such a long survival was presented in this report (22). Another case series of LCNEC showed that three patients with a stage IV disease received platinum-based chemotherapy (cisplatin and etoposide, carboplatin and gemcitabine, and cisplatin, docetaxel and gemcitabine) but none of them achieved an objective response. Of five patients who received gefitinib as salvage therapy, one achieved a partial response (23).

In this study, the clinical response rates of LCNEC to chemotherapy regimens containing irinotecan or paclitaxel were as high as 70%. The published response rates of NSCLC and SCLC to these regimens are 30–33% and 68–84%, respectively (10–14). The PFS of 4.1 months and median OS of 10.3 months were comparable to the results of previous randomized phase III trials that have reported PFS values of 4.1–6.9 months and median OS values of 9.3–12.8 months in extensive-stage disease SCLC (14). Thus, the response rate and survival of LCNEC were comparable with those of SCLC. Although our retrospective review of clinical data revealed heterogeneous approaches in treatment regimens, our results suggested that irinotecan and paclitaxel may be active agents against LCNEC. LCNEC exhibit both features of NSCLC and SCLC in terms of the morphology and immnohistochemistry, and these anti-cancer agents are effective against both of these types of lung cancer. Considered together, the combinations of cisplatin and irinotecan, and carboplatin and paclitaxel may be promising regimens for LCNEC.

To evaluate the efficacy of irinotecan- or paclitaxel-based combined chemotherapy for LCNEC, it is necessary to perform prospective phase II trials. However, such trials for LCNEC may be difficult to perform for the following reasons. First, patient accrual is problematic because LCNEC is a relatively rare tumor and accounts for only about 3% of lung cancer patients treated by surgical resection (6). It took us 7 years to accumulate 22 patients with LCNEC treated with chemotherapy. Besides, some studies have revealed the efficacy of adjuvant chemotherapy for both SCLC and NSCLC (24–26). Thus, when patients treated with platinum-based adjuvant chemotherapy regimens are excluded, few subjects with LCNEC with the diagnosis confirmed based on examination of large tumor specimens may remain. Therefore, these trials may only be possible as multi-institutional studies. Second, because it can sometimes be difficult to define the histology of LCNEC without examination of specimens large enough to appreciate the histological architecture and obtain reproducibility, pathological review by experts panel would be needed in these trials.

In conclusion, our results showed that irinotecan- or paclitaxel-based regimens may be as active against LCNEC as that against SCLC. A phase II multi-institutional trial is under way in Japan to elucidate the efficacy of cisplatin- and irinotecan-based therapy regimens against LCNEC.

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Conflict of interest statement
None declared.

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Review

Problems with Registration-Directed Clinical Trials for Lung Cancer in Japan

IKUO SEKINE,[1] HIROSHI NOKIHARA,[1] NOBORU YAMAMOTO,[1] HIDEO KUNITOH,[1] YUICHIRO OHE,[1] NAGAHIRO SAIJO[2] and TOMOHIDE TAMURA[1]

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SEKINE, I., NOKIHARA, H., YAMAMOTO, N., KUNITOH, H., OHE, Y., SAIJO, N. and TAMURA, T. *Problems with Registration-Directed Clinical Trials for Lung Cancer in Japan.* Tohoku J. Exp. Med., 2007, **213** (1), 17-23 —— New anticancer agents against lung cancer are needed because efficacy of chemotherapy is limited. The long time required, low quality, and considerable costs of registration-directed clinical trials in Japan ("Chiken") have been pointed out. The quality of 24 phase I and 41 phase II trials of an anticancer drug for lung cancer were analyzed according to the approval year of the drug. The human resources and infrastructure to support oncology clinical practice and clinical trials were compared between Japan and the USA. A maximum tolerated dose was not defined in any of seven phase I trials before 1989, and was determined in two of six trials between 1989 and 1996 and in seven of 10 trials thereafter. Before 1989, 29 (20%) of 142 patients registered in two trials were ineligible, and the number of ineligible patients was not reported in the five trials. Sample size calculations were not performed in any of seven phase II trials before 1989 and were performed in only four of 10 trials between 1989 and 1996 and in all 23 trials conducted thereafter. The shortage of human resources, including medical oncologists, oncology nurse practitioners and clinical research coordinators, is serious and acute. The infrastructure to support clinical trials also remains insufficient in Japan. In conclusion, registration-directed clinical trials of anticancer agents have advanced significantly during last three decades but remain unsatisfactory. The development of infrastructure and human resources is an urgent task to ensure high-quality clinical trials without unnecessary delays. ——— clinical trials; medical oncologists; nurse practitioners; lung cancer; anticancer agents

Lung cancer is one of the most common malignancies and the leading cause of cancer-related deaths in many countries. In the year 2000, the annual number of deaths from lung cancer was estimated to be 1.1 million worldwide, and global lung caner incidence is increasing at a rate of 0.5% per year (Schottenfeld and Searle 2005). About 80% of patients with lung cancer have already developed distant metastases or pleural effusion, either by the time of the initial

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diagnosis or by the time recurrence is detected after surgery for local disease. These patients can be treated with systemic chemotherapy, but the efficacy of currently available anticancer agents is limited to the extent that patients with advanced disease rarely live long. Therefore, new chemotherapeutic agents continue to be developed against lung cancer (Sekine and Saijo 2000).

The Japanese Pharmaceutical Affairs Law (PAL) was enacted in 1948, and was first amended in 1960 to provide for regulations to ensure the maintenance of the quality, efficacy, and safety of drugs and medical devices, and to promote research and development of these medical and pharmaceutical products. Good Clinical Practice (GCP) was enforced by the Bureau Notification of the Ministry of Health and Welfare of Japan ("Kyokuchou-Tsuuchi") in 1989 (the former GCP). In 1996, the PAL and its related laws were amended to strengthen GCP (the new GCP), Good Laboratory Practice, Good Post-Marketing Surveillance Practice, and standard compliance reviews, conforming to the International Conference on Harmonization of Technical Requirements for Registration of Pharmaceuticals for Human Use. In contrast to the laws prevailing in the US and EU, marketing approval for anticancer agents in Japan has been granted based on reports of the anti-tumor effects of the new agents in phase II trials (Fujiwara and Kobayashi 2002).

Under this Japanese drug approval system regulated by the PAL, 23 anticancer drugs have been approved for use against lung cancer during the last five decades (Fig. 1). Of these, 9 drugs are original to Japan, some of which are routinely used all over the world. Several problems, however, have been pointed out in registration-directed clinical trials in Japan ("Chiken"), including the long time required, low quality, and considerable cost (The Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of Japan 2002; The Ministry of Education, Science and Culture and the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare 2003). As a result, Japanese cancer patients must wait for a long time

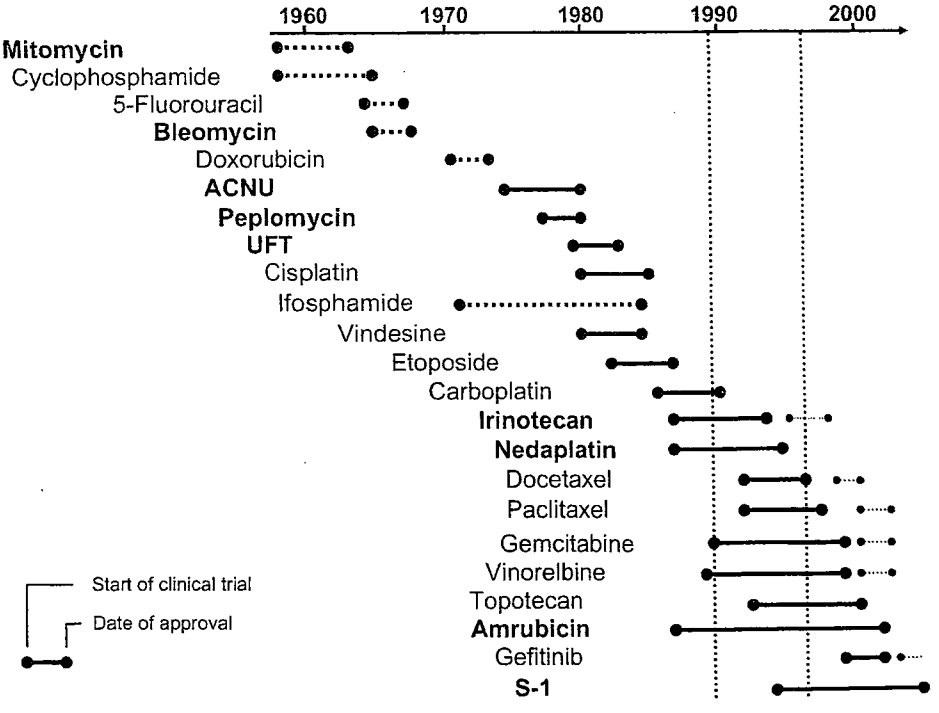

Fig. 1. Anticancer drugs approved for lung cancer in Japan.
Bold: original to Japan. Dotted line: case series studies, solid thick line: investigational new drug phase I-II trials for approval, and dotted thin line: post-marketing sponsored phase III trials. Vertical dotted lines indicate the year when the former and new GCP were issued.

until they receive new anticancer drugs which have been approved long before in other countries (The Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of Japan 2005). We discuss the aspects and issues of registration-directed trials in Japan by reviewing such trials for the 23 anticancer drugs.

Review of registration-directed clinical trials for the 23 anticancer drugs

A total of 65 phase I and II trials of an anticancer drug for approval were reviewed in terms of definition of eligibility criteria, maximum tolerated dose (MTD), sample size, response criteria, and extramural review for tumor responses. The MTD is the dose associated with seriouis but reversible toxicities in a sizeable proportion of patients and the one that offers the best chance for a favorable therapeutic ratio (Piantadosi 1997). The number of patients accrued in a trial, percentage of ineligible patients, number of participant hospitals in a trial, and the study period defined as the months between the first and last patient accrual were also analyzed. They were obtained from a published paper for 53 trials, from a meeting abstract and in-company resource for one trial, and from in-company resource alone for the remaining 11 trials. The clinical developmental period of an anticancer drug was defined as years between the start month of the first phase I trial and the month of the approval for lung cancer. These parameters are compared according to the approval year of the drug. We categorized three periods of approval: 1) before 1989, 2) between 1989 and 1996, and 3) between 1997 and 2004, because the former GCP was enforced in 1989, and the new GCP in 1997 (Fujiwara et al. 2002).

Of the 23 anticancer drugs, six drugs whose clinical development started before 1974 were approved on the basis of the clinical experience of the use of the drug without clinical trials (Fig. 1). A total of 24 phase I trials were identified (Table 1). The MTD was not defined in the protocol of any trials before 1989, but was defined in 33% of trials between 1989 and 1996, and in 70% of trials after 1996. Instead of the MTD, maximum acceptable dose, defined as the dose associated with grade 2 or severer toxicity in two thirds or more patients, was used in a trial after 1996. About twice more patients were registered in a trial before 1989 than thereafter, but 20% of the registered patients before 1989 were ineligible. The study period of a phase I trial got longer as the number of participant hospitals decreased, from 7 months and 11 hospitals before 1989 to 13 months and 4 hospitals after 1996, respectively.

In this review, 41 phase II trials for approval were analyzed (Table 2). Calculation of the sample size was not made in any trials before 1989, was seen in 40% of trials between 1989 and 1996, and in all trials thereafter. Response criteria were

TABLE 1. Investigational new drug phase I trials for approval.

	Before 1989	1989-1996	1997 or thereafter
Total number of trials	7	6	11
Defined, number (%) of trials			
Eligibility criteria	4 (57)	6 (100)	11 (100)
Maximum tolerated dose*	0 (0)	2 (33)	7 (70) ‡
Results of trials, median (range)			
Number of patients**	61 (32-170)	24 (18-54)	29 (9-43)
% of ineligible patients	20 (20-21) †	8 (0-33)	6 (0-22)
Number of hospitals	11 (1-21)	9 (1-18)	4 (1-17)
Study period in months	7 (5-30)	10 (5-11)	13 (8-24)

*Statistically significant difference obtained ($p = 0.014$ by the chi-square test); **Statistically significant difference obtained ($p < 0.01$ by the Kruskal Wallis test); †Data were available in 2 trials only; ‡Data were available in 10 trials only.

TABLE 2. Investigational new drug phase II trials for approval.

	Before 1989	1989-1996	1997 or thereafter
Total number of trials	7	11	23
Defined, number (%) of trials			
Eligibility criteria	4 (57)	11 (100)	23 (100)
Sample size calculation*	0 (0)	4 (40) ‡	23 (100)
Response criteria	6 (86)	11 (100)	23 (100)
Extramural review	3 (43)	9 (82)	23 (100)
Results of trials, median (range)			
Number of patients	71 (10-127)	68 (18-153)	61 (11-102)
% of ineligible patients	18 (0-29) †	3 (0-22)	3 (0-12)
Number of hospitals	27 (3-103)	17 (1-30)	20 (5-46)
Study period in months	18 (12-36)	12 (6-34)	26 (4-48) §

*Statistically significant difference obtained ($p < 0.01$ by the chi-square test); †Data were available in 5 trials only; ‡Data were available in 10 trials only; §Data were available in 22 trials only.

defined in almost all studies, but an extramural review was conducted only after 1989. The median number of registered patients in a trial was constant through the three periods, but the percentage of ineligible patients was high in trials conducted before 1989. The number of patients in a trial, and the number of hospitals in a trial were similar regardless of the year. The median study period in recent trials was 26 months.

The clinical development period was evaluated in the 23 drugs. Cisplatin was approved for germ cell tumors in 1983 and additionally approved for non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) in 1986. S-1 was firstly approved for gastric cancer in 1999, and additionally approved for NSCLC in 2004. The other drugs were approved for lung cancer for the first time. The median (range) clinical development period was 5.2 (3.2-14.5) years before 1989, 6.0 (4.8-9.1) years between 1989 and 1996, and 9.0 (3.9-15.4) years in 1997 or thereafter.

Development and recent problems of phase I and phase II trials in Japan

The concept of the "clinical trial" was not widely followed in Japan until 1974, when a phase I trial of nimustine hydrochloride (ACNU) was launched as one part of the United States-Japan Cooperation Cancer Research Program on the basis of the agreement between the National Cancer Institute and Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (Sugano 1982; Niitani 1999). Phase I trials before 1989 required the accrual of many patients, because 1) the maximum tolerated dose was not defined, 2) many patients were treated at unnecessary dose levels because the modified Fibonacci dose escalation schedule was not applied, and 3) the percentage of ineligible patients was high. Some of these issues were improved in 1997 or thereafter, but the maximum tolerated dose is still not defined in as many as 40% of trials. Recently, oncology phase I trials came to be conducted among fewer hospitals than before, as more participants were recruited in each hospital. This facilitated communication among phase I investigators, which is important to complete phase I trials safely.

Phase II trials play the central role in anticancer agent approval in Japan, because the approval can be granted based on the response rate in these trials. The quality of protocols for phase II trials suggested by eligibility criteria, sample size calculation, response criteria, and extramural review has been improved significantly. The study period of phase II trials, however, was and is still too long, as long as 4 years in recent trials. To increase participant hospitals, however, is not necessarily a desirable solution,

because a certain number of patients per hospital are needed to maintain the quality of trials by training doctors in the application of a new drug. Thus, enhancing patient recruitment in each hospital participating in the trial is the most important consideration.

A high standard of oncology clinical practice as the basis for clinical trials

Since a high standard of clinical practice is the basis for all clinical trials, the infrastructure for oncological clinical practice should be promptly advanced. The shortage of human resources including medical oncologists and oncology nurse practitioners in Japan is serious and acute. In the United States, medical oncology was established as a separate discipline by the American Board of Internal Medicine in 1971, and approximately 8,000 certified internists as of 2003 have been further certified by the Board in the subspecialty of medical oncology (Holland et al. 2003). In contrast, medical oncology has not been established as an academic unit or a regular university course in many medical schools in Japan. The Japanese Society of Medical Oncology was launched as an association in 1993, and framed the system of cancer medical specialists in 2003. A total of 1,479 doctors were certified as a tentative medical oncology supervisor between 2003 and 2005, and 47 doctors as a medical oncology specialist in 2005 (Table 3) (Japanese Society of Medical Oncology 2005).

To deal with complex cancer care, oncology nurse practitioners in the United States have become an integral part of the multidisciplinary team in the care of patients. As of 2002, more than 19,000 oncology nurse practitioners have been certified by the Oncology Nursing Society in the United States (Rieger 2003). In contrast, the number of oncology nurse practitioners registered in the Japanese Nursing Association was only 44 as of 2005 (Table 3) (Japanese Nursing Association 2005). Introduction of oncology nurse practitioners in clinical practice should lessen the burden on oncologists significantly and help them to have the incentive to take part in registration-directed clinical trials.

The infrastructure and human resources to support clinical trials

The infrastructure to support in-house clinical trials remains insufficient and even lacking in almost all institutes in Japan, while it has been advanced systematically in the United States. In the 1960s, General Clinical Research Centers were founded with the support of National Institutes of Health in 80 universities and academic institutions to provide the primary resources and optimal environment necessary for investigators to conduct clinical research. They include experienced nursing, laboratory, computer system, and biostatistical staff (Robertson and Tung 2001; General Clinical Research Centers 2005). To carry out a multicenter trial, a central data center

TABLE 3. Medical oncology professionals in Japan and the USA.

Professionals	*n* of medical oncology professionals	
	Japan	USA
Medical oncologists	47 [1]	8,000 [2]
Oncology nurse practitioners	44 [3]	19,000 < [4]
Clinical research coordinators	335 [5]	10,723 [6]

[1] Certified by the Japanese Society of Medical Oncology in 2005.
[2] Certified by the American Board of Internal Medicine as of 2003.
[3] Certified by the Japanese Nursing Association as of 2005.
[4] Certified by the Oncology Nursing Society as of 2002.
[5] Certified by the Japanese Society of Clinical Pharmacology and Therapeutics as of 2005.
[6] Certified by the Association of Clinical Research Professionals as of 2005.

is needed to deal with the increased administrative difficulties and quality assurance problems associated with this type of trial (Pollock 1994). The quality control and quality assurance system of the Japan Clinical Oncology Group has been significantly developed during the last two decades (Japan Clinical Oncology Group 2005). Using Internet resources may facilitate developing national and regional networks for clinical trials by reducing the burden associated with the extensive research time and considerable cost of all these processes (Paul et al. 2005).

The new GCP demands more of the clinical researchers in time, resources and money to enhance the science, credibility, and ethics of clinical trials for approval (Sweatman 2003). The clinical research coordinator (CRC) plays a key role in the clinical trial process by supporting investigators. The CRCs are involved in every aspect of registration-directed clinical trials, including protocol development, checking eligibility criteria, informed consent, organizing study schedules, checking clinical tests, filling in case report forms, and providing support for monitoring and auditing the trials (Rico-Villademoros et al. 2004; Sakamoto 2004). Association of Clinical Research Professionals in the USA has offered the CRC certification since 1992, and there are 10,723 CRCs to date (Association of Clinical Research Professionals 2006). The Japanese Society of Clinical Pharmacology and Therapeutics launched the certified CRC system in 2003, and there were 335 certified CRCs as of 2005 (Table 3) (The Japanese Society of Clinical Pharmacology and Therapeutics 2005).

In conclusion, clinical trials of anticancer agents for approval have been developing significantly, but still remain at an unsatisfactory level. Development of the infrastructure and human resources for clinical trials is an urgent task to complete good quality clinical trials for approval without delay.

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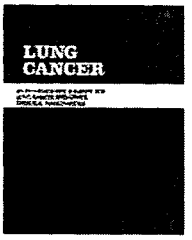

Randomized trial of drip infusion versus bolus injection of vinorelbine for the control of local venous toxicity

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KEYWORDS
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Non-small cell lung cancer;
Chemotherapy;
Toxicity;
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Randomized trial

Summary Vinorelbine is a moderate vesicant that is well known to cause local venous toxicity such as drug induced-phlebitis. We conducted a prospective randomized trial to determine whether a 1-min bolus injection (1 min bolus) of vinorelbine reduced the incidence of local venous toxicity compared with a 6-min drip infusion (6 min infusion). Non-small cell lung cancer patients who were to receive chemotherapy containing vinorelbine were randomly assigned to receive either 6 min infusion or 1 min bolus of the drug. All infusions were administered through a peripheral vein. Local venous toxicity was evaluated at each infusion up to two cycles. Eighty-three patients were randomized into the study and 81 of them assessable for analysis. One hundred thirty-eight infusions to 40 patients in 6 min infusion and 135 infusions to 41 patients in 1 min bolus were delivered. Vinorelbine induced-local venous toxicity was observed in 33% of patients in 6 min infusion and 24% in 1 min bolus. There was no statistically significant difference between the two arms ($P = 0.41$). The incidence of local venous toxicity per infusions was 16% (22 of 138 infusions) in 6 min infusion and 11% (15 of 135 infusions) in 1 min bolus ($P = 0.47$). No severe local venous toxicity was seen in either arm. In this study, the administration of in 1 min bolus of vinorelbine did not significantly reduce the incidence of local venous toxicity compared with 6 min infusion. Further studies for the control of local venous toxicity of vinorelbine are warranted.

1. Introduction

Vinorelbine is a second-generation semi-synthetic vinca alkaloid whose antitumor activity is related to its ability to depolymerize microtubules and disrupt the mitotic spindle apparatus [1]. Vinorelbine has been shown to have clearly higher activity and lower neurotoxicity than the other vinca

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alkaloids, and is currently one of the most active agents for the treatment of non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) or other solid tumors [2–4].

Vinorelbine is most commonly administered through a peripheral vein as drip infusion over a period of between 6 and 10 min [5]. However, vinorelbine is a moderate vesicant that is well documented to cause local venous toxicity such as drug induced-phlebitis and venous irritation, and its incidence of approximately 30% has been reported in patients who received vinorelbine via a 6–10 min drip infusion [6,7]. Although local venous toxicity is not life threatening, it can result in discomfort or pain and can be a disincentive of chemotherapy to the patients. Therefore local venous toxicity should be managed effectively to decrease patient discomfort.

Recently, a retrospective study on drug induced-phlebitis with bolus injection of vinorelbine has been reported. In the analysis of 39 patients who received the administration of bolus injection of vinorelbine, drug induced-phlebitis occurred in only 1 of 39 patients (2.6%). The results suggested that the administration of bolus injection of vinorelbine might decrease the incidence of drug induced-phlebitis when compared common drip infusion [8]. Furthermore, shortening the infusion time of vinorelbine has also been reported to reduce the incidence of drug induced-phlebitis [9], although a randomized trial evaluating the bolus injection of vinorelbine has not been performed.

We conducted a prospective randomized trial to determine whether a 1-min bolus injection (1 min bolus) of vinorelbine reduced the incidence of local venous toxicity compared with a 6-min drip infusion (6 min infusion). In addition, we assessed the incidence of acute lower back pain, which has been reported to occur in shorter time infusions of vinorelbine [10] as other toxicity.

2. Patients and methods

2.1. Patient eligibility

Patients who had histological or cytological evidence of cancer, and planned to receive vinorelbine-containing chemotherapy as peripheral infusion, were eligible for this study. The patients were required to be 20 years of age or older and have an Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group performance status (PS) of 0–2. Patients were excluded if they had previous treatment with vinorelbine, medical condition that required regular use of steroids, or were pregnant or nursing. All patients provided written informed consent before randomization for this study, and the study was approved by the institutional review board at the National Cancer Center.

2.2. Study design

This study was a randomized trial comparing 1 min bolus of vinorelbine with 6 min infusion for the control of local venous toxicity. The study was performed in the National Cancer Center Hospital East. Patients were randomly assigned to receive either 6 min infusion or 1 min bolus by a minimization method. Before randomization, patients were stratified by chemotherapy regimens (stratum I: vinorelbine plus cisplatin, stratum II: vinorelbine plus gemcitabine, stratum III: vinorelbine alone) and body mass index (BMI) (stratum I: normal (BMI < 24), stratum II: high (BMI 24 or more)). We reported previously that high BMI was associated with a significant increased risk of vinorelbine irritation [6].

2.3. Treatment plan

Patients received either 6 min infusion or 1 min bolus of vinorelbine. Vinorelbine was diluted in 50 ml (6 min infusion) or 20 ml (1 min bolus) normal saline, respectively. All infusions were administered through a peripheral vein and followed by flushing the vein with approximately 200 ml of fluid. The administration of other drugs for the prevention of local venous toxicity was not allowed. Vinorelbine-containing chemotherapy regimens consisted of vinorelbine 20–25 mg/m^2 on days 1 and 8 plus cisplatin 80 mg/m^2 on day 1 every 3 weeks, vinorelbine 20–25 mg/m^2 plus gemcitabine 1000 mg/m^2 on days 1 and 8 every 3 weeks, or vinorelbine 20–25 mg/m^2 alone on days 1, 8 and 15 every 4 weeks.

2.4. Outcome assessment

The primary endpoint of this study was the incidence of local venous toxicity per patient. Local venous toxicity was evaluated at each infusion up to two cycles and graded according to the National Cancer Institute Common Toxicity Criteria (NCI-CTC) version 2.0 for injection site reaction by attending physician: grade 0, none; grade 1, pain, itching or erythema; grade 2, pain or swelling, with inflammation or phlebitis; and grade 3, ulceration or necrosis that is severe or prolonged or requires surgery. After the administration of vinorelbine, patients self-recorded in personal dairies symptoms of pain, itching, swelling, blister, or ulceration at injection. The patient's dairies were also used for support of diagnosis of local venous toxicity. Local venous toxicity was categorized as positive or negative, with positive defined as experience of grade 1 or more local venous toxicity at least once during treatment. The secondary endpoint of this study was the incidence of local venous toxicity per infusions and other toxicity. The incidence of acute lower back pain, which was reported to occur in shorter time infusion of vinorelbine, and hematological toxicity were mainly assessed as the other toxicity, and graded according to NCI-CTC version 2.0.

2.5. Statistical analysis

The purpose of this study was to determine whether 1 min bolus of vinorelbine reduced the incidence of local venous toxicity compared with 6 min infusion. The calculation of sample size was based on the estimated incidence of local venous toxicity per patient in the two treatment groups. On the basis of previous reports [6,8], an incidence of local venous toxicity per patients of 30% in 6 min infusion and of 5% in 1 min bolus was assumed. To demonstrate this hypothesis with an alpha of 5% and a power of 80% in a two-sided test, thirty-five patients from each group were required. A total of 80 patients were projected to be accrued. All comparisons between proportions were performed by the Chi-square test

or Fisher's exact test, as appropriate. Multivariate analysis was performed by logistic regression procedure to determine the relationship between the incidence of local venous toxicity and the clinical variables. P values < 0.05 were considered significant. The reported P values were based on two-sided tests. Statistical analysis software (StatView-J Ver.5.0, Macintosh) was used for the analyses.

3. Results

3.1. Patient characteristics

Between October 2002 and April 2003, 83 patients were enrolled and randomly assigned into the study. Baseline patient characteristics according to treatment group are shown in Table 1. The two treatment groups were well balanced in regards to age, PS, chemotherapy regimens, and BMI. All patients had advanced NSCLC and no prior chemotherapy. Two patients were not assessable for analysis because they refused to receive chemotherapy after randomization.

Treatment delivery is shown in Table 2. One hundred and thirty-eight infusions to 40 patients in 6 min infusion and 135 infusions to 41 patients in 1 min bolus were delivered. There was no significant difference between the two arms for treatment delivery of vinorelbine.

3.2. The incidence of local venous toxicity

The incidence of local venous toxicity was 33% (95% confidence interval (CI), 18.6–49.1%) in 6 min infusion (13 of the 40 patients) and 24% (95% CI, 12.4–40.3%) in 1 min bolus (10 of the 41 patients) (Fig. 1a). There was no statistically significant difference between the two arms ($P = 0.41$; relative risk, 0.67; 95% CI, 0.25–1.77). In 6 min infusion, grade 1 local venous toxicity was observed in 12 patients, grade 2 in 1 patient; in 1 min bolus, grade 1 local venous toxicity was observed in 8 patients, grade 2 in 2 patients. No severe local venous toxicity was seen with both arms. The incidence of local venous toxicity per infusions was 16% in 6 min infusion (22 of 138 infusions) and 11% in 1 min bolus (15 of 135 infusions) ($P = 0.47$) (Fig. 1b).

The incidence of local venous toxicity according to chemotherapy regimens were 29% (18/60) in the vinorelbine plus cisplatin group, 22% (2/9) in the vinorelbine plus gemcitabine group, and 25% (1/4) in the vinorelbine alone group, respectively. The incidence of local venous toxicity in the normal BMI group was 30% compared with 24% in the high BMI group ($P = 0.77$). There was no statistically significant difference among the stratified factors. We used multivariate logistic regression analysis to determine the relationship

Table 2 Treatment delivery

	6 min drip infusion	1 min bolus injection
Evaluable patients	40	41
Vinorelbine infusions		
1	1	3
2	9	8
3	1	4
4	29	26
Total infusions	138	135
Vinorelbine (mg)/body		
Median (range)	39 (30–48)	40 (27–48)

Table 1 Baseline patients characteristics

Characteristic	6 min drip infusion ($n = 41$)		1 min bolus injection ($n = 42$)		P
	No.	%	No.	%	
Age (years)					
Median	65		65		0.37
Range	42–76		49–78		
Sex					
Male	29	71	36	86	0.10
Female	12	29	6	14	
ECOG performance status					
0/1	7/29	88	11/28	93	0.48
2	5	12	3	7	
Chemotherapy regimen					
Vinorelbine/cisplatin	35	85	35	83	0.95
Vinorelbine/gemcitabine	4	10	5	12	
Vinorelbine alone	2	5	2	5	
Body mass index					
Median (range)	21.7 (13.5–34.2)		21.2 (14.7–29.9)		0.79
Normal ≤ 24	31	76	31	74	
High > 24	10	24	11	26	

ECOG, Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group.

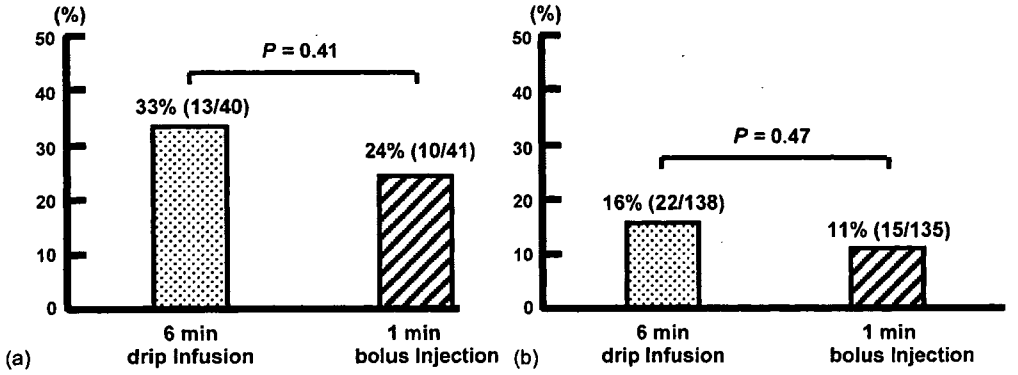

Fig. 1 The incidence of local venous toxicity: (a) per patient, (b) per infusions.

between local venous toxicity and the clinical variables (sex, age, chemotherapeutic regimen, BMI, the dose of VNR, and treatment arm). No significant correlations between the incidence of local venous toxicity and the clinical variables were found.

According to the patient's self-recorded diary, 43% (17/40) of patients in 6 min infusion had at least one symptom at injection site and 34% (14/41) of patients in 1 min bolus ($P = 0.43$).

3.3. Other toxicity

Acute lower back pain (>grade 1) was observed in 8% of 6 min infusion, and in 7% of 1 min bolus. There was no statistically significant difference between the two arms ($P > 0.99$). Grade 3/4 neutropenia and thrombocytopenia occurred with similar frequency in both arms.

4. Discussion

Local venous toxicity such as drug induced-phlebitis is one of the discomforting toxicities for patients in cancer chemotherapy. Vinorelbine is generally well tolerated and can be administered safely in an outpatient setting; however, it is a moderate vesicant with the potential to cause local venous toxicity. In our study, the incidence of local venous toxicity with the 6-min drip infusion of vinorelbine, which was used as control arm, was 33%, a similar frequency as found in past reports [6,7].

This is the first randomized study that evaluated the incidence of local venous toxicity with the bolus injection of vinorelbine. In this study, the administration of 1 min bolus of vinorelbine did not significantly reduce the incidence of local venous toxicity compared with 6 min infusion. The 24% rate of local venous toxicity with 1 min bolus of vinorelbine, which was observed in our study, was higher than anticipated in the study hypothesis. We speculate that our study hypothesis overestimated the incidence of local venous toxicity with 1 min bolus of vinorelbine because the previous reference reports were not prospective randomized studies [7,8]. Indeed, our study indicated that the administration of 1 min bolus of vinorelbine resulted in a non-statistically significant 27% reduction in rate of local venous toxicity compared with the 33% rate of 6 min infusion. We think that our study might have no under power to detect a clinically significant difference between the two treatment groups. In our study, an overall incidence of local venous toxicity was 28% although no severe local venous toxicity was seen. If a patient with only poor peripheral venous access receives the administration of vinorelbine, the use of implantable central venous access device should be considered. Moreover, the administration of 1 min bolus of vinorelbine has not been associated with an increased risk of acute lower back pain, which was previously reported to occur in shorter time infusions of vinorelbine [10]. Hematologic toxicity such as neutropenia and thrombocytopenia were also equivalent in both arms. In addition, we examined the clinical risk factors related to local venous toxicity of vinorelbine, but unfortunately there was no significant clinical risk factor in this study.

Two other randomized studies have been performed for the control of local venous toxicity of vinorelbine. Lazano et al. [9] compared the use of heparin-containing solution as anti-thrombotic effect [11] with 10-min infusion of vinorelbine. In their study, a population of 23 patients was randomized to arm A, in which vinorelbine plus 5000 U of heparin was diluted in 500 ml of normal saline and infused over 2 h, or arm B, in which vinorelbine was diluted in 50 ml of normal saline and infused over 10 min. Arm A with heparin was found to be inferior to arm B in terms of pain control at the injection site. Fasce et al evaluated the influence of infusion time of vinorelbine on local venous toxicity in a randomized cross-over trial [10]. Forty-eight patients with solid tumors were randomized to 6-min infusion or 20-min infusion of vinorelbine. Local venous toxicity was recorded in 23 patients (48%) in the 6-min infusion group, and in 26 patients (56%) in the 20-min infusion group, respectively. On the basis of their results, we used the administration of 6 min infusion of vinorelbine as the control arm in this study. The use of defibrotide [12,13] as another anti-thrombotic drug, or cimetidine [14], which was reported to inhibit histamine actions in endothelial cells by vinorelbine [15], have been investigated in an attempt to reduce the incidence of local venous toxicity of vinorelbine. However, there have been no randomized controlled trials to verify the benefit of these methods, and thus a randomized controlled study is needed to draw definitive conclusions about their efficacy.

In conclusion, our findings indicated that the incidence of local venous toxicity with 1 min bolus of vinorelbine was

higher than previously reported. In our study, the administration of 1 min bolus of vinorelbine did not significantly reduce the incidence of local venous toxicity compared with 6 min infusion. Further studies for the control of local venous toxicity of vinorelbine are warranted.

Acknowledgement

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Clinical Trials Across Continents: Drug Development Challenges Regarding International Collaborations

By Nagahiro Saijo, MD, PhD

Overview: **A key consideration for global drug development and registration involves the acceptability of foreign clinical data in the different regions. Transcontinental trials could be possible if the clinical trials were done based on the same regulational standard against populations with acceptable ethnic differences. The problems of global drug development are discussed with special stress on pharmacodynamic and pharmacogenomic differences between white and Asian populations.**

THE CANCER burden in developed countries and resource-poor countries is sure to grow for three reasons. First, populations are rapidly increasing worldwide, especially in the majority of poor countries. Second, the elderly proportion is growing in most countries, and third, the incidence and mortality of cancers associated with smoking, diet, and obesity, have been increasing. Despite efforts at early detection and early surgery and radiotherapy, progress in the treatment of such cancers has been very slow, making the development of new anticancer drugs an extremely important and urgent issue to decrease cancer-related deaths worldwide. Resources are so limited that clinical trials need to be conducted as efficiently as possible, and one effort in that direction has been to conduct clinical trials on more than one continent to obtain adequate sample sizes in a short time. Anticancer drug development is a complex process that involves an interplay between industry, academia, government regulatory agencies, patient advocacy groups, and other stakeholders. The goal of anticancer drug development is to simultaneously launch new drugs on the market worldwide. Despite International Conference on Harmonisation (ICH) guideline G5 and the introduction of the bridging strategy, there are major gaps in the dates anticancer drugs become available on the market in different countries, and they do not seem to have dramatically improved.

PROBLEMS IN GLOBAL TRIALS OF ANTICANCER DRUGS

Factors in the complexity of global studies are differences between countries in medical practice, culture, ethnicity, and regulatory policies. The advantages of global development are shorter time for drug development; earlier introduction of new drugs and earlier availability to patients; cost reduction; and reduction in unnecessary exposure of patients to new drugs. The risks of global development are an increase in early-phase clinical trials of many compounds that may fail and may not proceed; low data quality; uncertainty of the acceptability of foreign data; and late-phase clinical trial failure because of unknown ethnic differences in response to the developing compounds.

Factors for success include strategies for global development and each country's development; global team behavior; cultural awareness and communications; and operational delivery. The leader of each global product team should be the worldwide product leader, and each country's leader should provide necessary strategic input into global teams.

The essential factors for team behaviors depend on trust, face-to-face contact, regular communications, open, honest discussion, and ability to challenge.

Factors for the success of global trials include coincidence of strategy for global and local development, the operating team, behaviors, cultural awareness and communications, and power for operational delivery. Ambiguous situations should be avoided by establishing formal rules and procedures. Operational delivery should be transparent, and mutual problems should be shared by global and local investigators. Regular contact by telephone is extremely important. A clear framework and decision making should be made for empowerment for delivery.

Although ICH good clinical practice (GCP) regulations have been distributed to major countries, there are still minor differences between ICH-GCP and local GCP. The requirements are different from local regulatory agencies on preclinical data before initiate clinical trials. Investigators' and patients' understanding of the importance of clinical trials differs by country. The infrastructure for clinical trials, such as the numbers of well-trained investigators and clinical research coordinators are sometimes inadequate, and sometimes there is poor information technology support and training in institutions. The process of applying for permission to conduct a clinical trial and institutional board review differ by institution and are sometimes complicated. English skills sometimes are very poor, and some investigators and institutions cannot accept English documents.

ETHNIC DIFFERENCES

It will be extremely difficult to conduct trials across continents if there are ethnic differences in pharmacokinetics, pharmacodynamics, pharmacogenetics, and pharmacogenomics. Ethnic differences have been clearly demonstrated in regard to only a few anticancer drugs, and progress in pharmacogenomic studies has led to the

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Author's disclosure of potential conflicts of interest is found at the end of this article.

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identification of some of the mechanisms responsible for the ethnic differences.

EPIDERMAL GROWTH FACTOR RECEPTOR TYROSINE KINASE INHIBITOR

A phase I Japanese trial of gefitinib revealed five dramatic responders, and the response rate among the 36 patients accrued to the phase I trial was more than 25%. Subsequent global phase II trials, such as Iressa Dose Evaluation in Advanced Lung Cancer (IDEAL) I and IDEAL II, have yielded a higher response rate in a Japanese population (28%) than in a white population (10%).[1,2] In April 2004, extremely important data were reported suggesting that epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) mutations, especially deletion of exon 19 and the point mutation of exon 21, determine sensitivity to EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs), such as gefitinib and erlotinib.[3,4] The frequency of EGFR mutations has been found to be significantly higher in Asian populations, including Japanese, than in whites (32% vs. 6%). This difference may explain the difference in response rate to EGFR TKIs. The frequency of EGFR mutations also correlated well with clinical factors, such as female sex, nonsmoker, and adenocarcinoma, which are closely related to the response to EGFR TKI.[5,6] The results of the global Iressa Survival Evaluation in Lung Cancer (ISEL) and National Cancer Institute of Canada Clinical Trials Group BR-21 studies also suggest ethnic differences in sensitivity to EGFR TKI.

The ISEL study is a large randomized controlled trial of gefitinib in patients at 210 centers across 28 countries, and the difference between survival time was not statistically significant difference (hazard ratio [HR] = 0.89; p = 0.087) between the gefitinib group and placebo group. However, there was a very clear difference in survival between two groups in the Asian population (HR = 0.66; p = 0.012), although it consisted of only 342 patients, whereas the survival curves of the gefitinib group and placebo group in the non-Asian population (HR = 0.99; p = 0.364) of 1,350 patients were superimposable. In the BR-21 study of erlotinib, the HR for overall survival in the Asian group (0.61) was significantly smaller than in the white group (0.79).[7] These results strongly suggest that EGFR TKIs are different drugs between Asian and whites indicating that different clinical trials of EGFR TKIs should be scheduled based on ethnic differences. Astra Zeneca has instituted the Iressa Pan Asian Study into Asian populations alone. Many global clinical trials have been initiated in Asian countries, including Japan, Korea, China, Taiwan, Singapore, and Thailand. The accrual spread is generally good. If the trials are limited to Asian countries, pharmacogenomic ethnic differences are thought to be small, if they exist at all.

COMMON ARM ANALYSIS

Two common analyses of paclitaxel/carboplatin therapy in advanced non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) were presented in American Society of Clinical Oncology Annual Meetings in 2004 and 2006.[8,9] The purpose of these analyses was to evaluate whether the results of cancer clinical trials conducted in Japan can be directly extrapolated to U.S. populations. Potential differences that may influence the results include trial design and conduct, study-specific criteria, patient demographics, and population-based pharmacogenomics. The purpose of common arm analysis is to demonstrate similarities and differences in patient characteristics and outcomes of the same treatment regimen in Japanese and United States trials in advanced-stage NSCLC, to provide a basis for standardization of study design/conduct, to facilitate interpretation of future trials, and to take the first step toward joint National Cancer Institute-sponsored studies in lung cancer between the two countries.

The trials chosen for this analysis were the Four-Arm Cooperative Study (FACS),[10] Japan Multicenter Trial Organization (JMTO), and Southwest Oncology Group (SWOG) lung programs.[11] The conditions for selection were separate phase III trials, but with an identical common treatment regimen in each, prospective design and conduct, common eligibility and staging, and common response and toxicity criteria. SWOG 0003 was a phase III trial of paclitaxel (225 mg/m^2) and carboplatin (area under the time-concentration curve [AUC] = 6) with or without tirapazamine in advanced NSCLC. The FACS trial compared four arms: irinotecan and cisplatin (reference regimen), paclitaxel (200 mg/m^2) and carboplatin (AUC = 6), gemcitabine and cisplatin, and vinorelbine and cisplatin. The JMTO trial was a phase III trial comparing paclitaxel (225 mg/m^2) and carboplatin (AUC = 6) with gemcitabine/vinorelbine followed by docetaxel. In each trial paclitaxel and carboplatin was administered every 3 weeks. Patients were evenly distributed between arms in regard to age, sex, stage, and histology.

Treatment delivery consisted of a median number of cycles of three, four, and four in the FACS trial, S0003 trial, and JMTO trial, respectively, and the percentage of patients who received more than three cycles was significantly lower in the FACS trial than in the S0003 trial. The JMTO LC00–03 trial whose frequency dose was reduced was significantly higher than in the S0003 trial, although the percentage of patients who received more than three cycles was the same. The frequencies of grade 4 neutropenia and febrile neutropenia in the toxicity analysis were significantly higher in the FACS trial and LC00–03 trial than in the S0003 trial, but grade 3 to 4 neuropathy was more frequent in the S0003 trial and LC00–03 trial than in the FACS trial. The response rates in the three trials ranged from 32% to 36% and were almost the same. Progression-free survival time, median survival time, and 1-year survival rates were significantly better in the Japanese trials than in the S0003 trial. This common arm analysis shows great similarities in patient characteristics in the FACS, LC00–03 trial, and S0003 trial. The differences in toxicities may be due to differences in cumulative paclitaxel dose (neuropathy) and/or population-based pharmacogenomics (increased neutropenia and febrile neutropenia in the FACS trial despite lower paclitaxel doses). Survival with paclitaxel/carboplatin was

significantly better in the Japanese trials, although the response rates were equivalent.

The findings discussed here suggest that possible pharmacogenomic differences in drug disposition should be carefully considered in clinical trials across continents.

Sample collection for a pharmacogenomic analysis of taxanes has been completed in Japan. Single nucleotide polymorphism data for key enzyme/protein in the metabolism of taxanes have been obtained, and pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics data have also been collected. Differential analysis of the pharmacogenomics of the response to taxanes in the United States and Japan may make it possible to solve the problems of pharmacogenomic differences in clinical trials across continents.

Author's Disclosures of Potential Conflicts of Interest

Author	Employment or Leadership Positions (Commercial Firms)	Consultant or Advisory Role	Stock Ownership	Honoraria	Research Funding	Expert Testimony	Other Remuneration
Nagahiro Saijo			Takeda	Janssen-Cilag; Chugar; Kirin; Takeda; Eisai, Inc; Lilly Oncology; Merck; AstraZeneca			

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Irinotecan pharmacokinetics/pharmacodynamics and *UGT1A* genetic polymorphisms in Japanese: roles of *UGT1A1*6* and **28*

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Objectives **SN-38, an active metabolite of irinotecan, is detoxified by glucuronidation with UGT1A isoforms, 1A1, 1A7, 1A9, and 1A10. The pharmacogenetic information on *UGT1A* haplotypes covering all these isoforms is important for the individualized therapy of irinotecan. Associations between *UGT1A* haplotypes and pharmacokinetics/pharmacodynamics of irinotecan were investigated to identify pharmacogenetic markers.**

Methods **Associations between *UGT1A* haplotypes and the area under concentration curve ratio (SN-38 glucuronide/SN-38) or toxicities were analyzed in 177 Japanese cancer patients treated with irinotecan as a single agent or in combination chemotherapy. For association analysis, diplotypes of *UGT1A* gene segments [(*1A1*, *1A7*, *1A9*, *1A10*), and Block C (common exons 2–5)] and combinatorial haplotypes (*1A9-1A7-1A1*) were used. The relationship between diplotypes and toxicities was investigated in 55 patients treated with irinotecan as a single agent.**

Results **Among diplotypes of *UGT1A* genes, patients with the haplotypes harboring *UGT1A1*6* or **28* had significantly reduced area under concentration curve ratios, with the effects of *UGT1A1*6* or **28* being of a similar scale. A gene dose effect on the area under concentration curve ratio was observed for the number of haplotypes containing **28* or **6* (5.55, 3.62, and 2.07 for 0, 1, and 2 haplotypes, respectively, $P<0.0001$). In multivariate analysis, the homozygotes and double heterozygotes of **6* and **28* (**6/*6*, **28/*28* and **6/*28*) were significantly associated with severe neutropenia in 53 patients who received irinotecan monotherapy.**

Conclusions **The haplotypes significantly associated with reduced area under concentration curve ratios and neutropenia contained *UGT1A1*6* or **28*, and both of them should be genotyped before irinotecan is given to Japanese and probably other Asian patients. *Pharmacogenetics and Genomics* 17:497–504 © 2007 Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.**

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Introduction

Irinotecan, an anticancer prodrug, is widely applied for colorectal, lung, stomach, ovarian, and other various cancers. It is activated by carboxylesterases to SN-38 (7-ethyl-10-hydroxycamptothecin), which shows antitumor activity by inhibiting topoisomerase I [1,2]. SN-38 is subsequently glucuronidated by uridine diphosphate glucuronosyltransferases (*UGTs*) to form an inactive metabolite, SN-38 glucuronide (SN-38G) [3]. Dose-limiting toxicities of irinotecan are diarrhea and leukopenia [4], and reduced activity for SN-38G formation is closely related to severe toxicities [5]. Among UGT isoforms, UGT1A1 is abundant in both the liver and intestine and is thought to be mainly responsible for inactivation of SN-38 [3,6]. Genetic polymorphisms of *UGT1A1* result in reduced enzyme activity and increased toxicity by irinotecan. A significant association of *UGT 1A1*28*, a repeat polymorphism of the TATA box (-40_-39insTA) [3,7], with severe irinotecan-induced diarrhea/leukopenia was first reported in a retrospective study of Japanese cancer patients [8]. Subsequent pharmacogenetic studies in Caucasians have shown close associations of **28* with reduced glucuronidation of SN-38 and/or severe neutropenia/diarrhea [9–12]. These

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studies have clearly indicated that **28* is a good genetic marker for individualized irinotecan therapy. On the basis of these observations, the Food and Drug Administration of the United States has approved an amendment of the label for Camptosar (irinotecan HCl) and added a warning to consider a reduction in the starting dose of irinotecan for **28* homozygous patients (NDA 20-571/S-024/S-027/S-028).

There is significant racial difference in *UGT1A1* polymorphisms among Asians, Caucasians, and Africans [13]. Although the association of *UGT 1A1*28* with toxicities by irinotecan was first described in Japanese patients, its frequency in Japanese is one-third of that in Caucasians. Another low-activity allele **6* [211G > A(G71R)], which is not detected in Caucasians or Africans, is as frequent as the **28* allele in Japanese. Moreover, the area under concentration curve (AUC) ratio of SN-38G to SN-38 was decreased in patients having **6* haplotypes [14].

In addition to UGT1A1, recent studies have suggested possible contributions to SN-38G formation by UGT1A7, 1A9, and 1A10 [15–17], which are expressed in the gastrointestinal tract, the liver and intestine, and extrahepatic tissues, respectively [18]. Altered activity resulted from genetic polymorphisms of these isoforms, including *1A7*3* [387T > G(N129K), 391C > A(R131K), 622T > C(W208R)], *1A9*22* (-126_-118T_9 > T_{10}), *1A9*5* [766G > A(D256N)], and *UGT1A10*3* [605C > T(T202I)], but clinical relevance of these polymorphisms is yet to be elucidated [16,19–24]. Moreover, close linkages among *1A9*, *1A7*, and *1A1* polymorphisms were found in Caucasians and Asians in an ethnic-specific manner [20,25–27]. Therefore, comprehensive investigation that covers these genes, along with linkages among the polymorphisms, is needed, in each ethnic population, to evaluate associations between the genetic polymorphisms and pharmacokinetics, as well as clinical outcomes of irinotecan therapy.

Recently, we have analyzed the segmental and block haplotypes of *1A8*, *1A10*, *1A9*, *1A7*, *1A6*, *1A4*, *1A3* and *1A1*, and the common exons 2–5 (Block C) in a Japanese population, including the 177 cancer patients treated with irinotecan, and showed close linkages between the haplotypes, that is, *1A9*22* and *1A7*1*, *1A7*3* and *1A1*6*, and *1A7*3* and *1A1*28* [28]. Preliminary results of *UGT1A1* pharmacogenetics on 85 of these cancer patients were reported previously [14]. In the current study, we investigated the pharmacogenetics of irinotecan, focusing on diplotypes of the *UGT1A* complex covering *1A1*, *1A7*, *1A9*, *1A10*, and Block C (exons 2–5) of 177 patients, so as to elucidate haplotypes or genetic markers associated with altered glucuronidation of SN-38 and toxicities.

Methods

Patients and treatment schedule

Patients with cancers who started chemotherapy with irinotecan at two National Cancer Center Hospitals (Tokyo and Kashiwa, Japan) were eligible if they had not received irinotecan previously. Other eligibility criteria included bilirubin $\leq$ 2 mg/dl, aspartate aminotransferase (GOT) $\leq$ 105 IU/l, alanine aminotransferase (GPT) $\leq$ 120 IU/l, creatinine $\leq$ 1.5 mg/dl, white blood cell count $\geq$ 3000/μl, performance status of 0–2, and at least 4 weeks after the last chemotherapy (2 weeks for radiotherapy). Exclusion criteria were diarrhea, active infection, intestinal paralysis or obstruction, and interstitial pneumonitis. The ethics committees of the National Cancer Center and the National Institute of Health Sciences approved this study, and written informed consent was obtained from all participants.

Irinotecan was administered as a single agent or in combination chemotherapy at the discretion of attending physicians. Doses and schedules were according to approved usage in Japan; intravenous 90-min infusion at a dose of 100 mg/m^2 weekly or 150 mg/m^2 biweekly. In terms of combination chemotherapy, the dose of irinotecan was reduced according to clinical protocols.

Genetic polymorphisms of UGT1As and pharmacokinetics

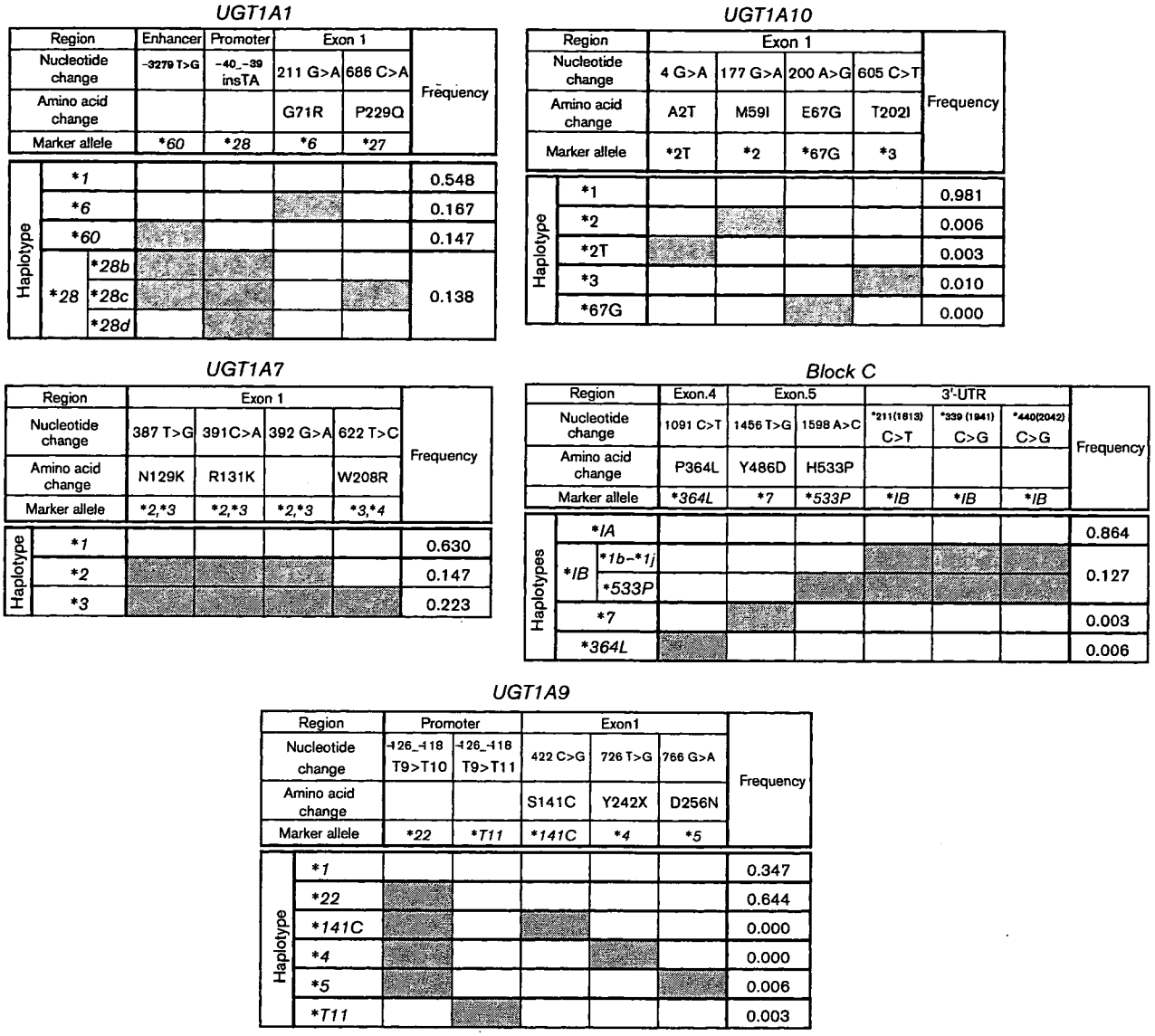
Detailed assay methods for genotypes of the *UGT1A* gene complex were reported previously [14,28]. In this study, we focused on the genetic variations in *UGT1A1*, *1A7*, *1A9*, and *1A10* and common exons 2–5, as they have been reported to contribute to the SN-38 glucuronidation. Haplotype analysis covering these regions was performed in our previous study [28], and haplotypes of each *UGT1A* segment [exon 1 for *1A1*, *1A7*, *1A9*, or *1A10*; and Block C (common exons 2–5)] are summarized in Fig. 1.

Pharmacokinetic analysis for irinotecan was performed as described previously [14]. Briefly, heparinized blood was collected before administration of irinotecan, as well as 0 and 20 min, and 1, 2, 4, 8, and 24 h after termination of the first infusion of irinotecan. Plasma concentrations of irinotecan, SN-38 and SN-38G were determined by the high-performance liquid chromatography [29], and AUC was calculated by the trapezoidal method using WinNonlin version 4.01 (Pharsight Corporation, Mountain View, California, USA). Associations between genotypes and the AUC ratio (AUC of SN-38G/AUC of SN-38) were evaluated in 176 patients.

Monitoring and toxicities

A complete medical history and data on physical examinations were recorded before the irinotecan therapy. Complete blood cell counts with differentials and platelet counts, as well as blood chemistry, were measured once a week during the first 2 months of irinotecan treatment. Toxicities were graded according to the Common Toxicity Criteria of National Cancer Institute version 2. Association of genetic factors with irinotecan toxicities was analyzed primarily in patients who received irinotecan as a single agent.

Fig. 1



Haplotypes of *UGT1A* gene segments (*UGT1A1*, *1A7*, *1A9*, *1A10*, and Block C) in 177 Japanese cancer patients. The tagging variations and haplotypes are shown. Variant alleles are indicated in grey. Definition of Block C haplotypes in our previous paper ([14]) (corresponding to Block 2) were slightly modified.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis on the differences in the AUC ratios (SN-38G/SN-38) among *UGT1A* genotypes was performed using the Kruskal–Wallis test, followed by nonparametric Dunnett's multiple comparison test, or with Wilcoxon test. Analysis of a gene–dose effect of each haplotype was performed using the Jonckheere–Terpestra test in the SAS system, version 5.0 (SAS Institute, Cary, North Carolina, USA). Relationship of *UGT1A* genetic polymorphisms to the toxicities of irinotecan was assessed by the χ^2 test via the use of using Prism version 4.0 (GraphPad Prism Software, San Diego, California, USA). The *P*-value of 0.05 (two-tailed) was set as a significant level, and the multiplicity adjustment was conducted for pharmacokinetics data with the false discovery rate [30].

To identify factors associated with the log-transformed AUC ratio of SN-38G/SN-38, multiple regression analysis was performed using age, sex, body surface area, dosage of irinotecan, history of smoking or drinking, performance status, coadministered drugs, serum biochemistry parameters at baseline, and *1A9-1A7-1A1* and Block C haplotypes (five or more chromosome numbers) or '*1A1*6* or **28*'. For multiple regression analysis of neutropenia, variables included the absolute neutrophil count at baseline and the dosing interval, in addition to