

図3 血液悪性疾患の虎の門病院への紹介地域(東京都内)

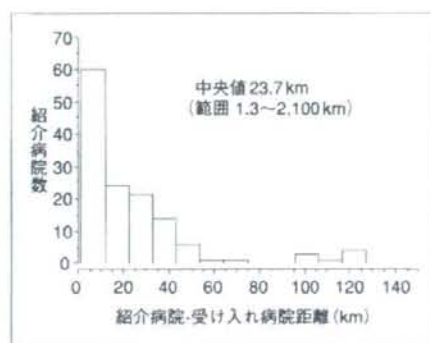


図4 紹介施設と受け入れ施設間の距離 (km)

ある地域・医療圏全体を病院とみなせ、各中核病院を中心に、各開業医は受け持つ各地域(病院でいえば病棟)のナースステーションに当たると考えることができる。当然、開業医でもそれぞれ専門分野をもっており、例えば開業医が循環器専門であれば、悪性疾患の終末期医療を任せられるか? に関しては、“血液の病気は専門ではないので診ることができない”とよくいわれ、現状不可能である場合が多い。悪性疾患症例を十分に経験した医師が、今後開業し、死因第1位の悪性疾患の終末期医療を担えれば、あるいは開業医でも全身管理の十分な経験をもった医師(general physician)であれば、在宅で

の緩和・終末期ケアは可能になってくると考えられる。しかし残念ながら、医学生や若い医師は悪性疾患を専門にしない風潮があり、先細りになっていくことが予想される。今後の対策が必要である。

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(執筆者連絡先) 宮腰重三郎 〒173-0015 東京都板橋区栄町 35-2 東京都老人医療センター血液科

Prevalence of Anemia among Healthy Women in 2 Metropolitan Areas of Japan

Eiji Kusumi,^a Midori Shoji,^b Shigeyuki Endou,^c Yukiko Kishi,^d Taro Shibata,^e Naoko Murashige,^f
Tamae Hamaki,^g Tomoko Matsumura,^h Koichiro Yuji,^h Akiko Yoneyama,^c Masahiro Kami^a

^aDivision of Exploratory Research, The Institute of Medical Science, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo;

^bHealth Screening Center, Yuai Memorial Hospital, Ibaraki; ^cDepartment of Clinical Laboratory, Toranomon Hospital, Tokyo; ^dDivision of Regenerative Medicine, Jichi Medical School, Tochigi; ^eStatistics and Cancer Control Division,

Research Center for Cancer Prevention and Screening, National Cancer Center, Tokyo;

^fOffice for Life-Style Related Disease Control, Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, Tokyo;

^gDivision of Transfusion Medicine, Tokyo Metropolitan Fuchu Hospital, Tokyo; ^hDepartment of Internal Medicine, The Institute of Medical Science, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan

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Abstract

Anemia is common among young women, and iron deficiency is one of the leading causes. In Europe and the US, the iron fortification of flour increased oral iron intake and decreased anemia prevalence from 30% to 10%. The National Nutrition Survey in Japan revealed that anemia prevalence among young Japanese women is increasing; however, no nationwide preventive policy has been aimed at iron deficiency anemia. The endpoint of this study was the estimation of anemia prevalence among healthy Japanese women, based on a large sample size. We collected data from the consecutive check-up examination records of apparently healthy women ($n = 13,147$). We defined hemoglobin lower than 12 g/dL as anemia, hemoglobin lower than 10 g/dL as severe anemia, and a mean corpuscular volume lower than 80 fl as microcytic anemia. Of the 13,147 persons, anemia was identified in 2331 (17.3%), and severe and microcytic anemia in 438 (3.3%) and 700 (5.2%), respectively. Among women younger than 50 years, anemia was identified in 22.3%, and 25.2% of them had severe anemia. In conclusion, the prevalence of anemia and severe anemia among young women is high in Japan. Some action needs to be considered to improve women's quality of life.

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Key words: Iron deficiency; Erythropoietin; Hematological abnormalities; Hemoglobin; Mean corpuscular volume (MCV); Thrombocytopenia; Anemia in the elderly; Women's health; Iron fortification

1. Introduction

Anemia is common among young women. The National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) revealed that an insufficient iron intake was one of the leading causes of anemia in the US. In Europe and the US, the iron fortification of flour increased oral iron intake, and the prevalence of anemia consequently decreased from 30% to 10% [1].

There are 3 epidemiological studies on anemia among Japanese women [2-4]. Uchida et al studied abnormal iron metabolism among 3015 women from 1981 to 1991 [2]. The lifestyle at the time of the study, more than 20 years ago, was probably different from the present one. The authors did not report the prevalence of anemia. Maeda et al studied chronological changes in the prevalence of anemia in junior and senior high school students between 1966 and 1997 [3]. They did not report anemia prevalence among the population except for junior and senior high school students. The only epidemiological study on anemia among Japanese women after the 1990s was the National Nutrition Survey in Japan (NNSJ) by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare [4]. The study mainly included elderly women; only 37% were younger than 50. There are insufficient epidemiological data on anemia among young Japanese women.

Correspondence and reprint requests: Kusumi Eiji, MD, Division of Exploratory Research, The Institute of Medical Science, The University of Tokyo, 4-6-1, Shirokanedai, Minato-ku, Tokyo 108-8639, Japan; 81-3-6409-2068; fax: 81-3-6409-2069 (e-mail: kusumi-tora@umin.ac.jp).

We investigated the prevalence of anemia in Japanese women, mostly young women, collecting data from the medical records of check-up examinations for apparently healthy people and the staff of Toranomon Hospital and Yuai Memorial Hospital.

2. Material and Methods

2.1. Data Collection

We collected data from the consecutive check-up examination records of apparently healthy women in different age groups in Toranomon Hospital (between January 2002 and March 2005; $n = 8265$) and Yuai Memorial Hospital (between February 1998 and February 2005; $n = 5153$).

2.2. Definitions

We defined hemoglobin lower than 12 g/dL as anemia, hemoglobin lower than 10 g/dL as severe anemia, and a mean corpuscular volume lower than 80 fl as microcytic anemia. Complete blood cell counts were analyzed using routine blood counting analyzers (XE-2100; Sysmex, Kobe, Japan in Toranomon Hospital and Coulter Gen-S; Beckman Coulter, Fullerton, CA, USA in Yuai Memorial Hospital).

2.3. Objectives and Statistical Analysis

This study aimed to estimate the prevalence of anemia, severe anemia, and microcytic anemia among healthy Japanese women, and to evaluate the association between these variables and age. The Fisher exact test was used for univariate analysis. A P value of less than .05 was considered significant. All analyses were performed with the statistical software JMP (version 5.01; SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA).

3. Results

3.1. Prevalence of Anemia, Severe Anemia, and Microcytic Anemia

The median age was 47 years (range, 11-87 years). Anemia was diagnosed in 2331 (17.3%), including severe anemia in 438 (3.3%) and microcytic anemia in 405 (3.0%) (Table 1).

3.2. Age-Specific Prevalence of Anemia

Table 2 and Figure 1 present the age-specific prevalence of anemia. The prevalence of anemia was high among those in their 20s to 40s, and tended to decrease above 50 years. The median hemoglobin levels in each age group were strongly correlated with the prevalence of anemia (Figure 1, $R = 0.96$). The prevalence of severe anemia and the median hemoglobin levels in each age group were also positively associated ($R = 0.80$).

3.3. Platelet and White Blood Cell Counts

White blood cell and platelet counts are tabulated in Table 2.

Table 1.

Characteristics of Women Included in the Study

	Median (range)
Age	47 (11-87)
Toranomon Hospital/Yuai Memorial Hospital	8265/5153
Hemoglobin, g/dL	13.0 (4.4-17.7)
Red blood cell count, $\times 10^9/L$	4.52 (1.98-6.03)
Hematocrit, %	39.0 (17.4-53.4)
Mean corpuscular volume, fl	91.2 (54.0-116.6)
Mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration, g/dL	33.2 (24.3-37.9)
White blood cell count, $\times 10^9/L$	6.3 (1.9-17.0)
Platelet count, $\times 10^9/L$	243.0 (100.0-792.0)
Anemia prevalence, %	2331 (17.3)
Severe anemia prevalence, %	438 (3.3)
Microcytic anemia prevalence, %	405 (3.0)

4. Discussion

In the present study, the prevalence of anemia was 17.3%. Of the anemic women, 18.7% had severe anemia and 17.3% microcytic anemia. The high prevalence of anemia in Japan is a significant clinical issue; the situation is similar to that in other Asian countries and Northern Europe, where no food products are fortified with iron [5,6].

The prevalence of anemia in those under 50 was 22.3%. It was as high as 25.8% in those aged 40-49 years; of those with anemia in that age group, 25.2% had severe anemia and 25.6% microcytic anemia. In contrast, the prevalence of anemia in those aged 50 and older was 11.2%, which was lower than that in younger women. The high prevalence among those aged 40-49 years in the present study is consistent with the previous reports [7], suggesting that anemia in this age group is due to a loss of iron from menstruation and menorrhagia.

The present study suggests that the prevalence of anemia is increasing among young Japanese women. Although there are few reports on chronological changes in the prevalence of anemia among Japanese women, compared with the results of the NNSJ among women aged 30-49 in 1990, our findings suggest that the prevalence of anemia has risen from 20% to 24% [4]. Maeda et al showed an increase in the prevalence of anemia among Japanese female adolescents [3]. The national average of oral iron intake has decreased from 10.8 mg/day in 1975 to 8.1 mg/day in 2003, and the average oral iron intake among women aged 18-29 was 7.0 mg/day in 2003 [4]. A possible cause of decreased iron intake is the popularity of weight-loss diets among young Japanese women, and increased iron loss may be due to an increase in menorrhagia, although the definitive cause remains unknown. A more detailed study is necessary regarding the causes of anemia in young Japanese women. In contrast, the prevalence of anemia in the elderly in the present study is equivalent to that of the NNSJ in 1990 [4]. The observation suggests that the causes of anemia in menopausal women are different from those in young women, probably being related to aging and various medical conditions [8-10]. There have been few studies on the causes of anemia among the elderly, and further study is awaited.

Table 2.
Complete Blood Count and Anemia Prevalence According to Age*

	10-19 y	20-29 y	30-39 y	40-49 y	50-59 y	60-69 y	≥ 70 y
Number of women included	121	1896	2157	3276	3704	1785	478
Hemoglobin, g/dL	13.0 (8.7-15.7)	12.9 (5.5-17.1)	12.8 (4.4-16.2)	12.8 (5.4-15.8)	13.1 (6.0-17.4)	13.2 (8.4-17.7)	13.1 (8.4-15.6)
Red blood cell count, $\times 10^{12}/L$	4.48 (3.68-5.47)	4.90 (2.00-5.94)	4.59 (2.57-5.67)	4.65 (2.80-5.63)	4.50 (2.20-5.68)	4.40 (3.00-6.03)	4.25 (3.07-5.01)
Hematocrit, %	39.1 (29.2-46.2)	38.6 (17.4-49.2)	38.4 (18.1-47.2)	38.5 (20.8-47.2)	39.5 (21.9-52.0)	39.7 (26.7-53.4)	39.5 (28.8-46.7)
Mean corpuscular volume, fl	88.0 (64.0-98.0)	90.0 (57.0-105.4)	90.4 (59.0-116.6)	90.7 (58.0-109.0)	92.0 (54.0-112.1)	93.0 (71.9-104.8)	93.6 (73.6-103.3)
Mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration, g/dL	33.2 (28.3-35.4)	33.3 (26.7-37.9)	33.2 (24.3-35.8)	33.1 (24.5-36.3)	33.2 (24.4-36.4)	33.2 (30.6-35.8)	33.1 (28.2-35.3)
White blood cell count, $\times 10^9/L$	5.9 (2.4-17.0)	9.2 (2.4-12.7)	7.4 (2.1-14.0)	7.0 (2.2-14.4)	5.6 (1.9-11.4)	5.3 (2.3-11.6)	5.3 (2.1-12.1)
Platelet count, $\times 10^9/L$	263.0 (135.0-578.0)	244.0 (94.0-501.0)	247.0 (50.0-572.0)	252.0 (47.0-649.0)	240.0 (100.0-610.0)	232.0 (56.0-792.0)	230.0 (26.0-426.0)
Anemia prevalence, %†	15.7	18.0	21.1	25.8	12.8	7.7	11.5
Severe anemia prevalence, %	3.3	1.9	3.8	6.5	2.6	0.2	0.8
Microcytic anemia prevalence, %	9.1	2.2	4.3	6.6	1.1	0.1	0.4

*Data are written as median value (range).

†Anemia prevalence includes severe anemia.

The present study showed that anemia is a significant issue among young Japanese women, although the interpretation requires caution. First, the study subjects were health-conscious women who resided in a metropolitan area and came for check-up examinations at the two hospitals, suggesting the possible existence of a selection bias. Second, since no data are available on serum chemistries, symptoms, and physical examination regarding iron metabolism, we cannot assess the causes of anemia based on the present study. Last, the numbers of women varied between the different age groups. Any future study should include equal numbers of women for a more precise analysis. A prospective, nationwide study is awaited, to assess the prevalence of anemia in a larger sample size.

The high prevalence of anemia in young Japanese women is a significant clinical issue. In many cases, the causes are probably insufficient iron intake and iron deficiency due to iron loss. Anemia is likely to adversely affect young women's health. Nationwide consideration and an epidemiological approach are necessary.

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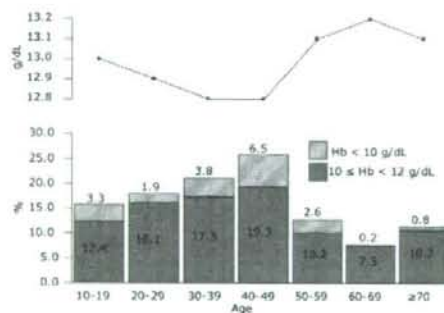


Figure 1. Prevalence of anemia and median hemoglobin levels according to age groups.



Role of soluble tumor necrosis factor-related apoptosis-inducing ligand concentrations after stem cell transplantation

Shosaku Nomura^{a,*}, Kazuyoshi Ishii^a, Norihito Inami^b, Nobuhiko Uoshima^c, Hiroyuki Ishida^d, Takao Yoshihara^d, Hitoshi Kitayama^e, Kunio Hayashi^e

^a Division of Hematology, Kishiwada City Hospital, 1001, Gakuhara-cho, Kishiwada, Osaka 596-8501, Japan

^b Second Department of Internal Medicine, Kansai Medical University, Moriguchi, Osaka, Japan

^c Department of Internal Medicine, Matsushita Memorial Hospital, Moriguchi, Osaka, Japan

^d Department of Pediatrics, Matsushita Memorial Hospital, Moriguchi, Osaka, Japan

^e Department of Internal Medicine, Hoshigaoka Koseinenkinn Hospital, Hirakata, Osaka, Japan

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Abstract

Although stem cell transplantation (SCT) is being used for hematopoietic reconstitution following high-dose chemotherapy for malignancy, it involves certain serious transplant-related complications such as graft-versus-host disease (GVHD). Tumor necrosis factor (TNF)-related apoptosis-inducing ligand (TRAIL) plays important roles in regulating cell death, immune response, and inflammation. However, the role of soluble TRAIL (sTRAIL) after SCT is poorly understood. In this study, 42 patients underwent SCT; 22 patients received allogeneic SCT, while the remaining 20 received autologous SCT. In these patients, levels of sTRAIL, cytokines, and soluble factors were measured by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA). In addition, a basic study of the generation of endothelial cell-derived microparticle (EDMP) by TNF- α and soluble Fas ligand (sFasL) was conducted. sFasL and EDMP exhibited significant elevation in the early phase (2–3 weeks) after SCT. In addition, the elevation of IL-6, TNF- α , and sIL-2R after allogeneic SCT was observed. EDMP also exhibited changes similar to sFasL. The patients with high sTRAIL exhibited significant decrease of sFasL and EDMP as compared with those without high sTRAIL. TNF- α and sFasL induced an increase in procoagulant and apoptotic markers in endothelial cells, and EDMP shedding was observed. Furthermore, sTRAIL inhibited the EDMP elevation caused by TNF- α and sFasL. The apoptotic markers such as sFasL and sTRAIL exhibited particular changes after SCT. Our results suggest that sTRAIL generation after allogeneic SCT relates to the prevention of GVHD.

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Keywords: TRAIL; GVHD; Stem cell transplantation; sE-selectin; EDMP

1. Introduction

Stem cell transplantation (SCT) involves some serious transplant-related complications [1,2], such as graft-versus-host disease (GVHD), and vascular disorders, such as veno-occlusive disease (VOD), pulmonary vasculopathy, thrombotic microangiopathy (TMA), and capillary leak syndrome [3–5]. Although the complex pathophysiology of acute GVHD involves the conditioning regimen, cytokines, nitric oxide, and non-T effector cells, the cytolytic activity of donor T-cells is essential for the development of GVHD activity [6,7]. The cytolytic activity of cy-

tototoxic T-lymphocytes (CTLs) is primarily mediated through certain effector mechanisms such as the Fas/FasL and perforin/granzyme pathways [8,9]. Interaction of FasL, expressed on the CTL cell surface, with the Fas receptor on the target cell membrane results in the initiation of the Fas cell death pathway [10]. Recent accumulating evidence indicates that the Fas/FasL system is implicated in the pathogenesis of acute GVHD [7,11–13].

Cellular microparticles are fragments that shed almost spontaneously from the plasma membrane blebs of virtually all cell types when subjected to a number of stress conditions [14,15]. In addition, these microparticles have more recently been shown to reflect *in vitro* cell stimulation, and testify to cellular activation and/or tissue degeneration occurring *in vivo* under various pathophysiological conditions [14,15]. Thus, there is a

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +81 72 445 1000; fax: +81 72 532 1113.

E-mail address: shosaku-n@mbp.ocn.ne.jp (S. Nomura).

possibility that the cellular microparticles exhibit a dynamic change after SCT [16]. In contrast, diagnosing vascular complications in patients undergoing SCT is challenging, and damage to endothelial cells is regarded as the common feature of these complications [17,18]. Furthermore, endothelial damage, perpetuated by CD8⁺CTL, has been linked to GVHD which is described in the skin and gut [18–22].

Tumor necrosis factor (TNF)-related apoptosis-inducing ligand (TRAIL)/Apo-2L is a member of the TNF family of cytokines, which are structurally related proteins playing important roles in regulating cell death, immune response, and inflammation [23]. TRAIL is a type II membrane protein, which can be proteolytically cleaved to a soluble form [24], as previously shown also for TNF- α and CD95 (Apo-1/Fas). The unique feature of TRAIL, as compared with other members of the TNF family, is its ability to induce apoptosis in a variety of malignant cells both in vitro and in vivo, displaying minimal toxicity on normal cells and tissues [25,26]. TRAIL interacts with four cellular receptors that form a distinct subgroup within the TNF receptor superfamily. TRAIL receptor 1 (TRAIL-R1 or DR4) and TRAIL receptor 2 (TRAIL-R2 or DR5) have cytoplasmic death domains and signal for apoptosis and NF- κ B [27–29]. Two additional receptors, TRAIL receptor 3 (TRAIL-R3 or DcR1) and TRAIL receptor 4 (TRAIL-R4 or DcR2), are homologous to DR4 and DR5 in their cysteine-rich extracellular domain, but they lack intracellular death domains and apoptosis-inducing capability [30,31]. It has been shown that endothelial cells express TRAIL-R3 and TRAIL-R4 [30,32], further suggesting the relationship between TRAIL and endothelial function. Furthermore, there are several indications that TRAIL could be involved in the pathophysiology of autoimmune diseases [33–35]. However, the role of soluble TRAIL (sTRAIL) after SCT is poorly understood.

We measured and compared levels of sTRAIL, cytokines, and soluble factors in patients undergoing SCT. The results suggested that sTRAIL plays a unique role after SCT.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Subjects

The subjects were 42 patients who underwent SCT between June 2001 and May 2006 at the institution of residence. In all, 22 patients received allogeneic SCT, while the remaining 20 received autologous SCT (Table 1). The 10 male and 12 female allogeneic SCT patients ranged in age from 6 to 68 years (median: 31 years), and the 12 male and 8 female autologous SCT patients ranged in age from 36 to 67 years (median: 51 years). Patient diagnoses consisted of 4 acute myeloid leukemia, 5 acute lymphoblastic leukemia, 2 chronic myeloid leukemia, 3 acute promyelocytic leukemia, 14 non-Hodgkin's lymphoma, 6 multiple myeloma, and 8 others. Conditioning applied was: total body irradiation for 13 and non-total body irradiation for 29. For allogeneic SCT, prophylaxis included cyclosporine for 19 patients with GVHD. The donor sources were 6 bone marrow transplantations, 10 peripheral blood stem cell transplantations, and 6 cord blood transplantations. Twenty-four patients received filgrastim and 18 received lenograstim. Written informed consent was obtained from all the patients.

2.2. Cytokine evaluation

Blood samples from each patient were collected into plastic tubes and immediately centrifuged to obtain serum. The serum was divided into aliquots and frozen at -30°C until use. As a positive control, recombinant products were

Table 1
Clinical profiles of SCT patients

Characteristics	Allogeneic SCT	Autologous SCT
Gender		
Male/Female	10/12	12/8
Age (years)	31 (6–68)	51 (36–67)
median (range)		
Diagnosis		
Leukemia	AML: 4 APL: 3 ALL: 5 CML: 2	
Malignant lymphoma	DLBC: 1	DLBC: 8 FCL: 5
Others	AA: 1 MDS: 5 Renal cancer: 1	MM: 6 Lung cancer: 1
Conditioning		
TBI	CY: 5	L-MAP: 3 Flu/L-PAM: 5
Non-TBI	Flu: 3 Flu, Bu: 5 Flu, L-PAM: 4	VP-16, CY: 4 MCNU, IFO, CBDCA, VP-16: 8 MCNU, L-PAM, Ara C, VP-16: 5
Donor source		
	BMT: 6 PBST: 10 CBT: 6	
G-CSF		
Filgrastim	14	10
Lenograstim	8	10

AML: acute myeloblastic leukemia; APL: acute promyeloblastic leukemia; ALL: acute lymphoblastic leukemia; CML: chronic myeloblastic leukemia; DLBC: diffuse large B cell lymphoma; FCL: Follicular cell lymphoma; AA: aplastic anemia; MDS: myelodysplasia syndrome; MM: multiple myeloma; TBI: total body irradiation; CY: cyclophosphamide; Flu: fludarabine; L-PAM: melphalan; VP-16: etoposide; IFO: ifosfamide; CBDCA: carboplatin; BMT: bone marrow transplantation; PBST: peripheral blood stem cell transplantation; CBT: cord blood transplantation.

used in each assay, as well as standard solutions provided with the commercial kits. Human TNF- α , IFN γ , IL-4, and IL-6 ELISA kits were purchased from BioSource International, Inc. (Camarillo, California, USA). Serum levels of cytokines were measured according to the 'manufacturers' instructions. Normal ranges were as follows: TNF- α : 5–20 pg/ml, IFN γ : 0–12.5 pg/ml, IL-4: 0–3.5 pg/ml, and IL-6: 0.2–4.5 pg/ml.

2.3. Measurement of sFasL, sTRAIL, sIL-2R, sVCAM-1 and sE-selectin

sFasL, sTRAIL, sIL-2R, sVCAM-1, and sE-selectin ELISA kits were purchased from BioSource International Inc. For measurement of sFasL, sTRAIL, sIL-2R, sVCAM-1 and sE-selectin in serum, all the kits were used according to the manufacturers' instructions. Normal ranges were as follows: sFasL: 0.02–0.14 ng/ml, sTRAIL: 100–500 pg/ml, sIL-2R: 150–450 IU/ml, sVCAM-1: 395–714 ng/ml, and sE-selectin: 23.0–79.2 ng/ml.

2.4. Assessment of endothelial cell-derived microparticle (EDMP)

EDMPs were detected using a previously reported method with some modifications [36]. A 10- μ l aliquot of washed intact platelets (3×10^8 /ml) was added to the plasma, and the mixture was incubated for 30 min in dark at room temperature, with FITC-labeled Annexin V (FITC-Ann V) and phycoerythrin (PE)-labeled CD51 (α v β 3) to detect EDMP. The samples were diluted 1:10 with HEPES-Tyroses buffer containing 5 mmol/l EGTA and analyzed using the Ortho Cyturon Absolute Analyzer (Ortho Diagnostic Systems, Inc., Tokyo, Japan), set to detect only the particles bound to FITC-labeled Annexin V and PE-labeled CD51. This method was designed to ensure the detection of only procoagulant EDMP. The concentrations of these microparticles were then calculated per μ l of the whole blood.

2.5. Activation of endothelial cells

Endothelial cells isolated from freshly obtained human umbilical cord veins were cultured according to the method of Jaffe et al. [37]. Second-passage cells

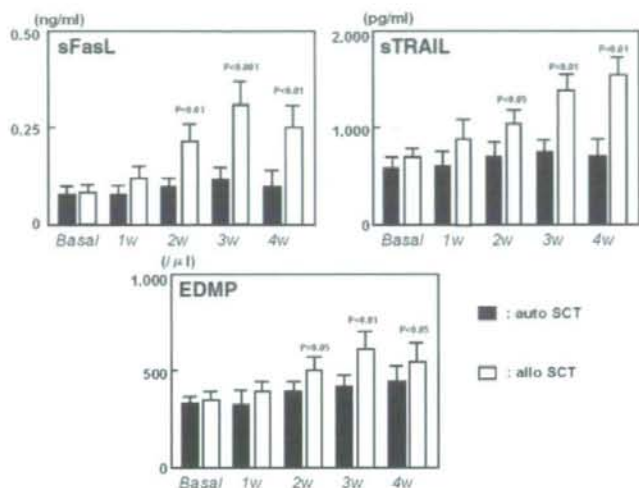


Fig. 1. Changes of apoptotic markers and EDMP in patients undergoing allogeneic and autologous SCT. Blood samples were obtained on days 0 (basal), 7 (1 weeks), 14 (2 weeks), 21 (3 weeks), and 28 (4 weeks) after the transplantation. Error bars show standard error. Student's *t*-test was used for statistical comparisons.

were grown to confluence in 25 cm² culture flasks (3–4 days). The cells were subcultured in 12-well plates containing M-199 with growth supplement, fetal bovine serum, and heparin, after which they were washed once with 10-mM EDTA in phosphate-buffered saline to remove calcium-dependent binding proteins such as vitamin K-dependent coagulation factors. EDTA was subsequently removed by three washes with 0.4% fetal bovine serum albumin. Then, the cells were incubated at 37 °C with 10 ng/ml of TNF- α (BioSource International Inc.), 20 ng/ml of sFasL (Alexis Biochemicals, San Diego, CA), or 100 ng/ml of sTRAIL (BioSource International Inc.) in M-199, 0.4% BSA. Samples of the cells containing FITC-labeled anti-annexin V or PE-labeled anti-APO 2.7 antibodies (MBL Inc., Nagoya, Japan) were added to Falcon tubes and analyzed using the Ortho Cytofluor Absolute Analyzer.

2.6. Confocal laser scanning microscopy

Microwells were prepared by attaching a Flexiperm chamber (Heraeus Instruments, Osterode, Germany) onto a cover glass. Samples of each cell line containing FITC-labeled anti-CD9 antibody (NKKY1-19)[38] were added to the microwells and incubated for the indicated times. For each sample, 6 or 8 optical sections separated by 0.5- μ m steps were recorded via a Carl Zeiss Plan-Apo 63 \times 1.4 objective. Differential interference contrast (DIC) images and fluorescent confocal (FC) images were obtained simultaneously, and every picture was a combination of four accumulated frames. FITC fluorescence was detected at an excitation wavelength of 488 nm with a barrier filter at 500 nm. Individual images were exported to Adobe Photoshop, and the slides were printed using Fujix Pictography 3000 (Fuji Photo Film, Tokyo, Japan).

2.7. Statistical analysis

Results are shown as the mean \pm standard deviations. Student's *t*-tests were used for statistical comparisons. Linear regression analysis was used to compare sTRAIL and other factors. A *p* value $<$ 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

3. Results

3.1. SCT-related complications

Twenty-two patients who received allogeneic SCT developed acute GVHD (grade I, 11; grade II, 8; grade III, 2; grade IV, 1). Three patients

(grade III and IV) who received allogeneic SCT had severe complications and died after the procedure. Another who had received autologous SCT suffered from severe sepsis. Therefore, three patients—two from those who received allogeneic SCT and one who received autologous SCT—were excluded from the analysis of the present study.

3.2. Changes in sFasL, sTRAIL and EDMP

Fig. 1 shows the changes in sFasL, sTRAIL, and EDMP levels after SCT. The level of sFasL in the group that received allogeneic SCT peaked within 3 weeks (0.31 ± 0.06 ng/ml, $p < 0.001$) and then decreased. The level of sTRAIL in allogeneic SCT continued to increase for up to 4 weeks (2 weeks, 1012 ± 89 pg/ml, $p < 0.05$; 3 weeks, 1376 ± 72 ng/ml, $p < 0.01$; 4 weeks, 1589 ± 143 ng/ml, $p < 0.01$). The level of EDMP showed the same tendency as sFasL (allogeneic SCT: 2 weeks, 497 ± 51 μ l, $p < 0.05$; 3 weeks, 597 ± 85 μ l, $p < 0.01$, 4 weeks, 515 ± 56 μ l, $p < 0.05$). In contrast, level of sFasL, sTRAIL, and EDMP in the

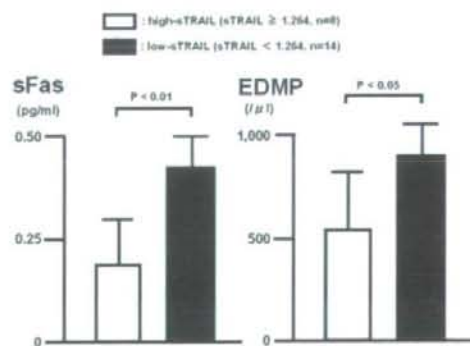


Fig. 2. sFasL and EDMP levels in patients after allogeneic SCT with and without high-sTRAIL. Values presented as mean \pm standard error.

Table 2
Changes of cytokines and soluble factors with SCT

Cytokine/factor	Before SCT	After SCT			
		1 week	2 weeks	3 weeks	4 weeks
<i>Allo SCT</i>					
IFN γ (pg/ml)	9.4 \pm 0.5	11.6 \pm 0.7	13.1 \pm 0.5	14.2 \pm 1.1*	14.8 \pm 0.9**
IL-4 (pg/ml)	5.5 \pm 0.4	5.4 \pm 0.6	5.8 \pm 0.3	5.9 \pm 0.4	5.5 \pm 0.6
TNF- α (pg/ml)	12.2 \pm 0.8	16.5 \pm 1.2	24.4 \pm 1.8*	28.3 \pm 5.9**	23.8 \pm 1.7*
IL-6 (pg/ml)	21.1 \pm 6.2	34.8 \pm 6.7	51.9 \pm 14.1**	49.8 \pm 10.5*	47.4 \pm 15.2*
sIL-2R (IU/ml)	729 \pm 62	753 \pm 72	1029 \pm 68*	1129 \pm 55*	1331 \pm 97**
sVCAM-1 (pg/ml)	962 \pm 65	1133 \pm 74	1362 \pm 94*	1577 \pm 92**	1612 \pm 121**
sE-selectin (ng/ml)	66.7 \pm 3.9	72.1 \pm 4.6	90.8 \pm 4.8*	117.2 \pm 5.7**	128.5 \pm 7.4**
<i>Auto SCT</i>					
IFN γ (pg/ml)	6.3 \pm 0.9	6.1 \pm 0.8	5.8 \pm 0.6	5.9 \pm 0.5	6.3 \pm 0.9
IL-4 (pg/ml)	3.5 \pm 0.5	3.7 \pm 0.6	3.4 \pm 0.7	3.1 \pm 0.7	2.9 \pm 0.8
TNF- α (pg/ml)	8.7 \pm 1.2	10.1 \pm 1.4	14.9 \pm 1.8*	10.5 \pm 1.1	9.7 \pm 0.8
IL-6 (pg/ml)	12.3 \pm 2.2	38.7 \pm 22.4*	42.6 \pm 12.7*	19.6 \pm 5.3	15.9 \pm 4.5
sIL-2R (IU/ml)	855 \pm 149	1455 \pm 364*	1427 \pm 152*	1163 \pm 168	1037 \pm 114
sVCAM-1 (pg/ml)	1,214 \pm 85	1161 \pm 121	1447 \pm 64*	1249 \pm 95	1124 \pm 121
sE-selectin (ng/ml)	84.5 \pm 10.6	79.8 \pm 4.8	91.5 \pm 10.4*	119.2 \pm 13.3*	94.7 \pm 9.5

Data represent means \pm standard error. TNF- α : tumor necrosis factor α ; IFN γ : interferon γ ; IL-4: interleukin 4; IL-6: interleukin 6 sIL-2R: soluble interleukin-2 receptor; sVCAM-1: soluble vascular cell adhesion molecule-1; sE-selectin: soluble E-selectin.

recipients of autologous SCT did not show significant changes. There were no significant correlations between sTRAIL, sFasL, and EDMP in the recipients of allogeneic SCT.

Fig. 2 shows the changes in levels of sFasL and EDMP at 4 weeks in the recipients of allogeneic SCT with elevated sTRAIL levels. sFasL and EDMP levels at 4 weeks in allogeneic SCT with elevated sTRAIL (greater than the mean+two standard deviations of basal levels) were used for the analysis. Eight patients had high sTRAIL levels (sTRAIL>1264 pg/ml). The patients with high sTRAIL exhibited significant decrease of sFasL and EDMP as compared with those without high sTRAIL.

3.3. Changes in serum cytokines and soluble factors

The level of cytokines and soluble factors before and after SCT is shown in Table 2. IFN γ levels were found to be significantly higher 3 weeks after allogeneic SCT than beforehand, while IL-4 and IFN γ levels after autologous SCT remained almost unchanged. In contrast, TNF- α , IL-6, sIL-2R, sVCAM-1, and sE-selectin exhibited a significant elevation after both autologous and allogeneic SCT, although the changes after autologous SCT were temporary. Levels of sIL-2R, sVCAM-1, and sE-selectin after allogeneic SCT continued to increase for up to 4 weeks. Table 3 shows the relationship between sFasL or sTRAIL and cytokines/soluble factors in allogeneic SCT. sFasL levels

Table 3
Relationship between sFasL, sTRAIL, and cytokines/soluble factors in allogeneic SCT

	sFasL (allogeneic SCT)		sTRAIL (allogeneic SCT)	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i> value	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i> value
TNF α	0.2931	<0.01	-0.1925	N.S.
IFN γ	-0.1242	N.S.	0.1301	N.S.
IL-4	0.2194	<0.05	0.1455	N.S.
IL-6	0.2287	<0.05	-0.1882	N.S.
sIL-2R	0.3325	<0.01	-0.2478	<0.05
sVCAM-1	0.2946	<0.01	-0.2451	<0.05
sE-selectin	0.3842	<0.01	-0.3317	<0.01

Statistically significant *p* values are underlined.

correlated positively with TNF- α , IL-4, IL-6, sIL-2R, sVCAM-1, and sE-selectin. In contrast, sTRAIL levels correlated negatively with sIL-2R, sVCAM-1, and sE-selectin.

3.4. Relationship between sTRAIL, sFasL, and EDMP in activated endothelial cells

Fig. 3 shows endothelial cell activation and EDMP shedding caused by TNF- α and sFasL stimulation. TNF- α and sFasL increased binding of the procoagulant marker annexin V and the apoptotic marker APO2.7. Fig. 4 shows the release of EDMP from endothelial cells caused by TNF- α and sFasL, detected by flow cytometry using FITC-

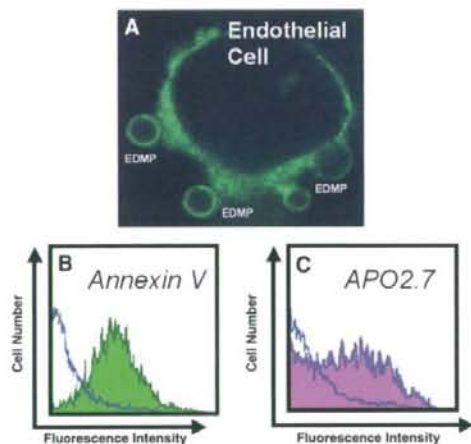


Fig. 3. Confocal microscopic images of the immunoreactivity and flow cytometric analysis of activated endothelial cells. Activated endothelial cells were stained with FITC-conjugated anti-CD9 antibody (A). In flow cytometric analysis, endothelial cells were stained using FITC-labeled Annexin V and PE-APO2.7 (B & C). Blue histogram is the control (unstimulated) (B & C).

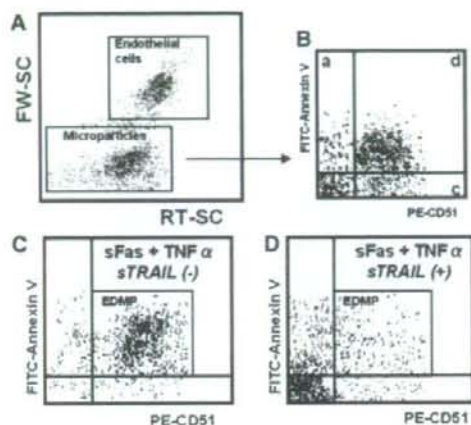


Fig. 4. Flow cytometric analysis of EDMP. Only particles positive for FITC-labeled Annexin V and PE-CD51 were gated to distinguish endothelial cells and EDMP from electric noise (A and B). EDMPs were elevated by stimulation of sFasL and TNF- α (C), and this elevation was inhibited by the addition of sTRAIL (D). Representative data from one of the five independent experiments are shown.

labeled Annexin V and PE-labeled CD51 (Fig. 4A, B). TNF- α and sFasL promoted the release of EDMP (Fig. 4C); however, this effect was inhibited by the addition of sTRAIL (Fig. 4D).

4. Discussion

TRAIL is considered to be the peculiar molecule that triggers apoptosis through interaction with the death receptor [39]. Many studies have shown that both the membrane-bound and the soluble extracellular domain of TRAIL can induce apoptosis in a wide variety of tumor cell lines without affecting most of the normal cells [25,26,40,41]. Furthermore, repeated administration of recombinant and biologically active sTRAIL can induce tumor cell apoptosis, suppress tumor progression, and improve survival in tumor-bearing mice [25,26,40]. Some studies suggest, however, that sTRAIL could not induce apoptosis in normal cells [39,42]. On the other hand, SCT is an established method for treating various hematological diseases, and it also provides an opportunity to trace the process of hematopoietic reconstitution *in vivo*. Although many cytokines are known to control the process of hematopoiesis, the role of TRAIL in this process is not well understood.

In the present study, several apoptotic markers were measured before SCT and serially after SCT. sFasL and EDMP exhibited significant elevation in the early phase (2 or 3 weeks) after SCT (Fig. 1). Cytokines and soluble factors were also measured.

It has previously been reported that certain cytokines and soluble factors are useful for the diagnosis of GVHD after allogeneic SCT. Proinflammatory cytokines including IFN- γ , IL-6, and TNF- α are important mediators and regulators of GVHD [43,44]. sIL-2R appears to be a convenient marker for the detection of acute GVHD [45]. In the present study, the involvement of apoptotic markers in the elevation of IL-6, TNF- α , and sIL-2R after allogeneic SCT appeared to be important,

since sFasL exhibited the same changes as these cytokines and soluble factors [46–48]. This suggests the possibility that sFasL plays a role in GVHD after allogeneic SCT [11–13,49].

EDMP also exhibited changes similar to those of sFasL. It is reported that EDMP exhibit a dynamic change after SCT [16]. In particular, the increase of EDTA in the TMA/thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura (TTP) case was quite remarkable [16,50]. In the present study, TNF- α and sFasL induced the increase of procoagulant and apoptotic markers in the endothelial cells (Fig. 3). In addition, EDMP shedding was also observed in this experiment (Fig. 3). Therefore, it is possible to associate EDMP with apoptosis.

Although the molecular pathogenesis of GVHD remains to be uncovered, there is a general agreement that infiltrating T lymphocytes play a central role [51–53]. Some studies have suggested that the expression of TNF and TRAIL can also contribute to CTL acytotoxicity [54,55]. Endothelial cells are targets of CTL [22], and Li et al. [56] reported that TRAIL induces apoptosis in human endothelial cells. However, several other reports showed that TRAIL promotes the survival of human vascular endothelial cells, since endothelial cells have decoy receptors such as TRAIL-R3 and R4 that protect cells from apoptosis [57–60]. In addition, some reports exhibited that TRAIL inhibits activation of antigen-specific T-cells via blockade of cell cycle progression, and results in preventing GVHD [61–63].

In the present study, the patients with high sTRAIL exhibited significant decrease of sFasL and EDMP as compared with those without high sTRAIL (Fig. 2). Furthermore, sTRAIL inhibited EDMP elevation caused by TNF- α and sFas (Fig. 4). Our results support previous reports regarding the preventive effect of sTRAIL on GVHD. When lymphocyte or monocyte are activated after SCT, they could cause the generation of sTRAIL. In this manner, sTRAIL generation after allogeneic SCT makes it possible to control GVHD. However, further examination will be necessary to establish the exact mechanism of control.

In conclusion, we measured and compared levels of cytokines and soluble factors in patients undergoing SCT. The apoptotic markers such as sFasL and sTRAIL exhibited particular changes after SCT. Our results suggest that sTRAIL generation after allogeneic SCT relates to the prevention of GVHD.

Acknowledgments

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Regional differences exist in allogeneic stem cell transplantation rates for acute leukemia

Yuji Miura · Takuhiro Yamaguchi · Takayuki Azuma · Tamae Hamaki ·
Yuko Kodama · Eiji Kusumi · Tomoko Matsumura · Toshihiko Nakamura ·
Masahiro Kami · Tsunehiko Komatsu

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Allogeneic stem-cell transplantation (allo-SCT) is a curative treatment for advanced hematologic malignancies, although it is frequently accompanied by severe complications and the practice is usually limited to experienced medical teams [1]. Regional differences in indications and management strategies for allo-SCT among physicians and institutions have been indicated; however, their existence and factors associated with them among physicians and institutions remain unknown. We examined the differences in allo-SCT rates for acute leukemia among prefectures and districts in Japan, and investigated the association between the differences and several possible factors. Japan's prefectures comprise the 47 administrative units of the country, and districts make up ten areas divided according to geographical and historical backgrounds: Hokkaido,

Tohoku, Koshinetsu, Kanto, Tokai, Hokuriku, Kinki, Chugoku, Shikoku, and Kyushu.

Since 97% of the patients who underwent allo-SCT for acute leukemia from 2000 to 2004 were younger than 60 years in Japan [2], we assumed that allo-SCT was indicated in patients aged less than 60. We defined allo-SCT rates as the rate of the number of patients who underwent allo-SCT to that of patients with acute leukemia. We investigated the number of patients with acute leukemia aged less than 60 as a denominator and the number of those who underwent allo-SCT under the age of 60 as a numerator. We estimated the annual number of new patients with acute leukemia under the age of 60 in each prefecture and district, using the incidences of acute leukemia by age-groups in Japan [3] and the population by age-groups in each prefecture according to a census in 2004 [4]. We defined the number of treated patients in each district as the estimated number of patients with acute leukemia, while the number of patients in each prefecture was adjusted by patient migration to and from other prefectures [5]. The number of patients who underwent allo-SCT for acute leukemia under the age of 60 in each prefecture and district from 2000 to 2004 was obtained from the annual report in 2005 published by the Japan Society for Hematopoietic Cell Transplantation (JSHCT) [2]. We assumed the percentage of acute leukemia to the primary diseases for which allo-SCT was indicated in each prefecture to be the same as the national average (83%) during the same time period [2], because JSHCT reports the total numbers of the primary diseases for which allo-SCT was indicated in Japan without the breakdown of data by prefecture. We investigated the association between the differences and several possible factors using the Spearman correlation coefficient (significance level 0.05). They included physicians per unit population [6], the numbers of

Y. Miura (✉) · T. Komatsu
Department of Hematology, Teikyo University Chiba
Medical Center, 3426-3, Anesaki, Ichihara,
Chiba 299-0111, Japan
e-mail: yujimiura@gmail.com

T. Yamaguchi
Department of Clinical Trial Data Management, Graduate
School of Medicine, The University of Tokyo Hospital,
Tokyo, Japan

T. Azuma
Department of Hematology, Tsukuba Memorial Hospital,
Tsukuba, Japan

T. Hamaki · Y. Kodama · E. Kusumi · T. Matsumura ·
M. Kami
Division of Exploratory Research, The Institute of Medical
Science, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan

T. Nakamura
Division of Social Medicine, Hokkaido University Graduate
School of Medicine, Sapporo, Japan

hematologists per unit population [7], the numbers of allo-SCT institutions per unit population [2], and incomes per person [8] in prefectures and districts.

The estimated number of patients who developed acute leukemia under the age of 60 years from 2000 to 2004 in Japan was 3,075 per year. The number of patients who underwent allo-SCT for acute leukemia under the age of 60 during this period was 1,633 per year. The allo-SCT rate in Japan was 53%.

The allo-SCT rates by district were high in the west and low in the east (Fig. 1a), with a maximum 2.1-fold difference (31 vs. 65%) [95% confidence interval (CI): 1.9 to 2.4-fold]. There was a trend between the allo-SCT rates by district and the numbers of hematologists per unit population ($r = 0.5627$, $P = 0.0963$), while no association was found between the numbers of physicians per unit population ($r = 0.4012$, $P = 0.2475$), allo-SCT institutions per unit population ($r = 0.4233$, $P = 0.2182$), or incomes per person ($r = 0.1255$, $P = 0.7298$).

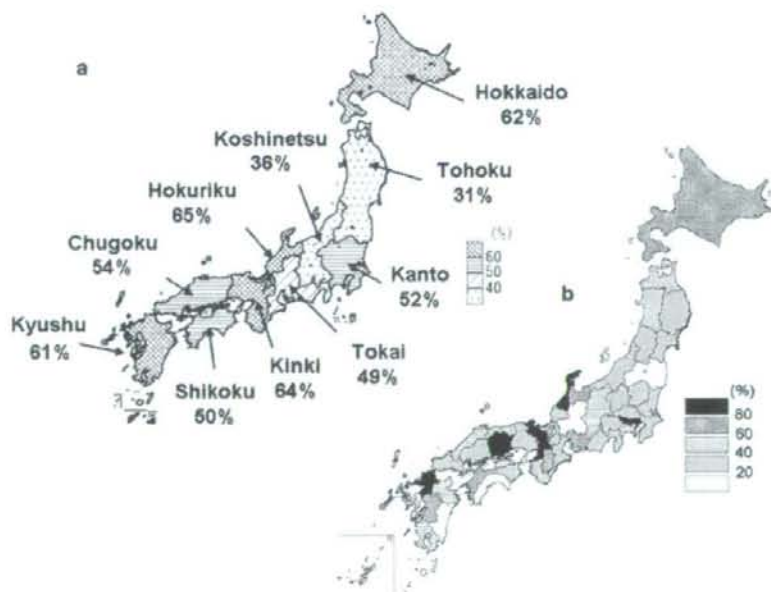
The allo-SCT rates by prefecture are shown in Fig. 1. There was a maximum 17.9-fold difference (5.6 vs. 100%) (95% CI 11.0 to 29.3-fold). No prefectures in Tohoku or Koshinetsu districts had allo-SCT rates exceeding 60%. The allo-SCT rates by prefecture were significantly associated with the numbers of physicians, hematologists, and allo-SCT institutions per unit population [$r = 0.4354$ ($P = 0.0022$), $r = 0.5773$ ($P < 0.0001$), $r = 0.5255$ ($P = 0.0001$)]; these three factors were significantly associated with each other. There was no association between

the allo-SCT rates by prefecture and incomes per person ($r = 0.1147$, $P = 0.4426$). The year of the foundation of medical faculties in each prefecture was associated with the allo-SCT rates (Fig. 2).

The present study demonstrated that the allo-SCT rates for acute leukemia were different among districts in Japan, with a maximum 2.1-fold difference. The results were comparable with previous reports from Europe; Gratwohl et al. [9] reported a maximum 2.8-fold difference in the numbers of allo-SCT per unit population in Western Europe. However, we need to be aware of differences in the backgrounds, when our study is compared with the report by Gratwohl et al. Their study on allo-SCT activities in different countries in Western Europe with varying medical administrative systems sharply contrasts to ours based on a single country managed by a single administrative system. Since each district constitutes an independent medical service area with negligible patient migration among districts in Japan [5], the present study suggests that factors other than administrative systems affect the difference in allo-SCT activities among districts. Identifying these factors and taking countermeasures are important for the spread of allo-SCT.

Our study suggested that the number of hematologists per unit population possibly affects the allo-SCT rates by district. This observation implies that education to increase the number of physicians who can manage allo-SCT is necessary for its dissemination. As education to increase numbers of physicians is limited to medical faculties at

Fig. 1 **a** Allogeneic stem cell transplantation rates by district, **b** allogeneic stem cell transplantation rates by prefecture. The allogeneic stem cell transplantation rates were 62% in Hokkaido, 31% in Tohoku, 36% in Koshinetsu, 52% in Kanto, 49% in Tokai, 65% in Hokuriku, 64% in Kinki, 54% in Chugoku, 50% in Shikoku, and 61% in Kyushu



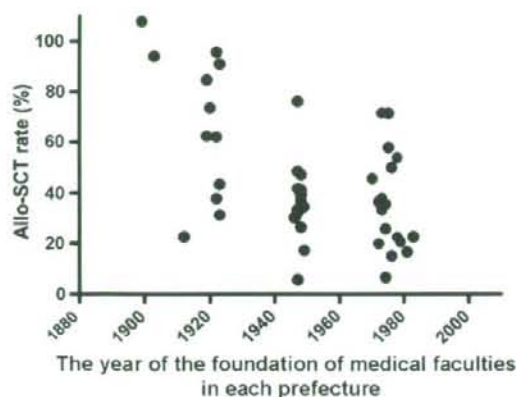


Fig. 2 Association of allogeneic stem cell transplantation rates by prefecture with the year of the foundation of medical faculties in each prefecture

universities and colleges in Japan, the number of physicians in a district is probably affected by the regulated number of students at medical faculties and the year of the foundation of medical faculties. The present study showed a significant association between the year of the foundation of medical faculties in each prefecture and the allo-SCT rates (Fig. 2). The allo-SCT rates by district which were high in the west and low in the east are probably explained by the history where medical faculties had been founded mostly in Western Japan since the Meiji Revolution in 1868. Depending on the migration of health care professionals seems insufficient to minimize the difference in medical services; focusing on the first step of physicians' education will be important. The present study also demonstrated no significant association between incomes per person and the allo-SCT rates by district. The national health insurance system which reduced the economical difference in access can explain the negative results in association between economical factors and the allo-SCT rates in Japan.

The present study showed a maximum 14.6-fold difference in allo-SCT rates among prefectures in a single district. The observation suggests that a prefecture plays a central role in each district and that patients cross the prefectural border to the central prefecture to undergo allo-SCT. Interestingly, no central prefecture exists in Tohoku district, where the allo-SCT rate was the lowest. Since the Japanese capital had been located in Kinki district (West Japan) until the mid nineteenth century, mainly West Japan was developed. The weak economical platform and premature social infrastructure in East compared with West Japan may hamper the centralization of allo-SCT in Tohoku.

Our study has some limitations. While we used relatively accurate numbers of allo-SCT, we could not obtain actual data on the incidences of acute leukemia in prefectures and patient migration rates to and from other prefectures. We estimated the former based on incidences by age-groups and populations, and adjusted the latter with the rates of immigration and emigration of all patients, yet the allo-SCT rates reached 100% in some prefectures. The results suggest that patients with acute leukemia more often cross the prefectural border for allo-SCT than for regular treatments. Data collection by the registration of patients with acute leukemia and the further investigation of patient migration for allo-SCT are warranted.

In conclusion, the present study suggested that social systems including physicians' education largely affect the dissemination of complex medical treatments such as allo-SCT. To reduce the regional differences in allo-SCT by the centralization of allo-SCT institutes, improvement of the education system for physicians and social infrastructure also needs to be considered.

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Current status of development of anticancer agents in Japan

Tomohiro Morita · Akiko Hori · Hiroto Narimatatsu ·
Tetsuya Tanimoto · Masahiro Kami

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Abstract To investigate the current status of the development of anticancer agents in Japan, we examined the number of these agents developed after 1999, their target diseases, and the association between the number of approved agents and the number of patients with the diseases. The data were obtained via the Internet. Of the 487 agents approved from 1999 to April 2007, 84 were anticancer drugs. Of these 84, 46 were approved based on clinical trials and 38 were approved through the new drug application for off-label usages without clinical trials. The target diseases of the 46 agents approved through clinical trials were nonhematologic tumors in 29, hematologic malignancies in 13, and others in 4. Of the 38 approved through the new drug application for off-label usages, 31 were for nonhematologic tumors and 7 for hematologic malignancies. The number of approved anticancer agents for hematologic malignancies per unit patient population was 6.5-times as many as that for nonhematologic tumors. This study demonstrated that the situation regarding the development of anticancer agents differs among tumor types. The majority of anticancer agents developed target

hematologic malignancies, while the newly developed anticancer agents have affected treatment strategies for solid tumors.

Keywords Approval · Cancer · PMDA · Off-label use

1 Introduction

The number of cancer patients is increasing with rapid population aging in Japan [1]. Despite the progress of medical technology, the prognosis of cancer remains insufficient. When cure or prolongation of survival cannot be expected through existing surgery and chemotherapy, patients strongly desire to be involved in trials of novel anticancer agents. Since anticancer agents with novel mechanisms such as molecular targeting agents and antibody drugs were developed, the development of chemotherapeutic agents for cancers which have not responded to conventional cytotoxic agents has been attempted [2]. The number of newly developed anticancer agents is, therefore, increasing [3].

The so-called drug-lag, the delay in the availability of drugs in Japan which are already available in Europe and/or the US, is a social concern in Japan [4]. One of the reasons that Japan lags behind Europe and the US in the approval of anticancer agents is that development by drug manufacturers in Europe and/or the US precedes that in Japan [4]. The Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare initiated discussions at the Conference on Unapproved Drug Use in January 2005 to reduce this drug-lag. The Ministry requests drug manufacturers to rapidly complete clinical trials in Japan on drugs which are judged necessary by the conference. As of April 2007, the conference deals with 35 agents (ingredients), of which 21 are anticancer agents [5].

T. Morita (✉) · H. Narimatatsu · M. Kami
Division of Exploratory Research,
The Institute of Medical Science,
The University of Tokyo, 4-6-1, Shirokanedai,
Minato-ku, Tokyo 108-8639, Japan
e-mail: t.morita526@gmail.com

A. Hori
First Outpatient Division,
The National Cancer Center Hospital,
Tokyo, Japan

T. Tanimoto
Department of Laboratory Medicine,
The National Cancer Center Hospital, Tokyo, Japan

Hematologic malignancies have been the major target of developed anticancer agents, despite their low incidence. This is related to the easy access to tumor samples and the high response rates to anticancer agents compared with solid tumors. The development of molecular targeting agents and antibody drugs and the social changes in cancer treatment have led to advances in the development of novel anticancer agents for solid tumors; however, the actual condition remains unclear. We investigated the number of anticancer agents which were developed after 1999, the target diseases, and the association between the number of approved anticancer agents and the number of patients with the diseases.

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Definition of anticancer agents

We defined anticancer agents as drugs used for antitumor activities and excluded supportive treatments and drugs used for complications or adverse effects of treatments such as bisphosphonates. We defined molecular targeting agents as drugs which aim at the selective inhibition of the transformed phenotype or target specific molecular lesions within tumor cells, leading to improved cure rates with limited toxicity.

2.2 Information collection regarding approved anticancer agents

The generic names, effects, and year of approval of anticancer agents which were approved from 1999 to April 2007 were obtained from the homepages of the Pharmaceuticals and Medical Devices Agency (PMDA) [3] and Japan Pharmacists Education Center (JPEC) [6]. When an identical chemotherapeutic agent was approved for another use, we treated it as a separate agent.

2.3 Information collection regarding anticancer agents undergoing development

While information on anticancer agents undergoing development in order to apply for approval is not publicly available, the agents which were judged necessary for early development or approval application by the Conference on Unapproved Drug Use are listed in "Information on unapproved drugs in Japan [7]" on the homepage of the Cancer Information Center at the National Cancer Center. In the present study, we considered the agents listed on the homepage as of 15 April 2007 as the drugs which were in preparation for approval application in Japan and collected information on the generic names and expected target diseases of those agents.

2.4 Information collection regarding the number of cancer patients

Incidence data were obtained from the homepage of the Cancer Information Center at the National Cancer Center [8] and the numbers of patients with different tumors were estimated. The investigated tumors were classified into brain tumor, head and neck, esophageal, gastric, colorectal, breast, uterine, ovarian, prostate, renal, bladder, hepatic, biliary tract, pancreatic, skin, and lung cancers as well as other solid tumors, malignant lymphoma, leukemia, other hematologic malignancies, and others.

2.5 Objectives

The primary objective of the present study was to clarify the numbers of anticancer agents which were approved from 1999 to April 2007, developing agents as of April 2007, and the target diseases. The secondary objective was to investigate the method of approval of each drug and to evaluate the association between the number of approved anticancer agents and the number of patients with the diseases.

3 Results

3.1 Approved anticancer agents

Of 487 applications approved from 1999 to April 2007, 84 (17%) were anticancer agents. Of these 84, 46 were approved based on the data obtained from clinical trials for approval, and 38 were approved based on the new drug application for off-label usages without clinical trials in Japan. The annual numbers of approved applications for anticancer agents are shown in Fig. 1. The number of approved applications increased in 2005, when the administrative measures approved 25 applications for anticancer agents, which had been used off-label.

The target diseases regarding the 46 applications of anticancer agents approved based on clinical trials in Japan were nonhematologic tumors in 2, hematologic malignancies in 13, and others in 4. These four agents categorized in others were all related to preparative regimens for hematopoietic stem cell transplantation. Details of the approved applications are shown in Table 1. No agents were approved for ovarian, renal, bladder, and skin cancer. Of the 46 applications, 10 were molecular targeting agents, and 7 of them targeted hematologic malignancies. The Conference on Unapproved Drug Use was involved in four applications (pemetrexed disodium, bortezomib, temozolomide, and oxaliplatin).