UCSF

UC San Francisco Previously Published Works

Title

Quality of life of patients with gastrointestinal cancers undergoing chemotherapy.

Permalink

https://escholarship.org/uc/item/6n44f1gb

Journal

Quality of life research: an international journal of quality of life aspects of treatment, care and rehabilitation, 27(7)

ISSN

0962-9343

Authors

Tantoy, Ilufredo Y Cooper, Bruce A Dhruva, Anand et al.

Publication Date

2018-07-01

DOI

10.1007/s11136-018-1860-1

Peer reviewed



Quality of life of patients with gastrointestinal cancers undergoing chemotherapy

Ilufredo Y. Tantoy¹ · Bruce A. Cooper¹ · Anand Dhruva² · Janine Cataldo¹ · Steven M. Paul¹ · Yvette P. Conley³ · Marilyn Hammer⁴ · Kord M. Kober¹ · Jon D. Levine² · Christine Miaskowski^{1,5}

Accepted: 16 April 2018

© Springer International Publishing AG, part of Springer Nature 2018

Abstract

Purpose Findings regarding changes in the quality of life (QOL) of patients with gastrointestinal cancers (GI) undergoing chemotherapy (CTX) are inconclusive. Purpose was to evaluate for changes in QOL scores of patients with GI cancers over two cycles of CTX.

Methods Patients (n=397) completed disease-specific [i.e., Quality of Life-Scale-Patient Version (QOL-PV)] and generic [12-item Medical Outcomes Study Short Form Survey (SF-12)] measures of QOL a total of six times over two cycles of CTX. Changes in these QOL scores were evaluated using bootstrapped multilevel regression with full information maximum likelihood estimation. Treatment group (i.e., with or without targeted therapy), age, number of metastatic sites, time from cancer diagnosis, number of prior cancer treatments, GI cancer diagnosis (i.e., colon/rectum/anal vs. other), and CTX regimen were evaluated as covariates in the conditional models for each of the QOL scores.

Results During the second cycle of CTX, QOL-PV scores decreased in the week following CTX administration, and then increased the following week. For both cycles of CTX, the physical component summary and mental component summary scores of the SF-12 decreased in the week following CTX administration and then increased the following week. Increased time from cancer diagnosis and a higher number of prior cancer treatments resulted in worse QOL-PV and SF-12 scores at enrollment

Conclusions While changes in QOL scores over the two CTX cycles were statistically significant, the differences were not clinically meaningful. Future studies need to determine the optimal timing of QOL assessments to assess changes associated with cancer treatments.

Keywords Gastrointestinal cancer · Quality of life · Chemotherapy · Targeted therapy

☐ Christine Miaskowski chris.miaskowski@ucsf.edu

Published online: 21 April 2018

- School of Nursing, University of California, San Francisco, San Francisco, CA, USA
- School of Medicine, University of California, San Francisco, San Francisco, CA, USA
- School of Nursing, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, USA
- Department of Nursing, Mount Sinai Hospital, New York, NY, USA
- Department of Physiological Nursing, University of California, San Francisco, 2 Koret Way – N631F, San Francisco, CA 94143-0610, USA

Introduction

While overall and progression-free survival are important outcomes of cancer chemotherapy (CTX) [1], they do not provide information on patients' subjective well-being. Quality of life (QOL) has gained considerable importance as a primary endpoint to assist clinicians and patients to make treatment decisions [2]. Of note, assessments of QOL outcomes during cancer treatment are associated with decreased morbidity and increased patient—clinician communication about symptom burden [3].

While numerous definitions of QOL exist, most researchers agree that QOL measures should evaluate multiple domains (e.g., physical, psychological, social), as well as provide a global evaluation of QOL [4, 5]. In oncology, both generic [e.g., Medical Outcomes Study-36 Short Form



(SF-36) [6], EuroQOL Instrument (EQ-5D) [7]] and disease-specific [e.g., European Organization for Research and Treatment of Cancer (EORTC) Quality of Life Questionnaires (QLQ-C30) [8], Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy—General (FACT-G) [9]] instruments are used to evaluate for changes in QOL during and following cancer treatment [10–12].

The development of targeted therapies (TT) has resulted in significant improvements in both survival and QOL in patients with gastrointestinal (GI) cancers, particularly for those with metastatic colorectal cancer (mCRC) [13]. However, the toxicities associated with CTX with or without TT can have a negative impact on patients' QOL [13]. Additional information is needed on how various treatment regimens, as well as pertinent demographic (e.g., age) and clinical (e.g., CTX treatment regimen) characteristics influence the QOL of patients with GI cancers during CTX treatment.

Findings regarding the changes in the QOL of patients with GI cancers during CTX are inconclusive. While some studies reported improvements in QOL [14, 15], others found that QOL scores remained stable or deteriorated during CTX [16, 17]. In addition, in recent studies that evaluated for differences in QOL in patients who received CTX alone and/or in combination with TT (e.g., bevacizumab, cetuximab), some studies found no differences regardless of treatment regimen (i.e., CTX alone or in combination with TT) [18–20] while others reported higher QOL in patients who received TT [21–23].

Across all of the longitudinal studies of changes in QOL in patients with GI cancers receiving CTX [14-23], the inconsistent findings may be related to a number of factors including differences in the instruments used to evaluate QOL, timing of the assessments, failure to control for clinically meaningful covariates, and the "context" of the assessments (e.g., randomized clinical trial, community settings). Given these inconsistent findings, the purpose of this study was to evaluate for changes in QOL scores in a sample of patients with GI cancers who were assessed six times over two cycles of CTX using a disease-specific and a generic measure of QOL. In addition, the effect of select demographic and clinical characteristics that are known to influence cancer patients' QOL [i.e., treatment group (CTX alone or in combination with TT) [22, 23], age [24, 25], number of metastatic sites [26], time from cancer diagnosis [27, 28], number of prior cancer treatments [29, 30], GI cancer diagnosis (i.e., colon/rectum/anal vs. pancreatic/liver, gall bladder/esophageal/small intestine) [17], CTX regimen [31]] on patients' enrollment scores, as well as on changes in QOL scores were evaluated. We hypothesized that QOL scores would change over time and that each of these covariates would influence patients' enrollment, as well as the trajectories of each of the QOL outcomes that were evaluated in this study.



Methods

Patients and settings

This study is part of a larger, longitudinal study of the symptom experience of oncology outpatients who received CTX [32, 33]. For the larger study, patients were eligible if they were \geq 18 years of age; had a diagnosis of breast, GI, lung, or gynecological cancer; had received CTX within the preceding 4 weeks; were scheduled to receive at least two additional cycles of CTX; were able to read, write, and understand English; and provided written informed consent. Patients were recruited from two Comprehensive Cancer Centers, one Veterans Affairs hospital, and four community-based oncology programs. A total of 2234 patients were approached and 1343 consented to participate (60.1% response rate) in the larger study. The major reason for refusal was being overwhelmed with their cancer treatment. For this study, only patients with GI cancers were included (n=397).

Study procedures

The study was approved by the Committee on Human Research at the University of California at San Francisco and by the Institutional Review Board at each of the study sites. Eligible patients were approached by a research staff member in the infusion unit to discuss participation in the study. Written informed consent was obtained from all patients. Based on the length of the CTX cycle, GI cancer patients completed questionnaires in their homes, three times during each cycle of CTX for two consecutive cycles. During the first cycle, questionnaires were completed: before CTX administration [i.e., assessment of symptoms and QOL outcomes during recovery from previous CTX cycle, Time 1 (T1)], approximately 1 week after CTX administration [i.e., assessment of acute symptoms and associated QOL outcomes, Time 2 (T2)], and approximately 2 weeks after CTX administration [i.e., assessment of symptoms and associated QOL outcomes during the potential nadir from the CTX, Times (T3)]. During the second consecutive cycle of CTX, these assessments were repeated (i.e., T4, T5, and T6, respectively).

Instruments

A demographic questionnaire obtained information on age, sex, ethnicity, marital status, living arrangements, education, employment status, and income. Medical records were reviewed for information on stage of disease and CTX regimen. Functional status was assessed using the Karnofsky

Performance Status (KPS) scale [34], which is widely used in patients with cancer and has well-established validity and reliability [34]. Patients rated their functional status using the KPS scale that ranged from 30 (I feel severely disabled and need to be hospitalized) to 100 (I feel normal; I have no complaints or symptoms) [34].

Self-Administered Comorbidity Questionnaire (SCQ) [35] consists of 13 common medical conditions simplified into language that can be understood without prior medical knowledge [35]. Patients indicated if they had the condition; if they received treatment for it (proxy for disease severity); and if it limited their activity (indication of functional limitations). For each condition, patients can receive a maximum of 3 points. The total SCQ score ranges from 0 to 39. The SCQ has well-established validity and reliability [35].

The disease-specific QOL measure used in this study was the Quality of Life-Scale-Patient Version (QOL-PV). This 41-item instrument measures four domains of QOL (i.e., physical, psychological, social, and spiritual well-being), as well as a total QOL score. Each item is rated on a 0–10 numeric rating scale (NRS) with higher scores indicating a better QOL. The QOL-PV has well-established validity and reliability [36–39]. In the current study, the Cronbach's alpha for the QOL-PV total score was 0.92.

The generic measure of QOL used in this study was the 12-item Medical Outcomes Study Short Form Survey (SF-12). This instrument consists of 12 questions about physical and mental health as well as overall health status. The individual items on the SF-12 are evaluated and the instrument is scored into two components that measure physical [i.e., physical component summary (PCS) score] and mental [i.e., mental component summary (MCS) score] domains of QOL. These scores can range from 0 to 100. Higher PCS and MCS scores indicate a better QOL. The SF-12 has well-established validity and reliability [40].

Statistical analysis

All analyses were done using SPSS Version 23 (IBM, Armonk, NY) and Stata Version 14 (StataCorp LP, College Station, TX). Descriptive statistics as means and standard deviations (SD) for quantitative variables and frequencies and percentages for categorical variables were calculated. Based on a review of the literature of characteristics that are known to influence the QOL of patients with cancer, treatment group (i.e., CTX alone or in combination with TT) [22, 23], age [24, 25], number of metastatic sites [26], time from cancer diagnosis [27, 28], number of prior cancer treatments [29, 30], GI cancer diagnosis [17], CTX regimen [31] were evaluated as covariates in our longitudinal analyses.

For the three QOL scores (i.e., QOL-PV, PCS, MCS), multilevel regression analysis was used to estimate

changes over time in QOL (i.e., a total of six assessments over two cycles of CTX). Estimation with multilevel regression provided an important advantage over a traditional method such as repeated measures analysis of variance (RMANOVA). Cases are not dropped in multilevel regression if one or more assessments are missing, as is the case with RMANOVA. With multilevel regression, unbiased estimates are possible as long as the missingness is ignorable (i.e., missing completely at random, missing at random, or covariate-dependent missingness) [41–47]. Missingness is handled with the use of full information maximum likelihood (FIML) [42, 47] with the expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm [42, 48]. Even if patients only provided data at the initial assessment, their data contributed to the estimation of the intercept (e.g., estimated mean at enrollment, when the intercept is modeled as the first assessment) and intercept variance. Patients contributed information to the analysis for as many times as they provided data.

Unconditional models were examined first to estimate the linear change in each QOL score without regard to treatment or other covariates. Given the possibility that the growth trajectory might not be linear, quadratic effects were examined. In addition, because the length of treatment and two treatment cycles invited the examination of shifts in the growth trajectories (also called "discontinuities") [49], piecewise models were examined. The piecewise model had four segments: enrollment (T1) to the T2, T2 to T3, T4 to T5, and T5 to T6. After identifying the best fitting growth trajectory for each QOL score (i.e., linear, linear plus quadratic, or piecewise) based on the smallest Akaike information criterion (AIC) [49], conditional models were fit to examine the association between each of the covariates (i.e., CTX alone and/or in combination with TT, age, number of metastatic sites, time from cancer diagnosis, number of prior cancer treatments, GI cancer diagnosis, and CTX regimen) on each of the QOL scores at enrollment and on the change trajectories in each of the QOL scores over time (i.e., cross-level interaction) [49].

The distributions of the three QOL scores examined in these models did not meet the assumption of normality required for multilevel regression estimation with FIML [49, 50]. Therefore, estimation was carried out using bootstrapped multilevel regression of the FIML estimates [46, 51–55]. The bootstrap was carried out with 1000 repetitions for each model. With this approach, inference regarding statistical significance was possible by inspecting the non-parametric bootstrapped bias-corrected confidence intervals [i.e., if zero was not in the 95% bias-corrected confidence interval (BC CI), the effect was significant]. A two-sided alpha of 0.05 was considered statistically significant for the CI.



Results

Demographic and clinical characteristics

Of the 397 patients with GI cancers who consented to participate, 98.0% (n = 395) completed the QOL-PV and

97.0% (n = 392) completed the SF-12 at T1. As shown in Table 1, the majority of the patients were male (55.2%), married/partnered (67.5%), and had a diagnosis of colon, rectal, or anal cancer (63.6%). The patients had a mean age of 58.0 (\pm 11.8) years, reported an average of 5.4 (\pm 2.9) comorbidities, and had a KPS score of 80.8 (\pm 12.5).

Table 1 Demographic and clinical characteristics of patients with gastrointestinal cancers who received chemotherapy (n = 397)

Characteristics	Mean (SD)
Age (years)	58.0 (11.8)
Education (years)	16.1 (3.1)
Karnofsky Performance Status score	80.8 (12.5)
Self-Administered Comorbidity Questionnaire score	5.4 (2.9)
Time since cancer diagnosis (years)	1.4 (2.9)
Time since diagnosis (median)	0.42
Number of prior cancer treatments	1.4 (1.3)
Number of metastatic sites including lymph node involvement	1.5 (1.1)
	% (n)
Female	44.8 (181)
Married/partnered (% yes)	67.5 (270)
Lives alone (% yes)	19.0 (76)
Currently employed (% yes)	34.3 (136)
Type of prior cancer treatment	
No prior treatment	29.0 (113)
Only surgery, CTX, or RT	38.3 (149)
Surgery & CTX, or surgery & RT, or CTX & RT	21.9 (85)
Surgery & CTX & RT	10.8 (42)
Cancer diagnosis	
Colon/rectum/anal	63.6 (252)
Pancreatic/liver/gall bladder/esophageal/gastric/small intestine/and other	36.4 (144)
Genetic testing (% yes)	
BRAF detected	2.3 (9)
KRAS detected	12.7 (50)
Metastatic sites	
No metastasis	19.3 (77)
Only lymph node metastasis	19.6 (78)
Only metastatic disease in other sites	28.6 (114)
Metastatic disease in lymph nodes/and other sites	32.4 (129)
CTX regimen	
FOLFIRI	13.9 (56)
FOLFOX	43.6 (176)
FOLFIRINOX	10.9 (44)
Other	31.7 (128)
Targeted therapy	
Yes	23.4 (93)
No	76.6 (304)

BRAF B-Raf proto-oncogene, serine/threonine kinase, CTX chemotherapy, FOLFIRI leucovorin/5-fluorouracil/irinotecan, FOLFIRINOX leucovorin/5-fluorofluoro-gracil/oxaliplatin, KRAS Kristen rat sarcoma viral oncogene homolog, RT radiation therapy, SD standard deviation



Changes in QOL-PV scores

As illustrated in the piecewise model in Fig. 1a, a significant decrease in QOL-PV scores (-0.15) occurred from piecewise segment T4 to T5, followed by a significant increase (0.11) from piecewise segment T5 to T6 (Table 2). Age, time from cancer diagnosis, and number of prior cancer treatments were associated with QOL-PV scores at enrollment. A 1-year increase in age was associated with a 0.02 U increase in the reported total QOL-PV score. Each additional year from the patients' cancer diagnosis was associated with a -0.04 U decrease in total QOL-PV score. Each additional number of prior cancer treatments was associated with a -0.14 U decrease in total QOL-PV score.

Changes in PCS scores

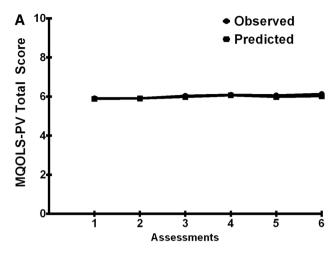
As illustrated in the piecewise model in Fig. 1b, a significant increase in PCS scores (0.89) occurred from piecewise segment T2 to T3, followed by a significant decrease in PCS scores (-1.83) from piecewise segment T4 to T5, followed by a significant increase in PCS scores (2.34) from piecewise segment T5 to T6 (Table 3). Only time from cancer diagnosis and number of prior cancer treatments were associated with PCS scores at enrollment. Each additional year from the patients' cancer diagnosis was associated with a -0.45 U decrease in PCS scores. Each additional prior cancer treatment was associated with a -0.83 U decrease in PCS scores.

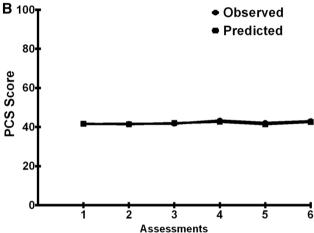
Changes in MCS scores

As illustrated in the piecewise model in Fig. 1c, a significant increase in MCS scores (1.78) occurred from piecewise segment T2 to T3, followed by a significant decrease in MCS scores (-2.63) from piecewise segment T4 to T5, followed by a significant increase in MCS scores (2.42) from piecewise segment T5 to T6 (Table 3). Age and number of prior cancer treatments were associated with MCS scores at enrollment. Each 1-year increase in age was associated with a 0.11 U increase in MCS scores. Each additional prior cancer treatment was associated with a -0.78 U decrease in MCS scores. In addition, the overall cross-level interaction with number of metastatic sites was significant. However, the effect of number of metastatic sites was not significant for any of the piecewise segments.

Discussion

To our knowledge, this study is the first to evaluate for changes in QOL in patients with a variety of GI cancers who were evaluated six times over two cycles of CTX. While the changes in QOL within each cycle were





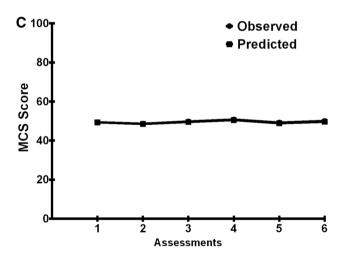


Fig. 1 a Observed (filled circles) and predicted (filled squares) trajectories of QOL-PV scores across the six assessments. **b** Observed (filled circles) and predicted (filled squares) trajectories of PCS scores across the six assessments. **c** Observed (filled circles) and predicted (filled squares) trajectories of MCS scores across the six assessments



Table 2 Results of the multilevel regression analyses of the Quality Of Life-Scale-Patient Version scores reported by patients with gastrointestinal cancers who received chemotherapy

Quality of life $(n=395)$						
Piecewise model						
	Unconditional model		Conditional model			
	Coefficient	BC 95% CI	Coefficient	BC 95% CI		
P1 assessments	0.02	-0.048 to 0.087				
P2 assessments	0.06	-0.030 to 0.149				
P3 assessments	-0.15	-0.229 to -0.075				
P4 assessments	0.11	0.024 to 0.201				
Treatment group						
Enrollment			NS			
Cross-level interaction			NS			
Age						
P1 assessments			0.02	-0.048 to 0.087		
P2 assessments			0.06	-0.030 to 0.148		
P3 assessments			-0.15	-0.229 to -0.075		
P4 assessments			0.11	0.024-0.201		
Enrollment			0.02	0.014-0.036		
Cross-level interaction			NS			
Number of metastatic sites						
Enrollment			NS			
Cross-level interaction			NS			
Time from cancer diagnosi	is					
P1 assessments			0.02	-0.051 to 0.083		
P2 assessments			0.06	-0.023 to 0.150		
P3 assessments			-0.16	-0.238 to -0.084		
P4 assessments			0.12	0.035-0.212		
Enrollment			-0.04	-0.096 to -0.006		
Cross-level interaction			NS			
Number of prior cancer tre	atments					
P1 assessments			0.02	-0.051 to 0.083		
P2 assessments			0.06	-0.023 to 0.150		
P3 assessments			-0.16	-0.238 to -0.084		
P4 assessments			0.12	0.034-0.212		
Enrollment			-0.14	-0.256 to -0.022		
Cross-level interaction			NS	3.23 3 3 3.022		
Cancer diagnosis						
Enrollment			NS			
Cross-level interaction			NS			
Chemotherapy regimen						
Enrollment			NS			
Cross-level interaction			NS			

BC 95% CI non-parametric bootstrapped bias-corrected confidence interval (if zero is not in the interval, the effect is significant), NS not significant, PI enrollment to time 2, P2 time 2 to time 3, P3 time 4 to time 5, P4 time 5 to time 6

relatively subtle, the pattern of change in all three QOL outcomes was similar. In this study, age, time from cancer diagnosis, and number of prior cancer treatments were associated with differences in QOL scores at enrollment. Statistically significant changes in QOL scores were identified for both the disease-specific and generic measures of

QOL. However, these increases and decreases in the three QOL outcomes do not represent clinically meaningful differences [56]. Our findings suggest that weekly assessments of QOL are not necessary. Future studies need to determine the optimal timing for QOL assessments during CTX [57, 58].



Table 3 Results of the multilevel regression analyses of physical component summary and mental component summary scores from the SF-12 reported by patients with gastrointestinal cancers who received chemotherapy

Physical component summary score (n=392)

	Unconditional model		Conditional model	
	Coefficient	BC 95% CI	Coefficient	BC 95% CI
P1 assessments	-0.26	-0.979 to 0.423		
P2 assessments	0.89	0.006-1.795		
P3 assessments	-1.83	-2.655 to -0.988		
P4 assessments	2.34	1.320-3.362		
Treatment group				
Enrollment			NS	
Cross-level interaction			NS	
Age				
Enrollment			NS	
Cross-level interaction			NS	
Number of metastatic sites				
Enrollment			NS	
Cross-level interaction			NS	
Time from cancer diagnosis				
P1 assessments			-0.26	-0.984 to 0.467
P2 assessments			0.88	-0.051 to 1.799
P3 assessments			-1.83	-2.664 to -0.978
P4 assessments			2.34	1.287–3.391
Enrollment			-0.45	-0.713 to -0.133
Cross-level interaction			NS	0.713 to 0.135
Number of prior cancer treatments			110	
P1 assessments			-0.25	-0.979 to 0.470
P2 assessments			0.87	-0.053 to 1.798
P3 assessments			-1.83	-2.665 to -0.978
P4 assessments			2.34	1.287–3.388
Enrollment			-0.83	-1.610 to -0.111
Cross-level interaction			-0.83 NS	-1.010 to -0.111
Cancer diagnosis			NS	
Enrollment			NC	
			NS	
Cross-level interaction			NS	
Chemotherapy regimen Enrollment			NC	
			NS	
Cross-level interaction Mental component summary score $(n = 392)$			NS	
Piecewise model	0.70	1.561 . 0.014		
P1 assessments	-0.79	-1.561 to 0.014		
P2 assessments	1.78	0.681–2.834		
P3 assessments	-2.63	-3.718 to -1.596		
P4 assessments	2.42	1.138–3.779		
Treatment group			3.70	
Enrollment			NS	
Cross-level interaction			NS	
Age				
P1 assessments			-0.79	-1.559 to 0.015
P2 assessments			1.77	0.677-2.825



Table 3 (continued)

Mental component summary score $(n=392)$			
P3 assessments	-2.63	-3.719 to -1.598	
P4 assessments	2.42	1.139-3.780	
Enrollment	0.11	0.032-0.189	
Cross-level interaction	NS		
Number of metastatic sites			
P1 assessments	-0.95	-2.258 to 0.346	
P2 assessments	2.58	0.832-4.306	
P3 assessments	-3.25	-4.859 to -1.605	
P4 assessments	1.76	-0.366 to 3.793	
Enrollment	NS		
Cross-level interaction: omnibus test ^a	$X^2 = 11.11; p =$	$X^2 = 11.11; p = 0.025$	
P1 by number of metastatic sites	0.11	-0.629 to 0.841	
P2 by number of metastatic sites	-0.56	-1.519 to 0.424	
P3 by number of metastatic sites	0.41	-0.478 to 1.373	
P4 by number of metastatic sites	0.48	-0.726 to 1.813	
Number of prior cancer treatments			
P1 assessments	-0.81	-1.601 to 0.257	
P2 assessments	1.80	0.680-2.862	
P3 assessments	-2.66	-3.729 to -1.617	
P4 assessments	2.47	1.177-3.854	
Enrollment	-0.78	-1.489 to -0.008	
Cross-level interaction	NS		
Cancer diagnosis			
Enrollment	NS		
Cross-level interaction	NS		
Chemotherapy regimen			
Enrollment	NS		
Cross-level interaction	NS		

BC 95% CI non-parametric bootstrapped bias-corrected confidence interval (if zero is not in the interval, the effect is significant), FOLFIRI leucovorin/5-fluorouracil/irinotecan, FOLFIRINOX leucovorin/5-fluorouracil/irinotecan/oxaliplatin, NS not significant, P1 enrollment to time 2, P2 time 2 to time 3, P3 time 4 to time 5, P4 time 5 to time 6

Disease-specific measure of QOL

In terms of the disease-specific measure of QOL, changes in QOL-PV scores were found only during the second cycle of CTX. However, the pattern to the changes within the second cycle is what one would expect to occur during CTX. Compared to T4 (i.e., recovery from previous cycle of CTX), QOL-PV scores decreased in the week following the administration of CTX (T4 to T5). This decrease was followed by an increase in QOL scores in the week following treatment (i.e., T5 to T6). While no studies were found that assessed for changes in QOL scores within and across multiple cycles of CTX, our findings are consistent with previous reports that identified a decrease in QOL 1 week after CTX administration [58, 59]. Compared to other studies that evaluated mean QOL-PV scores in oncology patients [60, 61], our findings were generally similar. For example, in one study

that evaluated QOL in patients with colon cancer [60], the mean QOL-PV score was $5.20~(\pm\,1.43)$, which is similar to our mean QOL-PV score of $6.02~(\pm\,0.34)$. In another study that evaluated QOL in women with non-small cell lung cancer [61], the mean QOL-PV score was $6.27~(\pm\,1.42)$. One potential explanation for the small decrease in QOL-PV in the period following the administration of CTX (T4~to~T5) is that patients were experiencing a relatively high symptom burden.

Generic measures of QOL

Across the two cycles of CTX, the PCS and the MCS scores exhibited the same expected pattern of change. For both QOL outcomes, compared to the assessments done prior to the next dose of CTX (i.e., T1 and T4, "recovery from previous cycle"), PCS and MCS scores decreased in the week



^aOmnibus test is significant, but no segment is significant for the cross-level interaction

following CTX (i.e., *T*1 to *T*2, *T*4 to *T*5, "acute" symptoms) and then increased in the week following the administration of CTX (i.e., *T*2 to *T*3, *T*5 to *T*6).

Compared to previous studies that used the SF-12 to evaluate QOL in oncology patients [62, 63], our mean PCS scores at enrollment was similar. However, in our study this mean PCS score (42.19 ± 10.35) was below the United States population mean of 50 [40]. This relatively low PCS score that persisted across the two cycles of CTX suggests that oncology patients undergoing CTX have deficits in general health as well as physical and role functioning, and increases in bodily pain.

Again, no studies were found that evaluated for changes in MCS scores across two cycles of CTX. However, compared to other studies that used the SF-12 [62, 64], our mean MCS score at enrollment (49.62 ± 10.11) was similar to the population norm of 50 [40]. One possible explanation for why PCS, but not MCS scores were below the population norm of 50 is that physical symptoms associated with CTX have a more immediate effect on patients' ability to function.

Age

Consistent with previous reports [24, 65], younger age was associated with lower QOL-PV and MCS scores at enrollment. In terms of the QOL-PV scores, one possible explanation for this association may be that younger patients continue to work during CTX, which may have a negative impact on their overall QOL [25]. In addition, younger patients are more likely to receive higher doses of CTX, which may result in increased toxicities and associated decrements in QOL [24]. In terms of the MCS scores, younger patients may have lower scores because they have fewer coping strategies and resources to manage a life-threatening illness like cancer [66]. In addition, compared to older patients, younger patients may view their cancer as a greater threat to their overall survival [67].

Time from cancer diagnosis

Consistent with previous reports [27, 28, 68–72], increased time from cancer diagnosis was associated with lower QOL-PV and PCS scores at enrollment. For both of these scores, it is possible that patients who had cancer longer had received a variety of treatments that had cumulative effects. These adverse effects had a negative impact on patients' physical and psychological well-being [73]. In our study, time from cancer diagnosis had a wide range (i.e., 1–30 years; median = 0.42). While previous studies found that oncology patients may experience a "response shift" in their appraisal of their QOL (i.e., they adjust their internal standard and QOL improves), the exact time from the diagnosis may influence this response shift [27, 68].

Number of prior cancer treatments

Across all three QOL outcomes, a higher number of prior treatments was associated with lower QOL scores at enrollment. This finding is consistent with previous studies that found that patients who received multiple types of CTX reported more treatment-related adverse effects, which can negatively impact their QOL [29, 30]. In addition, and consistent with our findings regarding length of time from cancer diagnosis, patients are more likely to receive additional treatments as a result of disease progression which could result in cumulative toxicities [31].

Limitations and conclusions

Several limitations warrant consideration. First, QOL was not assessed prior to the initiation of CTX. Second, while the sample size was large, the numbers of patients diagnosed with pancreatic, esophageal, and gastric cancers were relatively small. In addition, only 23.4% of these patients received a TT with their CTX. Therefore, our findings may not generalize to all GI cancer patients receiving CTX with or without TT. Future studies are warranted that evaluate the impact of other factors that are known to influence QOL (e.g., social support, life style factors), on initial levels as well as the trajectories of various domains of QOL.

Despite these limitations, this study is the first to evaluate for changes in QOL six times over two cycles of CTX, as well as the effect of a number of demographic and clinical characteristics on QOL outcomes. Clinicians can use the findings regarding significant predictors to identify patients who are at greater risk for poorer QOL outcomes. In addition, while our findings support the evaluation of QOL during CTX treatment, the optimal timing of these assessments warrants additional investigation. Future studies should be carried out to identify appropriate timing of QOL assessments to be able to identify patients who warrant interventions to improve their QOL.

Funding This study was funded by a grant from the National Cancer Institute (NCI, CA134900). Dr. Christine Miaskowski is an American Cancer Society Clinical Research Professor and is funded by a K05 award from the NCI (CA168960). Mr. Tantoy was funded by a National Institutes of Health (NIH) T32 Grant (NR007088).

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

Ethical approval All procedures performed in this study are in accordance with ethical standards of the Institutional Review Board at the University of California, San Francisco, and with the Declaration of Helsinki.



Informed consent Written informed consent was obtained from all study participants.

References

- Bottomley, A. (2002). The cancer patient and quality of life. *The Oncologist*, 7, 120–125.
- McCahill, L. E., Yothers, G., Sharif, S., Petrelli, N. J., Lai, L. L., Bechar, N., et al. (2012). Primary mFOLFOX6 plus bevacizumab without resection of the primary tumor for patients presenting with surgically unresectable metastatic colon cancer and an intact asymptomatic colon cancer: Definitive analysis of NSABP trial C-10. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, 30(26), 3223–3228.
- Howell, D., Molloy, S., Wilkinson, K., Green, E., Orchard, K., Wang, K., et al. (2015). Patient-reported outcomes in routine cancer clinical practice: A scoping review of use, impact on health outcomes, and implementation factors. *Annals of Oncology*, 26(9), 1846–1858.
- 4. Post, M. W. (2014). Definitions of quality of life: What has happened and how to move on. *Topics in Spinal Cord Injury and Rehabilitation*, 20(3), 167–180.
- Khanna, D., & Tsevat, J. (2007). Health related quality of life: An introduction. American Journal of Managed Care, 13(9), S218–S223.
- Ware, J. E. Jr., & Sherbourne, C. D. (1992). The MOS 36-item short-form health survey (SF-36): I. Conceptual framework and item selection. *Medical Care*, 30(6), 473–483.
- Group, T. E. (1990). EuroQol—a new facility for the measurement of health-related quality of life. *Health Policy*, 16(3), 199–208.
- Aaronson, N. K., Ahmedzai, S., Bergman, B., Bullinger, M., Cull, A., Duez, N. J., et al. (1993). The European Organization for Research and Treatment Cancer QLQ-C30: A quality-of-life instrument for use in international clinical trials in oncology. *Journal of the National Cancer Institute*, 85(5), 365–376.
- 9. Cella, D. F., Tulsky, D. S., Gray, G., Sarafian, B., Linn, E., Bonomi, A., et al. (1993). The functional assessment of cancer therapy scale: Development and validation of the general measure. *Journal of Clinical Oncology, 11*(3), 570–579.
- Lin, X.-J., Lin, I. M., & Fan, S.-Y. (2013). Methodological issues in measuring health-related quality of life. *Tzu Chi Medical Jour*nal, 25(1), 8–12.
- Karimi, M., & Brazier, J. (2016). Health, health-related quality of life, and quality of life: What is the difference? *Pharmacoeconomics*, 34(7), 645–649.
- Luckett, T., King, M. T., Butow, P. N., Oguchi, M., Rankin, N., Price, M. A., et al. (2011). Choosing between the EORTC QLQ-C30 and FACT-G for measuring health-related quality of life in cancer clinical research: Issues, evidence and recommendations. *Annals of Oncology*, 22(10), 2179–2190.
- 13. Watanabe, M., & Eto, K. (2015). Trends in clinical use of targeted therapy for gastrointestinal cancers. *Journal of Cancer Metastasis and Treatment*, 1(3), 163–171.
- Polat, U., Arpaci, A., Demir, S., Erdal, S., & Yalcin, S. (2014).
 Evaluation of quality of life and anxiety and depression levels in patients receiving chemotherapy for colorectal cancer: Impact of patient education before treatment initiation. *Journal of Gastro-intestinal Oncology*, 5(4), 270–275.
- Zhang, M., Peng, L., Liu, W., Wen, Y., Wu, X., Zheng, M., et al. (2015). Physical and psychological predictors of quality of life in Chinese colorectal cancer patients during chemotherapy. *Cancer Nursing*, 38(4), 312–321.
- Heinemann, V., Quietzsch, D., Gieseler, F., Gonnermann, M., Schonekas, H., Rost, A., et al. (2006). Randomized phase III

- trial of gemcitabine plus cisplatin compared with gemcitabine alone in advanced pancreatic cancer. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, 24(24), 3946–3952.
- Mayrbäurl, B., Giesinger, J. M., Burgstaller, S., Piringer, G., Holzner, B., & Thaler, J. (2015). Quality of life across chemotherapy lines in patients with advanced colorectal cancer: A prospective single-center observational study. Supportive Care in Cancer, 24(2), 667–674.
- Tebbutt, N. C., Wilson, K., Gebski, V. J., Cummins, M. M., Zannino, D., van Hazel, G. A., et al. (2010). Capecitabine, bevacizumab, and mitomycin in first-line treatment of metastatic colorectal cancer: Results of the Australasian Gastrointestinal Trials Group Randomized Phase III MAX Study. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, 28(19), 3191–3198.
- Ohtsu, A., Shah, M. A., Van Cutsem, E., Rha, S. Y., Sawaki, A., Park, S. R., et al. (2011). Bevacizumab in combination with chemotherapy as first-line therapy in advanced gastric cancer: A randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled phase III study. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, 29(30), 3968–3976.
- Peeters, M., Price, T. J., Cervantes, A., Sobrero, A. F., Ducreux, M., Hotko, Y., et al. (2014). Final results from a randomized phase 3 study of FOLFIRI {+/-} panitumumab for second-line treatment of metastatic colorectal cancer. *Annals of Oncology*, 25(1), 107–116.
- Sobrero, A. F., Maurel, J., Fehrenbacher, L., Scheithauer, W., Abubakr, Y. A., Lutz, M. P., et al. (2008). EPIC: Phase III trial of cetuximab plus irinotecan after fluoropyrimidine and oxaliplatin failure in patients with metastatic colorectal cancer. *Journal* of Clinical Oncology, 26(14), 2311–2319.
- Satoh, T., Bang, Y. J., Gotovkin, E. A., Hamamoto, Y., Kang, Y. K., Moiseyenko, V. M., et al. (2014). Quality of life in the trastuzumab for gastric cancer trial. *The Oncologist*, 19(7), 712–719.
- Al-Batran, S. E., Van Cutsem, E., Oh, S. C., Bodoky, G., Shimada, Y., Hironaka, S., et al. (2016). Quality- of-life and performance status results from the phase III RAINBOW study of ramucirumab plus paclitaxel versus placebo plus paclitaxel in patients with previously treated gastric or gastroesophageal junction adenocarcinoma. *Annals of Oncology*, 27(4), 673–679.
- Manjelievskaia, J., Brown, D., McGlynn, K. A., Anderson, W., Shriver, C. D., & Zhu, K. (2017). Chemotherapy use and survival among young and middle-aged patients with colon cancer. *JAMA Surgery*, 152(5), 452–459.
- Tachi, T., Teramachi, H., Tanaka, K., Asano, S., Osawa, T., Kawashima, A., et al. (2015). The impact of outpatient chemotherapy-related adverse events on the quality of life of breast cancer patients. *PLoS ONE*, 10(4), e0124169.
- Al-Batran, S. E., & Ajani, J. A. (2010). Impact of chemotherapy on quality of life in patients with metastatic esophagogastric cancer. *Cancer*, 116(11), 2511–2518.
- Smith, D. P., King, M. T., Egger, S., Berry, M. P., Stricker, P. D., Cozzi, P., et al. (2009). Quality of life three years after diagnosis of localised prostate cancer: Population based cohort study. *Brit-ish Medical Journal*, 339, b4817.
- Dehkordi, A., Heydarnejad, M. S., & Fatehi, D. (2009). Quality of life in cancer patients undergoing chemotherapy. *Oman Medical Journal*, 24(3), 204–207.
- Hsueh-Wen, C., Li-Yin, C., Sheng-Miauh, H., Chen-Jeng, T., & Chen-Jei, T. (2016). Changes in symptom patterns and health related quality of life of cancer patients before and after chemotherapy. *Journal of Traditional Chinese Medicine*, 36(3), 326–331.
- Hong, J. S., Tian, J., & Wu, L. H. (2014). The influence of chemotherapy-induced neurotoxicity on psychological distress and sleep disturbance in cancer patients. *Current Oncology*, 21(4), 174–180.
- 31. Ai, Z.-P., Gao, X.-L., Li, J.-F., Zhou, J.-R., & Wu, Y.-F. (2017). Changing trends and influencing factors of the quality of life



- of chemotherapy patients with breast cancer. Chinese Nursing Research, 4(1), 18–23.
- 32. Wright, F., D'Eramo Melkus, G., Hammer, M., Schmidt, B. L., Knobf, M. T., Paul, S. M., et al. (2015). Trajectories of evening fatigue in oncology outpatients receiving chemotherapy. *Journal of Pain and Symptom Management*, 50(2), 163–175.
- Wright, F., D'Eramo Melkus, G., Hammer, M., Schmidt, B. L., Knobf, M. T., Paul, S. M., et al. (2015). Predictors and trajectories of morning fatigue are distinct from evening fatigue. *Journal of Pain and Symptom Management*, 50(2), 176–189.
- Karnofsky, D., Abelmann, W. H., Craver, L. F., & Burchenal, J. H. (1948). The use of the nitrogen mustards in the palliative treatment of carcinoma. *Cancer*, 1(4), 634–656.
- Sangha, O., Stucki, G., Liang, M. H., Fossel, A. H., & Katz, J. N. (2003). The Self-Administered Comorbidity Questionnaire: A new method to assess comorbidity for clinical and health services research. *Arthritis and Rheumatism*, 49(2), 156–163.
- Padilla, G. V., Ferrell, B., Grant, M. M., & Rhiner, M. (1990).
 Defining the content domain of quality of life for cancer patients with pain. *Cancer Nursing*, 13(2), 108–115.
- Padilla, G. V., Presant, C., Grant, M. M., Metter, G., Lipsett, J., & Heide, F. (1983). Quality of life index for patients with cancer. Research in Nursing and Health, 6(3), 117–126.
- Ferrell, B. R., Dow, K. H., & Grant, M. (1995). Measurement of the quality of life in cancer survivors. *Quality of Life Research*, 4(6), 523–531.
- Ferrell, B. R. (1995). The impact of pain on quality of life. A decade of research. *Nursing Clinics of North America*, 30(4), 609–624.
- Ware, J. Jr., Kosinski, M., & Keller, S. D. (1996). A 12-Item Short-Form Health Survey: Construction of scales and preliminary tests of reliability and validity. *Medical Care*, 34(3), 220–233.
- Enders, C. K. (2006). A primer on the use of modern missingdata methods in psychosomatic medicine research. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, 68(3), 427–436.
- 42. Enders, C. K. (2010). *Applied missing data analysis*. New York: Guilford Press.
- 43. Graham, J. W. (2009). Missing data analysis: Making it work in the real world. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 60, 549–576.
- McKnight, P. E., McKnight, K. M., Sidani, S., & Figueredo, A. J. (2007). Missing data: A gentle introduction. New York: Guildford Press.
- 45. Schafer, J. L. (1997). Analysis of incomplete multivariate data. Boca Raton: Chapman & Hall/CRC.
- Zhu, W. M. (1997). Making bootstraps statistical inferences: A tutorial. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, 68(1), 44–55.
- Schafer, J. L., & Graham, J. W. (2002). Missing data: Our view of the state of the art. *Psychological Methods*, 7(2), 147–177.
- 48. Muthén, B., & Shedden, K. (1999). Finite mixture modeling with mixture outcomes using the EM algorithm. *Biometrics*, 55(2), 463–469.
- Singer, J. D., & Willett, J. B. (2003). Applied longitudinal data analysis: Modeling change and event occurence (1st ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Hox, J. J. (2010). Multilevel analysis: Techniques and applications (2nd ed.). New York: Routledge Academic: Taylor & Francis Group.
- 51. Carpenter, J., & Bithell, J. (2000). Bootstrap confidence intervals: When, which, what? A practical guide for medical statisticians. *Statistics in Medicine*, *19*(9), 1141–1164.
- 52. Effron, B. (2000). The bootstrap and modern statistics. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 95(452), 1293–1296.
- 53. LaFleur, B. J., & Greevy, R. A. (2009). Introduction to permutation and resampling-based hypothesis tests. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*, 38(2), 286–294.

- Wehrens, R., Putter, H., & Buydens, L. M. C. (2000). The bootstrap: A tutorial. *Chemometrics and Intelligent Laboratory Systems*, 51(1), 35–52.
- Wood, M. (2005). Bootstrapped confidence intervals as an approach to statistical inference. Organizational Research Methods, 8(4), 454–470.
- Osaba, D. (1999). Interpreting the meaningfulness of changes in health-related quality of life scores: Lessons from studies in adults. *International Journal of Cancer*, 83(S12), 132–137.
- Ediebah, D. E., Coens, C., Maringwa, J. T., Quinten, C., Zikos, E., Ringash, J., et al. (2013). Effect of completion-time windows in the analysis of health-related quality of life outcomes in cancer patients. *Annals of Oncology*, 24(1), 231–237.
- Giesinger, J. M., Wintner, L. M., Zabernigg, A., Gamper, E. M., Oberguggenberger, A. S., Sztankay, M. J., et al. (2014). Assessing quality of life on the day of chemotherapy administration underestimates patients' true symptom burden. *BMC Cancer*, 14(758), 1–7
- Turgay, A. S., Khorshid, L., & Eser, I. (2008). Effect of the first chemotherapy course on the quality of life of cancer patients in Turkey. *Cancer Nursing*, 31(6), E19–E23.
- Sun, V., Borneman, T., Koczywas, M., Cristea, M., Piper, B. F., Uman, G., et al. (2012). Quality of life and barriers to symptom management in colon cancer. *European Journal of Oncology Nursing*, 16(3), 276–280.
- Sarna, L., Brown, J. K., Cooley, M. E., Williams, R. D., Chernecky, C., Padilla, G., et al. (2005). Quality of life and meaning of illness of women with lung cancer. *Oncology Nursing Forum*, 32(1), E9–E19.
- Liu, L., Fiorentino, L., Rissling, M., Natarajan, L., Parker, B. A., Dimsdale, J. E., et al. (2013). Decreased health-related quality of life in women with breast cancer is associated with poor sleep. *Behavioral Sleep Medicine*, 11(3), 189–206.
- Ganz, P. A., Petersen, L., Bower, J. E., & Crespi, C. M. (2016).
 Impact of adjuvant endocrine therapy on quality of life and symptoms: Observational data over 12 months from the mind-body study. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, 34(8), 816–824.
- Lewis, C., Xun, P., & He, K. (2016). Effects of adjuvant chemotherapy on recurrence, survival, and quality of life in stage II colon cancer patients: A 24-month follow-up. Supportive Care in Cancer, 24(4), 1463–1471.
- Joshi, S. S., Ortiz, S., Witherspoon, J. N., Rademaker, A., West, D. P., Anderson, R., et al. (2010). Effects of epidermal growth factor receptor inhibitor-induced dermatologic toxicities on quality of life. *Cancer*, 116(16), 3916–3923.
- Jansen, L., Hoffmeister, M., Chang-Claude, J., Koch, M., Brenner, H., & Arndt, V. (2011). Age-specific administration of chemotherapy and long-term quality of life in stage II and III colorectal cancer patients: A population-based prospective cohort. *The Oncologist*, 16, 1741–1751.
- Arndt, V., Merx, H., Stegmaier, C., Ziegler, H., & Brenner, H. (2004). Quality of life in patients with colorectal cancer 1 year after diagnosis compared with the general population: A population-based study. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, 22(23), 4829–4836.
- Schwartz, C. E., & Sprangers, M. A. G. (1999). Methodological approaches for assessing response shift in longitudinal healthrelated quality-of-life research. Social Science & Medicine, 48(11), 1531–1548.
- Mazzotti, E., Antonini Cappellini, G. C., Buconovo, S., Morese, R., Scoppola, A., Sebastiani, C., et al. (2012). Treatment-related side effects and quality of life in cancer patients. Supportive Care in Cancer, 20(10), 2553–2557.
- Marventano, S., Forjaz, M., Grosso, G., Mistretta, A., Giorgianni, G., Platania, A., et al. (2013). Health related quality of life in



- colorectal cancer patients: State of the art. BMC Surgery, 13 Suppl 2, S15.
- Wang, S. Y., Hsu, S. H., Gross, C. P., Sanft, T., Davidoff, A. J., Ma, X., et al. (2016). Association between time since cancer diagnosis and health-related quality of life: A population-level analysis. *Value in Health*, 19(5), 631–638.
- 72. Marino, P., Roche, H., Biron, P., Janvier, M., Spaeth, D., Fabbro, M., et al. (2008). Deterioration of quality of life of high-risk
- breast cancer patients treated with high-dose chemotherapy: The PEGASE 01 Quality of Life Study. *Value in Health*, 11(4), 709–718.
- Denlinger, C. S., & Barsevick, A. M. (2009). The challenges of colorectal cancer survivorship. *Journal of the National Compre*hensive Cancer Network, 7(8), 883–894.

