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CORRESPONDING AUTHOR EMAIL: [marthamm@med.umich.edu](mailto:marthamm@med.umich.edu)

Performance/Outcomes Data and Physician Process Challenges for Practical Big Data Efforts in Radiation Oncology

Matuszak MM<sup>1</sup>, Fuller CD<sup>2</sup>, Yock TI<sup>3</sup>, Hess CB<sup>3</sup>, McNutt T<sup>4</sup>, Jolly S<sup>1</sup>, Gabriel P<sup>5</sup>, Mayo CS<sup>1</sup>, Thor M<sup>6</sup>, Caissie A<sup>7</sup>, Rao A<sup>1</sup>, Owen D<sup>1</sup>, Smith W<sup>8</sup>, Palta J<sup>9</sup>, Kapoor R<sup>9</sup>, Hayman J<sup>1</sup>, Waddle M<sup>10</sup>, Rosenstein B<sup>11</sup>, Miller R<sup>10</sup>, Choi S<sup>2</sup>, Moreno A<sup>2</sup>, Herman J<sup>2</sup>, and Feng M<sup>13</sup>

1) University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI, 2)MD Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, TX, 3)Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, 4)Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD , 5) University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, 6) Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center, New York, NY, 7) Dalhousie University, Halifax, Nova Scotia, 8) University of Washington, Seattle, WA, 9) Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA, 10) Mayo Clinic, Jacksonville, FL, 11) Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, 12) Mayo Clinic, Phoenix, AZ, 13)University of California at San Francisco, San Francisco CA

**Abstract**

It is an exciting time for big data efforts in radiation oncology. The use of big data to help aid both outcomes and decision making research is becoming a reality. However, there are true challenges that exist in the space of gathering and utilizing performance and outcomes data. Here, we summarize the current state of big data in radiation oncology with respect to outcomes and discuss some of the efforts and challenges in radiation oncology big data.

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## 28 **Introduction**

29           The promise and potential of “big data” in radiation oncology cannot be overstated.  
30 There is tremendous excitement regarding the ability to learn about the efficacy of treatment,  
31 discover new interactions, and overall being able to offer our patients improved and tailored  
32 treatments based on the experience of many. There is also the hope of shared decision making  
33 between providers and patients using informed tradeoffs between cancer control and side  
34 effects. However, genuine challenges are to be faced before this can become a reality and to  
35 meet those challenges, one must first examine the nature of this “big data.” There is a tendency  
36 to use the term “data mining” when thinking about informatics, when in fact, data farming is a  
37 more accurate term, reflecting the reality that the entire process, from planting the seeds of  
38 data in organized rows, watering and tending the growth of data, then harvesting it, is critical to  
39 understand and plan for (1).

40           Our ability to provide patients with answers about their best course of treatment relies  
41 on our a priori knowledge of how patients with similar disease, demographics, preference, and  
42 clinical characteristics were treated, and how they responded to treatment including both  
43 tumor control and treatment-induced toxicities. This data must be captured in a useable way so  
44 that it can be extracted and analyzed, with user-friendly predictive models created so that  
45 treatment can be customized for each patient.

46           In radiation oncology, there are two critical general issues, which must be addressed: 1.)  
47 Since radiation oncology data is different than medical/surgical oncology data, data platforms  
48 which have been designed with this in mind (many of which already exist) must be utilized. 2.)  
49 Existing standards where possible should be utilized to meet the big data needs of the multiple  
50 stakeholders (current and future patients, physicians, registries, insurance companies, the  
51 informatics community and many other groups) in radiation oncology in order to avoid  
52 duplication of work. We herein summarize the clinical aspects of big data collection in radiation  
53 oncology, and highlight the challenges and future work needed so that we can realize the  
54 potential of big data.

55

56 ***Radiation Oncology Big Data is Unique***

57 An essential point that must be embraced for radiation oncology big data to reach its  
58 potential is, as mentioned under 1.) above, that its format and nature is inherently different  
59 from other disciplines. Fortunately, radiation oncology has recognized this leading to a number  
60 of existing specialized data structures in its arsenal, including DICOM-RT structure and dose  
61 files. Archiving treatment images, structures and doses in DICOM format is a relatively easy first  
62 step toward ensuring that radiation oncology treatment data is captured. It also provides a  
63 great step toward future quality assurance of that data. However, some features of treatment  
64 are not captured in DICOM format, including, for example, motion management and use of  
65 bolus (if not included in the simulation). Recreating delivered dose requires the integration of  
66 additional information (e.g. CBCT, log files from the treatment machine) in addition to the  
67 treatment plan.

68 Standardizing nomenclature and definitions are crucial to our efforts to believe and  
69 understand aggregated data (2). There is a recognized, but currently unmet need in radiation  
70 oncology to standardize naming and delineation procedures of normal structures as well as  
71 targets. Standardization includes not only naming structures, but consistency of anatomic  
72 borders and instructions on the extent of normal organs to be contoured. For example, naming  
73 every esophagus “esophagus” rather than “eso” or “esoph” and contouring it from the cricoid  
74 to the stomach is imperative if we hope to better understand dose-volume response-  
75 relationships. If every “esophagus” in a big data set must go through independent quality  
76 assurance, then the effort will not get very far. This is where planting the seeds correctly in the  
77 first place pays off. Even with the best intentions, the complete OAR delineation can be  
78 compromised by a treatment planning scan of limited extent, so standard nomenclature, as  
79 suggested in TG263, of partial structures is recommended for clarity (2). Another often  
80 overlooked element in radiation oncology big data is encoding of spatial information, especially  
81 with recurrence. It is essential to know the spatial location of recurrence and its relationship to  
82 the delivered dose, not just planned dose. Further, understanding why a marginal recurrence  
83 occurred (e.g. variable patient positioning, inadequate GTV/IGTV delineation, poor image  
84 registration, inadequate PTV margin) requires analysis of information from many steps of the

85 process. These are examples of data rarely available outside a research study, but essential to  
86 determining tumor dose-response relationships.

87

## 88 **Use case examples**

89 Radiation oncology has a number of early adopters of the big data paradigm that can  
90 help guide the field into best practices for successful capture of patient outcomes data. One  
91 well-known example is the euroCAT infrastructure (3). Below are several other examples that  
92 were presented or discussed as part of a breakout session at the 2017 Practical Big Data  
93 Workshop. In each example, a successful workflow has been implemented to capture  
94 outcomes and performance data. The benefits and limitations of each use case are given  
95 below. It should be noted that this is a list of examples and not an exhaustive list of all of the  
96 excellent big data initiatives that are ongoing in the radiotherapy community. Table 1 attempts  
97 to summarize the use cases presented here for quick reference.

98

### 99 ***M-ROAR – University of Michigan***

100 The University of Michigan has developed the Michigan Radiation Oncology Analytics  
101 Resource (M-ROAR) to aid in practice patterns and outcomes analyses in Radiation Oncology.  
102 This effort involved a multi-faceted strategy of requiring entry of critical elements as discrete  
103 data, building a database platform, which pulls data from the oncology information systems  
104 (OIS) and electronic health records (HER), and creating a self-service interface. On the data-  
105 entry size, everyone in the clinic made a commitment to entering tumor staging, diagnosis  
106 code, pain scores, patient reported outcomes, and Common Terminology Criteria for Adverse  
107 Events (CTCAE) scores so that this data would be available for future analysis. Also, structure  
108 nomenclature was standardized. The MS SQL database aggregates data for >17,000 patients  
109 treated in the department since 2002, including information from both the radiation oncology  
110 and hospital information systems. The self-service interface allows users to easily create and  
111 optimize reports for cohort discovery in minutes rather than waiting to get to the top of a  
112 report-writer's queue with each request or iteration.

113 With implementation of this strategy, the M-ROAR database can be used to answer  
114 innumerable clinical questions, such as what factors predict patient risk of hospitalizations,  
115 decline in patient function, and treatment-related complications, so that patient treatment  
116 protocols can be adjusted in advance. As an example, for head and neck cancer, the association  
117 between radiation dose and toxicity can be stratified based on HPV status. Information to  
118 optimize clinical operations can also be gathered, such as: How long does a certain treatment  
119 plan take to deliver vs. another one so that therapy time slots can be scheduled properly, and  
120 What patients are at risk for dehydration so that nutrition consults can be requested or  
121 outpatient hydration appointments scheduled in advance? These are only a few examples of  
122 practice-changing queries, which are currently possible. This database is primarily to inform and  
123 guide quality improvement, with IRB approval needed when used for research.

124 Challenges remaining in M-ROAR are consistent and standardized assessment of  
125 physician and patient-reported toxicities, as well as recurrence scoring.

126

127 ***MD Anderson***

128 A vision of optimizing electronic health record (HER) utilization is currently being investigated at  
129 MD Anderson Cancer Center in a multiphase process. Initiated within the Radiation Oncology  
130 department, a thorough evaluation of user performance and available toolsets within EPIC was  
131 performed in order to determine suboptimal practices that were limiting efficiency within the  
132 clinic workflow. A general consensus of a need for standardized documentation and consistent  
133 nomenclature for the purposes of improving quality and safety measures, accurate staging and  
134 billing, and decreasing duplication of data entry led to the development of over 40 specialty-  
135 specific templates for note generation. These templates “pull in” discrete data elements  
136 entered into EPIC by a single person (such as a nurse, midlevel, or primary referral service) so  
137 that the need for dictation/manual data entry by other providers generating notes is  
138 minimized. The patient’s existing medical conditions, cancer stage, performance status,  
139 symptoms/ROS, laboratory values, and radiologic imaging information are all structured fields  
140 which are now automatically populated into specific locations within each template.  
141 Furthermore, these templates utilize the Smartlist function in EPIC, which are lists of

142 customizable text that can also be retrieved at a later date as structured data. Smartlists have  
143 therefore been used to define specialty-specific treatment options, protocol descriptions, and  
144 structured CTCAE grading systems. Another advantage of EPIC is the ability for patient-related  
145 outcome (PRO) forms to be sent to the patient electronically. When patients fill out these  
146 forms, the results are then sent back and saved in EPIC as discrete data, which is then  
147 incorporated into templates and allows for more rapid documentation.

148  
149 Overall, these templates offer additional advantages including increased patient screening for  
150 protocol enrollment and user-friendly, electronic functionality for various research endeavors.  
151 By having the variables listed above as structured, extractable data, every aspect of clinical  
152 research becomes optimized. Patients can be quickly assessed and evaluated for protocol  
153 eligibility, and once the patient is undergoing treatment under protocol, the collection and  
154 reporting of clinical response and toxicity become more automated. Protocol-specific templates  
155 have been created in order to ensure that all required data collection per individual protocol is  
156 recorded in a uniform manner. Since completing phases I and II of template creation and  
157 implementation within the Radiation Oncology department, there have been ongoing efforts to  
158 expand standardized EHR documentation methods within other departments, beginning with  
159 GI Medical Oncology and GI Surgery. So far, these services are adapting the templates to  
160 maintain a similar data entry structure while tailoring sections such as the impression and plan  
161 to suit their documentation needs. Our ultimate goal is to have the entire institution adopt the  
162 use of standardized templates and structured data entry to 1) improve the efficiency of  
163 documentation for providers and decrease the risk of provider burn-out, 2) improve patient  
164 coordination within a multidisciplinary clinic setting, and 3) create an institution-wide system of  
165 patient data collection for research purposes and assessment of clinical outcomes.

166

### 167 ***Pediatric Proton Registry Consortium***

168 The Pediatric Proton Consortium Registry (PPCR) was established in 2012 to expedite  
169 proton outcomes research in children and to better define the role of proton radiotherapy in  
170 the pediatric cancer population (4). Approximately 1800 pediatric patients have been enrolled

171 in the PPCR across 13 participating pediatric proton centers. The PPCR is a consented registry  
172 built upon the NIH supported free web-based data collection/repository platform, REDCap and  
173 is currently open to any U.S. proton center that would like to participate. The PPCR collects  
174 information on demographics, diagnosis and staging, baseline health status, chemotherapy and  
175 surgery, radiation details, diagnostic imaging, and follow-up (5). Radiation plans are centrally  
176 archived in the universal DICOM-RT format. Due to funding issues and required manual effort,  
177 there is limited participation and variable data entry. Thus, there is an urgent need to improve  
178 efficiency of data collection through automation.

179 The major challenges within the PPCR also present opportunities. Given that there are a  
180 limited number of OIS and EHR platforms, there exists an opportunity to leverage the data  
181 already contained within these platforms if appropriate programming bridges can be  
182 constructed. An upfront investment of time and resources from technical personnel is needed  
183 and standard interface should be created with standard basic information mapped from stable  
184 locations in each OIS to minimize the need for additional customization at multiple sites.

185 Another opportunity exists with the general EHR. Given the critical mass of EPIC users in  
186 the PPCR, we may be able to leverage collaboration to streamline data input and extraction. A  
187 start could be the sharing and use of electronic templates and automation of population of  
188 certain (standardized) fields in the database. It is key that templates must be efficient and user-  
189 friendly with minimal free text so that clinicians will use them routinely and must be convinced  
190 in the overall mission or be given timesaving in another area to counter-balance the extra work  
191 of discrete data input.

192 The final component of PPCR is aggregation of plan information, which is eventually  
193 used to help make the link between radiation dose and treatment outcomes. To facilitate this, a  
194 partnership has been put in place with MiM Software (MiM Software Inc, Cleveland, OH) to  
195 allow web-based archival for each participating institution. The partnership has led to the  
196 development of a faster anonymization procedure and a script for automated nomenclature  
197 standardization using TG263 (2).

198 In summary, the PPCR is an established and successful registry that has met some  
199 hurdles along the way. As it has grown out of its funding source, it requires that we look into

200 electronic efficiencies that will help PPCR and other Radiation Oncology-related Big Data  
201 efforts. Sufficient funding is critical to success of data collection. Mild funding pressure can spur  
202 technological advances that can improve efficiencies, but these also need an upfront  
203 investment in order to achieve them. Given the relatively few electronic radiation charts and  
204 the few EHRs, we are better poised than ever to start to realize the goal of automation in data  
205 entry.

206

### 207 ***Oncospace***

208 The Oncospace program at Johns Hopkins began with the design of a relational  
209 analytical database that housed the treatment planning data in a form for fast query. The  
210 database schema includes the full 3D dose for multiple radiation therapy sessions as well as the  
211 3D anatomy including relevant structures (5). The system also houses features of the dose such  
212 as the dose-volume histograms (DVHs) and shape relationships in the overlap volume  
213 histograms (OVHs) (6). In the earlier work, the database was used for the development of  
214 shape-based automated treatment planning where one could rapidly query the OVHs to  
215 determine all prior treatments with critical organ that were “harder” to plan and use it to  
216 predict the best achievable dose metric from DVHs (7-10). This method is in use today for both  
217 plan quality evaluation and automated planning.

218 For outcomes, the Oncospace philosophy was that prospective structured data  
219 collection should be integrated with the clinical workflow. Since 2007, a website enabling tablet  
220 devices to be used in the clinic for data capture is available (11). Critical to the adoption is the  
221 ability to generate clinical notes from the collected structured data and additional patient-  
222 related information queried from the OIS. Using the same technology, electronic patient-  
223 reported outcomes have been successfully captured for more than 8 years. Currently, there are  
224 >5000 patients (prostate, head and neck, thoracic, breast and pancreas) in the database with  
225 full treatment planning data, patient reported outcomes, clinician assessments on-treatment  
226 and in follow-up, disease response as well as diagnosis, and lab data interfaced from clinical  
227 systems. Data are currently included from Johns Hopkins, the University of Washington, the  
228 University of Virginia, and the University of Toronto Sunnybrook.



229 The rapid access to the treatment data enables data science models to be explored (12).  
230 The Oncospace group is now building predictive models for specific clinical decisions using  
231 classification and regression tree models for weight loss and xerostomia prediction in head and  
232 neck cancer and surgical candidacy in pancreatic cancer. The challenge in clinical prediction is to  
233 focus on the decision to be made and what information truly informs it. For weight loss, the  
234 decision is around the appropriate symptom management for improved nutritional support  
235 such as feeding tube placement. In other cases, modifications to the treatment plan may  
236 reduce risks if it does not compromise on target coverage. Additionally, the impact of the  
237 spatially distributed radiation dose beyond DVHs to better understand how the patterns of  
238 dose may impact the treatment related toxicities could be explored (13). The continued data  
239 growth will allow continuous learning to fulfill the concept of a learning health system in the  
240 future (14).

241

242 ***University of Pennsylvania***

243 The Penn Medicine Oncology Research and Quality Improvement Datamart (ORQID)  
244 aggregates data from multiple source information systems, including Penn’s enterprise EHR,  
245 ROIS, TPS, Cancer Registry, and Center for Personalized Diagnostics. ORQID focuses on  
246 organizing cancer patients’ demographics, vital status, disease stage and prognostic indicators,  
247 genomic variants, details of systemic therapy and external-beam radiotherapy, and physician-  
248 reported toxicities.

249 Outcomes have been among the most challenging data elements to capture. Penn  
250 implemented structured, site-specific templates for documenting physician-reported toxicities  
251 within the EHR in 2011. The templates are based on the CTCAE grading system, and clinical  
252 teams selected the toxicities of focus for each disease site. To maximize opportunities for data  
253 capture by providers at all levels, only clinically symptomatic toxicities (e.g. pain) not requiring  
254 diagnostic interpretation (e.g. radiation pneumonitis) were included. Nurses have embraced  
255 the effort and capture rates have been as high as 95% for on-treatment visits, which they  
256 routinely staff. Physician adoption has been more challenging, and for follow-up visits (which  
257 have less nursing support) capture rates have been below 50% of visits. Nevertheless, Penn has

258 amassed over 2 million toxicity observations on over 28,000 unique patients in the datamart.  
259 Efforts are currently underway to implement widespread patient-reported outcome collection  
260 as routine standard of care to help augment and complement the physician-reported toxicities.

261 For other outcomes, progression is tracked via the institutional cancer registry, which  
262 only documents the timing and nature of the first progression event after initial treatment.  
263 Deaths are identified from the EHR, cancer registry, and social security death masterfile, but  
264 remain a challenge, with many deaths not documented or without accurate dates.

265

### 266 ***US Veterans Health Administration (VHA) Radiation Oncology Practice Assessment***

267 The National Radiation Oncology Program (NROP) office of VHA, with an oversight of 40  
268 radiation therapy treatment centers treating over 15,000 patients annually has launched a pilot  
269 program initiative in which patient-specific radiotherapy data is collected for quality assurance  
270 assessment and comparative analysis of many treatment modalities and other factors at their  
271 centers (15). The NROP office collaborated with the American Society of Radiation Oncology  
272 (ASTRO) disease site expert committees to define clinical measures. These clinical measures are  
273 based on established clinical guidelines, patterns of care assessment done by the American  
274 College of Radiology's Quality Research in Radiation Oncology program (16), and expert  
275 consensus opinions. These measures have formed the basis for assessing the quality of  
276 treatments and practice variations and identification of the care gaps in the VHA. Although  
277 dosimetry data was automatically abstracted from treatment planning systems (TPS), clinical  
278 data had to be manually abstracted from the electronic health records (EHR) for the pilot  
279 project.

280 The NROP office has embarked on a project to automatically extract all data for ROPA  
281 from heterogeneous data sources that include EHR, TPS and Treatment Management Systems  
282 (TMS) for clinical practice assessment, outcomes, and prospective decision support analytics.  
283 An integrated data curation, storage and analytics portal, titled as HINGE (Health Information  
284 Gateway and Exchange), was built that can extract and aggregate data from TPS and TMS,  
285 physician clinical notes and DICOM-RT files. HINGE integrates data from these disparate sources  
286 coherently and standardizes it for quality assessment and predictive analytics. The HINGE

287 database is based on well-defined quality measures defined by radiation oncology disease site  
288 experts. HINGE has (i) tools to aggregate data from physician note templates (ii) a built-in  
289 DICOM-RT parser to extract DVH based dose constraints, (iii) a natural language processing  
290 (NLP) module to extract relevant physician assessments from the clinician notes, and (iii) a  
291 decision-support and genomics module to provide supplementary insight to treatment  
292 predictions, treatment outcomes and research hypotheses. The HINGE application would reside  
293 at each VHA radiation oncology treatment site and transmit information to a centralized  
294 database server thus making big data analytics possible. HINGE is capable of seamlessly  
295 connecting to local IT/medical infrastructure via network and performs data extraction and  
296 aggregation. The built-in modules (TMS extraction, DICOM parser, NLP) extract defined clinical  
297 data and are easily extendable. The modules of decision-support and genomics provide  
298 preliminary insights into a patient's treatment and health profile. Automatic data abstraction  
299 with HINGE will enable real time assessment of clinical practices and determine care gaps.

300

301 **Mayo Clinic Florida**

302 The Mayo Clinic Florida Department of Radiation Oncology has leveraged Mayo Clinic's  
303 unique cost warehouse to aggregate data on the cost of radiation therapy and other associated  
304 healthcare costs in the first two years after radiotherapy on approximately 3,000 patients over  
305 a five year period incurred. The Mayo cost data warehouse is a unique resources consisting of  
306 linked EMR data and administrative data from Mayo Clinic's hospital and clinics in Florida,  
307 Minnesota, and Wisconsin (17). These costs were linked to other sources of institutional data,  
308 such as departmental treatment records captured through its radiation oncology information  
309 system, demographic, tumor specific, and outcomes data obtained through Mayo's tumor  
310 registry, adverse events recorded in the EMR, and other disease specific registries containing  
311 non-oncological diagnosis data, such as psychiatric comorbidities. Waddle *et al* have used this  
312 cost warehouse to demonstrate that patients with co-existing psychiatric morbidities utilize the  
313 emergency department and inpatient hospitalization at rates greater than patients without  
314 psychiatric co-morbidities at 6 months and two years after radiotherapy. (18) It should be  
315 noted that even with many successes, toxicity capture remains challenging.

316

317 ***The Radiogenomics Consortium (RGC)***

318 The hypothesis that genetic/genomic alterations may function as surrogate biomarkers  
319 of disease response or normal tissue toxicity represents the basis of the field of radiogenomics  
320 (19). A principal goal of research in the field of radiogenomics is to identify the genomic  
321 markers associated with the development of adverse outcomes resulting from cancer  
322 radiotherapy. However, in order to accomplish this goal and definitively discover and validate  
323 the critical genomic markers, access to the radiotherapy treatment information and long-term  
324 longitudinal follow-up data reporting details as to adverse outcomes must be obtained for large  
325 numbers of patients. In order to enable the creation of large cohorts of patients who received  
326 radiotherapy, the Radiogenomics Consortium (RGC) was created in 2009, which is a cancer  
327 epidemiology consortium through the Epidemiology and Genomics Research Program of the  
328 NCI of the NIH (20). The RGC now has 225 investigators at 132 institutions in 31 countries.  
329 Although the RGC has successfully assembled large cohorts to perform adequately-powered  
330 studies, data harmonization remains a problem when multiple cohorts involve patients treated  
331 with a variety of radiotherapy techniques and evaluated using multiple grading systems.  
332 Nevertheless, a number of large studies have been accomplished in which substantial amounts  
333 of radiotherapy data have been gathered for studies that typically comprise over a thousand  
334 patients.

335 Four large studies involving the use of Big Data are currently in progress whose main  
336 goal is to discover new SNPs and validate previously identified genetic biomarkers predictive of  
337 susceptibility for the development of adverse effects resulting from radiotherapy. The first  
338 project involves roughly 6,000 men treated for prostate cancer, which encompasses multiple  
339 cohorts created by RGC investigators. DNA samples from all of these men have been genotyped  
340 and detailed clinical data are available with a minimum of two-years of follow-up.

341 The second large multi-center study developed by RGC members is REQUITE  
342 (Validation of predictive models and biomarkers of radiotherapy toxicity to reduce side-effects  
343 and improve quality-of-life in cancer survivors)(21). REQUITE addresses the challenge of data  
344 heterogeneity that, as for other big data projects, requires harmonization of the different

345 outcome measures and confounding variables used in multiple cohorts. This study does not  
346 stipulate the radiotherapy protocols to be used but involves standardized case report forms  
347 across centers and countries to ensure data in identical categories are collected. A key aspect of  
348 REQUITE is the centralized database that includes pre-treatment DICOM and DVH files.

349 A third study involves three large cohorts comprising roughly 4,500 breast cancer  
350 patients treated with radiotherapy for which blood samples and detailed clinical information  
351 are available. These samples and data are available from three large groups of patients: (1)  
352 1,500 patients treated under a series of breast cancer clinical protocols performed at New York  
353 University School of Medicine (22-25); (2) ~2,000 breast cancer patients enrolled through the  
354 REQUITE study and (3) ~1,000 women who receive breast cancer treatment through  
355 participation in RTOG 1005 (26).

356 The fourth effort being made is to create a biorepository with linked clinical data for  
357 patients treated with charged particle therapy (CPT). With the increasing use of CPT, there is a  
358 need to establish cohorts for patients treated with these advanced technology forms of  
359 radiotherapy. In recognition that the formation of patient cohorts treated with CPT for  
360 radiogenomic studies is a high priority, efforts are underway to establish collaborations  
361 involving institutions treating cancer patients with protons and/or carbon ions as well as  
362 consortia, including the Proton Collaborative Group, the Particle Therapy Cooperative Group  
363 and the Pediatric Proton Consortium Registry.

364

## 365 **State of the data**

366 As noted by the varied workflows highlighted in the use cases, hospital-wide and  
367 radiation oncology-specific EHR systems are not often designed to facilitate collection of key  
368 data elements for subsequent extraction and use. Typically, when a patient is referred to  
369 radiation oncology, the diagnosis for that patient has been entered to the hospital EHR system.  
370 Most radiation oncology-specific EHRs can link to the hospital EHR via HL7 FHIR (27) to sync the  
371 diagnosis information. However, linking the specific diagnosis relevant to a given treatment  
372 plan is often a manual process requiring physician input. In addition, there is generally not a  
373 mechanism to input the staging information into the radiation oncology EHR or link metastatic

374 sites to the original diagnosis, which are in general of interest for outcome analyses. Thus,  
375 curation of the diagnosis and staging information that comes into radiation oncology can be  
376 cumbersome. Apart from simple diagnosis information, data elements from pathology,  
377 radiology, surgery, internal medicine and medical oncology that may be relevant for radiation  
378 oncology outcomes are seldom entered in discrete fields or even templated free-text formats,  
379 and are, therefore, often inaccessible for automatic extraction and use.

380 As the patient goes through treatment, physicians typically see the patient weekly for  
381 on treatment visits. However, the documentation of these visits, including routine toxicity  
382 assessments relies on each individual institution creating their own clinical practice, datasheets  
383 and custom tools for reporting. While many institutions are beginning to recognize the  
384 importance of standardized toxicity assessments and PROs and are putting mechanisms in place  
385 to track this data, there is still inconsistency, which can lead to missing data. Further, once  
386 institutions have these tools in place, it can be challenging to share personalized templates  
387 across the varying platforms and clinical workflows that exist at different institutions. Adding  
388 this to the lack of standardized key data elements and time points to track for different  
389 treatment sites, multi-institutional datasets are rarely comprehensive.

390 While some existing standards can be leveraged, it is important to evaluate if these  
391 standards take into account the needs of all stakeholders and if not, determine if new  
392 standards or perhaps simply minor amendments can be suggested to minimize the need to  
393 start at the ground up. One must recognize that efforts to standardize common data elements  
394 is a complex and time-consuming endeavor, but one that is ultimately worthwhile. An excellent  
395 published discussion and proposed set of standard patient-reported outcomes within oncology  
396 shows the complexity of these issues (28).

397 Once collected, Big Data will perform a crucial role by providing accurate outcome data  
398 in order to build clinical decision support systems (CDSS) (29). Conversely, decision models  
399 themselves can be used to guide the selection of data elements to include. In a recent work,  
400 for example, a decision cost-model in the form of an influence diagram was constructed to  
401 model the choice between photons and protons for the treatment of locally advanced non-  
402 small cell lung cancer (30). By including the monetary cost of managing acute toxicities, it was

403 possible to determine the ROC characteristics of a biomarker for radiosensitivity that a  
404 physician would need in order to select patients for proton radiotherapy when their total  
405 expected cost for protons is below that of photons. As this cost-model example illustrates,  
406 models can guide data farming efforts by establishing outcomes that are important for clinical  
407 decision making, and by placing requirements on how accurately these outcomes need to be  
408 known. In this case, the required sensitivity and specificity were established for a novel test for  
409 radiosensitivity for the decision to lower treatment costs. This use of models may be especially  
410 important when resources (e.g. cost of human labor) for populating databases are limited,  
411 allowing efforts to be directed towards collecting the data that is most likely to lead to  
412 improved clinical decision making.

413 This in turn highlights an important issue in constructing data standards for capturing  
414 outcome data, namely, the standards need to be easily expandable. As big data results are  
415 applied in the clinic, used for clinical decision support, or new interactions are discovered  
416 within the data, these efforts will inevitably – and rapidly – call for the collection of different  
417 types of data. Adaptability is emerging as a feature of data and communication standards  
418 throughout healthcare, as recognition grows that developing a standard which attempts to  
419 include everything will fail to do so, and in the process will become unwieldy. HL7 FHIR, for  
420 example, is a communication standard which follows an 80/20 directive, whereby 80% of the  
421 elements which are implemented are included in the specification itself (31). These core  
422 elements are referred to as resources, and the remaining elements, called profiles, are  
423 definable by individual institutions or groups in order to alter or add properties to resources.  
424 Single institution databases can attempt to cover a greater proportion than 80%, although the  
425 principle remains. By embedding adaptability within a database initially intended to capture,  
426 for example, only traditional treatment planning data, the database may later be populated  
427 with patient reported outcomes, “omics” data, or patient preferences in the form of utilities,  
428 rendering it useful in significantly more applications.

429

## 430 **Collection and Curation**

431 In order for the promise of big data to be realized in more than just individual radiation  
432 oncology departments or networks of systems, standardized key data element lists and input  
433 schemas are required. For example, the connection of diagnosis information to treatment  
434 courses should be automated within vended systems and reviewed for quality on an ongoing  
435 basis as part of a routine workflow, such as chart rounds. In addition, the relevant staging,  
436 pathology, and histology information should be automatically extracted from the EHRs into  
437 appropriate fields within the radiation oncology information system. Free-text searches or  
438 simple natural language processing will be necessary for scanned outside hospital reports and  
439 for other information not entered in discrete fields for easy extraction, particularly for  
440 information not generated in radiation oncology and thus beyond our immediate control.

441 Collection of standardized key data elements related to toxicity, disease status, and  
442 patient reported outcomes requires the definition of standards, as discussed above. However,  
443 even with standard elements and data entry tools, there must be a culture shift in the radiation  
444 oncology community to recognize the importance of comprehensive entry of the data as part of  
445 the standard care for each patient. It is our responsibility to the field and future patients to  
446 make collection of key data elements related to outcomes a priority.

447

## 448 **Access and Extraction**

449 Accessibility and extraction of the clinical data entered by the physician and patients, in  
450 the case of patient-reported outcomes, is essential. The data storage infrastructure must  
451 provide a mechanism for end users to extract the key data elements and aggregate the data  
452 with other related data, such as dosimetric information. The system should be designed with  
453 accessible application programming interfaces enabling user data extraction in the most  
454 suitable and meaningful way. However, data extraction should not be performed on a project-  
455 by-project basis. Rather, institutional information technology groups, especially those housed in  
456 radiation oncology, should make it a priority and be proactive in supporting the construction of  
457 big data analytics resource systems (BDARS). This may require a partnership between radiation  
458 oncology users and the IT managers so that domain knowledge can be shared and the BDARS  
459 designed in such a way that the information is in a complete and usable format. The



460 development and use of a radiation oncology-specific ontology will be a key development in  
461 ensuring that individual BDARS can be combined into true sets of big data.

462

### 463 **Specific Recommendations for Standardizations**

464 While there is clear work ahead in the community to reach a point where standard key  
465 data elements are recorded routinely for all patients in radiation oncology, there are first steps  
466 that can be taken. Summarized in Table 2 are example standard key data elements that could  
467 be collected and thus should begin to be supported by vended systems. Note that many such  
468 elements would be collected at various timepoints including baseline, during treatment, end of  
469 treatment, and at follow-up. Therefore, properly capturing dates and being consistent with  
470 relative dates is essential.

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478 While Table 1 serves as a starting point for standardization of requested data elements,  
479 collection of the data requires:

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- 481 1. Creation of a standardized workflow that enables collection of proper data, at the right time  
482 for the right patient.
- 483 2. Initiation of a working group to develop standards for classifying recurrence in radiation  
484 oncology that includes spatial and dose information.

485

### 486 **Recommendations for Next Steps Needed to Improve Data Availability**

487 The current climate is such that “big data” is becoming a known term and fills one with  
488 the promise of solving mysteries of care with a lot of data and computer. There is a focus on

489 data mining, as if the data is sitting waiting to be taken and analyzed. However, it is clear that  
490 the data must be created and structured in a way to make it possible to harvest and answer  
491 important and relevant clinical questions. As more providers buy into the need to standardize  
492 for the sake of quality and process improvement, they will become more committed to  
493 inputting essential common data elements related to outcomes. Vendors must also allow the  
494 data to be accessed in a variety of ways, maintaining HIPAA compliance but no longer being a  
495 major barrier to quality assurance. Improved automation in both capturing and accessing data  
496 within vended systems is recommended to improve efficiency and accuracy in capturing  
497 outcomes data. Engagement with all stakeholders, including physicians, legislators, patients and  
498 patient advocates is essential to design modern approaches to handling protected health  
499 information and drafting policies and legislation regarding how health care data can be used in  
500 a safe way so as to maximize healthcare value and efficiency while maintaining security.

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## 504 **References**

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**Table 1. Examples of Big Data Use Cases in Radiation Oncology**

Institution/Entity	Type of Database/Project	Source of Data/Tools	Magnitude	Key Features	Key Challenges
M-ROAR/University of Michigan	tumor staging, diagnosis code, pain scores, patient reported outcomes, and CTCAE scores	Oncology Information Systems, Treatment Planning System, and Electronic Health Record	>17,000 Patients since 2002	Microsoft SQL Database; Self-service report building interface	Consistent/standardized physician and patient reported toxicities and recurrence scoring
MD Anderson	Creation of Radiation Oncology Site Specific Templates for Data Input	Electronic Health Record (EPIC)	>40 specialty specific templates in Radiation Oncology with expansion into other departments	Specialty specific templates for standardized note generation	High level of customization in each site and department limits standardization in some elements
Pediatric Proton Registry Consortium	demographics, diagnosis and staging, baseline health status, chemotherapy and surgery, radiation details, diagnostic imaging, and follow-up	Oncology Information Systems, Treatment Planning Systems, and Electronic Health Record	>1800 patients from at least 13 centers	RedCap Tools; Collection of DICOM plan data	Funding; Data input efficiency
Oncospace	treatment planning data, patient reported outcomes, clinician assessments, disease response, diagnosis, and lab data	Oncology Information Systems, Treatment Planning System, and Electronic Health Record	>5000 patients from 4 centers	Tablet and web based data capture; Generation of notes from structured data entry;	Multi-institutional data standardization; Funding for maintenance and expansion
University of Pennsylvania	demographics, vital status, disease stage and prognostic indicators, genomic variants, details of systemic therapy and external-beam radiotherapy, and physician-reported toxicities	Oncology Information Systems, Electronic Health Record, Treatment Planning System, Cancer Registry, and Center for Personalized Diagnostics	>28,000 patients	Structure, site-specific templates; Only capture clinically symptomatic toxicities; Strong adoption by nurses	Physician adoption; Gathering of detailed progression information; Accurate identification of death events

US Veterans Health Administration (VHA) Radiation Oncology Practice Assessment	clinical measures, treatment planning information	Oncology Information Systems, Electronic Health Record, Treatment Planning System	Development is being finalized	novel tools to extra data including note processing; secure environment where data is housed locally	Development of custom tools to minimize manual data entry and support heterogeneous data sources
Mayo Clinic Florida	institutional data, demographics, tumor specific data, outcomes data, adverse events recorded in the EMR, and non-oncological diagnosis data	Electronic health record, administrative data, oncology information system, tumor registry, other disease specific registries	>3,000 patients	Includes administrative component with healthcare cost data capture	Toxicity reporting and data capture
The Radiogenomics Consortium	genomic data, treatment data, toxicity and outcomes data	Electronic health record, treatment planning systems	132 institutions; > 6000 prostate patients and >4500 breast patients in specific projects	combined captured of genomic and treatment data	Data harmonization across different techniques and reporting methods

**Table 2. Example Key Data Elements for Radiation Oncology**

<b>Key Data Element Category</b>	<b>Diagnosis = breast cancer</b>	<b>Diagnosis = lung cancer</b>	<b>Diagnosis = bone met</b>
<b>ICD-10 code</b>	All, including laterality info	All, including laterality info	All, including location(s)
<b>TNM staging</b>	TNM staging	TNM staging	N/A
<b>Performance Status</b>	KPS	KPS	KPS
<b>Toxicity Data Elements with CTCAE grade</b>	Dermatitis	Dermatitis	Dermatitis
	Pain	Pain	Pain
		Esophagitis	
		Pneumonitis	



<b>Recurrence Data Elements</b>	Local recurrence	Local recurrence	Local recurrence
	Regional recurrence	Regional recurrence	
	Distant recurrence	Distant recurrence	Distant recurrence
<b>Generic Data Element</b> {name=____, description=____}	Custom	Custom	Custom

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