17–19]. The effect of RBE variability on HNC toxicity may be studied by combining variable RBE models with normal tissue complication probability (NTCP) models based on X-ray radiotherapy [5,6,15,16].

In short, there is a strong need for validation of variable RBE models for clinically relevant endpoints such as patient toxicity. However, methodologies relating LET_d OAR parameters to patient toxicity are still to be investigated as it is not clear yet if such an analysis would be possible. Therefore, the aim of this study was to assess the feasibility of independently relating the mean D·LET_d of OARs to observed patient toxicity for HNC patients treated with proton therapy.

Materials and methods

Study population

The first 100 consecutive adult HNC patients treated with pencil beam scanning intensity-modulated proton therapy (IMPT) at the University Medical Center Groningen were included in this study. In the Netherlands, patients are selected for proton therapy using a model-based approach. In the model-based clinic, a patient is selected for proton therapy if the ΔNTCP between the proton and photon treatment plans exceeds a certain indication-specific threshold [17]. The ΔNTCP thresholds used for HNC patients are 10% for grade II xerostomia or dysphagia, 15% for the combined total of grade II xerostomia and dysphagia, or 5% for grade III tube feeding dependence [17–19].

Patients were treated with an RBE weighted dose (D_{RBE}) of 70 Gy_{RBE} to the primary clinical target volume (CTV) and 54.25 Gy_{RBE} to the prophylactic CTV in 35 fractions with 5 fractions per week using IMPT and assuming a constant RBE of 1.1 (Proteus[®]Plus, IBA, Ottignies-Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium). Patients were immobilized using a 5-point mask (HP Pro, Orfit Industries, Wijnegem, Belgium) and aligned daily using a 6-D robotic table with translations and rotations based on cone-beam CT (CBCT) scans. Potential anatomical changes were monitored with daily online CBCTs and weekly offline verification CTs with the patient immobilized and aligned in treatment position.

Clinical treatment plans were generated using robust optimization employing the treatment planning system (TPS) (RayStation v6 and v9, RaySearch Laboratories, Stockholm, Sweden). Robustness optimization settings were initially a 3% range and 5 mm setup uncertainty which was reduced to a 3 mm setup uncertainty as our clinical experience matured [20]. Target coverage was assessed using the voxel-wise minimum robustness (multi-scenario) evaluation approach, where the coverage criteria was that 95% of the volume of both CTVs should receive at least 98% of the prescribed dose (i.e. V_{95%} > 98%) in the voxel-wise minimum

of all robustness scenarios, as described in a previous publication [21].

LET_d calculation and longitudinal dose accumulation

For the purpose of this study, the LET_d distributions were calculated for protons in a development version of the TPS (RayStation v9R), previously validated for clinical use by our group [22].

The physical dose (D) and D·LET_d were calculated on all weekly verification CTs. The D·LET_d is the voxel-wise multiplication of dose and LET_d and therefore different from the LET_d itself. The D and D·LET_d distributions were deformed to the planning CT and summed to get the accumulated distributions, using the deformable image registration algorithm built into the TPS [23].

Dataset simulation and testing

We simulate the feasibility of relating mean voxel-wise product of D and LET_d (D·LET_d) of organs-at-risk (OARs) to observed patient toxicity for HNC patients treated with proton therapy in the future. The workflow for simulating and testing datasets is illustrated in Fig. 1. A dataset was gathered of 100 HNC patients including the continuous parameters mean dose (D) and D·LET_d for OARs and categorical parameters used in NTCP models (e.g. baseline xerostomia).

Step 1: A multivariate Gaussian distribution was fitted to the continuous parameters determining their standard deviations and covariances. A frequency table was generated for categorical parameters.

Step 2: From the multivariate distribution and frequency table, an unlimited number of realistic patients can be simulated for which the covariance between different continuous parameters is identical to that of the original dataset. A sample size N of up to 100,000 was simulated and each N was simulated 2500 times resulting in 60,000 datasets of various sizes.

Step 3: The RBE-weighted dose (D_{RBE}) is calculated assuming a linear RBE model of the form $RBE = 1 + c \cdot LET_d$, where c is the slope of the RBE-LET_d relation so that $D_{RBE} = D + c \cdot D \cdot LET_d$. In our study we performed the analysis for RBE models with different RBE-LET_d slopes. Once with a RBE-LET_d slope c of 0.04 (keV/μm)⁻¹ as a low estimate which results in a clinical RBE of 1.1 in the target and once with a RBE-LET_d slope c of 0.1 (keV/μm)⁻¹ as a high estimate, as this value was found in a recent study [13,24].

The D_{RBE} parameters are used to calculate an NTCP-profile based on previously published models for xerostomia, grade 2–4 dysphagia, and tube feeding dependence [15–17]. These NTCP models are based on actual patient toxicity datasets of over 350 photon therapy patients each. The resulting models depend on demographic and D_{RBE} parameters which are summarized in Table 1. Toxicity scores were simulated by assigning a toxicity if the NTCP was higher than a random number drawn from a uniform distribution between 0 and 1 independently for each simulated patient and toxicity.

Step 4: A logistic regression analysis was used to test the hypothesis that the RBE depends on the LET_d in each simulated dataset for each toxicity. For a model consisting of one predicting demographic parameter (X_{demographic}) and one dose parameter (X_D) the NTCP function is:

$$NTCP(S) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-S)} \quad (1)$$

$$S = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot X_{demographic} + \beta_2 \cdot X_D \quad (2)$$

To include a variable RBE, a mean D·LET_d parameter is added for each OAR with a mean dose parameter

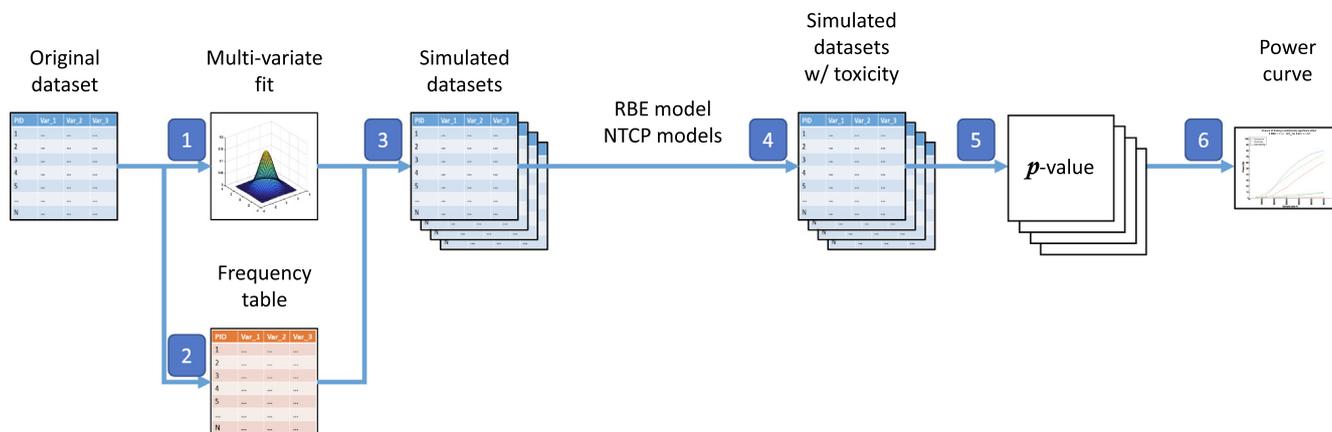


Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the workflow for generating and testing datasets. A dataset was gathered of 100 HNC patients including the continuous parameters mean dose (D) and voxel-wise product of D and LET_d (D·LET_d) for all organs-at-risk and categorical parameters used in NTCP models (e.g. baseline xerostomia). This dataset was used to simulate datasets and estimate the statistical power for various assumed RBE models. See the manuscript text for a detailed explanation of the workflow steps.

Table 1

Normal tissue complication models used in this study. These models are taken from the Dutch national proton therapy indication protocol [17]. Using these parameters NTCP is calculated as $NTCP = 1/(1 + \exp(-S))$ where the linear predictor S is defined as $S = \beta_0 + \sum \beta_i \cdot X_i$.

Outcome	Parameter	Estimate
Xerostomia	β_{X0} Intercept	-1.507
	β_{X1} Baseline xerostomia: a bit	0.525
	β_{X2} Baseline xerostomia: moderate to severe	1.482
	β_{X3} Mean dose to contralateral parotid gland	0.052
Dysphagia	β_{D0} Intercept	-3.303
	β_{D1} Baseline dysphagia grade 2–3	0.967
	β_{D2} Mean dose to superior pharyngeal constrictor muscle	0.024
Tube feeding	β_{T0} Intercept	-6.849
	β_{T1} Tumor stage 3–4	0.68
	β_{T2} Weight loss 1–10%	0.317
	β_{T3} Weight loss > 10%	1.178
	β_{T4} Modality: Accelerated	0.198
	β_{T5} Modality: Chemoradiation	1.716
	β_{T6} Modality: Bioradiation	1.101
	β_{T7} Mean dose to superior pharyngeal constrictor muscle	0.030
	β_{T8} Mean dose to inferior pharyngeal constrictor muscle	0.013
	β_{T9} Mean dose to contralateral parotid gland	0.022
β_{T10} Mean dose to cricopharyngeal muscle	0.008	

$$S' = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot X_{demographic} + \beta_2 \cdot X_D + c \cdot \beta_2 \cdot X_{D \cdot LET_d} \tag{3}$$

The adjusted S'-function is identical to S when the RBE-LET_d slope c is 0 (Table 2). Inserting S' into the NTCP function, with the beta values and c as the only free parameters, and fitting to the data results in an estimate and standard error of the RBE-LET_d slope c. This procedure allows the refitting of the parameter in the NTCP model as well as the RBE-LET_d slope c. Refitting all NTCP parameters eliminates the possibility of model inaccuracies being mistaken for LET_d effects. This procedure adds mean D·LET_d parameters of OARs to the linear predictor S. This is similar to, but slightly different from, adding a LET_d parameter as an effect moderator on the dose–effect relation of these OARs. When considering the mean D·LET_d, LET_d is only taken into account in areas where there is dose, which is where it is clinically relevant.

Step 5: These simulations were performed 2500 times for sample sizes up to 100,000 patients for a RBE-LET_d slope c of 0, 0.04 and 0.10 (keV/μm)⁻¹ as described in the dataset simulation subsection above. The power was defined as the proportion of simulations for

which the RBE-LET_d slope c was statistically significantly larger than 0. Statistical testing was done using an alpha (probability of type I error) of 0.05 to test the null-hypothesis that the RBE-LET_d slope is 0.

For 2500 simulations the standard error of the power is at most 1.0%. All analyses were performed in Matlab 2018b. The required computation time for all simulations was 83 hours. All Matlab code was reviewed by the second author (AS) and is included in the [supplementary material](#).

Results

The mean dose D and mean D·LET_d parameters of different OARs of the 100 included patients are shown in Fig. 2 and their demographic characteristics are summarized in Table 3.

The proportion of simulations for which a statistically significant independent relation was found (i.e. power) between toxicity and mean D·LET_d for OARs is shown in Fig. 3. For a sample size of 5000 patients, the maximum power was 22%. For an assumed RBE-LET_d slope c of 0.10 (keV/μm)⁻¹, the required number of patients to reach 80% power was 28568, 30,000 and 24,058 for xerostomia, dysphagia and tube feeding respectively. For a RBE-LET_d slope c of 0.04 (keV/μm)⁻¹, none of the toxicities reached 80% power in our simulations.

For simulations with a RBE-LET_d slope c of 0 (keV/μm)⁻¹, the power was found to be 6.8%, 9.5% and 24.4% for xerostomia, dysphagia and tube feeding respectively with no clear dependence on sample size (Supplementary materials fig. S1).

When the alpha was increased from 0.05 to 0.10 and testing was performed one-tailed instead of two-tailed, the required number of patients was decreased to 15,120, 17,350 and 14,341 for xerostomia, dysphagia and tube feeding respectively for a RBE-LET_d slope c of 0.10 (keV/μm)⁻¹ and 85,000, >100,000 and >100,000 respectively for a RBE-LET_d slope c of 0.04 (keV/μm)⁻¹.

Discussion

The number of patients required to independently relate the mean D·LET_d of OARs to patient toxicity was found to be unfeasibly high for all considered toxicities. Even for 10,000 patients, the power was below 10% for all considered toxicities. This result was confirmed even when the alpha was increased to 0.10 and testing was performed one-tailed.

These results indicate that an independent association between the mean D·LET_d of OARs and patient toxicity is unlikely to be pro-

Table 2

Definitions of the S' functions for all normal tissue complication probability models. The normal tissue complication probability can be calculated from these linear predictor functions using formula (1). The demographic parameters were categorized as described by Langendijk et al. [17].

Model	S-functions
Xerostomia	$S' = \beta_{X0} + \beta_{X1} \cdot [\text{base xer} = 1] + \beta_2 \cdot [\text{base xer} \geq 2] + \beta_3 \cdot D_{pg \text{ contra}} + c \cdot \beta_3 \cdot DLET_{pg \text{ contra}}$
Dysphagia	$S' = \beta_{D0} + \beta_{D1} \cdot [\text{base dys} \geq 2] + \beta_{D2} \cdot D_{pcm \text{ superior}} + \beta_{D3} \cdot D_{oral \text{ cavity}} + c \cdot (\beta_{D2} \cdot DLET_{pcm \text{ superior}} + \beta_{D3} \cdot DLET_{oral \text{ cavity}})$
Tube feeding	$S' = \beta_{T0} + \beta_{T1} \cdot [T - \text{stage} \geq 3] + \beta_{T2} \cdot [1 \leq \text{Weight loss} \leq 10\%] + \beta_{T3} \cdot [\text{Weight loss} > 10\%]$ $+ \beta_{T4} \cdot [\text{Modality} = \text{Accelerated}] + \beta_{T5} \cdot [\text{Modality} = \text{Chemoradiation}]$ $+ \beta_{T6} \cdot [\text{Modality} = \text{Bioradiation}] + \beta_{T7} \cdot D_{pcm \text{ superior}} + \beta_{T8} \cdot D_{pcm \text{ inferior}}$ $+ \beta_{T9} \cdot D_{pg \text{ contra}} + \beta_{T10} \cdot D_{cpm} + c \cdot (\beta_{T7} \cdot DLET_{pcm \text{ superior}} + \beta_{T8} \cdot DLET_{pcm \text{ inferior}})$ $+ \beta_{T9} \cdot DLET_{pg \text{ contra}} + \beta_{T10} \cdot DLET_{cpm}$
Base xer: Baseline Xerostomia score on a 4-point scale where 0 is 'none', 1 is 'a little', 2 is 'moderate' and 3 is 'severe'.	
Base dys: Baseline dysphagia grade scored between 0 and 4.	
Pcm: pharynx constrictor muscle.	
Pg contra: The parotid gland contralateral to the target.	
Cpm: Cricopharyngeal muscle	

ven for the considered patient population. This also indicates that estimating the RBE from our current 100 patients would be very inaccurate. There have been previous publications relating patient toxicity to the D_{RBE} calculated using a variable RBE [25,26]. One such study, showed that the observed rib fracture rate after proton therapy of 6.4% for 203 breast cancer patients was in better agreement with photon therapy dose–response relations when considering a variable RBE than with a constant RBE of 1.1 [26]. However, they did not show whether rib fractures were more likely to occur in ribs with higher LET_d . As a result, other factors may have contributed to the difference in observed rib fracture rates between photons and protons. For example, many rib fractures are asymptomatic, so that their observed rates are greatly influenced by follow-up procedures which can be different between proton and photon therapy [27]. Another study observed rib-fracture rates up to 18% in breast cancer patients who had undergone radiotherapy when evaluating bone scans every 12 months for at least three years [27]. Even so, the relation between LET_d and rib fracture is of potential interest as higher LET_d can be expected in the ribs. Additionally, rib fracture is a clinical toxicity which is likely to be related to the maximum D_{RBE} which possibly has less correlation with the mean D- LET_d of OARs. Therefore, gathering the required sample size to formulate an NTCP model for rib fractures based on both mean D and mean D- LET_d for OARs might still be feasible.

Another way to investigate the relation between RBE and LET_d in patients treated with proton therapy may be to consider a different endpoint. Several studies considered the relation between imaging changes and LET_d at voxel level as an objective measure of biological damage which provides more spatial information on the damage [14,28–30]. One such study by Bahn et al. analyzed 110 low-grade glioma patients with 67 contrast-enhancing brain lesions on follow-up MRI scans [13]. They found that the probability of lesions in a voxel was independently related to physical dose, D- LET_d and proximity to the ventricular system. The fit parameters estimate an RBE- LET_d slope of $0.1 \text{ (keV}/\mu\text{m})^{-1}$, a rate consistent with a variable RBE model with an α/β value of 2.0 Gy [5,13]. Another study by Peeler et al. investigated a cohort of 34 pediatric patients treated for ependymoma of which 14 showed hyperintensity on T2-FLAIR MRI scans. They related imaging change probability to physical dose and track-averaged linear energy transfer, but not to D- LET_d [30].

These studies show the potential of imaging to provide clinical evidence for the dependency of RBE on LET_d . New imaging tech-

niques may be even better suited to investigate RBE variations. With clinically used MRI scans, imaging changes are a dichotomous endpoint (i.e. changes are or are not observed). Diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) is an MRI technique able to detect the anisotropy of water diffusion, which is high in undamaged neural axons. The decrease in DTI values has been related to photon radiotherapy dose and can thus be used to quantify biological damage on a continuous scale [31]. Similarly, the uptake of prostate specific membrane antigen (PSMA) in a PET scan has been related to salivary gland damage and may help localize salivary gland damage [32]. If imaging techniques are able to quantify localized biological damage, each voxel's biological damage can be related to localized dose and LET_d at different time points and in different organs-at-risk.

We found a higher than expected false positive rate for simulations with a RBE- LET_d slope c of 0. The false-positive rate was higher for NTCP models with more independent predictors. The larger number of predictors possibly reduced the accuracy of the model. The large false positive rate indicates the model tests may not have been conservative enough. As a consequence, the actual required number of patients could be higher, not lower. Therefore, this limitation impacts the accuracy of our estimated required sample size but does not impact the conclusions of this study.

An important drawback of looking for evidence of RBE variability using imaging changes is that the endpoints are potentially less clinically relevant than patient toxicity. Our results show that using patient toxicity as an endpoint is not feasible for current clinical practice due to the high correlation between mean physical dose and mean D- LET_d for the relevant OARs. This correlation is a consequence of a lack of variation in OAR LET_d caused by similarities in beam setup between patients.

To our knowledge, this is the first study to investigate whether we can expect to find evidence of RBE variability (i.e. using LET_d during the clinical treatment planning process) from future analyses when more patients have been treated with proton therapy. However, some limitations of our study have to be taken into consideration. We limited our study to HNC patients only. A drawback of our approach is that it depends on accurate NTCP models which are not available for all toxicities. We expect the results of our current study in HNC to be valid for toxicities of other treatment sites which depend on mean OAR dose as we expect a similar correlation between mean D and mean D- LET_d in OAR, however this was not investigated in our study. We only considered two variable RBE models (i.e. a linear dependency on LET_d with two different RBE- LET_d slopes c). While the calculation time would allow for

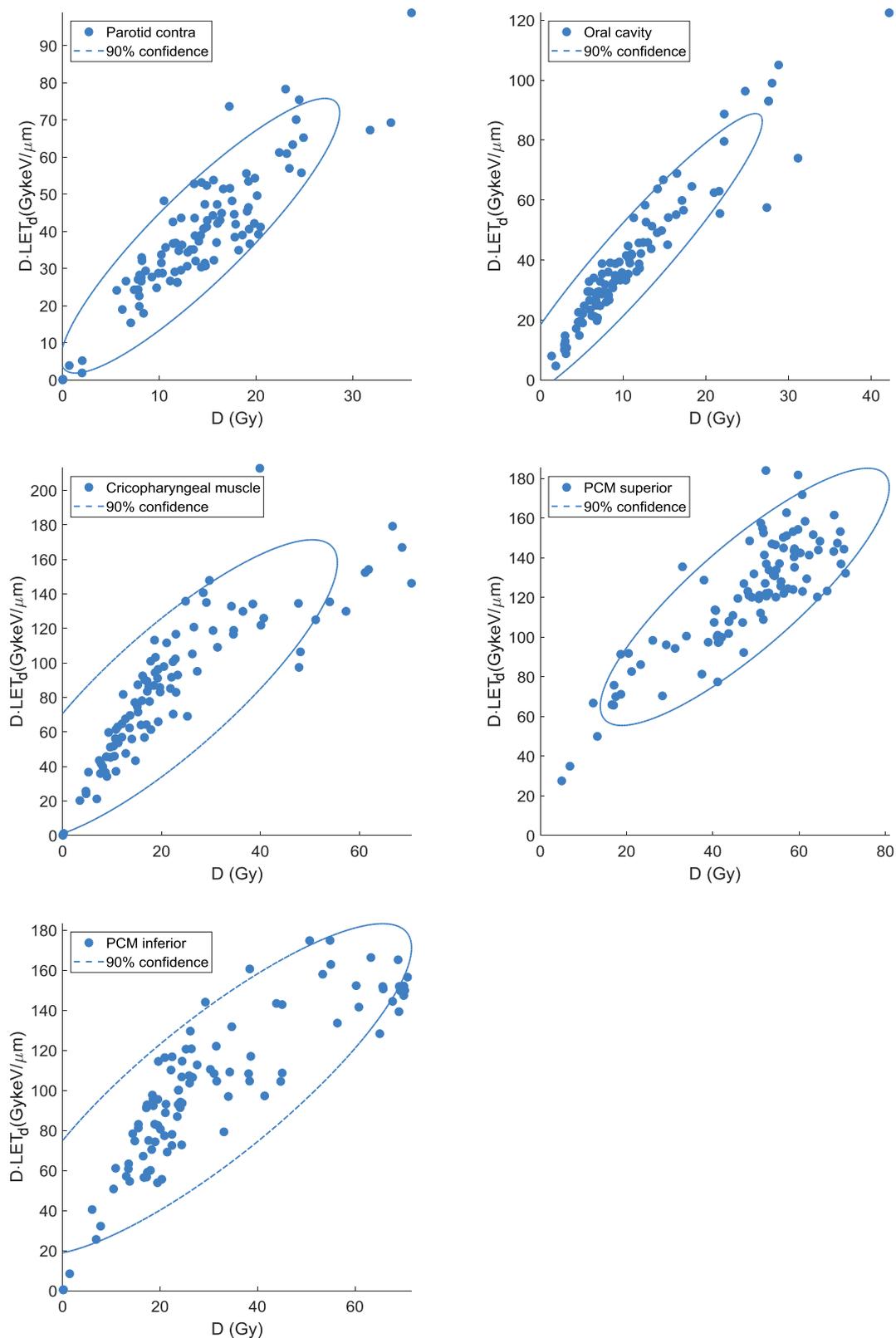


Fig. 2. Distributions of mean dose D and voxel-wise product of D and LET_d ($D \cdot LET_d$) to organs-at-risk for head and neck cancer patients treated with proton therapy ($N = 100$). The line plot represents the 90%-confidence threshold of the two-dimensional Gaussian fit. The Pearson correlations were 0.90 for the contralateral parotid, 0.95 for the oral cavity, 0.85 for the cricopharyngeal muscle, 0.85 for the superior pharynx constrictor muscle and 0.85 for the inferior pharynx constrictor muscle.

more RBE models with intermediate RBE- LET_d slopes to be included, this was unnecessary as the results based on the strongest dependency on LET_d have already indicated an unfeasibly high required patient sample size. In our study the dosimetric param-

eters were described using a multivariate Gaussian distribution while some non-normality could be present and heteroscedasticity can be observed in Fig. 2. The power for simulations with no RBE- LET relation were higher than the alpha of 5%, indicating that the

Table 3
Demographic characteristics of the patient population (N = 100).

Characteristic	Frequency
T-stage	
T1–T2	34
T3–T4	66
Baseline xerostomia	
None	59
A bit	27
Moderate-severe	14
Weight loss	
None	55
1–10%	27
>10%	18
Modality	
Conventional RT	23
Accelerated RT	35
Chemoradiation	8
Bioradiation	34
Baseline dysphagia	
Grade 0–1	60
Grade 2–3	40
NTCP	Mean (%)
Xerostomia	40.3
Dysphagia	20.7
Tube feeding dependence	6.1

The demographic characteristics were scored according with the Dutch National indication protocol [17].

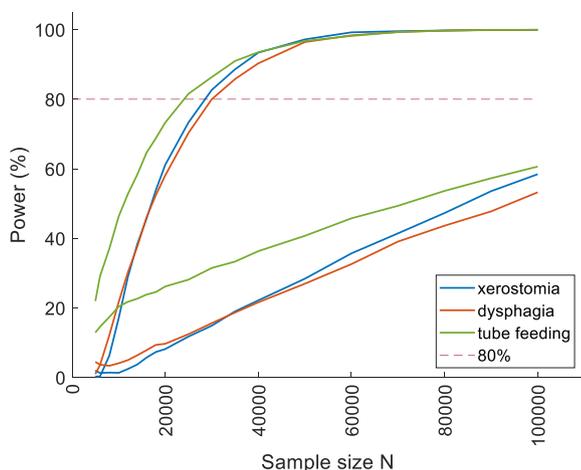


Fig. 3. Statistical power of showing an independent relation between toxicity and voxel-wise product of D and LET_d (D·LET_d) for an assumed RBE-LET_d slope c of 0.04 or 0.1 (keV/μm)⁻¹. Each toxicity has two line plots associated with it. The lower and higher estimates were for 0.04 and 0.1 (keV/μm)⁻¹ respectively.

testing methodology may not have been conservative enough and the number of required patients may have been underestimated.

Conclusions

We conclude that directly relating radiation-induced toxicity to the mean D·LET_d of OARs will not be feasible for HNC patients treated with proton therapy in current clinical practice. Future research could focus on the indirect relation between RBE and LET_d through imaging changes using different imaging modalities as these can be used to consider the local dose instead of the mean OAR dose. The presented study in no way contradicts evidence for an increased RBE at the end of proton range. Even though no relation between mean D·LET_d for OARs and radiation-induced toxicity is expected to be observed for HNC patients, the increase of

RBE is substantiated by a large body of preclinical evidence. The question how proton RBE exactly depends on LET_d for toxicity is still relevant because it can confirm how LET_d can be used for treatment plan evaluation and will help guide the future implementation of LET_d optimization. Therefore, new methodologies to investigate the proton RBE for clinical endpoints need to be explored.

Conflict of interest statement

- A research collaboration exists between the Department of Radiation Oncology, University Medical Center Groningen, University of Groningen, Groningen, the Netherlands and the following entities
 - o IBA (Ottignies-Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium)
 - o Philips (Eindhoven, the Netherlands)
 - o Mirada Medical (Oxford, England)
 - o RaySearch Laboratories (Stockholm, Sweden)
 - o Elekta (Stockholm, Sweden)
 - o Siemens (Munich, Germany)
- The fourth author (JL) reports honorarium for consultancy paid to UMCG Research BV.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.radonc.2021.09.003>.

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