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# Glypican-3 expression is correlated with poor prognosis in hepatocellular carcinoma

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The relationship between overexpression of glypican (GPC)-3 that is specific for hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) and the prognosis has not yet been clarified. We attempted to determine the expression profile of GPC3 in association with the clinicopathological factors by immunohistochemical analysis in HCC patients and investigated the potential prognostic value of GPC3 by comparing the survival rate between the GPC3-positive and GPC3-negative HCC patients. Primary HCC tissue samples ($n$ = 107) obtained from patients who had undergone hepatectomy between 2000 and 2001 were analyzed. GPC3 expression was less frequently observed in well-differentiated HCC than in moderately and poorly differentiated HCC, the difference in the frequency being statistically significant. GPC3-positive HCC patients had a significantly lower 5-year survival rate than the GPC3-negative HCC patients (54.5 vs 87.7%, $P$ = 0.031). Among 80 of the 107 (74.6%) patients with initial treatment who underwent hepatectomy, none of GPC3-negative HCC patients ($n$ = 16, 20.0%) died during the follow-up period. No deaths were noted in the GPC3-negative HCC patients among the 71 (88.7%) patients with moderately and poorly differentiated HCC. Multivariate analysis identified GPC3 expression ($P$ = 0.034) as an independent prognostic factor for the overall survival. We showed that GPC3 expression is correlated with a poor prognosis in HCC patients. (*Cancer Sci* 2009; 100: 1403–1407)

H epatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is one of the most common malignancies and is ranked as the third most common cause of cancer-related death worldwide. HCC is generally associated with a poor prognosis, the 5-year survival rate after surgery has been reported to be as low as 25–39%, and systemic therapy with cytotoxic agents provides only marginal benefit.[1] Even in those patients in whom the tumor has been successfully removed, the 2-year recurrence rate can be as high as 50%.[2,3] Several clinicopathological factors including poor levels of differentiation of the cancer cells, large size of the tumor, portal venous invasion, and intrahepatic metastasis have been shown to contribute to the poor prognosis in patients of HCC. Despite the critical need for better methods for the diagnosis and treatment of HCC, the mechanisms underlying the development of HCC remain unclear.

Glypican (GPC)-3 was discovered as a potential serological and histochemical marker that is specific for HCC. GPC3 is a member of the glypican family and belongs to a group of heparan sulfate proteoglycans bound to the outer surface of the cell membrane through a glycosylphosphatidylinositol anchor.[4] In mammals, this family comprises six members, GPC1 to GPC6. GPC are released from the cell surface by a lipase called Notum to regulate the signaling of Wnts, Hedgehogs, fibroblast growth factors, and bone morphogenetic proteins.[5–9] Depending on the context, their functions exerted may either be stimulatory or inhibitory through these pathways. GPC3 has been detected in the placenta and fetal liver, but not in other adult organs. During hepatic carcinogenesis, GPC3 appears in the HCC tissue and is released into the serum.[10–12] In addition, its expression has also been reported in melanoma.[13–15]

A dramatic elevation of GPC3 expression has been reported in a large proportion of HCC, as determined by cDNA microarray analysis, whereas its expression has been shown to be less frequent in preneoplastic or entirely absent in non-neoplastic liver tissue.[16–18] This has led to the notion that GPC3 may have diagnostic usefulness as a marker of differentiation or a specific tumor marker in the case of HCC. However, until now, the relationship between GPC3 overexpression and the prognosis of HCC has not been clarified.

In the present study, we attempted to determine the tumor expression profile of GPC3 in association with clinicopathological factors in HCC patients by immunohistochemical analysis. We also investigated the potential prognostic value of GPC3 by analyzing the survival rate of GPC3-positive and GPC3-negative HCC patients. By elucidating the association between the GPC3 expression level in HCC tumors and the survival rate of the patients, we concluded that the GPC3 expression level is correlated with a poor prognosis in HCC patients.

## Materials and Methods

**Patients and tumor tissue samples.** Primary HCC tissue samples ($n$ = 107) were obtained from patients who underwent hepatectomy at the National Cancer Center Hospital East between 2000 and 2001. The histological types were assigned according to the criteria of the World Health Organization classification. Liver tissue sections prepared from the surgically resected tumors and adjacent parenchyma fixed in 10% formalin and embedded in paraffin were retrieved from the files of the Department of Pathology at our institution.

**Immunohistochemical staining.** Sections 6 μm thick were prepared from the paraffin-embedded blocks. The sections were deparaffinized in xylene and rehydrated through ethanol to water. Endogenous peroxidase activity was blocked using 3% $H_2O_2$ in methanol for 20 min. For antigen retrieval, sections were heated in 10 mM citrate buffer (pH 6.0) with microwave at 95°C for 15 min. The slides were then allowed to cool down, and the prediluted primary monoclonal anti-GPC3 antibody (dilution 1 : 300; Biomosaics, Burlington, VT, USA) was added to cover each slide, and the slides were incubated for 2 h at room temperature. Thereafter, the slides were washed three times in TBS–Tween 20 for 5 min each. Mouse Envision Polymer-horseradish

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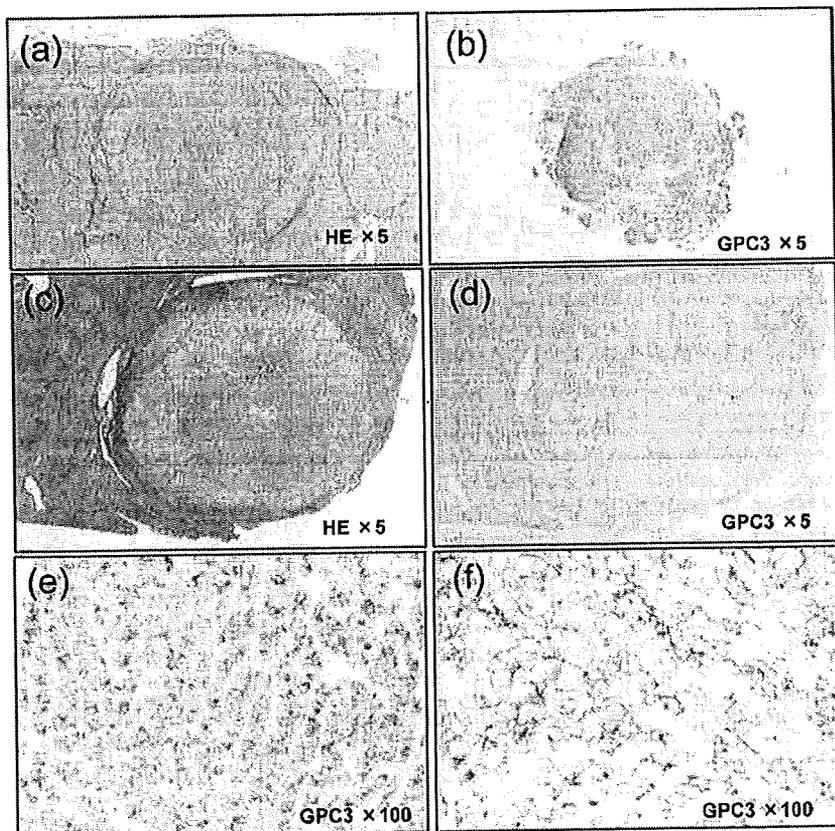
Fig. 1. Glypican (GPC)-3 expression and localization is hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC)-specific. (a,c) Microscopic view of a HE-stained sections of resected HCC. (b,d) HCC sections were stained for GPC3 expression with anti-GPC3 monoclonal antibody. (e) HCC displays prominent bile-canalicular immunostaining. (f) Membranous and cytoplasmic staining of liver tumor cells are shown.

peroxidase (DakoCytomation, Carpenteria, CA, USA), was used as the secondary antibody for 30 min at room temperature followed by three washes in TBS–Tween 20 for 5 min each. Finally, the visualization signal was developed by the addition of 3,3-diaminobenzidine tetrahydrochloride (DakoCytomation) to each slide, followed by incubation for 2 min. Slides were then washed in distilled water, counterstained with hematoxylin, and dehydrated.

For the immunohistochemical analysis of GPC3, we evaluated only the area of GPC3-positive staining in one slide in each patient, including the HCC lesion and adjacent non-cancerous lesion. At first, to analyze GPC3 expression, the results of immunohistochemical staining were classified according to the area of GPC3-positive staining cells as follows: –, negative (<10%); +/–, weakly positive (10–30%); and +, positive (>30%). Finally, in this study, we classified two groups between GPC3-negative (<10%) and GPC3-positive (>10%). The expression of GPC3 was judged to be positive when the percentage of immunoreactive cells was semiquantitatively assessed as being ≥10% in focal lesions. The slides were examined independently by two observers (H. Shirakawa and T. Nakatsura) and then collectively by a pathologist (M. Kojima).

Analysis of the correlation of GPC3 expression with various clinicopathological factors. The correlation of GPC3 expression with various clinicopathological factors was analyzed. Overall survival was calculated from the date of surgery to the date of death.

Statistical analysis. The differences in the level of GPC3 expression were tested by the $\chi^2$-test and the means of each subgroup were compared using Student's $t$-test. Survival analyses were carried out according to the Kaplan–Meier method and the differences were assessed using the log-rank test. Follow-up time was censored if the patient was lost to follow up. Cox proportional-hazards analysis was used for univariate and multivariate analyses to explore the effects of the variables on survival. $P$-values of less than 0.05 were considered to be significant.

## Results

Glypican-3 expression in HCC. In order to characterize the expression of GPC3 in HCC, 107 surgical specimens were analyzed immunohistochemically. The mean and median follow-up period were 3.4 ± 2.0 years and 3.5 years respectively. GPC3 expression was detected in 87 of the surgically resected tumor specimens (81.3%) (Fig. 1a,b), but not in the remaining 20 specimens (18.7%) (Fig. 1c,d). In most of the GPC3-positive cases, the protein expression was localized mainly in the cellular cytoplasm (Fig. 1e) with some amount detected on the cell membrane (Fig. 1f). The results of the immunohistochemical analysis were evaluated in relation to the pathological findings and follow-up data. There was no correlation between GPC3 expression and any of the clinicopathological features, except that the GPC3 expression increased with increasing degree of dedifferentiation of the cancer cells (Table 1). GPC3 expression was less frequently observed in well-differentiated HCC than in moderately or poorly differentiated HCC; the difference in frequency was statistically significant. Thus, an increase in GPC3 expression was correlated with increasing aggressiveness of the cancer cells, which was accompanied by dedifferentiation of the cells.

Correlation between GPC3 expression and patient survival. In order to determine the prognostic value of GPC3, the overall survival was compared between GPC3-positive and GPC3-negative HCC patients. The GPC3-positive HCC patients had a significantly lower 5-year survival rate than the GPC3-negative HCC patients (54.5 vs 87.7%, $P = 0.031$; Fig. 2a). After surgery,

Table 1. Correlation between glypican (GPC)-3 expression and clinicopathological features of patients with hepatocellular carcinoma

| Variable | GPC3 expression | | P-value |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Positive (n = 87) | Negative (n = 20) | |
| Age (years) (mean ± SD) | 63.6 ± 9.7 | 60.2 ± 11.8 | 0.169 |
| Sex (male/female) | 67/20 | 18/2 | 0.321 |
| HBsAg status (positive/negative) | 26/61 | 3/17 | 0.283 |
| HCV status (positive/negative) | 50/37 | 12/8 | 0.999 |
| ICG R15 (%) (mean ± SD) | 15.9 ± 8.1 | 15.5 ± 7.6 | 0.823 |
| AFP (ng/mL) (mean) | 6710 | 463 | 0.198 |
| PIVKA-II (mAU/mL) (mean) | 7370 | 5900 | 0.823 |
| Tumor occurring (primary/recurrence) | 64/23 | 16/4 | 0.753 |
| Number of tumor (solitary/multiple) | 64/23 | 11/9 | 0.172 |
| Resection procedure (trisegmentectomy, lobectomy, or segmentectomy/subsegmentectomy or partial resection) | 22/65 | 7/13 | 0.378 |
| Operation time (min.) (mean ± SD) | 310 ± 165 | 263 ± 119 | 0.248 |
| Intraperative blood loss (mL) (mean) | 2910 | 1500 | 0.356 |
| Perioperative transfusion (present/absent) | 45/42 | 9/11 | 0.767 |
| Tumor size (mm) (mean ± SD) | 54.7 ± 41.9 | 53.0 ± 31.2 | 0.861 |
| Histological tumor differentiation (well/moderately and poorly) | 6/81 | 6/14 | 0.032 |
| pStage (UICC) (I/II/III) | 35/41/11 | 6/10/4 | 0.577 |
| Portal vein involvement (present/absent) | 39/48 | 8/12 | 0.885 |
| Hepatic vein involvement (present/absent) | 9/78 | 1/19 | 0.750 |
| Bile duct involvement (present/absent) | 11/76 | 1/19 | 0.557 |
| Intrahepatic metastasis (present/absent) | 18/69 | 6/14 | 0.545 |
| Non cancerous tissue (cirrhosis/non-cirrhosis) | 36/51 | 4/16 | 0.075 |
| Postoperative recurrence (present/absent) | 70/17 | 16/4 | 0.963 |

AFP, alpha-fetoprotein; HBsAg, hepatitis B s antigen; HCV, hepatitis C virus; ICG-R15, indocyanine green-retention at 15 min; PIVKA-II, protein induced by vitamin K absence II; UICC, International Union against Cancer.

HCC recurrence was observed in 86 (80.4%) of the 107 patients. In the majority (97.7%) of patients with recurrence, the recurrence was observed in the residual liver. Among these 86 patients, 43 (50%) and seven (8.1%) developed multinodular and extrahepatic recurrence respectively. Although no correlations were observed between these recurrence patterns and GPC3 expression, GPC3 can only be used as an indicator of poor overall survival in HCC patients.

Among 80 of the 107 (74.6%) patients with initial treatment who underwent hepatectomy, none of the GPC3-negative HCC patients (n = 16, 20.0%) died during the follow-up period (Fig. 2b). The mean and median follow-up periods were 3.7 ± 2.1 and 3.7 years respectively. The 1-, 3-, and 5-year survival rates of the GPC3-positive HCC group were 84.4, 62.5, and 32.8% respectively. With regard to the tumor grade of HCC, 9 (11.3%) of the 80 patients with well-differentiated tumors showed significantly better prognosis without any record of deaths, compared with 71 (88.7%) patients with moderately and poorly differentiated HCC (Fig. 2c).

Further, among the 71 initial treatment patients who underwent hepatectomy and were found on histopathological examination to have moderately and poorly differentiated HCC, there were no deaths during the follow-up period in the GPC3-negative HCC group (Fig. 2d). The mean and median follow-up periods were 3.6 ± 2.0 and 3.6 years respectively.

**Univariate and multivariate analyses to identify the prognostic variables in HCC patients.** To identify the variables of potential prognostic significance in all the patients with HCC, univariate analysis of each variable was carried out in relation to the survival time. The difference in the prognosis was assessed by examining the relative hazard and P-value for each variable. The relative importance of each variable was then determined by multivariate Cox proportional hazards model analysis. Univariate analysis with stepwise inclusion of variables in the model revealed that the significant prognostic factors were GPC3

expression status, hepatitis B virus (HBV) or hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection, indocyanine green-retention at 15 min (ICG-R15), serum protein induced by vitamin K absence II (PIVKA-II), tumor occurence, number of tumors, resection volume, pathological bile duct involvement, and pathological intrahepatic metastasis (Table 2). However, the multivariate analysis identified only GPC3 expression (P = 0.034), intrahepatic metastasis (P = 0.027), and multiple tumors (P = 0.006) as the independent prognostic factors related to overall survival (Table 2).

## Discussion

In this study, we characterized the association between the expression level of GPC3 and the malignancy grade, and the prognostic value of GPC3 in HCC. Higher levels of GPC3 expression were observed in moderately or poorly differentiated tumor cells, which was in agreement with previous reports.[19] Our contingency table analysis showed that the GPC3 expression level was correlated with the tumor differentiation level. In addition, Kaplan–Meier survival analysis revealed that GPC3 expression was significantly linked to a poor prognosis after surgical resection in HCC patients. Moreover, univariate analysis indicated that GPC3 expression is associated with an increased risk of death from HCC, and this risk factor could still be extracted in a multivariate setting. On the other hand, multivariate analysis did not identify the tumor differentiation level as an independent predictive factor of the prognosis. Among the 80 HCC patients who underwent initial surgical treatment, the GPC3-negative patients showed better prognosis than the GPC3-positive patients. Patients with well-differentiated HCC also showed a better prognosis than those with moderately and poorly differentiated HCC. Furthermore, we confirmed that among the previously treated subjects, the GPC3-negative group had a better prognosis than the GPC3-positive group with moderately and poorly differentiated HCC tumors.
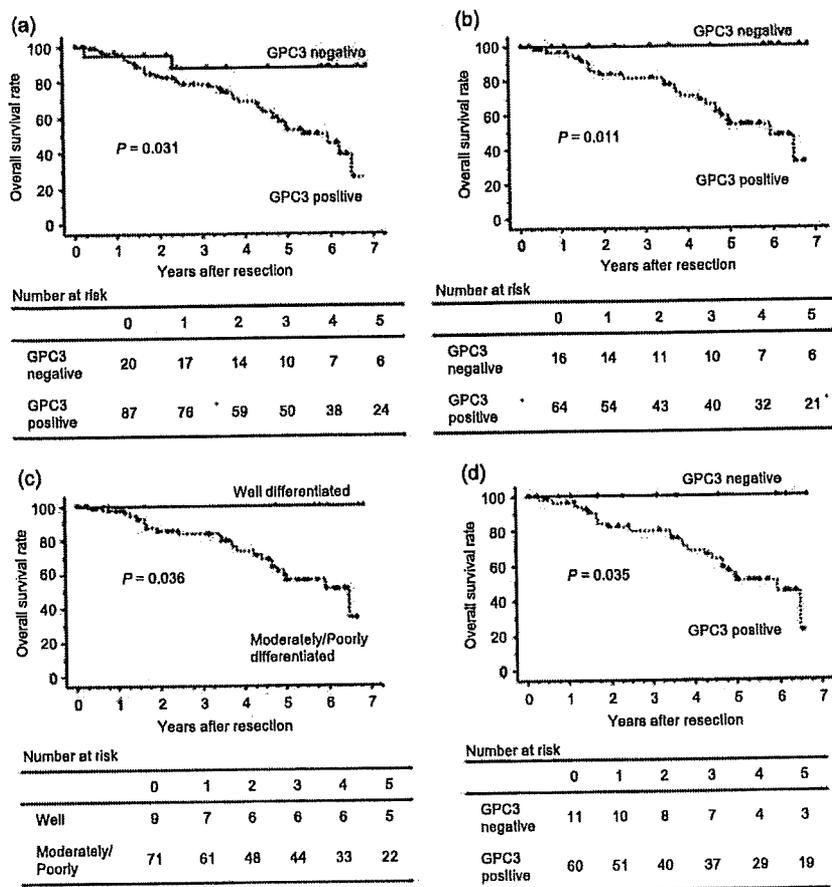
**Fig. 2.** Overall survival curves for the 107 hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) patients stratified into those with glypican (GPC)-3-positive and GPC3-negative HCC. (a) Overall survival of patients with GPC3-positive HCC was shorter than those with GPC3-negative HCC (*P* = 0.031). (b) Overall survival curves in 80 of 107 HCC patients with initial treatment who underwent hepatectomy with positive and negative GPC3 expression. Patients with GPC3-positive HCC had a lower 5-year survival than those with GPC3-negative HCC (*P* = 0.011). (c) Overall survival curves in the 71 HCC patients with initial hepatectomy who exhibited well- and moderately and poorly differentiated HCC on histopathological examination. The 5-year survival rate was lower in the moderately and poorly differentiated GPC3-positive HCC than in the corresponding GPC3-negative HCC (*P* = 0.036). (d) Overall survival curves in the 71 initial treatment patients who underwent hepatectomy and exhibited moderately and poorly differentiated HCC on pathological examination with positive and negative GPC3 expression. The 5-year survival rate was lower in the GPC3-positive HCC patients than in the GPC3-negative HCC patients (*P* = 0.035).

Table 2. Prognostic factors for overall survival by univariate and multivariate analyses

| Variable | No. patients | Univariate analysis | | Multivariate analysis | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 5-year survival rate (%) | *P*-value | RR | 95% CI | *P*-value |
| Age (years) (≥65/<65) | 51/56 | 65.8/53.4 | 0.531 | | | |
| Sex (male vs female) | 85/22 | 56.1/72.7 | 0.403 | | | |
| HBsAg (positive vs negative) | 29/78 | 51.0/62.3 | 0.011 | 1.14 | 0.31–4.16 | 0.844 |
| HCV (positive vs negative) | 62/45 | 66.7/46.4 | 0.004 | 2.41 | 0.75–7.69 | 0.138 |
| ICG R15 (%) (≥15 vs <15) | 50/57 | 70.3/46.8 | 0.047 | 0.69 | 0.31–1.54 | 0.362 |
| AFP (ng/mL) (≥50 vs <50) | 45/62 | 49.1/65.1 | 0.132 | | | |
| PIVKA-II (mAU/mL) (≥700 vs <700) | 30/77 | 35.0/65.6 | 0.016 | 1.91 | 0.730–5.02 | 0.188 |
| Tumor occurring (first vs recurrence) | 80/27 | 62.8/50.2 | 0.019 | 1.83 | 0.78–4.31 | 0.167 |
| No. tumors (solitary vs multiple) | 75/32 | 65.7/42.7 | 0.009 | 3.53 | 1.41–8.00 | 0.006 |
| Resection (trisegmentectomy, lobectomy, or segmentectomy/subsegmentectomy or partial resection) | 29/78 | 36.5/67.1 | 0.005 | 1.71 | 0.52–5.60 | 0.374 |
| Operation time (min) (>300 vs ≤300) | 49/58 | 43.9/72.3 | 0.053 | | | |
| Intraoperative blood loss (mL) (≥1300 vs <1300) | 42/65 | 42.3/68.8 | 0.097 | | | |
| Perioperative transfusion (present vs absent) | 54/53 | 49.6/66.5 | 0.599 | | | |
| Tumor size (mm) (>50 vs ≤50) | 38/69 | 51.5/62.5 | 0.154 | | | |
| Histological differentiation (well vs moderately and poorly) | 12/95 | 77.8/56.4 | 0.102 | | | |
| pStage (I vs II/III) | 41/66 | 64.2/56.5 | 0.071 | | | |
| Portal vein involvement (present vs absent) | 47/60 | 64.9/58.5 | 0.369 | | | |
| Hepatic vein involvement (present vs absent) | 10/97 | 44.4/60.5 | 0.060 | | | |
| Bile duct involvement (present vs absent) | 12/95 | 20.0/62.7 | 0.004 | 0.94 | 0.31–2.85 | 0.912 |
| Intrahepatic metastasis (present vs absent) | 24/83 | 29.0/66.6 | 0.001 | 3.57 | 1.13–10.50 | 0.027 |
| Non-cancerous lesion (cirrhosis vs non-cirrhosis) | 40/67 | 53.6/61.9 | 0.232 | | | |
| GPC3 staining (positive vs negative) | 87/20 | 54.5/87.7 | 0.025 | 5.26 | 1.13–24.39 | 0.034 |

AFP, alpha-fetoprotein; CI, confidence interval; HBsAg, hepatitis B s antigen; HCV, hepatitis C virus; ICG-R15, indocyanine green-retention at 15 min; PIVKA-II, protein induced by vitamin K absence II; RR, relative risk; UICC, International Union against Cancer.

In this study, the patients who were HCV positive, had higher ICG-R15 values, or portal vein involvement showed longer survival times, especially the patients who were HCV-positive or had higher ICG-R15 values, showed statistical significance in the univariate analysis. However, there was no statistical significance in these variables in the multivariate analysis. The reasons for these contradictive results in the univariate analysis are unclear.

In contrast, subgroup analysis did not reveal any significant difference in the disease-free survival rate between the GPC3-positive and GPC3-negative HCC patients (data not shown). The rate of recurrence in patients after surgery was 63.8% within the first 2 years after surgery among the previously treated patients in this study. Tumor recurrence in the GPC3-positive HCC patients occurred earlier than that in the GPC3-negative HCC patients until 9.7 months after the surgery among the patients who had received previous treatment. Two mechanisms of postoperative recurrence of HCC have been suggested: one is intrahepatic metastasis in the residual liver in a metachronous manner, and the other is multicentric hepatocarcinogenesis based on chronic hepatitis.[20-23] Some authors have suggested that early recurrence arises most often from intrahepatic metastases, whereas late recurrence is more likely to be multicentric in origin. Poon *et al.* and Portolani *et al.* reported that tumor factors like neoplastic vascular infiltration, but not host factors, were linked to early recurrence, whereas the risk of late recurrence was dependent on the underlying liver status.[21,22] These results indicate that GPC3 expression may indicate a high risk of intrahepatic recurrence.

Most of the GPC3 expression patterns in HCC cells showed the cytoplasmic pattern. There was no case that showed only the membrane pattern. Almost half of the HCC cases showed the mixed pattern (cytoplasm and membrane) and the other half showed only the cytoplasmic pattern.

There was no statistical significance between the mixed pattern (cytoplasm and membrane) and cytoplasmic pattern ($P = 0.297$) in Kaplan–Meier survival analysis. The functional difference between cytoplasmic GPC3 and membrane GPC3 is unknown, so further investigations are needed to clarify whether the different localization of staining has a different significance.

In addition to the investigation of its role as a prognostic indicator, a phase I clinical trial of a GPC3-derived peptide vaccine for advanced HCC is now underway; GPC3 is an ideal target for this therapy because it is more effective in patients with increased expression of GPC3, which is frequently observed in the later stages of HCC, as shown in the present study. The poor prognosis of patients with GPC3-positive HCC also prompted us to develop a strategy of anticancer immunotherapy,[24,25] that is, we may expect the effect of hepatocarcinogenesis prevention after surgery in patients with GPC3-positive HCC.

In summary, our study evaluated the prognostic significance of GPC3 expression at the protein level in clinical tissue specimens of HCC. The overall survival rate was significantly poorer in patients with elevated GPC3 expression in the tumor than in those with lower levels of GPC3 expression. Further functional characterization of GPC3 may be expected to lead to a better understanding of the molecular mechanisms underlying the development and progression of HCC.

## Acknowledgments

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# Glypican-3 is a useful diagnostic marker for a component of hepatocellular carcinoma in human liver cancer

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**Abstract.** Primary liver cancers are classified into three types based on their morphology and cytogenetic characteristics hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (ICC) and combined hepatocellular and cholangiocarcinoma (CHC). It is often difficult to distinguish these liver tumors. Glypican-3 (GPC3) is serological and histochemical marker of hepatocellular carcinoma. In order to separate these three types of liver cancers, we analyzed the GPC3 expression in 85 liver resection specimens, including 46 HCCs, 28 ICCs and 11 CHCs. GPC3 immunohistochemical staining was used to distinguish HCC from ICC by comparing with the conventional biomarker, α-fetoprotein (AFP). The immunostaining of GPC3 was identified in 78.3% (36/46) of HCCs, 60% (9/15) of well differentiated, 88.9% (16/18) of moderately differentiated and 84.6% (11/13) of poorly differentiated HCCs. It was negative in the ICCs. We confirmed that GPC3 expression is specific to HCC component (8/11, 72.7%) but few samples also showed weakly in ICC component (2/11, 18.2%) of CHC sections among 11 cases compared with HCC biomarkers including AFP and hepatocyto paraffin 1 (HepPar1), and ICC biomarkers cytokeratin (CK) 7 and CK19. Three cases in which the macroscopic features resembled ICC did not express GPC3 even in the pathological HCC component. Most (10/11, 91%) of the pathological cholangiocarcinoma components in CHC showed positive staining for CK7 and CK19. The results of this study suggest that GPC3 is a biomarker that is sensitive and specific to HCC component of CHC, and CK7 and CK19 are markers for pathological cholangiocarcinoma component of CHC.

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## Introduction

Liver cancer is one of the common malignancies that are rapidly increasing throughout the world. Primary liver cancers are classified into three types based on their morphology and cytogenetic characteristics, hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (ICC) and combined hepatocellular and cholangiocarcinoma (CHC). HCC is hepatocyto-origin, and ICC is from the epithelium of the intrahepatic bile duct. CHC is a rare type of liver cancer with features of both hepatocellular and biliary differentiation (1-3). The pathological structure of CHC is composed of hepatocellular element showing bile production, an intercellular bile canaliculi or trabecular growth pattern and cholangiocellular component showing mucin production or gland formation.

Because of their rapid growth rate and the lack of accurate ways of diagnosis in the early stages, the prognosis and the survival rate for liver cancer patients remain poor. Currently, ultrasound sonography (US), computed tomography (CT), magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), and histopathological examination for tumor biopsy are used for diagnosis. However, distinguishing the three different primary liver tumors is often a challenging task in diagnosis, for which immunohistochemical analysis for specific antigens is a helpful tool: α-fetoprotein (AFP) and hepatocyto paraffin 1 (HepPar1) for HCC (4-8) and cytokeratin (CK) 7 and CK19 for ICC (9-11).

Glypican-3 (GPC3) was discovered as a potential serological and histochemical marker whose expression is specific for HCC (12-16). GPC3 belongs to glypican family that is a group of heparan sulfate proteoglycans linked to the outer surface of cell membrane through a glycosylphosphatidylinositol anchor (17). In mammals, six members of GPCs have been reported, GPC1 to GPC6. GPCs are released from the cell surface by a lipase called Notum to regulate the signaling of Wnts, Hedgehogs, fibroblast growth factors (FGFs) and bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs) (18-25). Depending on the cellular context, their function can be stimulatory or inhibitory activity, or signaling. The expression of GPC3 is detected in placenta and fetal liver, but not in other normal organs. During hepatic carcinogenesis, GPC3 have been reported to reappear in HCC and to be released into serum (12,13,15,26). Its expression is also detected in melanoma (27-29). The functions of GPC3 in cancer cells are still unclear.

In this study, we examined whether immunohistochemical analysis for GPC3 can be used to distinguish HCC from ICC, if so, how effectively GPC3 can be detected, compared to other biomarkers that are conventionally used. We demonstrate that distinguishing HCC from ICC by detecting the expression of GPC3 enables more accurate diagnosis.

## Materials and methods

*Case selection.* We selected 85 cases of liver tumors from the surgical pathology files from 1992 to 2006 of National Cancer Center Hospital East, Kashiwa, Chiba, Japan. The cases included 46 primary HCCs, 28 ICCs, and 11 CHCs that underwent hepatectomy. All identifiers were eliminated to protect patients' identities. Size of the tumor and any clinicopathologic factors (age, sex and grade of tumor) were matched between HCC and ICC. The 46 cases of HCCs occurred in 33 men and 13 women with a mean of age at 65.3 years (range, 44-80 years). HCC was subclassified into well (n=15), moderately (n=18), and poorly (n=13) differentiated types according to the World Health Organization classification criteria. The 28 cases of ICC consisted of 18 men and 10 women. Their mean age was 65.7 years (range, 51-82 years). All 28 resected cases of ICC were confirmed by hematoxylin-eosin (H.E.) staining.

The 11 cases of CHC included 7 men and 4 women with a mean age of 62.5 years (range, 47-76 years). All CHCs were pathologically confirmed after surgery.

*Tissue samples.* Liver tissue sections were retrieved from the files of the Department of Pathology in our institution. All liver specimens were prepared from surgically resected tumors and adjacent parenchyma. They were fixed in 10% formalin and paraffinized for routine histological examination.

*Immunohistochemical staining procedure.* Six-micrometer-thick sections were made from the paraffin-embedded blocks. Subsequently the sections were deparaffinized in xylene and rehydrated through ethanol to water. Endogenous peroxidase activity was blocked using 3% $H_2O_2$ in methanol

for 20 min. For antigen retrieval, Sections were heated in 10 mM citrate buffer (pH 6.0) with microwave for 15 min in a water bath at 95°C. Only for CK7 immunostaining, sections were digested by Proteinase K (DakoCytomation, Carpenteria, CA) for 5 min at room temprature. Slides were then allowed to cool down. The prediluted primary antibodies, monoclonal anti-GPC3 (dilution 1:300, 1G12; Biomosaics, Inc., Burlington, VT), anti-AFP (dilution 1:400, DakoCytomation), anti-HepPar1 (dilution 1:100, DakoCytomation), anti-CK7 (dilution 1:100, DakoCytomation), and CK19 (dilution 1:200, DakoCytomation) were added to cover each slide, and the slides were incubated for 2 h at room temperature. Slides were washed 3 times in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS)/Tween for 5 min each. Mouse Envision Polymer (DakoCytomation) was used as a secondary antibody for 30 min at room temperature followed by washes in PBS/Tween 3 times for 5 min each. Diaminobenzidine chromagen (DakoCytomation) was added to each slide and incubated for 2 min. Slides were washed in distilled water, counterstained with hematoxylin and dehydrated in xylene. To analyze GPC3 expression, the immunohistochemical results were classified according to the number of positive cells as follows: -, negative (<10%); ±, weakly positive (10-30%); +, positive (>30%). To validate the data in GPC3 as a marker for HCC, parallel staining for AFP of 46 cases were further analyzed. For 11 CHC cases, AFP, HepPar1, CK7 and CK19 were stained and compared with GPC3 staining pattern.

The slides were examined independently by 3 observers (Shirakawa H, Kuronuma T and Nakatsura T) and then collectively by 2 more pathologists (Hasebe T and Nakano M).

*Statistical analysis.* Differences in proportion were tested by the $\chi^2$ test. Differences in the means of each subgroup were tested using the Student's t-test. P-value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

## Results

*GPC3 was present in 80% of HCC and negative in ICC.* In order to examine the levels and pattern of GPC3 expression, 46 cases of HCC and 28 cases of ICC were immunohistochemically analyzed. GPC3 was detected in 36 cases (78%) of HCC (Fig. 1a), and no expression of GPC3 was found in any of the ICC patients (Fig. 1b). The GPC3 staining was diffused throughout (Fig. 1c) or localized in a granular pattern in the cytoplasm (Fig. 1d). In other cases, GPC3 was observed at the plasma membrane (Fig. 1e). Previously GPC3 is shown to bind to the cell membrane (16), however, those cases with membranous GPC3 had staining in the cytoplasm as well, but there was no case of GPC3 located only at the plasma membrane. When sensitivity of GPC3 was evaluated, 36 cases (78%) were positive for GPC3 when only 16 cases (35%; P<0.0001) were stained for AFP in HCC suggesting that GPC3 is more sensitive than AFP. Thus, GPC3 was confirmed to be specific and sensitive to HCC compared to AFP.

*GPC3 expression increased in moderately and poorly differentiated HCC.* In terms of GPC3 expression and tumor
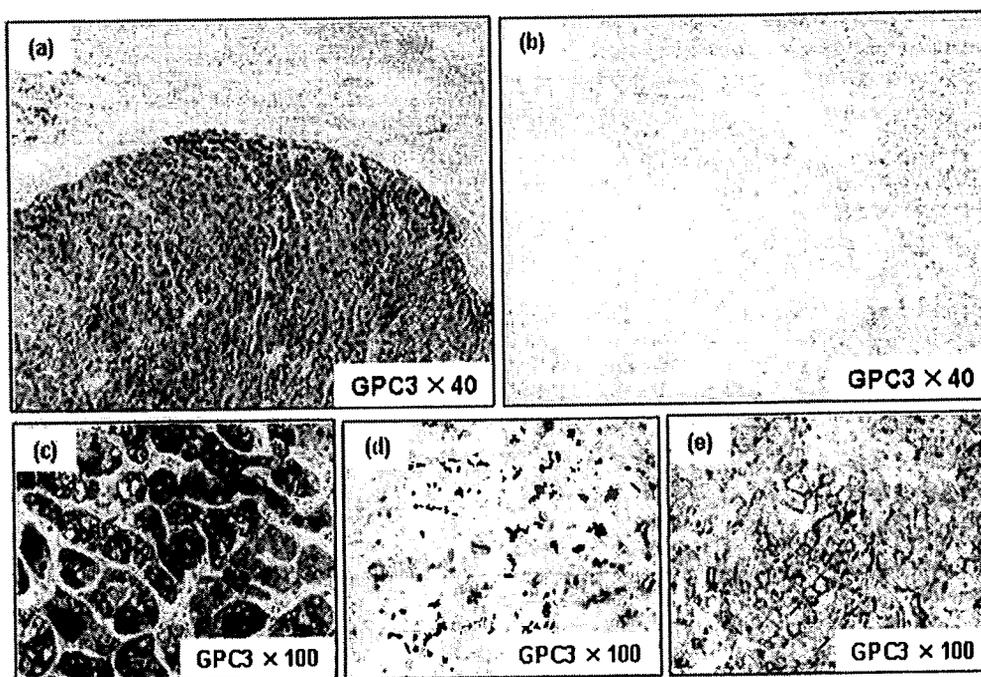
Figure 1. GPC3 expression was specific to HCC and absent in ICC. Immunohistochemical detection of GPC3 expression in HCC (a) and ICC (b) (magnification, x40). Immunostaining patterns of HCC: (c) diffuse in cytoplasm, gulanular in cytoplasm (d), and membranous (e).

Table I. Correlation of positive for GPC3 staining and tumor grade.

| Grade of tumor | HCC | | | | | ICC | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | No. of case | GPC3 | | | | No. of case | GPC3 positivity | P-value |
| | | - | ± | + | positivity | | | |
| Well-differentiated | 15 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 9 (60%) | 8 | 0 (0%) | |
| Moderately differentiated | 18 | 2 | 4 | 12 | 16 (89%) | 10 | 0 (0%) | |
| Poorly differentiated | 13 | 2 | 5 | 6 | 11 (85%) | 10 | 0 (0%) | |
| Total | 46 | | | | 36 (78%) | 28 | 0 (0%) | <0.0001 |

-, negative (<10%); ±, weakly positive (10-30%); +, positive (>30%).

differentiation level, GPC3 was expressed in 9 (60%) of 15 well differentiated, 16 (89%) of 18 moderately differentiated and in 11 (85%) of 13 poorly differentiated HCC (Table I). AFP was expressed in 3 (20%) of 15 well differentiated, 6 (33%) of 18 moderately differentiated and in 7 (54%) of 13 poorly differentiated HCC (data not shown). The expression level of GPC3 was lower in well differentiated HCC than in the other HCC grades, though the difference was not statistically significant (well- vs. moderately differentiated: P=0.054, well- vs. poorly differentiated: P=0.150). Thus, GPC3 expression is also a good indicator for malignancy levels.

GPC3 expression was observed specifically in pathological HCC component in CHC. There are discrepancies between

preoperative diagnosis and pathological findings for CHC patients. Diagnostic results and the expression of tumor markers of 11 CHC patients are summarized in Table II. Initial diagnosis was carried out by H.E. staining. Among these 11 patients, 7 patients (63.6%) were diagnosed as HCC and 3 (27.3%) were ICC. Only 1 patient (9%) of the 11 CHC was correctly diagnosed as CHC. To seek the possibility to use GPC3 immunostaining to detect HCC component (cp) in CHC, combination of antibodies against GPC3, AFP, HepPar1, CK7 and CK17 were used. In addition to AFP, HepPar1 is frequently used as marker for HCC (4-8) and CK 7 and CK19 for ICC (9-11).

Among 11 CHC cases, 4 cases preoperatively diagnosed as HCC were chosen to represent the collision and transitional type of CHCs based on the macroscopic features

Table II. Correlation of immunostaining varieties and pathological components of CHC.

| Pt. no. | Preoperative diagnosis | Macroscopic diagnosis | Pathological hepatocellular carcinoma component | | | | | Pathological cholangiocarcinoma component | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | GPC3 | AFP | HepPar1 | CK7 | CK19 | GPC3 | AFP | HepPar1 | CK7 | CK19 |
| 1 | HCC | CHC | + | + | - | + | + | - | - | - | - | - |
| 2 | HCC | HCC | + | - | - | - | - | - | - | + | + | + |
| 3 | HCC | HCC | + | - | + | - | - | ± | - | - | + | + |
| 4 | CHC | HCC | + | + | + | - | - | ± | - | - | + | + |
| 5 | HCC | CHC | + | - | + | - | - | - | - | - | + | + |
| 6 | HCC | CHC | + | - | - | - | - | - | - | + | + | + |
| 7 | ICC | CHC | ± | - | - | ± | + | - | - | - | + | + |
| 8 | HCC | HCC | + | + | - | - | - | - | + | - | + | + |
| | Total ± | | 8/8 | 3/8 | 3/8 | 3/8 | 2/8 | 2/8 | 1/8 | 2/8 | 7/8 | 7/8 |
| | positive rate (%) | | 100 | 38 | 38 | 38 | 25 | 25 | 13 | 25 | 88 | 88 |
| 9 | ICC | ICC | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | + | + |
| 10 | HCC | ICC | - | - | - | + | ± | - | - | - | + | + |
| 11 | ICC | ICC | - | - | - | + | + | - | - | - | + | + |
| | Total ± | | 0/3 | 0/3 | 0/3 | 2/3 | 2/3 | 0/3 | 0/3 | 0/3 | 3/3 | 3/3 |
| | positive rate (%) | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 67 | 67 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 100 | 100 |

-, negative (<10%); ±, weakly positive (10-30%); +, positive (>30%); HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; ICC, intrahepatic cholangio-carcinoma; CHC, combined hepatocellular and cholangiocarcinoma; GPC3, glypican-3; AFP, α-fetoprotein; HepPar1, hepatocyto-paraffin 1; CK, cytokeratin; CC, cholangiocarcinoma.

in cut surface. In Fig. 2, macroscopic observation and the immunostained histological sections are shown. These sections include 2 elements with pathological HCC cp forming bile production and trabecular growth pattern by eosinophilic staining and cholangiocarcinoma (CC) cp forming mucin production or gland formation by basophilic staining. Cases 1-8 were GPC3 positive, and cases 9-11 were negative for GPC3 in the HCC cp. Macroscopic, histological and immuno-histochemical features of cases 2, 6, 8 and 10 are shown in Fig. 2a, b, c and d. Case 2 had greenish white and yellow nodules within the same tumor mass in the cut surface. HCC subtypes such as simple nodular and confluent multinodular type exist. Case 2 exhibited the features of HCC with multi-nodular type (Fig. 2a-i). Pathological diagnosis by H.E. staining revealed CHC pathologically (Fig. 2a-ii and -iii), which was so-called 'collision'-type tumor as reported by Goodman *et al* (30). A 'collision'-type tumor is coincidental occurrence of HCC and CC within the same tumor mass (31). GPC3 was positive (Fig. 2a-iv), but AFP and HepPar1 were not detected in HCC cp (Fig. 2a-v and -vi). Although HepPar1 is generally used as HCC marker, it was unexpectedly stained in CC region as well as CK7 and CK19 (Fig. 2a-vii and -viii).

Case 6 showed pale and lobulated phenotype in the cut surface macroscopically (Fig. 2b-i), and pathological diagnosis was also confirmed by H.E. staining (Fig. 2b-ii and -iii). This was so-called 'transitional' type tumor (30). A 'transitional' type tumor has an area of HCC that appears to transform into CC (31). GPC3 was stained in pathological

HCC cp (Fig. 2b-iv) where AFP was negative (Fig. 2b-v). The HCC region was surrounded by pathological CC cp with the staining for CK7 (Fig. 2b-vii). HepPar1 and CK19 were detected in the same region with CC cp (Fig. 2b-vi and -viii). HepPar1 stained the CC cp as in case 2. The immuno-reactivity of CK19 was not consistent with that of CK7.

Case 8 was diagnosed as HCC similarly to cases 2 and 6, but mixed tumor masses with white and gray in the cut surface were observed (Fig. 2c-i and c-ii). Both GPC3 and AFP were positive in HCC cp (Fig. 2c-iv and -v). HepPar1 was stained in CC cp (Fig. 2c-vi). CK7 and CK19 were positive in CC cp (Fig. 2c-vii and -viii), especially CK19 was more specific for CC cp than CK7. These three cases (cases 2, 6 and 8) indicated that detecting GPC3 can compensate for AFP and enhance the ability to identify the presence of HCC cp in CHC.

Cases 9, 10 and 11 were negative for GPC3 expression in several tumors. Macroscopically, they had the features of ICC with irregular shaped, white solid tumor masses. As an example, case 10 is shown in Fig. 2d. Althogh case 10 was diagnosed as HCC preoperativerly, it showed macroscopic freatures of ICC with the presence of abundant fibrous stroma and indistinct tumor margin (Fig. 2d-i). This case was later diagnosed as CHC based on the pathological examination (Fig. 2d-ii and d-iii). GPC3, AFP and HepPar1 were not detected in either HCC cp or CC cp (Fig. 2d-iv, -v, and -vi). CK7 was stained diffusely in the tumor (Fig. 2d-vii), and CK19 expression was more specific in CC cp than CK7 (Fig. 2d-viii). These 3 cases showed positive staining
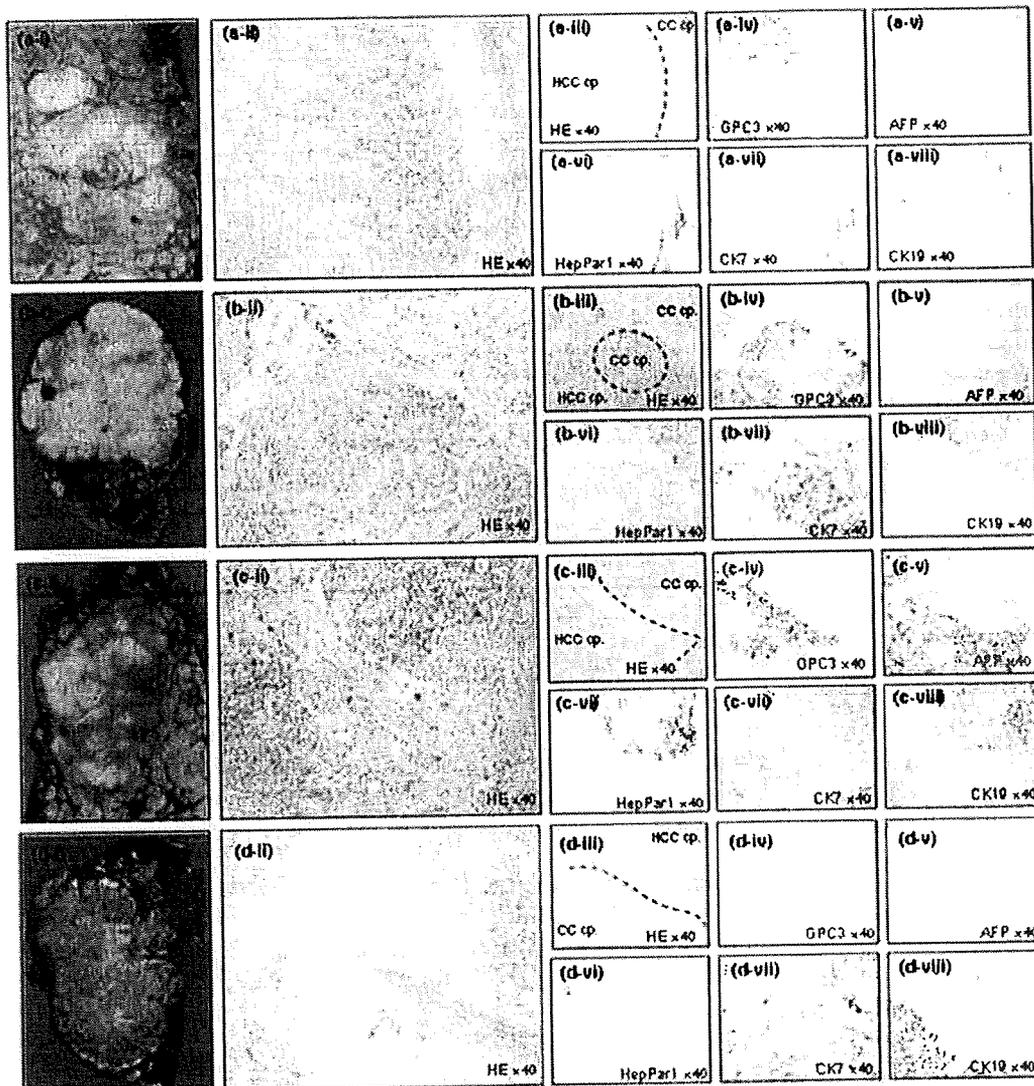
HCC cp, HCC component, CC cp, cholangiocarcinoma component,

Figure 2. Macroscopic, histological and immunohistochemical features of four cases of CHC. a, case 2; b, case 6; c, case 8; d, case 10 in Table II. (a-i) Macroscopic feature in cut surface of case 2 tumor. (a-ii) The histological structure can be also devided into 2 types. HCC component showed expansive growth oppressing the cholangiocarcinoma component. (a-iii) Collision border between hepatocellular carcinoma and cholangiocarcinoma component are indicated as dots. The tumor cells within mainly hepatocellular carcinoma component showed only expression of GPC3 (a-iv) without expression of AFP (a-v). In the opposite side, the glandular area with cholangiocarcinoma component shows HepPar1 (a-vi), CK7 (a-vii) and CK19 expression (a-viii). (b-i) Case 6 shows macroscopic CHC feature in tumor cut surface that was suspected out HCC preoperatively. (b-ii) The histological cholangiocarcinoma component forming trabeculae with columnar appearance was surrounded by HCC component forming hepatoid structure. (b-iii) A dotted line is a boundary of HCC in the H.E. staining. The tumor cells within transitional region were positive for GPC3 (b-iv), CK 7 (b-vii) and CK 19 (b-viii). The difference was recognized between hepatocellular carcinoma component and cholangiocarcinoma component because GPC3 positive area encircled the CK7 area. The expressions of AFP (b-v) and HepPar1 (b-vi) were not observed. (c-i) Though case 8 was also suspected to be HCC preoperatively, the macroscopic features showed atypical HCC with mixed white and gray and indistinct tumor border. (c-ii) The cholangiocarcinoma component was obviously composed of structural gland formation. (c-iii) Collision area was distinguished histopathologically by a dotted line. The tumor cells of HCC component showed not only GPC3 (c-iv) but also AFP expression (c-v). In the glandular area of cholangiocarcinoma component, HepPar1 was expressed (c-vi), but CK7 not at all (c-vii) and CK19 shows weak positive expression (c-viii). (d-i) Case 10 shows macroscopic ICC features in tumor cut surface that was suspected as HCC preoperatively. (d-ii) The histological structure can be devided into 2 types with cholangiocarcinoma component forming trabeculae with columnar appearance and HCC component forming hepatocellular structures. (d-iii) A dotted line is a boundary of HCC in the H.E. GPC3 (d-iv), AFP (d-v) and HepPar1 (d-vii) were not stained, but CK7 (d-vii) and CK19 (d-viii) stained the cholagiocarcinoma component.

for CK7 and CK19 in CC cp, but not AFP or HepPar1 in HCC cp. Therefore, accuracy of CHC diagnosis can be achieved by combination of multiple tumor markers in addition to morphological characteristics: GPC3 that is specific for pathological HCC cp of CHC, and CK7 and CK19 that are specific for pathological CC cp of CHC.

## Discussion

The diagnosis for HCC, ICC and CHC has been routinely performed by histopathological examination. Additionally, diagnosis of HCC is done by supplementary immunohisto-chemical analysis for AFP and HepPar1. Until now, though

the sensitivity is limited, AFP has been regarded as the most useful marker for HCC (4,32-34). HepPar1 is also widely used for HCC to distinguish between primary HCC and ICC. However, both markers are limited for the ability to discriminate different levels of malignancy in HCC because its sensitivity drops substantially in poorly differentiated HCC, and it does not discriminate between benign and malignant liver cancers (35). As these biomarkers frequently results in misdiagnosis, in this study, we showed that GPC3 is more sensitive to detect HCC compared to AFP. Due to the fact that GPC3 was downregulated in ICC (36), GPC3 may help to separate HCC from ICC.

CHC is the least common primary cancer of the liver but followed by an aggressive growth, it tends to metastasize to many organs leading to significantly poorer prognosis than HCC and ICC (31,37,38). Correct diagnosis leads to both appropriate treatment and better outcome for the patients. Nishie, *et al* reported that one third (nine of 27 cases) of patients with CHC were correctly diagnosed by enhanced computed tomography (39). In our study, only one of the 11 (9.1%) patients with CHC was correctly diagnosed before operation without fine needle aspiration biopsy. The difficulty to pathologically distinguish CHC from HCC and ICC comes from glandular or pseudoglandular structures in HCC and solid or trabecular patterns in CC (37,38). We believe that combination with histopathological examination with GPC3 immunostaining and radiological examination can bring an accurate diagnosis and improved clinical therapies for the patients leading to a better prognosis.

We showed that the immunostaining for GPC3 is specific for HCC patients and not detected in ICC patients. This confirmed that detecting GPC3 may improve the method to diagnose CHC. Of the 11 cases of CHC, 8 displayed GPC3 expression in restricted area of HCC cp. We demonstarated that immunohistochemical staining of GPC3 in liver tumor helps to recognize the pathological HCC cp more precisely. GPC3 expression was observed with high frequency in the HCC cp compared with AFP and HepPar1. HepPar1 was unexpectedly stained in CC cp, but this has been observed previously as well (7,40). This could be due to a transition from HCC to ICC where HepPar1 is one of the molecules that is downregulated at later stages in the process. CK7 and CK19 have been already reported as good markers of biliary epithelial differentiation (41). These were highly expressed in pathological CC cp (10/11, 91%) in CHC. The positive immunoreactivity of CK19 was more distinct than that of CK7 whose staining was weaker. Our immunohisto-chemical data disclosed that GPC3 can be a better marker specific for HCC leading to a better confirmation for HCC component of CHC as well as for HCC. Moreover, it provided evidence of the biologic behavior of such combined tumors, which are phenotypically and genetically leaning toward either ICC with predominant biliary differentiation or HCC with hepatocellular differentiation (42,43).

Employing multiple tumor markers may also allow the accurate diagnosis of CHC containing both hepatocellular and biliary differentiation. Concerning sensitivity and specificity, the combination of GPC3 for HCC cp and CK19 for ICC cp seems to be useful in the diagnosis of liver cancer.

For CHC, GPC3 positive/CK19 negative profile suggests HCC, GPC3 positive/CK19 positive indicates CHC, and GPC3 negative/CK19 positive essentially rules out HCC and suggests the possibility of CC or CHC.

We developed a new anti-cancer immunotherapy with GPC3 as a target (44-47), and the phase I clinical trial of GPC3-derived peptide vaccination for advanced HCC is now on going. Because this new immunotherapy is not indicated for ICC, immunohistochemical staining of GPC3 is a useful method to select eligible patients. Furthermore, if CHC would be justified as a target of our immunotherapy in future, immunohistochemical analysis for GPC3 expression is indispensable for the process of patient selection.

GPC3 is expressed in the group of cells that are AFP-positive and/or CK7/19-positive in injured livers with activation of oval cell compartment; an indication for liver repair and regeneration (48). In addition, CK7, CK19 and AFP are frequently expressed in biliary epithelial cells (49,50) and in immature fetal hepatoblasts (51,52). Liver progenitor cells originate from the canal of Hering, lined by both hepatocytes and biliary ductular epithelial cells (53). It is not clear whether GPC3 is expressed in hepatic embryonic progenitor cells or cancer stem cells, but GPC3 may be a marker for hepatic progenitor/stem cells. In CHC cases of 2, 3 and 4, GPC3, CK7 and CK19 coincided in the regions of HCC and CC. Although HCC and ICC are two different kinds of primary liver malignancies arising from different cell types as hepatocytes and cholangiocytes, co-localization of GPC3 and CK7/19 suggest that the CHC is originated from progenitor or oval cell. In addition, case 6 showed an HCC lesion with GPC3 positive immunostaining surrounded by CC (Fig. 2b). This finding suggests that GPC3-positive HCC tumor cells are derived from GPC3-negative CC mass. Moreover, we predict from the fact that GPC3 is expressed in embryonic liver and downregulated after birth in normal liver but reappears in cancer is due to its regulatory role in proliferative and dedifferentiated cells, like cancer cells that acquired a progenitor- or cancer stem cell-like characteristics.

In summary, we confirmed that GPC3 is a marker sensitive and specific for HCC, but not ICC. Moreover, we revealed that GPC3 was expressed specifically in the HCC cp in the CHC. Therefore, GPC3 is a molecule that is significant not only in clinical but also biological field. It is clinically an important biomarker that can be used for accurate diagnosis leading to a better treatment and prognosis. Also, biologically, it may be an indicator for the identity and the origin of the cancer cells.

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# Risk Factors of Surgical Site Infection After Hepatectomy for Liver Cancers

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**Abstract**

*Background* Risk factors of surgical site infection (SSI) after hepatectomy under the guideline of Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) are not well examined.
*Methods* Hospital records of consecutive patients who underwent hepatectomy without biliary reconstruction for liver cancers were reviewed retrospectively. Prophylactic antibiotics were given to patients just before skin incision and every 3 hours during the operations. Clinicopathological factors were compared between patients who developed SSI and those without it.
*Results* There were 405 patients identified, and the incidence of SSI was 23 cases (5.8%). In multivariate analysis, intraoperative bowel injury, blood loss >2000 ml, and age older than 65 years were significant risk factors of SSI after hepatectomy.
*Conclusions* Prophylactic antibiotics were necessary only during the operation for most patients who underwent hepatectomy without biliary reconstruction. However, patients with intraoperative bowel injury, blood loss >2000 ml, and age older than 65 years are at risk to develop SSI and might need additional administration of prophylactic antibiotics after surgery.

## Introduction

Use of antibiotics is one of the main techniques to prevent surgical site infection (SSI) after surgery. There has been tremendous accumulation of evidence during the last three decades with regard to the optimal methods of its administration [1]. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) recommended in its 1999 guideline to maintain therapeutic levels of prophylactic antibiotic during the operation and, at most, a few hours after closure of incisions [2]. However, it is well known that incidence of SSI is greatly influenced by patients' underlying general status and perioperative factors [3]. Disease and procedure-specific risks and use of prophylactic antibiotics are not well examined, except for colorectal surgery [4, 5], open heart surgery [6], cholecystectomy [7, 8], etc.

It is suggested that hepatectomy suppresses Kupffer cell and T-cell function significantly, which renders patients immunosuppressive [9]. Postoperative infection, including SSI, deteriorates hepatic failure in cases with limited hepatic functional reserve. There is a wide variety in operation time, blood loss, transfusion requirement, etc., depending on the extent of parenchymal resection. Underlying cirrhosis and hypoalbuminemia inhibits normal wound healing [10]. However, perioperative factors that should be considered a significant risk to develop SSI after hepatectomy have not been clear. The purpose of this study was to analyze the risk factors of SSI after hepatectomy with prophylactic antibiotics under CDC guideline and to clarify who might benefit from additional administration of prophylactic antibiotics after operation.

## Materials and methods

Patients who underwent hepatectomy for liver cancers from November 2002 to December 2006 at National Cancer Center East Hospital, Kashiwa, Japan, were identified and reviewed retrospectively. Patients who

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underwent hepatectomy without biliary reconstruction regardless of diagnosis were included in the study. Patients who underwent cholecystectomy along with hepatectomy were included in the study, but those who underwent simultaneous procedures, such as colorectal resection or stoma closure, were excluded from the study.

The extent of hepatectomy was evaluated according to the disease progression, liver function, and general condition of patients [11]. Tumor progression and resectability was assessed by imaging studies, such as contrast enhanced computed tomography (CT) scans, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), hepatic arterial angiography, ultrasound, and chest x-ray. Liver function was assessed by liver biochemistry test, Child-Pugh grade [12], and the indocyanine green retention rate at 15 minutes [13]. All patients were reviewed before surgery at weekly conferences by hepatic surgeons, medical oncologists, and interventional radiologists to discuss whether the planned procedures were appropriate. Hepatic resection was performed under intraoperative ultrasonographic guidance by the pean fracture method with or without inflow occlusion (Pringle's maneuver). Anatomic hepatectomy was performed whenever possible, whereas partial resection was performed in consideration of limited liver functional reserve or anatomic location of the tumor. During parenchymal resection, all blood vessels and bile ducts were ligated whenever possible with 2-0 or 3-0 braided silk or vessel clip. One or two closed drains were inserted at the end of operation in the right subphrenic space or wherever close to the resected liver parenchyma. Drains were removed when no rebleeding or bile leakage was observed on postoperative day (POD) 3 or 4.

SSI was defined as a condition in which purulent discharge was observed from any incision or space that was manipulated during an operation within 30 days after the operation with or without microbiological evidence as in the guideline issued by CDC [2], and it was identified retrospectively by reviewing clinical records of patients who underwent hepatectomy. Remote site infection was defined as a condition in which fever and leukocytosis were present with bacteria in sputum, urine, catheter-tip, blood, or other body fluid/space, or according to the physician's judgment regardless of microbiological evidence.

Patients were usually given two doses of cefazolin as prophylactic antibiotics. One gram of cefazolin was administered to patients within 30 minutes before skin incision and another dose 3 hours later. When the operation lasted more than 3 hours, additional doses were given every 3 hours thereafter during the operation. No antibiotics were given after incisions were closed if patients had already received two doses of cefazolin.

All data were compiled in a database for analysis (Microsoft Excel and SPSS 11.0 J for Windows).

Differences between numerical variables were tested with Mann-Whitney $U$ test and those between categorical variables were tested with $\chi^2$ statistics. Multivariate analysis was performed with logistic regression test. $p < 0.05$ was deemed significant.

## Results

During the period of study, 405 patients underwent hepatectomy without biliary reconstruction for primary or secondary liver cancers at National Cancer Center East Hospital, Kashiwa, Japan. Of these 405 patients, 23 patients (5.8%) developed SSI (incisional, 20; organ/space, 3). Incisional SSIs were treated by opening incisions and organ/space SSIs were treated by drainage under ultrasound guidance. The patient characteristics and demographic variables are listed in Table 1. No differences in these basic characteristics, except age, were observed between patients with SSI and those without it. Mean age of patients with SSI was 68.2 years and was statistically older than those without SSI. A cutoff value of aged 65 years had the highest statistical power ($p = 0.016$). Patients' ASA score, comorbidities, and underlying liver pathology were statistically similar between the two groups.

Culture results of infecting organisms included *Bacteroides faragilis* (n = 3), *Staphylococcus aureus* (n = 2), *Klebsiera oxytoca* (n = 1), *Serratia marcescens* (n = 1), *Escherichia coli* (n = 1), *Streptoccoccus anginosus* (n = 1), *Streptococcus constellatus* (n = 1), *Enterobacter cloacae* (n = 1), *Citrobacter braakii* (n = 1), *Citrobacter freundii* (n = 1), *Corynebacterium* species (n = 1), and *Candida* species (n = 1).

The perioperative variables are listed in Table 2. Operation time, red blood cell (RBC) transfusion requirement, RBC transfusion volume, and intraoperative bowel injury were statistically different between the two groups. Blood loss did not reach statistical significance, but cutoff value of 2000 ml had the significant power to predict SSI ($p = 0.003$). Multivariate analysis of those variables found that intraoperative bowel injury, blood loss >2000 ml, and age older than 65 years were the significant risk factors to develop SSI after hepatectomy without biliary reconstruction (Table 3). Rates of SSI increased dramatically with the number of risk factors present (Fig. 1). Patients with two or more risk factors were statistically more likely to develop SSI than those with none or only one risk factor.

During the same period, three patients died within 30 days from the operations. One patient died from pulmonary embolism on POD 3, another died from brain stroke on POD 3, and the other died from esophageal varix rupture on POD 9. Incidence of remote site infection was

**Table 1** Patient characteristics and demographic variables for patients with SSI compared with those without it

| | SSI (−) (N = 382) | SSI (+) (N = 23) | P value |
|---|---|---|---|
| Age (yr)[a] | 63.7 ± 0.5 | 68.2 ± 2 | 0.034 |
| ≥65[b] | 194 (50.9) | 18 (78.3) | 0.016 |
| <65 | 188 (49.1) | 5 (21.7) | |
| Gender[b] | | | 0.809 |
| Male | 285 (74.6) | 18 (78.3) | |
| Female | 97 (25.4) | 5 (21.7) | |
| Body mass index (kg/m$^2$)[a] | 23.8 ± 0.6 | 23.6 ± 0.7 | 0.583 |
| Diabetes mellitus[b] | 75 (19.6) | 1 (4.5) | 0.095 |
| ASA score[b] | | | 0.488 |
| 1 | 111 (29.5) | 7 (30.4) | |
| 2 | 243 (64.6) | 16 (69.6) | |
| 3 | 22 (5.9) | | 0.566 |
| Diagnosis[b] | | | |
| HCC | 239 (62.6) | 13 (56.5) | |
| Metastases | 126 (33) | 8 (34.8) | |
| Others | 16 (4.5) | 2 (8.7) | 0.858 |
| Viral hepatitis serology[b] | | | |
| HBV | 51 (14) | 3 (13) | |
| HCV | 141 (38.7) | 8 (34.8) | |
| HBV and HCV | 7 (1.9) | | 0.758 |
| Liver parenchyma[b] | | | |
| Chronic hepatitis | 105 (29.6) | 9 (39.1) | |
| Liver cirrhosis | 93 (26.2) | 5 (21.7) | 0.634 |
| Child class[b] | | | |
| A | 355 (94.4) | 21 (91.3) | |
| B | 21 (5.6) | 2 (8.7) | 0.571 |
| ICG15R[a] | 14.6 ± 0.4 | 15.5 ± 1.6 | |

[a] Mann-Whitney $U$ test

[b] $\chi^2$ test

Data are numbers with percentages in parentheses or means ± standard error of the mean

*ASA* American society of anesthesiology, *HCC* hepatocellular carcinoma, *HBV* hepatitis B virus, *HCV* hepatitis C virus, *ICG15R* indocyanin green 15 min retention rate

11 (2.5%) (pneumonia (n = 6), urinary tract infection (n = 1), catheter infection (n = 1), epididymitis (n = 1), unknown origin (n = 2)). Other morbidities included bile leak (n = 9), retractable ascites (n = 6), ileus (n = 4), transient renal insufficiency (n = 4), rebleeding (n = 3), pleural effusion (n = 3), skin rash (n = 2), poor oral intake (n = 2), delirium (n = 1), transient heart failure (n = 1), pulmonary embolism (n = 1), upper gastrointestinal bleeding (n = 1), wound dehiscence (n = 1). There were four reoperations for three rebleedings and one wound dehiscence.

## Discussion

Our study clearly demonstrated the risk factors of SSI after hepatectomy with prophylactic antibiotics under the CDC guideline. Intraoperative bowel injury, blood loss >2000 ml, and age older than 65 years were the significant risk factors. Although both alimentary tract surgery and hepatobiliary surgery are classified as clean-contaminated

[14], biliary tract without calculus is normally sterile contrary to the alimentary tract, which has high bacterial densities [15, 16]. Intraoperative bowel injury is suspected to contaminate surgical field of hepatectomy without biliary reconstruction and to increase the risk of SSI. Blood loss reduces the concentration of antibiotics and is found to be a risk factor of SSI [17, 18]; 1500 ml to 2000 ml of blood loss is the suggested threshold to administer additional doses of cefazolin to maintain a concentration higher than the minimum inhibitory concentration for the common infecting organisms [19, 20]. Our threshold of 2000 ml of blood loss is compatible with previous findings. Elderly patients also are reported to be susceptible to SSI [18, 21]. Because aging involves complex physiologic changes, it is difficult to clarify a definitive mechanism of the vulnerability of elderly patients. Reduction in immune function is one suggested mechanism [10].

Rates of SSI increased dramatically with the number of the three risk factors present (Fig. 1). According to the National Nosocomical Infections Surveillance (NNIS) report, rates of SSI after hepatopancreaticobiliary complex

**Table 2** Perioperative variables for patients with SSI compared with those without it

| | SSI (−) (N = 382) | SSI (+) (N = 23) | P value |
|---|---|---|---|
| Operation time (min)[a] | 210 ± 19 | 269 ± 23 | *0.021* |
| ≥300[b] | 68 (17.8) | 9 (39.1) | *0.017* |
| <300 | 313 (82.2) | 14 (60.9) | |
| Pringle time (min)[a] | 63.3 ± 2.1 | 75.9 ± 9.7 | 0.259 |
| None[b] | 26 (7.3) | 0 (0) | 0.23 |
| >0 | 331 (92.7) | 20 (100) | |
| Repeat resection[b] | 110 (28.8) | 4 (17.4) | 0.338 |
| Blood loss (ml)[a] | 1070 ± 69 | 1928 ± 470 | 0.068 |
| ≥2000[b] | 50 (13.2) | 9 (39.1) | *0.003* |
| <2000 | 332 (86.8) | 14 (60.9) | |
| RBC transfusion (ml)[a] | 177 ± 29 | 537 ± 192 | *0.003* |
| None[b] | 297 (78.2) | 12 (52.2) | *0.009* |
| >0 | 83 (21.8) | 11 (47.8) | |
| Intraoperative bowel injury[b] | 3 (0.8) | 4 (17.4) | *<0.001* |
| Bile leak[b] | 7 (1.8) | 2 (22.2) | 0.087 |
| Resected segments (Couinaud)[b] | | | 0.96 |
| <2 | 285 (74.8) | 16 (69.6) | |
| 2–3 | 42 (11) | 3 (13) | |
| ≥4 | 54 (14.2) | 4 (17.4) | |
| Resected weight (g)[a] | 221 ± 19 | 269 ± 77 | 0.281 |
| Largest tumor size (cm)[a] | 3.8 ± 0.2 | 3.7 ± 0.4 | 0.253 |
| NNIS index[b] | | | 0.184 |
| 0 | 293 (76.9) | 14 (60.9) | |
| 1 | 86 (22.6) | 9 (39.1) | |
| 2 | 2 (0.5) | | |
| Postoperative length of stay[a] | 10.2 ± 0.2 | 23.7 ± 5.7 | *<0.001* |

[a] Mann-Whitney $U$ test

[b] $\chi^2$ test

Data are numbers with percentages in parentheses or means ± standard error of the mean
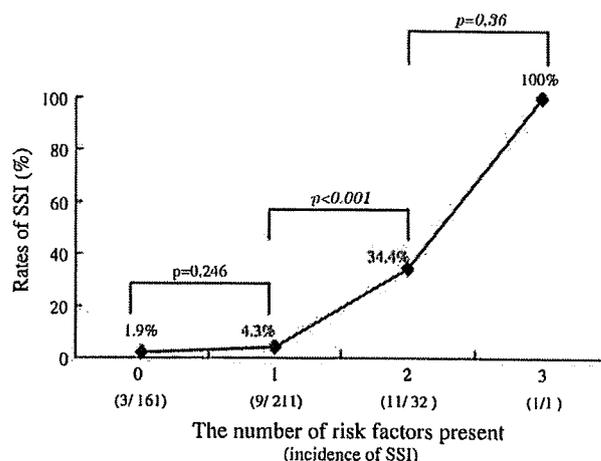
RBC red blood cell, NNIS national nosocomical infection surveillance

**Table 3** Multivariate analysis of SSI risk factors

| | P value | Odds ratio (95% confidence intervals) |
|---|---|---|
| Age ≥65 yr | *0.027* | 3.4 (1.15–10.05) |
| Blood loss ≥2000 ml | *0.004* | 4.4 (1.63–11.91) |
| Intraoperative bowel injury | *<0.001* | 20.08 (4–100.8) |
| RBC transfusion | 0.62 | 1.51 (0.31–7.42) |
| Operation time >300 min | 0.67 | 1.35 (0.34–5.32) |

SSI risk factors identified by univariate analysis were compared by multivariate analysis (logistic regression test)



The number of risk factors present
(incidence of SSI)

**Fig. 1** Rates of SSI increased with the number of risk factors present. Rates of SSI were not statistically different between patients with one risk factor and those without any factors. However, patients with two or more risk factors developed SSI at a significantly higher rate than those with none or only one risk factor

surgery range from 3.24–7.04% [22]. Other reported rates of SSI after hepatectomy range from 4.6–25.2% [23, 24]. Compared with those previously reported rates, the rates of SSI for patients with none or only one risk factor, 1.9% and 4.3% respectively, are considered allowable. Prophylactic antibiotics for hepatectomy without biliary reconstruction are necessary only during operations for patients with none or only one risk factor. However, patients with two or more risk factors developed SSI at statistically higher rates. Fujita et al. [4] reported that two additional doses of

postoperative antibiotics reduced the incidence of incisional SSI from 14.2% to 4.3% compared with single-dose preoperative administration in elective colorectal surgery

[4]. Additional administration of postoperative antibiotics maintains therapeutic levels for longer hours and reduces the incidence of SSI more effectively for patients at higher risk. Although there have been no published data concerning the effectiveness of postoperative administration of antibiotics in hepatectomy, Fig. 1 illustrates that patients with two or more risk factors may receive some additional doses of postoperative antibiotics as in colorectal surgery. Appropriate doses of additional antibiotics are matters to be discussed.

There were five infecting organisms that were resistant to cefazolin: *Bacteroides fragilis*, *Enterobacter*, *cloacae*, *Serratia marcescens*, Corynebacterium species, and Citrobacter species. Because some patients lack microbiologic data, a definitive conclusion about the optimum choice of prophylactic antibiotics was not possible. However, it is evident that cefazolin alone was effective for most patients who underwent hepatectomy without biliary reconstruction. Two of the seven patients with intraoperative bowel injury developed SSI with *Bacteroides fragilis*. Because likely pathogens in alimentary tract surgery are gram-negative bacilli and anaerobes [2], postoperative antibiotics with anaerobic coverage might be more effective for patients with intraoperative bowel injury.

Postoperative infections, especially organ/space SSI, sometimes deteriorate hepatic function and may cause mortalities. We experienced 23 SSIs and 11 remote site infections, but none of the patients died from those infections. We speculate that our strict evaluation of extent of hepatectomy using CT volumetry and liver function test precluded some excessive hepatic resection and saved postoperative hepatic function. Postoperative infection is more likely to occur in patients with hepatic dysfunction [25]. Our relatively low rate of major hepatectomy in consideration of hepatic functional reserve might be related to the fewer incidence of SSI.

RBC transfusion requirement and operation time were significant risk factors of SSI in univariate analysis, but not in multivariate analysis. Transfusion has immunosuppressive effects on postoperative patients via reductions in natural killer cell number and cytotoxic T-cell function [26, 27] and is reported to be a risk factor of SSI in colorectal surgery [28, 29]. However, controversy exists concerning the causal relationship between transfusion and SSI [30], and a recent meta-analysis denies the association between transfusion and postoperative infection [31]. Our result is consistent with the meta-analysis. Operation time is another reported risk factor of SSI [18]. Cefazolin exhibits time-dependent decrease in serum and tissue concentration, and additional administrations are recommended every 3 or 4 hours during operation to maintain therapeutic levels of cefazolin [2]. Because all of our patients received a second dose of cefazolin at 3 hours

from incision, serum and tissue concentration of cefazolin was expected to exceed therapeutic levels during the whole time of operations for most patients. Influence of operation time on the incidence of SSI was suspected to be minimized with additional dose of cefazolin at 3 hours from incision.

Abdominal drainage after elective hepatectomy is controversial. Some randomized, controlled trials (RCTs) reported increased incidence of SSI and other morbidities associated with abdominal drainage and denied the routine placement of drainage catheters [32, 33]. However, the routine drainage group in those RCTs had drainage catheters placed for at least 5 to 9 days, which was unnecessarily long. We almost routinely placed drainage catheters but removed them on POD 3/4 or earlier if postoperative bleeding and bile leakage were denied. Early removal of prophylactic drains prevents intra-abdominal infections [34]. We do not consider that abdominal drainage causes more infections if drains are removed on POD 3/4 or earlier.

Our study has several limitations. First, SSI was detected indirectly by retrospectively reviewing patient records and laboratory data. It has been suggested to be a less accurate method than prospective direct observation of surgical sites [2]. Some SSI might be possibly undetected because of inappropriate patient records. However, indirect case-finding by reviewing daily records and laboratory data is the most widespread method of surveillance in the medical literature. Its reported sensitivity is as high as 83.8–92.3% compared with prospective direct finding of SSI [35]. Since then, we do not consider that our surveillance method precludes the importance of our findings. Second, it is a single-center study. Our department is one of the highest volume centers in Japan and performs 250 hepatopancreaticobiliary cancer surgeries in a year. Also, we do not perform operations on patients with end-stage renal disease on dialysis due to inadequacies of dialysis facilities. Our relatively low rate of SSI incidence may be attributable to the high volume of cases and to the patient selection.

## Conclusions

Our study demonstrated that prophylactic antibiotics were necessary only during operations and, at most, a few hours after closure of incisions in most of the patients who underwent hepatectomy without biliary reconstruction. However, patients with intraoperative bowel injury, blood loss >2000 ml, and age older than 65 years were at risk for developing SSI. Patients with two or more risk factors may receive additional doses of postoperative antibiotics to prevent SSI more effectively.

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