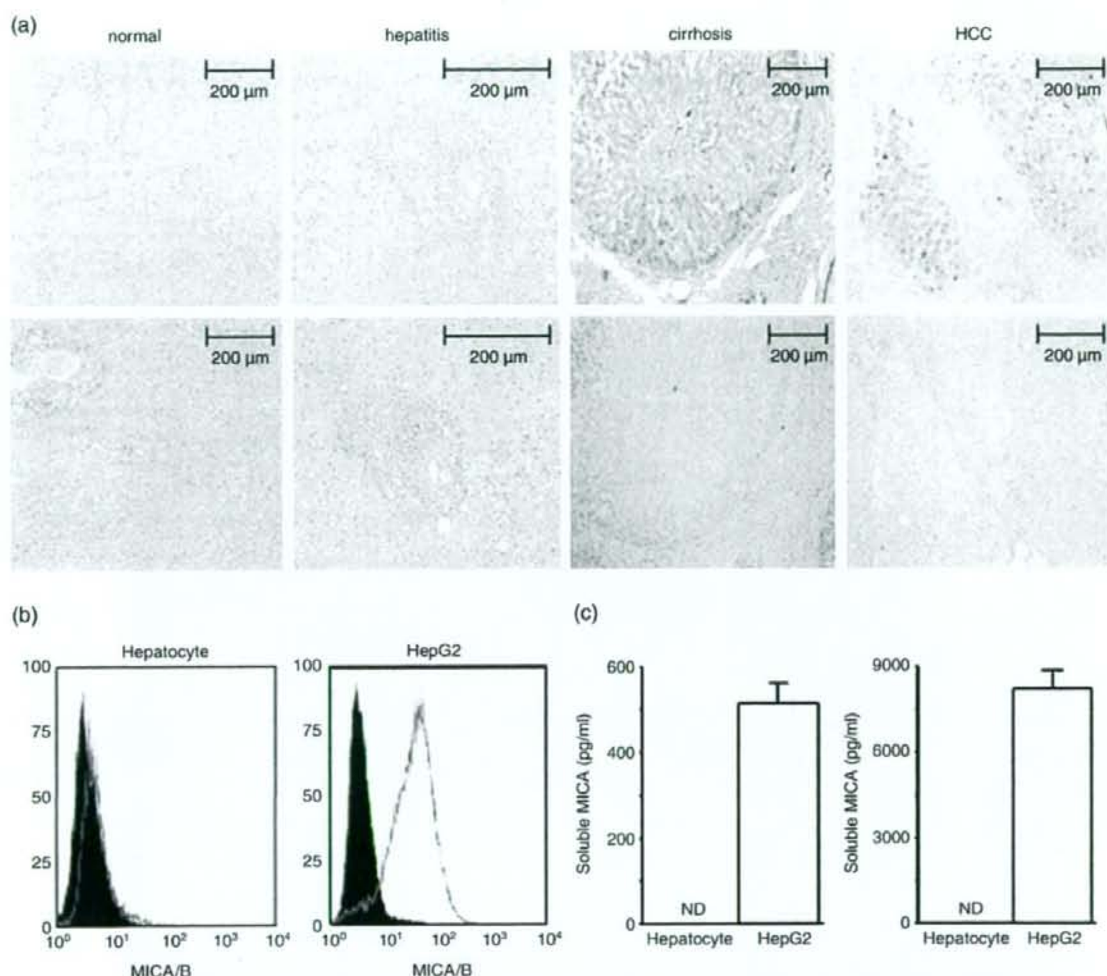

Fig. 2. Expression of major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class I-related chain A and B (MICA/B) and production of their soluble forms. (a) Immunohistochemical detection of MICA/B in liver tissues. Representative staining with anti-MICA/B monoclonal antibody (6D4) is shown for normal liver, chronic hepatitis (F1 stage), liver cirrhosis (F4 stage), and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) (upper panel). As a control, 6D4 monoclonal antibody was preabsorbed with recombinant MICA and applied to the neighboring corresponding sections (lower panel). (b) Flow cytometric analysis of surface expression of MICA/B on HepG2 hepatoma cells and non-transformed hepatocytes. Open and closed histograms represent the staining of anti-MICA/B antibody (6D4) and control antibody, respectively. (c) Soluble MICA and soluble MICB released from HepG2 hepatoma cells and non-transformed hepatocytes. Cells were seeded in a subconfluent condition and cultured for 48 h. The culture supernatants were applied for analysis of soluble MICA and soluble MICB by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay. ND, not detected.

previous report.[3] Importantly, hepatocytes in four of five cirrhotic livers were positive for MICA/B, whereas MICA/B were not detected in hepatocytes from normal liver or liver at the early stage of chronic hepatitis.

We also examined the expression of MICA/B on normal hepatocytes and HepG2 hepatoma cells. Flow cytometric analysis revealed that HepG2 cells expressed MICA/B on the cell surface (Fig. 2b). Both soluble forms of MICA and MICB were detected in the supernatant of HepG2 cells cultured for 48 h (Fig. 2c). In contrast, non-transformed hepatocytes expressed MICA/B faintly and soluble MICA/B could not be detected in their culture supernatant. This observation supported the idea that both soluble MICA and soluble MICB are produced from MICA/B-expressing hepatic cells.

Downregulation of soluble MICA levels by TAE. The above findings suggest that soluble MICA/B are produced from cirrhotic livers as well as HCC. In addition, the progression of the tumor is an important determinant of soluble MICA/B independent of the progression of liver disease. We then asked the question of whether therapeutic intervention of HCC would reduce the levels of soluble MICA or soluble MICB and affect the levels of NKG2D expression on immune cells. We prospectively analyzed the levels of soluble MICA/B and NKG2D expression in 38 HCC patients before and 2 weeks after TAE therapy. As a control, 21 HCC patients who did not receive TAE therapy but were matched to the TAE group with respect to clinical characteristics were analyzed over a 2-week interval.

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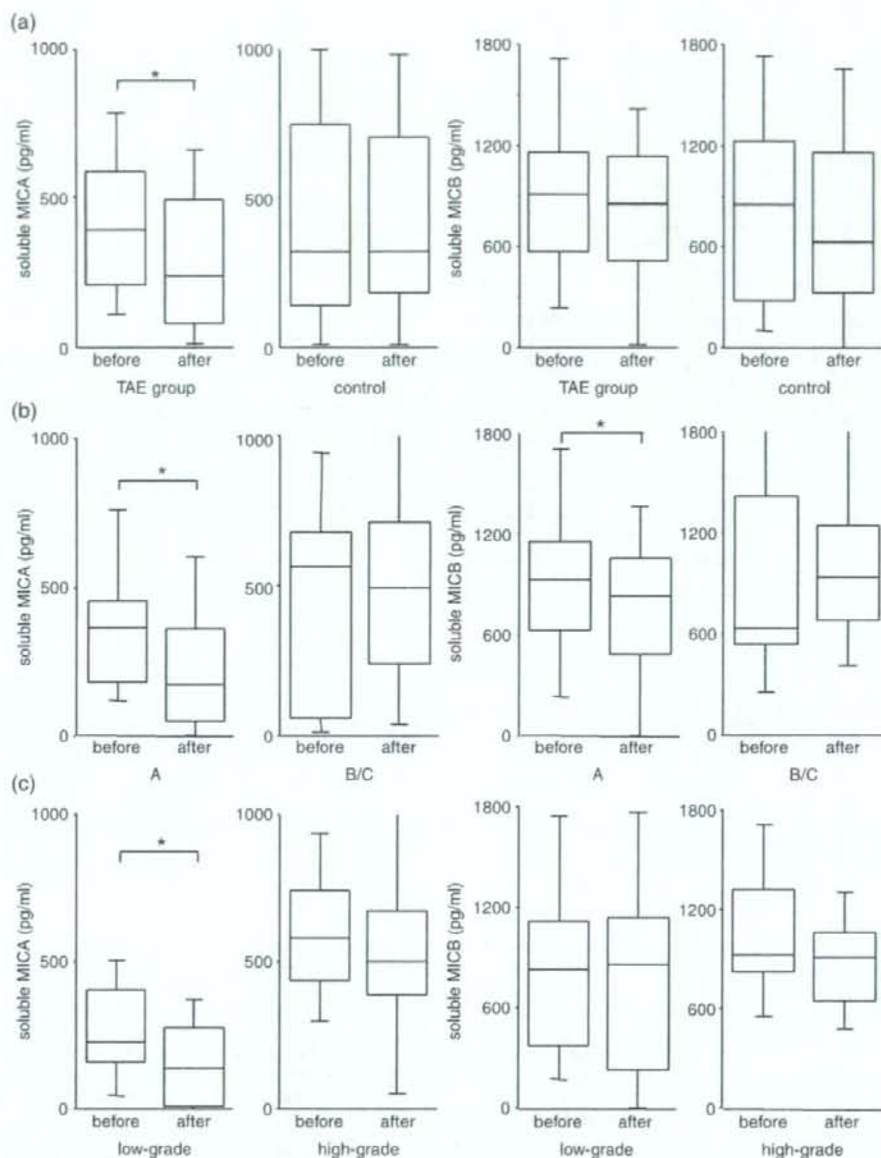

Fig. 3. Soluble major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class I-related chain A and B (MICA/B) during transcatheter arterial embolization (TAE) therapy. (a) Soluble MICA and soluble MICB were measured for 38 patients before and 2 weeks after TAE therapy. Twenty-one patients who did not receive TAE therapy served as controls, with soluble MICA/B being measured twice with a 2-week interval. (b) TAE-treated patients were divide into two groups: Child–Pugh A ($n = 29$) and Child–Pugh B and C ($n = 9$). (c) TAE-treated patients were divided into two groups: low-grade hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) ($n = 24$) and high-grade HCC ($n = 14$). $^*P < 0.05$ by paired t-test.

In the TAE-treated group, the levels of soluble MICA were decreased significantly 2 weeks after TAE therapy compared with those before TAE (Fig. 3a). In contrast, TAE did not affect the levels of soluble MICB. Neither the levels of soluble MICA nor those of soluble MICB changed during the 2-week interval in HCC patients not receiving TAE therapy. As the progression of liver disease and that of the tumor affects the levels of soluble MICA/B, TAE-treated patients were divided according to their Child–Pugh stage or tumor stage. The levels of soluble MICA decreased significantly after TAE therapy in Child–Pugh A patients but not in Child–Pugh B and C patients (Fig. 3b). Interestingly, Child–Pugh A patients showed a significant decrease even in soluble MICB levels after TAE therapy but Child–Pugh B and C patients did not. As for tumor stage, a significant decrease in

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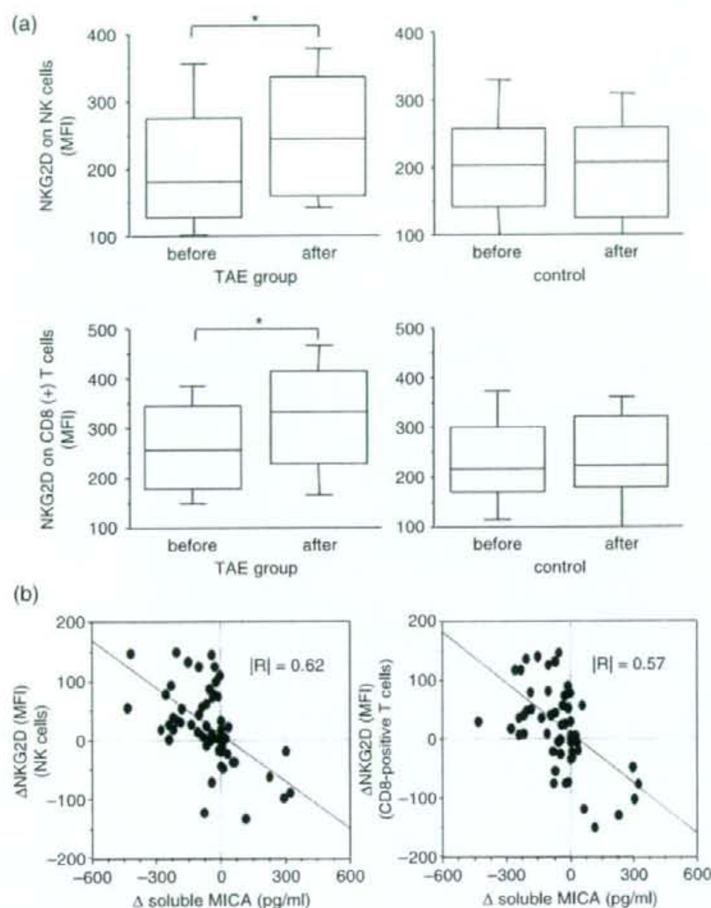

Fig. 4. Natural killer group 2, member D (NKG2D) expression during transcatheter arterial embolization (TAE) therapy. (a) NKG2D expression on natural killer (NK) cells and CD8-positive T cells. NKG2D expression on immune cells was analyzed in 38 patients before and 2 weeks after TAE therapy. Twenty-one patients who did not receive TAE therapy served as a control by measuring NKG2D expression for 2-week interval. NKG2D expression on each cell type was evaluated by mean fluorescence intensity (MFI). $^{*}P < 0.05$ by paired t-test. (b) Correlation between change of soluble MICA and that of NKG2D expression on NK cells or CD8-positive T cells.

soluble MICA levels after TAE therapy was found in low-grade HCC but not in high-grade HCC (Fig. 3c). The levels of MICB did not change in the low-grade or high-grade HCC groups.

Upregulation of NKG2D expression by TAE. The number of PBMC as well as NK and T-cell subsets did not change over the 2-week interval in both the control and TAE-treated patients (data not shown). However, the levels of NKG2D expression on NK and CD8-positive T cells increased significantly upon TAE therapy, but not in the control group (Fig. 4a). To examine the involvement of soluble MICA in NKG2D expression, we analyzed the relationship of changes between soluble MICA and NKG2D expression in HCC patients. Change in soluble MICA was correlated inversely with changes in NKG2D expression on NK and CD8-positive T cells (Fig. 4b). There was no significant correlation between changes in soluble MICB and NKG2D expression (data not shown).

Discussion

In the present study, we demonstrated that soluble MICA/B increases with the progression of chronic liver disease as well as the progression of HCC. Increases in soluble MICA/B in advanced stages of tumors have been reported in some malignancies.[12] However, little is known about soluble MICA/B in the premalignant condition. Recently, Holdenrieder *et al.* examined soluble MICA/B levels in benign as well as malignant diseases from heterogeneous organs.[12,13] They found that benign diseases, such as gastrointestinal tract adenoma, pulmonary infectious disease, and gynecologic benign tumors, showed intermediate levels of soluble MICA/B between healthy controls and malignant disease. Our present findings not only agree with theirs, but also provide evidence that soluble MICA/B increases in premalignant conditions such as liver cirrhosis.

Malignant disease is known to lead frequently to the expression of MICA/B.[2] In contrast, their expression in premalignant tissues has not been fully elucidated. In the present study, MICA/B were found to be expressed in liver cirrhosis as well as HCC tissues, but not in the early stages of chronic hepatitis or in normal liver. This finding is consistent with the tendencies observed for serum-soluble MICA/B levels in chronic liver disease and HCC. Analysis of cultured cells also revealed that MICA/B expressed on hepatoma cells is released spontaneously into the culture supernatant as soluble forms, supporting the idea that MICA/B expressed in the liver may be released into the circulation. In contrast, MICA/B were not expressed on nor released from cultured non-transformed hepatocytes, which is consistent with the *in vivo* immunohistochemical finding. An issue to be resolved is the underlying mechanism by which non-transformed

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hepatocytes express and release MICA/B in pathological conditions such as liver cirrhosis. Recently, it was reported that non-transformed pulmonary epithelial cells can express MICA/B under oxidative stress-inducing conditions.[19] It was also reported that MICA/B are upregulated in non-tumor cell lines by genotoxic stress.[20] It has been speculated that oxidative and genotoxic stresses may accumulate in hepatocytes in chronic diseased liver. Thus, it is possible that those stresses may contribute to MICA/B expression in chronic diseased liver. Further study is needed to clarify this issue.

MICA/B expression in the premalignant condition raises the question of which contributes more to the production of soluble MICA/B, malignant tissues or non-malignant tissues. To address this question we analyzed the levels of soluble MICA/B in HCC patients before and after therapeutic intervention. Among treatments for HCC, TAE is a well-established technique for unresectable, advanced HCC.[16] To include HCC patients who show relatively high levels of soluble MICA/B, we chose a cohort of patients who received the TAE therapy in the present study. The data indicated that the levels of soluble MICA, but not those of soluble MICB, decreased after TAE therapy. It is not clear why soluble MICB did not change during TAE therapy. One possibility is that soluble MICB production from non-tumor livers may be relatively high compared with that of soluble MICA. In our subpopulation analysis, Child–Pugh A patients showed a significant decrease in soluble MICB levels after TAE therapy. In general, TAE therapy is more effective for Child–Pugh A patients than Child–Pugh B or C patients because the former is better able to tolerate the large dose of lipiodol emulsion and gelatin sponge that is necessary for efficient antitumor effect. Indeed, Child–Pugh A patients in our cohort showed a larger decease in α-fetoprotein levels after TAE therapy than Child–Pugh B and C patients, although the difference did not reach a significant level (our unpublished data). Thus, TAE therapy might reduce the levels of soluble MICB when it achieves substantial antitumor effect. Most importantly, the data also indicated that NKG2D expression on immune cells was clearly ameliorated with TAE therapy. Furthermore, there was an inverse correlation between a reduction in soluble MICA and upregulation of NKG2D, suggesting the link between soluble MICA and NKG2D expression in cancer patients.

It is generally speculated that soluble MICA/B produced from tumors may deactivate NKG2D-mediated immune responses.[8,9] *In vitro* experiment indicates that soluble MICA could down-regulate NKG2D expression and effector cell function. However, the regulation by soluble forms of NKG2D ligands would be more complicated *in vivo*. First, soluble forms of NKG2D ligands could be produced not only from malignant tissues but also from non-malignant tissues, as shown in the present study. Second, MHC-encoded MICA/B may not be the sole family of proteins serving as NKG2D ligands. Non-MHC-encoded UL16-binding proteins also act as NKG2D ligands and were very recently found to be cleaved proteolytically from tumor cells.[21] The present study provides evidence that soluble MICA is derived, at least in part, from HCC and regulates NKG2D expression on NK and CD8-positive T cells. Although several species of soluble NKG2D ligands may exist in the circulation, the present study suggests that soluble MICA regulates NKG2D expression directly in cancer patients.

In conclusion, soluble MICA and MICB are significantly increased in the sera of patients not only with HCC but also with chronic liver disease. Soluble MICA/B increases together with the progression of liver disease as well as the tumor. Therapeutic intervention for HCC leads to reduction of soluble MICA levels in association with upregulation of NKG2D on immune cells, offering *in vivo* evidence of soluble MICA regulating NKG2D expression. Thus, cancer therapy may have a beneficial effect on the NKG2D-mediated immune response even if some of the soluble NKG2D ligands are produced from non-cancerous premalignant tissues.

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Decreased expressions of CD1d molecule on liver dendritic cells in subcutaneous tumor bearing mice ☆

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***Backgroud/Aims*: α-Galactosylceramide (α-GalCer) has been attracting attention as a novel approach to treat metastatic liver cancer. However, the activation of liver innate immunity by α-GalCer should be examined because clinical trials of α-GalCer resulted in limited clinical responses.**

***Methods*: We examined the activation of liver innate immunity by α-GalCer in subcutaneous Colon26 tumor bearing-mice (C26s.c.TB-mice).**

***Results*: The expressions of CD1d molecule on liver dendritic cells (DCs) were significantly lower in C26s.c.TB-mice than those in tumor-unbearing normal mice. Although liver NK cells and NKT cells activated in normal mice after α-GalCer treatment, the activation of these cells were significantly inhibited in C26s.c.TB-mice. α-GalCer treatment resulted in significant antitumor effect against Colon26 metastatic liver tumor in normal mice, but not in C26s.c.TB-mice. The serum levels of TGF-β, known to suppress the CD1d expressions on DCs, in C26s.c.TB-mice were significantly higher than those in normal mice. Surgical subcutaneous tumor mass reduction resulted in the reduction of serum TGF-β, the recovery of CD1d expressions on liver DCs and the improvement of antitumor effect of α-GalCer against metastatic liver tumor.**

***Conclusions*: These results suggested that tumor burden reduces CD1d expressions on liver DCs, thus impeding α-GalCer-mediated NK cell activation and antitumor activity in the liver.**

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***Keywords*: α-Galactosylceramide; CD1d; Liver dendritic cells; Antitumor immunity**

1. Introduction

The glycolipid antigen α-galactosylceramide (α-GalCer) induces activation of NKT cells in a CD1d-dependent manner [1]. α-GalCer presented by DCs efficiently stimulates NKT cells implicated in the innate immunity [2,3]. Recently α-GalCer has been attracting attention for novel anti-tumor therapy. *In vivo* animal studies have shown that systemic administration of α-GalCer can lead to anti-tumor effects against metastatic liver tumor [4,5], suggesting that α-GalCer treatment might be promising for clinical application against liver tumor. Metastatic liver tumors, one of the most common types of advanced malignancy, resist conventional chemotherapy and radiotherapy, and present with a poor prognosis. Thus novel and more effective immunotherapy is needed, especially for metastatic liver cancer. Several phase I clinical studies have been carried

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Abbreviations: DC, dendritic cell; APC, antigen-presenting cells; CTL, cytotoxic T lymphocytes; α-GalCer, α-galactosylceramide; M-NC, mononuclear cells; TB, tumor bearing.

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out in cancer immunotherapy using intravenous administration of α-GalCer, but with limited clinical responses [6,7]. Most clinical trials of cancer immunotherapy have been conducted with patients at advanced stages of cancer. Thus, for further development of α-GalCer treatment in such patients, the antitumor effect of α-GalCer should be examined in hosts with an advanced tumor burden.

In the current study, we evaluated the anti-tumor effect of administration of α-GalCer against liver tumor in subcutaneous tumor bearing animals. Both the antitumor effect of α-GalCer against liver tumor and liver NK cell and NKT cells activation were impaired in subcutaneous tumor bearing mice (s.c.TB-mice). The liver DCs were poorly activated by α-GalCer administration with lower expression of CD1d, NKT-activating molecules. However, the CD1d expression increased and the antitumor effect of α-GalCer against liver tumor was improved after surgical resection of the subcutaneous tumor mass. Our study has shed light toward understanding of the antitumor effect of α-GalCer in metasatic liver cancer patients.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Mice

Six-to-eight week old female BALB/c mice were purchased from Shizuoka Experimental Animal Laboratory (Shizuoka, Japan), and maintained in micro-isolator cages. The animals were handled under aseptic conditions. Procedures were performed according to approved protocols and in accordance with recommendations for the proper care and use of laboratory animals.

2.2. Cell lines

Colon26, a mouse colon adenocarcinoma cell line was kindly provided by Dr. Takashi Tsuruo (Institute of Molecular and Cellular Bioscience, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan). This cell line was maintained in complete medium (CM, RPMI-1640 medium supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum, 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 μg/ml streptomycin and 10 mM L-glutamine: all reagents from GIBCO/Life Technologies, Grand Island, New York) in a humidified incubator at 5% CO_2 and 37 °C.

2.3. α-GalCer

α-GalCer was kindly provided by Kirin Pharma Co. Ltd. (Gunma, Japan) and prepared as previously described [8].

2.4. Animal experiments

To establish Colon26 s.c.TB-mice (C26s.c.TB-mice), BALB/c mice were subcutaneously injected with 3×10^6 Colon26. On day 42, when the tumor size reached approximately 200 mm^2, bone marrow-derived DCs (BM-DCs) and liver DCs were prepared to evaluate the CD1d expression in C26s.c.TB-mice. BM-DC were generated as previously described [8]. Hepatic mononuclear cells (MNC) were prepared as previously described [8]. CD11c+ dendritic cells were isolated from hepatic MNC by magnetic cell sorting using MACS (Miltenyi Biotec, Gladbach, Germany) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

Hepatic metastasis of Colon26 cells was established as previously described [9]. To examine antitumor effect of α-GalCer in the liver of C26s.c.TB-mice, C26s.c.TB-mice or normal mice were injected with 5×10^5 Colon26 cells into the spleen 42 days after mice were subcutaneously injected with 3×10^6 Colon26 cells. Twenty-four hours later, α-GalCer (2 μg/100 μl) or 100 μl of the vehicle was administered intraperitoneally to each mouse. Ten days after tumor injection, the livers of the treated mice were removed, and the liver weight was measured to examine intrahepatic tumor growth.

2.5. Flow cytometry

For phenotypic analysis of BM-DCs and liver DCs, PE- or FITC-conjugated monoclonal antibodies (Ab) against mouse cell surface molecules [CD1d, CD80, CD86 CD11c (all from BD-Pharmingen, San Diego, CA), MHC class II (Miltenyi Biotec)], and appropriate isotype controls were used. We defined DCs with CD11c+ MHC class II+ cells by flow cytometry. To detect the NK cell and NKT cell population in liver MNCs, MNC were stained with PE-conjugated DX5 Ab and FITC-conjugated TCRβ (all from BD-Pharmingen). C26s.c.TB-mice and normal mice were injected intraperitoneally with α-GalCer (2 μg/100 μl) or 100 μl of vehicle. Hepatic MNC were prepared on day 0, 1, 3 and 7 after α-GalCer injection, and both NK cell and NKT cell populations in hepatic MNC were evaluated by flow cytometry. Flow cytometric analysis was performed using a FACscan (Becton Dickinson, San Jose, CA) flow cytometer. The results of flow cytometric analysis are reported in arbitrary mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) units.

2.6. TGF-β and IL-10 ELISA

Mice sera from C26s.c.TB-mice were harvested 42 days after intrahepatic tumor injection. Mice sera and the culture supernatants of Colon26 cells were subjected to mouse TGF-β ELISA (R&D systems, Minneapolis, MN) and mouse IL-10 ELISA (BD-Pharmingen), with lower levels of detection of 31.2 and 31.3 pg/ml, respectively.

2.7. Cytotoxic assay

To evaluate the activation of liver NK cells in C26s.c.TB-mice treated with α-GalCer, liver MNC were isolated 48 h after α-GalCer injection and subjected to ^{51}Cr release assay against NK-susceptible YAC-1 target as previously described [4]. Assays were performed in triplicate, with spontaneous release of all assays not exceeding 25% of the maximum release.

2.8. Surgical resection of subcutaneous tumor

To assess the impact of subcutaneous tumor on the CD1d expression of liver DCs, subcutaneous Colon26 tumors were surgically resected on day 42 after subcutaneous injection of Colon26 cells (C26s.c.TB-ope mice). Fourteen days after subcutaneous tumor resection, liver DCs were isolated and subjected to flow cytometry to evaluate the CD1d expression. To examine antitumor effect of α-GalCer in the liver of C26s.c.TB-ope mice, C26s.c.TB-mice or C26s.c.TB-ope mice were injected with 5×10^5 Colon26 cells into the spleen 10 days after subcutaneous tumor resection. Twenty-four hours later, α-GalCer (2 μg/100 μl) was administered intraperitoneally as above. Ten days later, the livers of the treated mice were removed, and the liver weights were measured to examine intrahepatic tumor growth.

2.9. Statistical analysis

The statistical significance of differences between the groups was determined by applying compared t test with Welch correction or Mann–Whitney U test. The statistical significance of the differences in more than three groups was determined by applying one-way ANOVA. We defined statistical significance as $p < 0.05$.

3. Results

3.1. Expressions of CD1d on DCs in C26s.c.TB-mice were lower than those in normal mice

Since α-GalCer induces activation of NKT cells in a CD1d-dependent manner [1], the expression of CD1d plays an important role in the activation of NKT cells. We examined the CD1d expressions on DCs in C26s.c.TB-mice. The expressions of CD1d on BM-DCs were similar in both normal and C26s.c.TB-mice (Fig. 1A and B). In contrast, those on liver DCs from C26s.c.TB-mice were significantly lower than those from normal mice (Fig. 1A and C). Spleen DCs from C26s.c.TB-mice were also significantly lower than those from normal mice (Fig. 1A and D). These results demonstrated that systemic decrease of CD1d expressions on DCs in each organ is observed in C26s.c.TB-mice, but the potential of differentiation of CD1d expressing DCs from precursor cells in bone marrow was similar between in C26s.c.TB-mice and normal mice.

3.2. The activation of liver NK cells, liver NKT cells and liver DCs was impaired in C26s.c.TB-mice

We next examined the activation of liver NK cells and liver NKT cells in C26s.c.TB-mice after administration of α-GalCer. The cytolytic activity of liver NK cells in α-GalCer-treated mice was stronger than that in vehicle-treated mice in normal mice. In marked contrast, the cytolytic activities in both α-GalCer and vehicle-treated mice were very weak in C26s.c.TB-mice (Fig. 2A). In normal mice, the liver NK cell proportions in whole liver MNCs increased with the peak at 1 day after α-

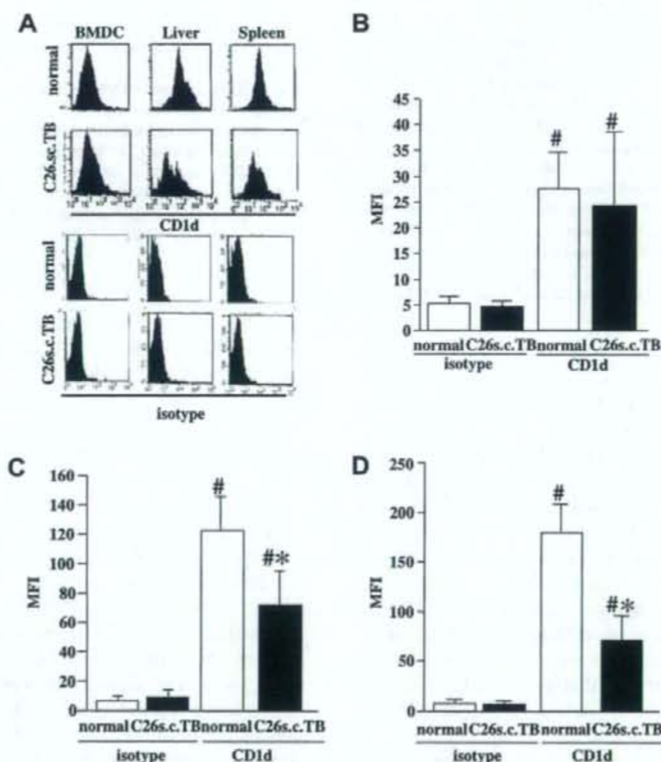

Fig. 1. CD1d expression on DCs in C26s.c.TB-mice. BM-DCs, liver and spleen DCs were prepared from C26s.c.TB-mice or normal mice ($N = 3$ in each group), and the expressions of CD1d molecules on DCs were evaluated by flow cytometry. The representative flow cytometry data of CD1d expressions on BM-DCs, liver DCs and spleen DCs were shown in Fig. 1A. The expression levels of CD1d molecules are reported in arbitrary MFI (mean ± SD). Normal: MFI of DCs from normal mice stained with anti-CD1d or isotype control antibody. C26s.c.TB: MFI of DCs from C26s.c.TB-mice stained with anti-CD1d or isotype control antibody. The CD1d expression on BM-DCs (B), on liver DCs (C), on spleen DCs (D). $^{\#}p < 0.05$ vs. respective isotype control $^{*}p < 0.05$ vs. CD1d expression in normal mice.

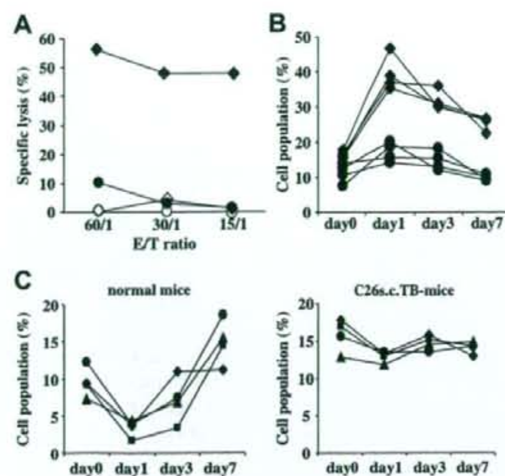

Fig. 2. Impaired activation of liver NK cells and NKT cells in C26s.c.TB-mice. (A) To evaluate the activation of liver NK cells in C26s.c.TB-mice treated by α-GalCer, liver MNC were isolated 48 h after α-GalCer injection and were subjected to ^{51}Cr release assay against NK-susceptible YAC-1 target. (♦) α-GalCer-treated normal mice, (◊) vehicle-treated normal mice, (•) α-GalCer-treated C26s.c.TB-mice, (○) vehicle-treated C26s.c.TB-mice. Representative data shown here is from three independent experiments. (B, C) BALB/c normal mice or C26s.c.TB-mice were injected intraperitoneally with α-GalCer. Hepatic MNC were prepared on day 0, 1, 3 and 7 days after α-GalCer injection. Liver NK cell and NKT cell populations in hepatic MNC were evaluated by flow cytometry. (B) Liver NK cell populations (DX5+/TCRβ− cells) in hepatic MNC after α-GalCer treatment. (♦) NK cell in each normal mice, (•) NK cell in each C26s.c.TB-mice ($N = 4$ in each group). (C) Liver NKT cell populations (DX5+/TCRβ+ cells) in hepatic MNC after α-GalCer treatment in normal mice and C26s.c.TB-mice ($N = 4$ in each group).

GalCer administration, and the liver NK cell proportion at 7 days gradually decreased (Fig. 2B). C26s.c.TB-mice showed weaker increase of liver NK cell proportions in whole liver MNCs than normal mice (Fig. 2B). The liver NKT cell proportion decreased on day 1 and increased again on day 3 and day 7 after α-GalCer administration in normal mice. In marked contrast, those did not change on day 1, day 3 and day 7 after α-GalCer administration in C26s.c.TB-mice (Fig. 2C). The liver NK cell and NKT cell proportion in vehicle-treated mice exhibited no change in both mice groups (data not shown). These results demonstrated that the activation of liver NK cells and NKT cells by α-GalCer was impaired in C26s.c.TB-mice.

We also examined the CD80 and CD86 expressions of liver DCs in both C26s.c.TB-mice and normal mice, which are indicators of the antigen-presenting function of DCs. The expressions of CD80 and CD86 molecules on liver DCs from C26s.c.TB-mice were significantly lower than those from normal mice after α-GalCer administration (Fig. 3), suggesting that the antigen-presenting function of liver DC in C26s.c.TB-mice was also impaired compared with normal mice.

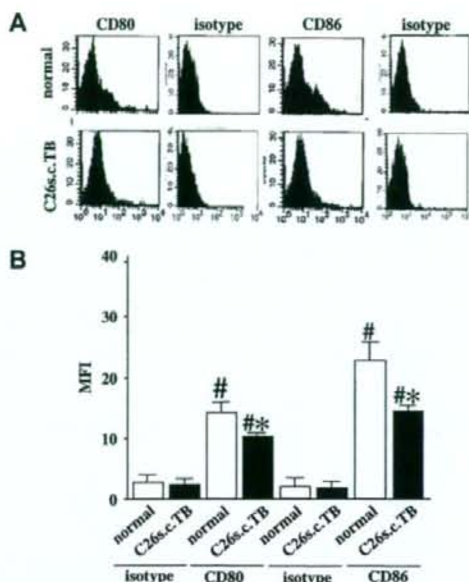

Fig. 3. The CD80 and CD86 expressions of liver DCs in C26s.c.TB-mice and normal mice. The expressions of CD80 and CD86 on liver DCs from both normal mice and C26s.c.TB-mice were evaluated by flow cytometry ($N = 3$ in each group). The representative flow cytometry data of CD80 and CD86 expressions on liver DC were shown in Fig. 3A. The expression levels of CD80 and CD86 molecules are reported as arbitrary MFI (mean ± SD of triplicate samples, Fig. 3B). $^{\#}p < 0.05$ vs. respective isotype control $^{*}p < 0.05$ vs. CD80 or CD86 expressions in normal mice.

3.3. The antitumor effect of α-GalCer administration against metastatic liver tumor was impaired in C26s.c.TB-mice

We examined the antitumor effect of α-GalCer administration against metastatic liver tumor in both normal and C26s.c.TB-mice. With normal mice, no tumor formation was observed in the liver of any of the α-GalCer-treated mice although large Colon26 liver tumors had formed in all vehicle-treated mice. In contrast, with the C26s.c.TB-mice, large Colon26 liver tumors had formed in both α-GalCer-treated and vehicle-treated mice. The liver weights of the α-GalCer treatment group were significantly lighter than those of the vehicle treatment group for normal mice, while they were similar for both groups of the C26s.c.TB-mice (Fig. 4). These results demonstrated that the antitumor effect of α-GalCer against metastatic liver tumor was impaired in C26s.c.TB-mice.

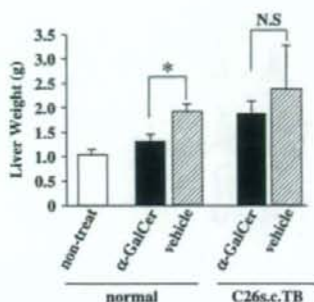

Fig. 4. Impaired antitumor effect of α-GalCer treatment against Colon26 liver tumor in C26s.c.TB-mice. To establish C26s.c.TB-mice, BALB/c mice were subcutaneously injected with 3×10^6 Colon26 cells 42 days before intrasplenic injection of tumor cells. BALB/c normal mice or C26s.c.TB-mice were injected into spleen with 5×10^5 Colon26 cells, and 24 h later either α-GalCer or vehicle was administered intraperitoneally ($N = 6$ in each treatment group). Ten days after treatment, the livers were removed from all treated mice and the liver weights of the groups were compared. As a control, the mean liver weights of untreated normal mice were 1.08 ± 0.09 g. $^*p < 0.05$. α-GalCer treatment group vs. vehicle treatment group in normal mice. N.S. α-GalCer treatment group vs. vehicle treatment group in C26s.c.TB-mice.

3.4. Serum TGF-β levels in C26s.c.TB-mice were increased compared with those in normal mice

Previous reports demonstrated that CD1d expressions on DCs decreased after co-culture with either TGF-β [10] or IL-10 [11]. The supernatants of 24 h cultures of Colon26 cells were subjected to TGF-β and IL-10 ELISA. The production of TGF-β in the supernatants of Colon26 was significantly higher than the control medium (Fig. 5A). No production of IL-10 was detected in the supernatants of Colon26 cells (data not shown). We next evaluate the serum TGF-β and IL-10 levels in C26s.c.TB-mice. The levels of TGF-β in C26s.c.TB-mice were significantly higher than that in normal mice (Fig. 5B). IL-10 was not detected in all mice sera from C26s.c.TB-mice and normal mice (data not shown).

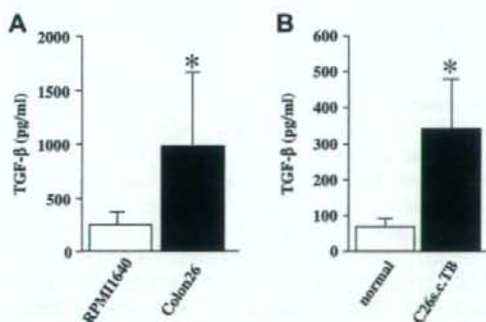

Fig. 5. The TGF-β production from Colon26 cells and the increase in serum TGF-β levels in C26s.c.TB-mice. (A) The culture supernatants of Colon26 cells or culture medium only (RPMI1640) were subjected to mouse TGF-β ELISA. (B) Mice sera from C26s.c.TB-mice were harvested 42 days after subcutaneous tumor injection and were subjected to mouse TGF-β ELISA. Mice sera from normal mice were used as controls. Cytokine levels are reported in pg/ml (mean ± SD of triplicate samples). Similar results were obtained in two independent experiments. $^*p < 0.05$.

3.5. Serum TGF-β levels decreased, the expression of CD1d molecules on liver DCs increased and the antitumor effect of α-GalCer was improved after tumor mass reduction

We next examined serum TGF-β levels and the CD1d expressions on liver DCs after surgical mass reduction in C26s.c.TB-mice. BALB/c mice were subcutaneously injected with 3×10^6 Colon26. On day 42, most Colon26 subcutaneous tumors were surgically excised (C26s.cTB-ope mice). Fourteen days later, serum TGF-β levels were evaluated, and liver DCs from C26s.c.TB-ope mice were prepared to evaluating the CD1d expression in comparison with those from C26s.c.TB-mice. The serum TGF-β levels in C26s.c.TB-ope mice were significantly lower than those in C26s.c.TB-mice (Fig. 6A). The expressions of CD1d on liver DCs from C26s.c.TB-ope mice were significantly higher than those from C26s.c.TB-mice and were similar to those from normal mice (Fig. 6B and C). These results demonstrated that surgical tumor mass reduction might lead to recovery of the impaired immune circumstances in the liver of C26s.c.TB-mice. We examined the antitumor effect of α-GalCer administration against metastatic liver tumor in both C26s.c.TB-mice and C26s.c.TB-ope mice. The liver weights of α-GalCer treated C26s.c.TB-ope mice were significantly lighter than those of α-GalCer treated C26s.c.TB-mice (Fig. 6D). These results demonstrated that the antitumor effect of α-GalCer against metastatic liver tumor was improved after subcutaneous tumor mass resection.

4. Discussion

A previous study showed that administration of α-GalCer resulted in complete rejection of Colon26 metastatic liver cancer in normal mice [5]. In the current study, we evaluated the antitumor effect of α-GalCer against the same Colon26 metastatic liver tumor model in C26s.c.TB-mice. α-GalCer treatment resulted in complete rejection of metasatic Colon26 liver tumor in normal mice, but the antitumor effect of α-GalCer against metastatic liver tumor was significantly impaired in C26s.c.TB-mice. These results were consistent with the clinical data of α-GalCer treatment in

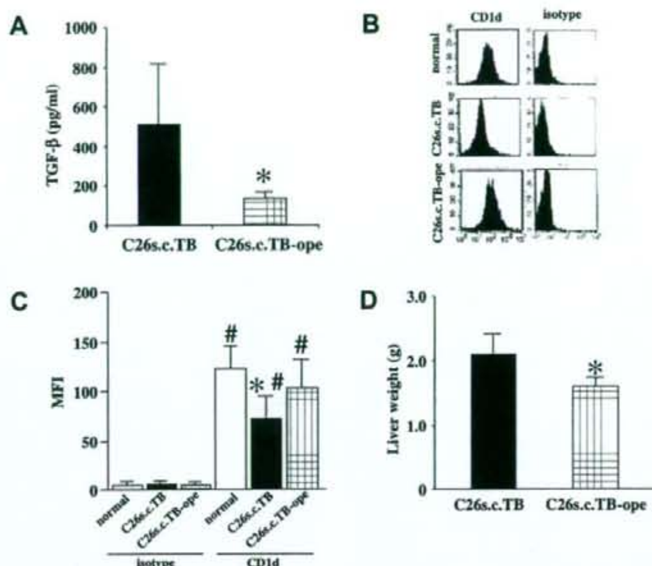

Fig. 6. Evaluation of serum TGF-β and CD1d expression on liver DCs and the antitumor effect of α-GalCer against metastatic liver tumor in surgical treated C26s.c.TB-mice. At 42 days, Colon26 subcutaneous tumors in C26s.c.TB-mice were surgically excised. Fourteen days later, liver DCs from surgically treated mice were prepared for comparison with liver DCs isolated from 42-day C26s.c.TB-mice. (A) Mice sera from C26s.c.TB-mice (C26s.c.TB) or surgically treated C26s.c.TB-mice (C26s.c.TB-ope) were harvested and were subjected to mouse TGF-β ELISA. Cytokine levels are reported in pg/ml (mean ± SD of triplicate samples). $^{*}p < 0.05$. (B, C) The expressions of CD1d on liver DCs from C26s.c.TB-mice (C26s.c.TB) or surgically treated C26s.c.TB-mice (C26s.c.TB-ope) were evaluated by flow cytometry. The representative flow cytometry data of CD1d expressions on liver DC were shown in Fig. 6B. The expression levels of CD1d molecules are reported as arbitrary MFI (mean ± SD of triplicate samples, Fig. 6C). $^{\#}p < 0.05$ vs. respective isotype control $^{*}p < 0.05$ vs. CD1d expression in normal mice. (D) C26s.c.TB-ope mice or C26s.c.TB-mice were injected into spleen with 5×10^5 Colon26 cells, and 24 h later α-GalCer was administered intraperitoneally ($N = 4$ in each group). Ten days after treatment, the livers were removed from treated mice and the liver weights of the groups were compared. $^{*}p < 0.05$. α-GalCer treated C26s.c.TB-ope mice vs α-GalCer treated C26s.c.TB-mice.

patients with advanced cancer, and encouraged us to investigate the detailed mechanism of the markedly reduced antitumor effect of α-GalCer in TB-mice to establish better α-GalCer treatment for cancer patients.

DCs have been implicated in the activation of NKT and NK cells in both mice and humans [1,6,12–17]. α-GalCer presented by CD1d molecules expressed on DCs activates NKT cells via recognition between CD1d molecules and Vα14–Jα281 invariant antigen receptor in mice [18]. Thus the expression of CD1d molecules on DCs is believed to be important for activation of NKT cells. Our study demonstrated that CD1d expressions on bone marrow-derived DCs were similar between normal and C26s.c.TB-mice, suggesting that the ability of differentiating DCs from precursor cells in bone marrow were same in both normal and C26s.c.TB-mice. In contrast, the CD1d expressions of liver DCs and spleen DCs in C26s.c.TB-mice were lower than those in normal mice. This is not unique to C26s.c.TB-mice, because decreased expression of CD1d molecules on liver DCs (not bone marrow-derived DCs) was also observed in CMS4 mouse sarcoma or BNL mouse hepatoma TB-mice (Tatsumi, unpublished data). These results suggested that some systemic immunosuppressive factors might modify the CD1d expression on DCs in TB-mice. Osman et al. demonstrated that α-GalCer administration resulted in activation of liver NKT cells with significant early disappearance of liver NKT cells in normal mice [19]. They also demonstrated that these phenomenon were not observed in CD1d(−/−) mice, suggesting that CD1d expressions play essential roles of liver NKT activation [19]. In our study, the early decreases of liver NKT cells were not observed after α-GalCer treatment in C26s.c.TB-mice. Based on these observations, the decreased expression of CD1d molecules on DCs might be associated with the impaired activation of liver innate immunity, thus resulting in an impaired antitumor effect of α-GalCer.

A normal mice liver contains lymphocytes that are usually enriched with NK and NKT cells; i.e., 25% NK cells and 30% NKT cells in contrast to peripheral blood that contains only 10% NK and 5% NKT cells

[20,21]. Efficient activation of abundant NKT cells and NK cells in the liver might be important in an antitumor effect against liver tumor. We and others have previously reported that sequential activation of both NKT cells and NK cells could be observed in the liver after α-GalCer administration. Although most NKT cells had disappeared from the liver within 12 h of α-GalCer administration [4,19], the antitumor effect against disseminated liver tumor depends on NK cells in the α-GalCer treatment, evidenced by that depletion of NK cells abolished the anti-metastatic tumor effect [4]. In the present study, we found the impairment of both the cytolytic activity of NK cells and an increase of the NK cell proportion in whole liver MNC in α-GalCer-treated C26s.c.TB-mice. These findings also offer the evidence that insufficient activation of liver NK cells might be associated with a poor antitumor effect of α-GalCer in TB-mice. The expressions of antigen-presenting related molecules, CD80 and CD86, on liver DCs in C26s.c.TB-mice were also lower than those in normal mice. Taken together, the presence of a tumor mass might modify the innate immune response in the liver and the maturation of liver DCs in TB-mice.

Several previous reports have demonstrated that TGF-β and IL-10 inhibit CD1d expression on DCs [10,11]. We hypothesize that the decreased expressions of CD1d might be associated with these immunosuppressive cytokines derived from the tumor mass. Our study demonstrated that Colon26 cells produce a large amount of TGF-β, but not IL-10, and that serum TGF-β level in C26s.c.TB-mice was significantly higher than that in normal mice, while the serum IL-10 level was not. Our results suggested that tumor-derived TGF-β might decrease CD1d expressions on liver DCs in C26s.c.TB-mice. Biswas et al. demonstrated that administration of anti-TGF-β neutralizing antibody inhibited metastatic cancer [22], suggesting that if the tumor-derived TGF-β had decreased in TB-mice, the liver immunological environment might be improved to develop antitumor immunity. Based on these results, we next examined serum TGF-β levels and the CD1d expression on liver DCs after surgical subcutaneous mass resection. Fourteen days after surgical resection, serum TGF-β in treated C26s.c.TB-mice had significantly decreased and the expressions of CD1d on liver DCs from treated C26s.c.TB-mice had significantly increased and recovered to the level of normal mice, suggesting that Colon26 tumor tissue derived TGF-β might modify the CD1d expression on liver DCs. More importantly, we demonstrated that the antitumor effect of α-GalCer against metastatic liver tumor was significantly improved in C26s.c.TB-ope mice. We believe that if complete resection of primary tumor could be achieved, the liver immune microenvironment might be expected to recover dramatically and cancer immunotherapy using α-GalCer might lead to better outcomes.

de Lalla et al. reported that the human invariant NKT cells are significantly enriched in chronically inflamed livers as compared with noninflamed ones although human liver harbors significantly less invariant NKT cells than the mouse one [23], suggesting that human invariant NKT cells might also play important roles in developing the chronic liver disease. Although the frequency of invariant Vα24 NKT cells is very low in humans, Vα24 NKT cells can be expanded by the stimulation of α-GalCer in cancer patients [7]. These suggested that the effector function of invariant NKT cells in human liver might be important for the establishing of new cancer treatments of α-GalCer.

The liver is the most common site of metastasis of gastrointestinal cancers (i.e., colorectal cancer, gastric cancer and pancreatic cancer). Thus, new therapeutic approaches of cancer immunotherapy for advanced liver tumor need to be developed. Our report is the first report demonstrating that the presence of a tumor mass might inhibit the activation of liver innate immune cells by α-GalCer due to decreased expression of CD1d on liver DCs. These findings indicate that α-GalCer treatment may represent a promising approach to preventing liver metastasis if the primary tumor can be completely controlled.

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Original Article

Early decline of hemoglobin can predict progression of hemolytic anemia during pegylated interferon and ribavirin combination therapy in patients with chronic hepatitis C

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Aim: Ribavirin, used to treat chronic hepatitis C, can induce hemolytic anemia, forcing the discontinuance of treatment. To establish a predictive measure to help circumvent this, we evaluated the relationship of hemoglobin (Hb) decline with the discontinuance of treatment during the progression of ribavirin-induced anemia.

Methods: One hundred and sixteen patients (71% male) with genotype 1 chronic hepatitis C were treated with pegylated interferon (PegIFN) α-2b and ribavirin. The mean age was 50.6 years and 55% were IFN naïve. A decline of Hb concentration by 2 g/dL at two weeks from the start of the treatment ("2 by 2" standard) was adopted as the predictive factor for the progression of anemia.

Results: By applying the "2 by 2" standard, with $\Delta Hb \geq 2$ g/dL (34%, $n = 39$), treatment was discontinued in 12 cases (31%), three of which (8%) because of severe anemia. For $\Delta Hb < 2$ g/dL (64%, $n = 76$), treatment was discontinued in 11 (14%) cases; none due to severe anemia. Ten percent (4/39) of patients showed the minimum $Hb \leq 8.5$ g/dL in the $\Delta Hb \geq 2$ g/dL group, with none in the $\Delta Hb < 2$ g/dL group ($P = 0.001$). Furthermore, the patients with minimum $Hb \leq 8.5$ g/dL were found only in the "2 by 2" standard-positive and low CL/F (<15) group (4/29, 14%).

Conclusion: Monitoring the Hb decline using the "2 by 2" standard can identify patients who are prone to developing severe anemia. Further prospective studies are needed using ribavirin reduction based on the "2 by 2" standard.

Key words: "2 by 2" standard, chronic hepatitis C, pegylated interferon and ribavirin combination therapy, progression of anemia

INTRODUCTION

THE AIM OF antiviral therapy for hepatitis C virus (HCV) is to obtain a sustained viral response (SVR) and to reduce the occurrence rate of hepatocellular carcinoma or hepatic disease-related mortality.[1,2] The current optimal therapy for patients with chronic hepatitis C is a combination of pegylated interferon (PegIFN) and ribavirin. This combination can significantly improve the SVR rate and is recommended as a standard regimen worldwide.[3–8] However, the SVR rates for the combination therapy of ribavirin with PegIFN for naïve patients with HCV genotype 1 has been reported to be 42–52%,[6,9,10] which means that eradication of HCV is not complete in approximately half of these patients. Recently, long-term treatment[11] and a higher dosage

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of drugs[12,13] have been used to try to raise the SVR rate for patients with HCV genotype 1. However, it remains to be established what constitutes satisfactory efficacy. In this study we focused on a treatment strategy to enable the prediction of severe side-effects in order to avoid the need to discontinue treatment and raise the SVR rate by PegIFN and ribavirin combination therapy. It is important that ribavirin, the key drug for eradicating HCV, is continued until the end of treatment in order to attain the maximum SVR rate. Hemolytic anemia induced by ribavirin is known as one of the most important adverse effects in the combination therapy of PegIFN and ribavirin.[14–17] To decrease the discontinuance rate of ribavirin due to severe anemia, epoetin alfa has been used for patients with progressing anemia, which can maintain the dose level of ribavirin as well as the quality of life of the patients.[18–20] However, from a cost-effectiveness standpoint, it would be difficult for this treatment strategy to become standard. Also, side-effects other than anemia arising from an overload of ribavirin mainly due to renal dysfunction cannot be avoided by the additional administration of epoetin alfa.

Hemolysis induced by ribavirin has been suggested to be related to a high plasma concentration of ribavirin.[21] The apparent clearance of ribavirin (CL/F), which reflects its plasma concentration at four weeks after the start of combination therapy, has been used as a predictive factor for ribavirin-induced hemolytic anemia before the start of treatment.[22–24] However, the progression of hemolytic anemia occurs due not only to hemolysis, but also impaired hematogenous function. On the other hand, hemoglobin (Hb) dynamics directly reflect the degree of progression of anemia. We have reported that the early decline of Hb correlates with the progression of anemia during IFN and ribavirin combination therapy.[25] It is necessary to verify that a similar early predictor for the progression of anemia can be adopted in PegIFN and ribavirin combination therapy, since PegIFN is known to induce less depression of bone marrow function than usual IFN.

In this study, we evaluated the utility of the early decline of Hb in comparison with the CL/F to predict the progression of anemia in the combination therapy of PegIFN and ribavirin.

METHODS

Patients

THIS STUDY WAS conducted at 12 institutions in Japan. A total of 116 patients with chronic hepatitis C were enrolled and treated with a combination of PegIFN and ribavirin. All patients were anti-hepatitis C virus antibody positive, had HCV-RNA detectable in their serum by the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) method, and showed elevated serum alanine transaminase (ALT) (above the upper limit of the normal), serum Hb concentration ≥12 g/dL, neutrocytes ≥1500/mm³ and platelets $\geq 10^5$/mm³ within six months before the treatment. Exclusion criteria were the presence of hepatitis B surface antigen, antihuman immunodeficiency virus antibody and other forms of liver disease (alcoholic liver disease, hepatotoxic drugs, autoimmune hepatitis).

Table 1 Patient characteristics

Age (years)	50.6 ± 10.1 (24–70)
Gender (male/female)	82/34 (male 70.7%)
Body weight (kg)	64.5 ± 11.1
Previous IFN therapy (naïve/relapser/no responder)	64/38/14
HCV-RNA level (KIU/L) (<500/500–850/850<)	18/27/71
ALT (IU/L)	110 ± 60 (33–76)
Crnn (mg/dL)	0.9 ± 0.2
Liver histology	
Fibrosis (F1/F2/F3/unknown)	35/49/31/1
Activity (A1/A2/A3/A4)	15/33/56/12
WBC (/mm³)	5317 ± 1207
Neutrocytes (/mm³)	2778 ± 902
Platelets ($\times 10^4$/mm³)	17.4 ± 4.0
RBC ($\times 10^4$/mm³)	459 ± 41
Hemoglobin (g/dL)	14.5 ± 1.2

Data are given as the mean ± SD.
ALT, alanine transaminase; RBC, red blood cells; WBC, white blood cells.

The baseline characteristics of the patients are shown in Table 1. The mean age was 50.6 ± 10.1 years, and 71% (82 patients) were male. All patients had HCV-RNA with genotype 1 and high viral loads (more than 10^5 copies/mL serum by Amplicor-HCV monitor assay). The mean ALT level was 110 ± 60 IU/L. Sixty-four patients (55%) were IFN naïve and the others were undergoing retreatment.

Treatment schedule

All patients were treated with a combination of PegIFN α-2b (Pegintron; Schering-Plough, Kenilworth, NJ, USA) and ribavirin (Rebetol; Schering-Plough) for 48 weeks. PegIFN was administered at a mean of 1.5 μg/kg body weight subcutaneously once a week. Ribavirin was given orally twice a day for the total dose. Dosages of both medications were decided based on the

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body weight of the patients: those with a body weight of 40–60 kilograms (kg) were given PegIFN 75 μg/body and ribavirin 600 mg/day, those with a body weight of 60–80 kg were given PegIFN 105 μg/body and ribavirin 800 mg/day, and those with a body weight of 80–100 kg were given PegIFN 135 μg/body and ribavirin 1000 mg/day. The PegIFN dose was reduced by 50% if the neutrocyte count was below 750/mm^3 or the platelet (Plt) count was below 8×10^4/mm^3. The PegIFN was discontinued if the neutrocyte count was below 500/mm^3 or the Plt count was below 5.0×10^4/mm^3. The ribavirin dose of 200 mg was reduced when the Hb concentration decreased to less than 10 g/dL and the ribavirin was discontinued when the Hb concentration decreased to less than 8.5 g/dL, in accordance with the drug information for ribavirin. No ferric medicine or erythropoietin to prevent anemia was administered.

Patients with persistently undetectable HCV-RNA six-months after the end of treatment were considered to have achieved SVR.

Blood tests

All patients were examined for serum HCV-RNA level, hematological and biochemical tests just before therapy, at the end of week 2 and every four weeks during the treatment. When the treatment was completed, the patients were assessed every four weeks up to 24 weeks after the end of treatment.

Total ribavirin clearance

Using the method of Kamar *et al.*, CL/F at the start of the treatment was calculated as follows: CL/F (L/h) = $32.3 \times \text{BW} \times (1 - 0.0094 \times \text{age}) \times (1 - 0.42 \times \text{sex})/\text{Scr}$ (BW, body weight; sex = 0 for male and 1 for female; Scr = serum creatinine).[17]

Definition of "severe anemia" leading to the discontinuance of ribavirin

In this study, the "discontinuance of ribavirin due to severe anemia" was defined as follows: discontinuance of ribavirin due to a decrease of Hb to less than 8.5 g/dL or clinical symptoms of anemia associated with a decrease of Hb of more than 3 g/dL from the start of the combination therapy.

Statistical analysis

Age, body weight, ribavirin dosage/body weight, white blood cell count, red blood cell count, Hb concentration, Plt, serum ALT levels and serum creatinine are expressed as mean ± SD. The SVR rate was evaluated using the intention-to-treat analysis (ITT analysis). The differences in proportions were tested by the χ^2-test and Mantel-Haenszel χ^2-test. A value of $P < 0.05$ (two-tailed) was considered to indicate significance. All calculations were performed by SAS program 9.1 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA).

RESULTS

Frequency and reasons for dose reduction or discontinuance of PegIFN and/or ribavirin

OF THE 116 patients, 92 completed 48 weeks of therapy, but 24 patients (21%) had to discontinue both PegIFN and ribavirin. Thirty-nine patients (34%) completed the entire treatment schedule without reduction or discontinuance of either drug. The ribavirin dose was decreased for 39 patients (34%) and the PegIFN dose was decreased for 33 patients (28%), including 19 patients for whom both drugs had to be reduced. The reasons for discontinuance of both drugs included anemia, thyroid dysfunction, skin eruption and neutropenia, with the major reasons being anemia (17%) and thyroid dysfunction (17%).

Efficacy of the combination therapy with dose reduction or discontinuance of PegIFN and/or ribavirin

The SVR rate was 57% (66/116) for all according to ITT analysis. According to the category of response to previous IFN therapy, the SVR rates were 43% (6/14) in

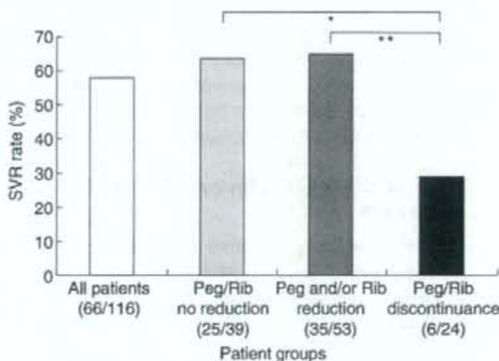

Figure 1 SVR rate due to PegIFN/ribavirin dose reduction or discontinuance. (□), All patients; (▨), patients without dose reduction; (▩), patients with dose reduction; (■), patients with drug discontinuance. Significant levels: $^*P = 0.003$; $^{**}P = 0.001$.

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Table 2 Rate of the ribavirin reduction or discontinuance due to adverse effects according to CL/F level

	No reduction	Dose reduction	Discontinuance	
			All cases	Cases due to severe anemia
$20 \le CL/F$ ($n = 12$)	67% (8/12)	25% (3/12)	8% (1/12)	0
$15 \le CL/F < 20$ ($n = 23$)	57% (13/23)	30% (7/23)	13% (3/23)	0
$10 \le CL/F < 15$ ($n = 39$)	46% (18/39)	31% (12/39)	23% (9/39)	5% (2/39)
$CL/F < 10$ ($n = 42$)	33% (14/42)	40% (17/42)	26% (11/42)	5% (2/42)

$P = 0.031$ (Mantel–Haenszel χ^2-test).

Table 3 Minimum hemoglobin levels during PegIFN/ribavirin combination therapy according to CL/F level

	10 g/dL < Hb	8.5 < Hb ≤ 10 g/dL	Hb ≤ 8.5 g/dL
$20 \le CL/F$ ($n = 12$)	92% (11/12)	12% (1/12)	0
$15 \le CL/F < 20$ ($n = 23$)	83% (19/23)	17% (4/23)	0
$10 \le CL/F < 15$ ($n = 39$)	72% (28/39)	23% (9/39)	5% (2/39)
$CL/F < 10$ ($n = 42$)	50% (21/42)	43% (18/42)	7% (3/42)

$P = 0.009$ (Mantel–Haenszel χ^2-test).

non-responders, 61% (23/38) in relapsers, and 58% (37/64) in naïve patients. The relationship between dose reduction or discontinuance of PegIFN and ribavirin and the SVR rate on ITT analysis is shown in Figure 1. Similar SVR rates were obtained in the groups without dose reduction of PegIFN and ribavirin (64%, 25/39) and with reduction of PegIFN and/or ribavirin (66%, 35/53); in detail, the SVR rate was 79% (11/14) in the group with reduction of only PegIFN, 55% (11/20) with reduction of only ribavirin, and 63% (12/19) with reduction of both PegIFN and ribavirin. In the group where both drugs were discontinued, the SVR rate was 25% (6/24), significantly lower than the group without reduction of both drugs ($P = 0.003$), and the group with reduction of PegIFN and/or ribavirin ($P = 0.001$).

CL/F and dose reduction or discontinuance of ribavirin

CL/F calculated for all patients showed a median of 12.6 L/h (range 4.5–27.9). At the start of the treatment, 36% (42/116) were under 10 L/h, 34% (39/116) were 10–15 L/h, 20% (23/116) were 15–20 L/h and 10% (12/116) were 20 L/h or more.

The rate of dose reduction or discontinuance of ribavirin is shown in Table 2 for different levels of CL/F. The rate of discontinuance of ribavirin in all cases was 8% (1/12) for the $CL/F \ge 20$, 13% (3/23) for the $15 \le CL/F < 20$, 23% (9/39) for the $10 \le CL/F < 15$, and 26% (11/42) for the $CL/F < 10$ group. Ribavirin did not have to be discontinued due to severe anemia among patients with $15 \le CL/F$, but did for the 18% (2/11) of those with $CL/F < 10$ and 22% (2/9) of those with $10 \le CL/F < 15$. The rate of reduction and discontinuance of ribavirin correlated significantly with the CL/F level.

CL/F and minimum hemoglobin level during treatment

To examine the relationship between anemia and the cessation of ribavirin in further detail, we evaluated the minimum hemoglobin level during treatment. Table 3 presents the different levels in relation to CL/F. The patients with minimum Hb ≤ 8.5 g/dL, the criterion for discontinuance of ribavirin, accounted for 7% (3/42) of the group of $CL/F < 10$, and 5% (2/39) of the group of $10 \le CL/F < 15$. No patients of the group of $CL/F \ge 15$ showed minimum Hb ≤ 8.5 g/dL.

Early decline of Hb and progression of anemia during combination therapy

Following the initiation of combination therapy, the Hb concentration decreased rapidly until the end of four weeks. At the end of two weeks, Hb had decreased by 1.1 ± 1.0 g/dL among the patients without dose reduction of ribavirin ($n = 53$), 1.6 ± 1.2 g/dL among those with dose reduction ($n = 39$), and 1.8 ± 1.0 g/dL among

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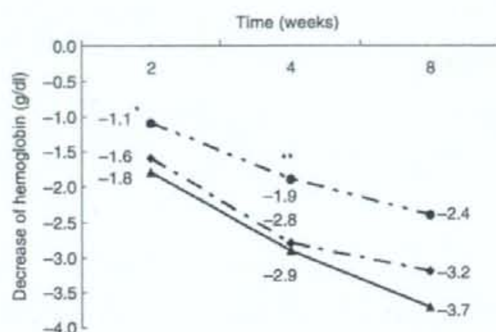

Figure 2 Course of ΔHb in the initial phase. (—···—), No reduction; (—·—·), reduction; (——), discontinuance. *Significantly different between patients with discontinuance and patients with no reduction ($P = 0.04$). **Significantly different between patients with discontinuance and patients with no reduction ($P = 0.008$), and between patients with discontinuance and patients with reduction ($P = 0.003$).

those who had discontinued ribavirin ($n = 24$). It was significantly different between the patients with no reduction and those with discontinuance of therapy ($P = 0.04$). At the end of four weeks, Hb had decreased by 1.9 ± 1.2 g/dL among the patients without dose reduction of ribavirin, 2.8 ± 1.2 g/dL among those with dose reduction, and 2.9 ± 1.2 g/dL among those who had discontinued ribavirin. Hb decline at the end of four weeks was significantly greater in the patients who had discontinued treatment and those who had reduced it, than in those with no reduction ($P = 0.008$, $P = 0.003$, respectively) (Fig. 2).

In this study, we selected the Hb decrease at the end of two weeks as the predictive factor for anemia progression. This is because the judgment of Hb decrease at the end of four weeks is too late to prevent progression of anemia or to perform appropriate counter-measures, such as the administration of epoetin or reduction of ribavirin. Next, we tried to use two borderlines of ΔHb: ΔHb 2.0 indicates a 2 g/dL Hb decrease at the end of two weeks and ΔHb 1.5 indicates a 1.5 g/dL Hb decrease. When ΔHb 2.0 was adopted, the rate of discontinuance of drugs was 31% (12/39) in the ΔHb ≥ 2.0 and 14% (11/76) in the ΔHb < 2.0. When ΔHb 1.5 was adopted, it was 23% (14/60) in the ΔHb ≥ 1.5 and 16% (9/55) in the ΔHb < 1.5. Comparison of the ΔHb 2.0 and ΔHb 1.5 standards showed the sensitivity to be 52% (12/23) and 61% (14/23), and the specificity to be 71% (65/92) and 50% (46/92), respectively. With respect to discontinuance due to anemia, both ΔHb 2.0 and ΔHb 1.5 gave 100% sensitivity (3/3), and the specificities were 68% (76/112) using ΔHb 2.0 and 49% (55/112) using ΔHb 1.5. We decided to adopt the standard of ΔHb 2 g/dL at the end of two weeks from the start of the pegylated IFN and ribavirin combination therapy as the predictive factor for anemia progression ("2 by 2" standard), which has been taken as a predictive factor for anemia in the IFN and ribavirin combination therapy.[25]

Applying the "2 by 2" standard to PegIFN plus ribavirin combination therapy, the rate of reduction or discontinuance of the ribavirin dose was examined with respect to the Hb decrease level (Table 4). Only one patient was excluded from this study, because the treatment was discontinued on the 11th day. In the group of ΔHb (the decrease in Hb concentration at two weeks from the baseline) ≥ 2 g/dL ($n = 39$), the doses were reduced for 18 patients (46%) and discontinued for 12 (31%), three of whom (8%) had severe anemia. For the group of ΔHb < 2 g/dL (76 patients), the doses were reduced for 21 patients (28%) and discontinued for 11 (14%); none due to severe anemia.

Early decline of Hb and minimum hemoglobin level during treatment

As in the case of ΔHb, we evaluated the minimum hemoglobin level during treatment, as shown in Figure 3. The patients with minimum Hb ≤ 8.5 g/dL accounted for 10% (4/39) of the group of ΔHb ≥ 2 g/dL, and there was no patient with minimum Hb ≤ 8.5 g/dL

Table 4 Rate of the ribavirin reduction or discontinuance due to adverse effects according to Hb decrease levels

	No reduction	Dose reduction	Discontinuance	
			All cases	Cases due to severe anemia
ΔHb < 2 g/dL ($n = 76$)	58% (44/76)	28% (21/76)	14% (11/76)	0
ΔHb ≥ 2 g/dL ($n = 39$)	23% (9/39)	46% (18/39)	31% (12/39)	8% (3/39)

$P = 0.004$ (Mantel–Haenszel χ^2-test).

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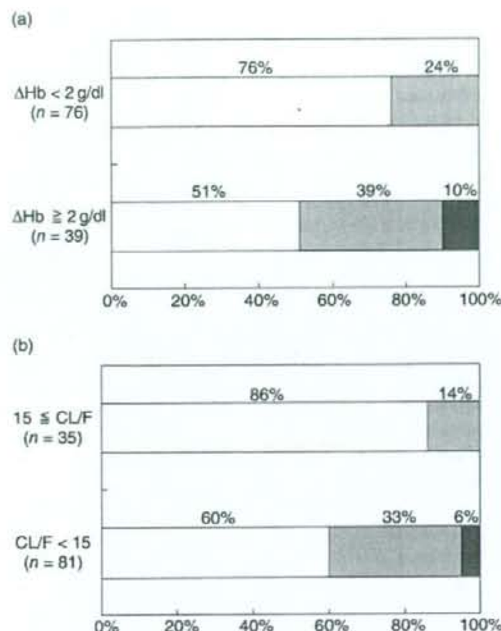

Figure 3 Minimum hemoglobin levels during PegIFN/ribavirin combination therapy. (□), 10 g/dL < minimum Hb; (▩), 8.5 < minimum Hb ≤ 10 g/dL; (■), minimum Hb ≤ 8.5 g/dL. (a) According to the "2 by 2" standard (Hb 2 g/dL decrease at two weeks from the baseline). $P = 0.009$ (Mantel–Haenszel χ^2-test). (b) according to CL/F levels. $P = 0.001$ (Mantel–Haenszel χ^2-test).

in the ΔHb < 2 g/dL group (Fig. 3a). The patients with minimum Hb ≤ 8.5 g/dL accounted for 6% (5/81) of the group of CL/F < 15, and there was no patient with minimum Hb ≤ 8.5 g/dL in the 15 ≤ CL/F group (Fig. 3b). The number of patients with minimum Hb ≤ 8.5 g/dL during PegIFN and ribavirin combination therapy according to "2 by 2" standard and CL/F levels is shown in Table 5. The patients with minimum Hb ≤ 8.5 g/dL were found only in the "2 by 2" standard-positive and low CL/F (<15) group (4/29, 14%).

DISCUSSION

PREDICTION OF THE progression of anemia is necessary to decide whether drugs can be continued, with minimization of the disadvantages induced by anemia. Recently, CL/F has been used as a marker of progressing anemia that necessitates discontinuance of treatment. For example, if the patients have a low CL/F level, they should start treatment with a low ribavirin dose. In this study, we attempted to use the CL/F level measurement for our patients. To predict which patients might have to discontinue the treatment, the target range had to be CL/F < 15 because 6% of patients ($n = 5$) in this range showed minimum Hb ≤ 8.5 g/dL, which is the level at which ribavirin should be discontinued. No patients of the CL/F ≥15 group showed minimum Hb ≤ 8.5 g/dL. Our findings showed that 70% of the patients (81/116) with CL/F < 15 should be discriminated from the others (Table 3). In the same manner, using ΔHb as the marker, 34% of the target patients in the ΔHb ≥ 2 g/dL group were identified because 10% in this range showed minimum Hb ≤ 8.5 g/dL. No patients in the ΔHb < 2 g/dL group showed minimum Hb ≤ 8.5 g/dL. Compared to CL/F, ΔHb is considered to be more sensitive and convenient for identifying the high risk patients for whom treatment would need to be discontinued. Furthermore, the application of "2 by 2" standard in the group with low level of CL/F < 15 can be the most sensitive method for this (Table 5), since no patients with progression of anemia were found in the "2 by 2" standard-negative group with CL/F < 15.

Table 5 The number of patients with minimum hemoglobin ≤8.5 g/dL during PegIFN/ribavirin combination therapy according to "2 by 2" standard and CL/F levels

	ΔHb < 2 g/dL ($n = 76$)	ΔHb ≥ 2 g/dL ($n = 39$)
CL/F ≥ 15 ($n = 35$)	0/25	0/10
CL/F < 15 ($n = 80$)	0/51	4/29 (14%)

In Japan, ribavirin doses are set at 600 mg for <60 kg, 800 mg for 60–80 kg, and 1000 mg for ≥80 kg, which are lower doses than those used in Europe and the USA. In this study, the mean ribavirin level at the start of treatment was 743 mg per day, while the AASLD practice guideline for genotype 1 hepatitis C is a daily dose of 1000 mg for body weight ≤ 75 kg and 1200 mg if >75 kg[26] In Japan, the use of lower doses is why fewer patients treated with PegIFN and ribavirin combination therapy are forced to discontinue the treatment due to severe anemia. Since the "2 by 2" model and/or CL/F can identify the patients who are prone to develop severe anemia, the other patients could be candidates for ribavirin dose-up strategies to raise SVR rates.

A considerable number of patients with chronic hepatitis C are over 60 years old in Japan (mean age is

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around 55 years old),[27] although the mean age of this study was 50.6 years old. The number of aged patients with chronic hepatitis C is expected to increase in Europe and the USA, as well as in Japan. In IFN and ribavirin combination therapy, the discontinuance rate due to anemia was significantly higher in aged patients (≥60 years old, 21%) than in younger patients (<60 years old, 9%) ($P < 0.001$).[25] Earlier prediction of anemia is necessary to reduce the ribavirin dose in order to prevent the progression of severe anemia or to start epoetin alfa administration as needed, especially with aged patients. The "2 by 2" standard in PegIFN and ribavirin combination therapy should be a useful and convenient device for predicting the progress of anemia and treatment discontinuance in Europe and the USA, as well as in Japan.

CONCLUSION

IN CONCLUSION, THIS paper has shown that the SVR rate can be raised by preventing the discontinuance of ribavirin in PegIFN and ribavirin combination therapy. What is now needed is a prospective study of whether the early reduction of ribavirin in "2 by 2" standard-positive patients can improve the SVR rates, to ascertain the utility of the "2 by 2" standard in PegIFN and ribavirin combination therapy.

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