

**FIGURE 1.** (a) Overall appearance of SRBFS. SRBFS appears to have a “cotton wool”-like formation. (b) SEM (original magnification,  $\times 200$ ) of SRBFS reveals a non-woven fabric appearance. Scale bar:  $50\ \mu\text{m}$ . (c) SEM (original magnification,  $\times 1000$ ) of SRBFS showed that the polymer fiber was  $500\ \mu\text{m}$ - $10\ \text{nm}$  in diameter. Scale bar:  $10\ \mu\text{m}$ . (d) FESEM image of BMSCs seeded on SRBFS after 7 days. Scale bar:  $15\ \mu\text{m}$ .

10% FBS and 1% penicillin/streptomycin for 7 or 14 days in a humidified environment with 5%  $\text{CO}_2$  at  $37\ ^\circ\text{C}$  before *in vitro* assays and cultured for 14 days before *in vivo* assays, with the medium changed every 3 days. Osteogenic factors, such as dexamethasone and BMP-2, were not added in the culture medium during the culture period.

#### Scanning Electron Microscopic Study

BMSCs cultured on SRBFS for 7 days were washed with PBS to remove non-adherent cells, fixed in 2.5% glutaraldehyde, and then post-fixed in 4% osmium tetroxide. The samples were dehydrated through a series of graded alcohol solutions. After *t*-butyl-alcohol freeze-drying, cellular constructs were sputter-coated with osmium and observed under field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) (S-800, Hitachi, Tokyo, Japan) at 10 kV.

#### Measurement of Alkaline Phosphatase Activity

Seven and 14 days after seeding on BFS and SRBFS, BMSCs were assayed for alkaline phosphatase (ALP) activity. ALP activity was measured with a commercial *p*-nitrophenyl phosphate tablet set (Sigma Chemical,

St. Louis, MO, USA) and a cell counting kit (WST-8: Dojindo, Kumamoto, Japan). Cell numbers were analyzed according to the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly,  $100\ \mu\text{L}$  of reagents was added to each well containing 1 mL of fresh medium with cell-scaffold constructs, incubated for 3 h, and absorbance measured on a spectrophotofluorometer (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA). Cell numbers were determined from the standard calibration curve by measuring the absorbance. After WST-8 analysis, each well and scaffolds were washed three times with PBS, and 800 mL of *p*-nitrophenyl phosphate solution was added to each well. After 10 min of incubation at  $37\ ^\circ\text{C}$ , the reaction was stopped with 800 mL of 3 N NaOH and the absorbance of *p*-nitrophenol was measured. ALP activities were normalized to the number of cells calculated according to the WST-8 assay.

#### In Vitro Osteoclast Formation

Mouse osteoclasts were prepared from bone marrow cells as previously described.<sup>25</sup> Briefly, bone marrow cells were obtained by flushing the femurs and tibiae of mice and cultured in  $\alpha$ -MEM containing 10% FBS for 1 day. Non-adherent cells were harvested and cultured in  $\alpha$ -MEM ( $5 \times 10^4$  cells per well in a 24-well

plate) with 10% FBS containing 10 ng/mL M-CSF (R&D Systems, Inc., Minneapolis, MN, USA). Two days later, adherent cells were used as bone marrow-derived monocyte/macrophage precursor cells (BMMs) after washing out the non-adherent cells. These cells were cultured with 100 ng/mL RANKL (R&D Systems, Inc., Minneapolis, MN, USA) and 10 ng/mL M-CSF (R&D Systems), and co-cultured with 5 mg of SRBFS or BFS. Indirect co-culture systems for BMMs and SRBFS or BFS were established using a 24-well plate with 0.4- $\mu$ m pore, 10- $\mu$ m thickness polyester membrane cell culture inserts (Corning, NY, USA). BMMs were cultured on the plate well, and SRBFS or BFS were then placed in the insert. After 5 days, cultured cells were fixed and stained for tartrate-resistance acid phosphatase (TRAP) (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Osaka, Japan). TRAP-positive multinucleated cells with greater than three nuclei were counted as osteoclasts.

#### *Cell-Scaffold Construct Implantation*

After the mice were anesthetized by diethyl ether inhalation (Sigma-Aldrich, Tokyo, Japan), small incisions were made on the bilateral dorsal skin. A cell-seeded SRBFS was immediately implanted into the left subcutaneous pocket on the murine back, a cell-seeded BFS into the right, and the skin was then closed with sutures.

#### *Radiographic Analysis*

Twelve weeks after transplantation, the samples were assessed by X-ray (G1 meisterII FLUOREX, Toshiba, Tokyo, Japan), and the conditions used were 40 kV and 200 mA for 0.640 s. Under these defined conditions, exposures were carried out with an aluminum wedge that allowed the radiographic densities to be computed later. The radiographic density of the harvested transplant area was estimated as aluminum thickness by measuring with image analysis software (Image J, Scion Corporation, Frederick, MD, USA).

#### *Histological Analysis of Ectopic Bone Formation In Vivo*

Six and 12 weeks after transplantation, the implants were harvested for analysis, immediately fixed in 4% (w/v) paraformaldehyde and decalcified with a commercially available decalcifying solution (K-CX, Falma Corporation, Tokyo, Japan) for about 2 days before embedding in paraffin. Three-micrometer serial sections were cut and processed for routine histological observation by staining with hematoxylin and eosin (H-E) and for immunochemistry. The bone formation

area was measured using image analysis software (Image J, Scion Corporation, Frederick, MD, USA), and then expressed as the percentage of bone area in the total cross-sectional area. Immunohistochemical analysis was performed using bone sialoprotein (BSP) polyclonal antibody (1:200) (LSL Co., Cosmo Bio, Tokyo, Japan) as primary antibody. A biotinylated secondary antibody (1:200) (rabbit anti-mouse IgG) (Vector Laboratories, CA, USA) was applied, and an avidin-biotin complex using Vectastain ABC kit (Vector Laboratories). Finally, slides were reacted with 0.1% w/v 3,3'-diaminobenzidine tetrahydrochloride solution and counterstained with hematoxylin solution. The BSP-positive cells were counted as follows. At least 10 fields for each section were randomly captured ( $\times 200$  magnification, 5 samples in total), and then all cells and BSP depositing cells in the fields were counted. The ratio of BSP-positive cells was calculated as the percentage of BSP-positive cells in all cells.

#### *Mineralization Analysis*

Bone mineralization was analyzed by determining the amount of deposited calcium using a method reported previously.<sup>14</sup> Twelve weeks after transplantation, retrieved implant samples were rinsed with PBS and homogenized with 0.6 N HCl, and calcium was then extracted by shaking them for 4 h at 4 °C. The lysate was then centrifuged at 1,000 $\times$ g for 5 min, and the supernatant was used to quantify calcium content in samples by spectrophotometry using a Calcium Colorimetric Assay Kit (BioVision, Mountain View, CA, USA). Five minutes after the addition of reagents, the absorbance of the samples was read at 575 nm using a microplate reader (SmartSpeckTM3000, Bio-Rad, Tokyo, Japan). Calcium content was calculated from a standard curve generated from the serial dilution of a calcium standard solution (BioVision).

#### *Statistical Analysis*

Statistical significance was analyzed either by one-way factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) or unpaired *t* test. A *p* value less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant. Quantitative data were statistically analyzed to express the mean  $\pm$  the standard deviation.

## RESULTS

#### *Morphology of BMSCs on SRBFS*

The FESEM image of BMSCs cultured on SRBFS for 7 days shows that the cells spread actively, rigidly

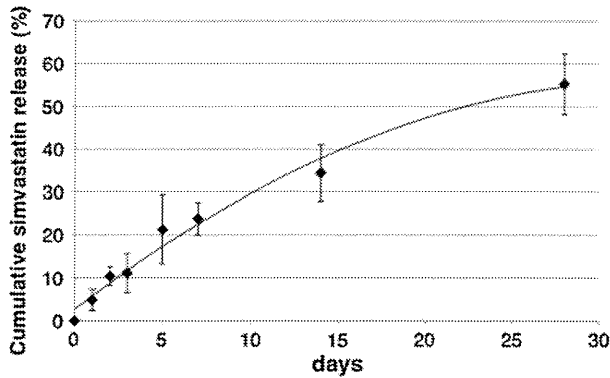


FIGURE 2. Cumulative release of SRBFS *in vitro*. The curve is intended to lead the eye. Values represent the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation ( $n = 3$ ).

adhered to the fibers, and ECM production by cells was then observed (Fig. 1d).

#### *In Vitro Simvastatin Release from SRBFS*

The *in vitro* release pattern of simvastatin from SRBFS is shown in Fig. 2. On day 1, approximately 5% of the simvastatin was released from SRBFS. Thereafter, simvastatin release was slow and at a constant rate until day 7. By day 14, about 35% of the loaded simvastatin was released, and about 55% of it from SRBFS by day 28.

#### *Effect of Released Simvastatin on BMSC Osteogenic Differentiation*

To examine whether released simvastatin had an effect on osteogenic differentiation of BMSCs, ALP activity was measured *in vitro* on days 7 and 14 (Fig. 3). Although there was no significant difference between the SRBFS and BFS groups on day 7, the ALP activity of the SRBFS groups was significantly higher than that of the BFS groups ( $p < 0.05$ ) on day 14.

#### *Effect of Released Simvastatin on Inhibition of Osteoclastogenesis*

The effect of simvastatin released from SRBFS on osteoclastogenesis was examined. Figures 4a and 4b revealed that BMMs incubated with BFS differentiated into many osteoclasts, whereas BMMs incubated with SRBFS differentiated into only a few osteoclasts. As shown in Fig. 4c, the total number of TRAP-positive multinucleated osteoclasts in the SRBFS group was significantly inhibited compared with the BFS group.

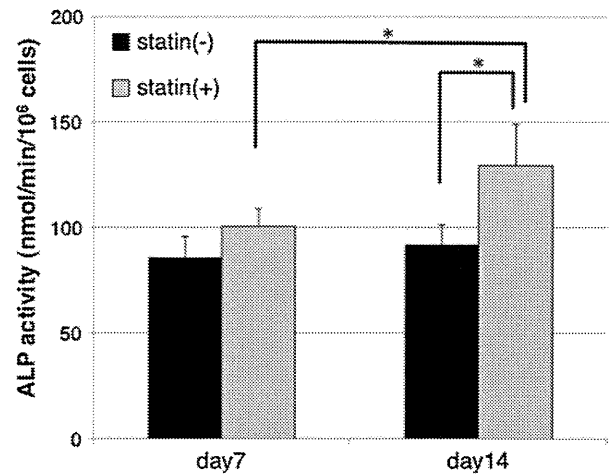


FIGURE 3. ALP activity of BMSCs on SRBFS and BFS measured on days 7 and 14. Values represent the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation ( $n = 5$ ). Statistically significant difference is labeled ( $*p < 0.05$ ).

#### *Radiographic Analysis*

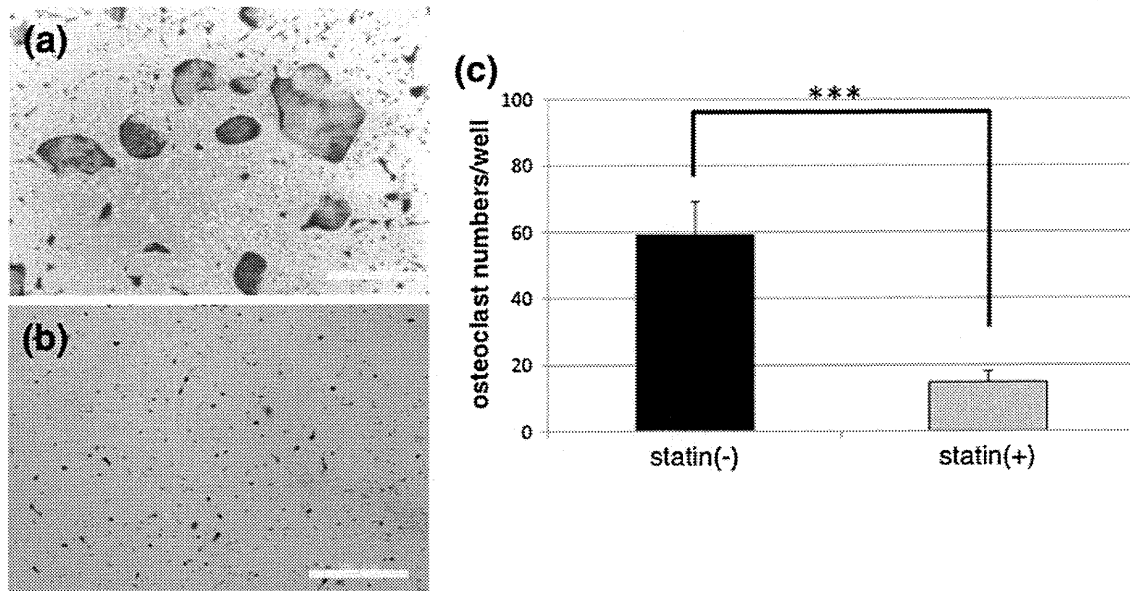
Figure 5a shows X-ray photographs 12 weeks after transplantation. Round-shaped radiopaque tissues were found on both sides. Statistical analysis showed that SRBFS radiodensity was significantly higher than in the BFS group 12 weeks after transplantation (Fig. 5b).

#### *Histological and Immunohistochemical Analysis*

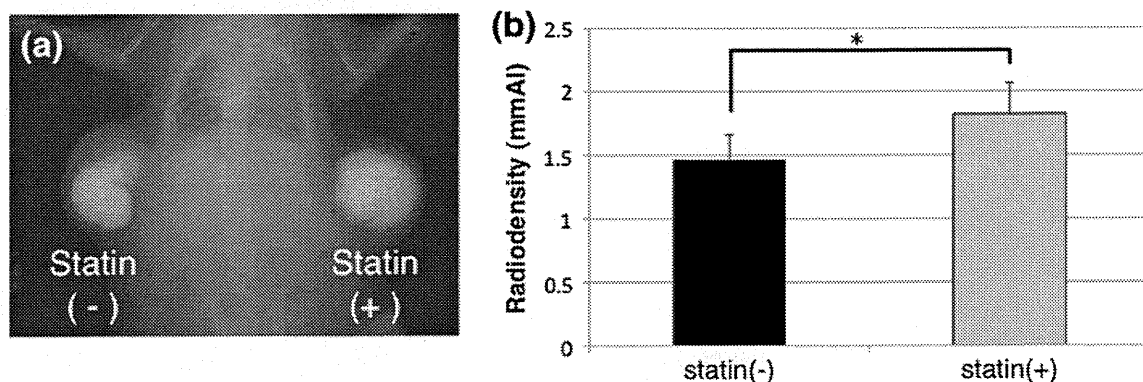
Figures 6a–6d show H–E staining sections 6 and 12 weeks after transplantation. Six weeks after transplantation, an extensive immature mineral formation had been observed in both groups (Figs. 6a, 6b). At 12 weeks, mainly woven bone and focal trabecular bone with a lamellar appearance were observed. Numerous osteoblasts lining the woven bone and mineral formation indicated active bone formation (Figs. 6c, 6d). Immunohistochemical staining with BSP was performed using the section harvested from implants taken from mice (Figs. 6e, 6f). BSP was positive in a wide range of intracellular and extracellular tissue regardless of statin content. Newly formed bone area and the ratio of BSP-positive cells in the SRBFS groups were significantly higher than those in the BFS groups 12 weeks after implantation (Figs. 7a, 7b).

#### *Mineralization Analysis*

To determine the mineralized matrix deposition in the generated tissue, calcium deposition was measured. Calcium deposition in the SRBFS group was higher than in the BFS group (Fig. 7c).



**FIGURE 4.** Simvastatin released from SRBFS inhibits RANKL-induced osteoclastogenesis 5 days after stimulation. Cells were cultured for 5 days with (a) SRBFS and (b) BFS after RANKL treatment and stained for TRAP expression. Scale bar: 500  $\mu$ m. (c) The total number of TRAP-positive multinucleated osteoclasts (i.e., those containing three nuclei) per well were counted. Values represent the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation ( $n = 5$ ). Statistically significant difference is labeled ( $***p < 0.001$ ).



**FIGURE 5.** (a) X-ray photograph of ectopically formed bone 12 weeks after transplantation. (b) Radiographic density in the transplants 12 weeks after transplantation ( $n = 4$ ). Values represent the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation. Statistically significant difference is labeled ( $*p < 0.05$ ).

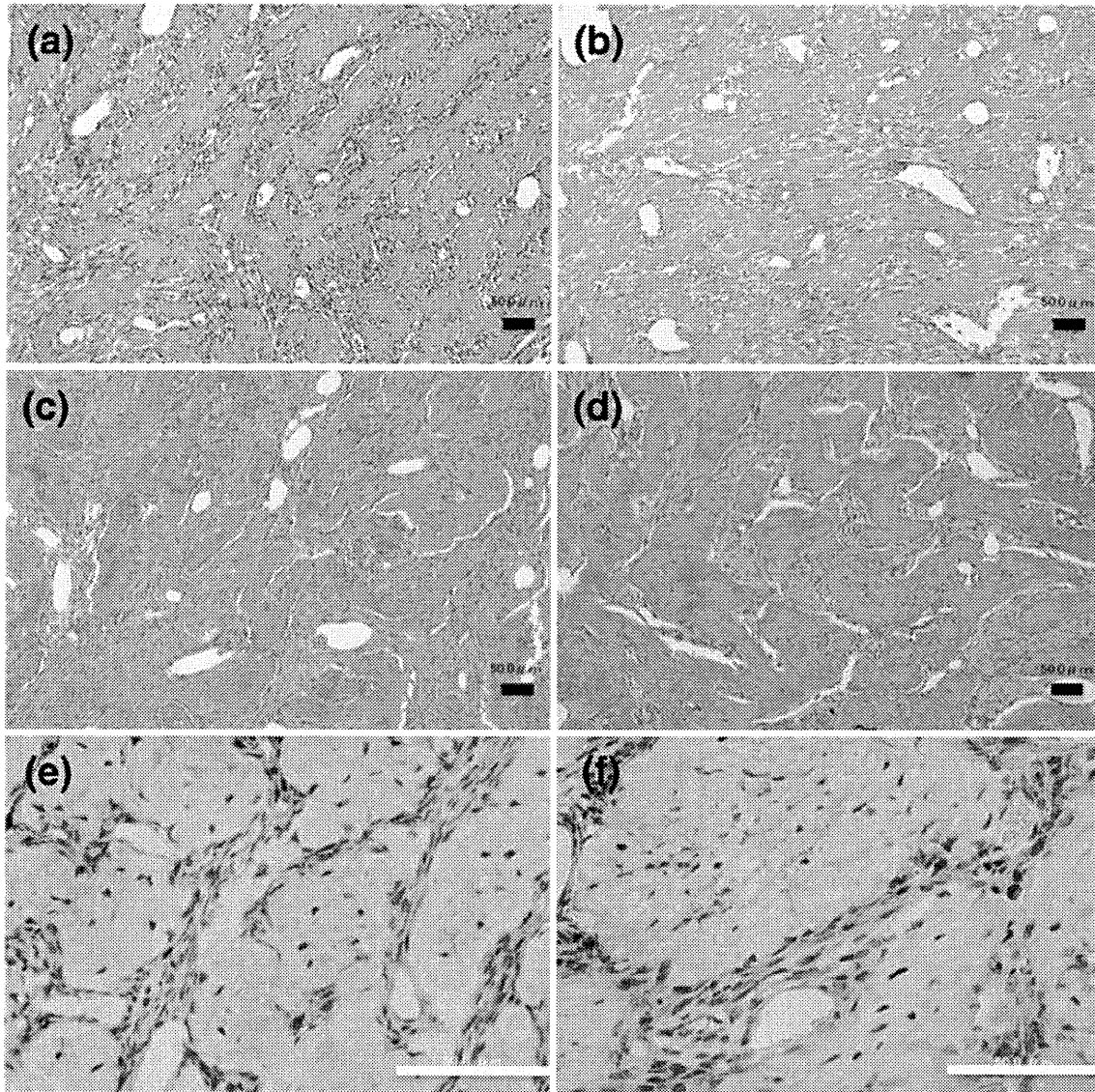
## DISCUSSION

Our current study is the first report to describe the ectopic bone formation of mice using the complex of statin-releasing biodegradable nano- to microscaled fiber scaffolds and BMSCs, and our scaffold is applicable for bone tissue engineering.

Our *in vitro* studies revealed that the effects of simvastatin released from SRBFS on osteoblastogenesis and osteoclastogenesis were effective for osteogenesis. ALP activity of BMSCs seeded on the SRBFS for 2 weeks was significantly elevated, and the number of osteoclasts differentiated from precursor cells was significantly decreased in the SRBFS. Thus, we demonstrated that simvastatin released from SRBFS

promotes simultaneously osteoblastic differentiation of BMSCs and inhibits osteoclastogenesis of BMMs. However, in this study, the inhibition of osteoclastogenesis was demonstrated only *in vitro*, and further *in vivo* assays are needed to evaluate in more detail the effect of simvastatin on osteoclastogenesis.

In several previous studies, the simvastatin was loaded in various materials for bone tissue engineering, such as gelatin hydrogel,<sup>26</sup>  $\alpha$ -tricalcium phosphate,<sup>17</sup> methylcellulose gel,<sup>23</sup> collagen sponge,<sup>28</sup> and calcium sulfate.<sup>18</sup> Most of these studies reported positive effects for bone regeneration. In this study, the statin-loaded biodegradable fiber from the electrospinning procedure was developed to release the simvastatin gradually over

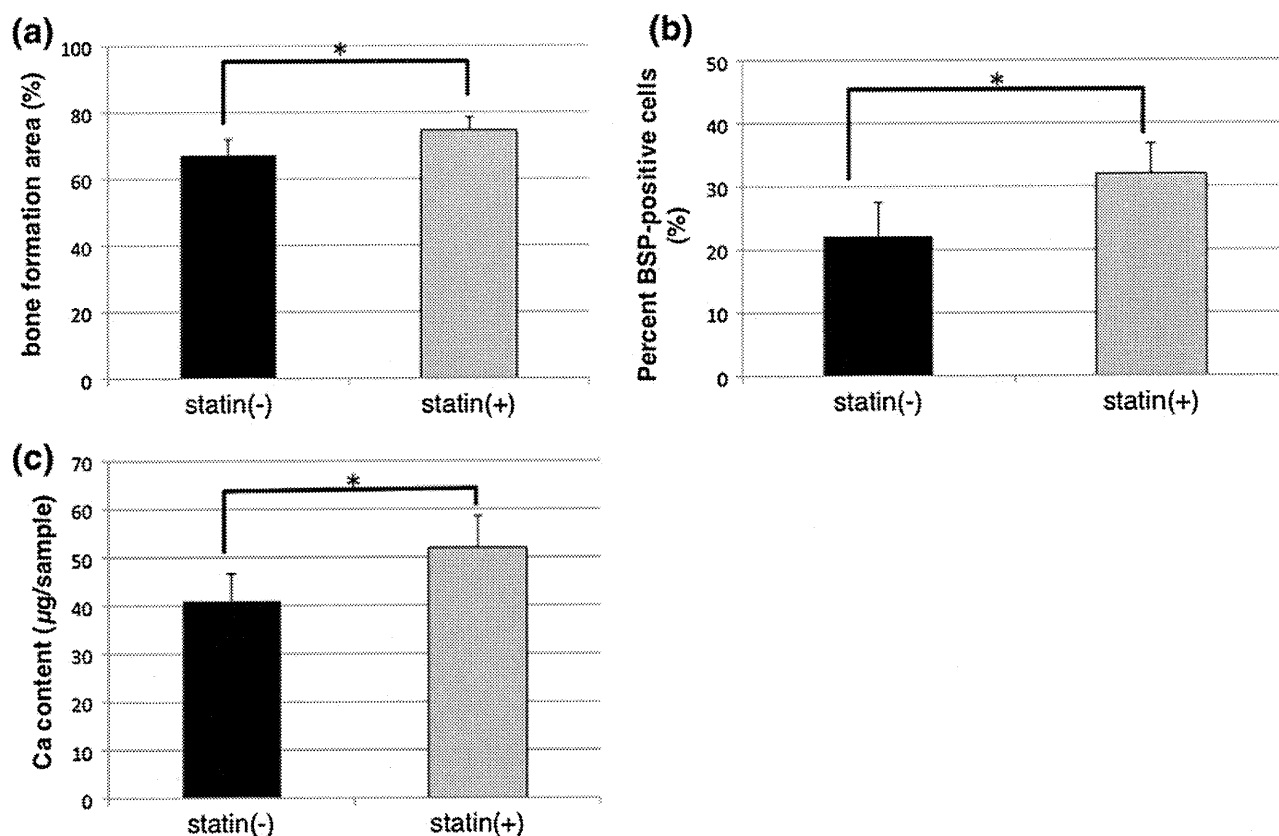


**FIGURE 6.** Histological and immunohistochemical analyses 6 and 12 weeks after implantation. (a–d) H–E staining, (a, b) at 6 and (c, d) 12 weeks, while (e, f) show immunohistochemical staining with BSP at 12 weeks. (a, c, e): BFS (b, d, f): SRBFS. Scale bar: 50  $\mu\text{m}$ .

time. The mechanism of sustained release of simvastatin takes place through degradation of biodegradable polymer by hydrolysis. The electrospinning procedure makes it possible to control the release of a wide range of antibiotics<sup>5</sup> and anticancer drugs<sup>30</sup> to proteins<sup>9,16</sup> and DNA<sup>16</sup> for application in tissue engineering. However, this technique has a limitation in that some organic solvents used to prepare the polymer solutions may also degrade the drugs.<sup>1</sup>

To optimize this simvastatin-releasing system, we determined the simvastatin content of SRBFS on the basis of the simvastatin release test of SRBFS and preliminary studies. BMSCs were cultured in various concentrations (0.5–5.0  $\mu\text{M}$ ) of simvastatin, and cell proliferation and ALP activity were then evaluated.

These preliminary studies suggested that the appropriate concentration of simvastatin was 0.5–1  $\mu\text{M}$  in *in vitro* culture with respect to cell proliferation (cytotoxicity) and ALP activity (data not shown). BMSCs could not proliferate in a medium containing more than 2.5  $\mu\text{M}$  of simvastatin. Though the apoptotic effect of high-dose simvastatin has been reported in several studies,<sup>6,7</sup> more than a certain concentration of simvastatin is apparently needed for osteogenic induction and osteoclastogenesis inhibition. However, it is difficult to measure exactly a local simvastatin-exposed dose to cells with such direct adhesion to fiber as in this study. Besides the simvastatin content of the biodegradable polymer, the dose of simvastatin released from fibers is also dependent on the composition



**FIGURE 7.** (a) Bone formation area analyzed by H&E staining 12 weeks after implantation ( $n = 5$ ). (b) Percent BSP-positive cells as determined by immunohistochemical staining with BSP 12 weeks after implantation ( $n = 5$ ). (c) Accumulated calcium content per sample 12 weeks after implantation ( $n = 4$ ). Values represent the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation. Statistically significant difference is labeled ( $*p < 0.05$ ).

of the polymer (polyglycolic acid (PGA), polylactic acid (PLA), polycaprolacton (PCL), and their co-polymers), along with the rate of copolymerization, and fiber diameter. These factors need to be taken into consideration for optimization of drug release in the future. If the local dose of statin released from the scaffold can be regulated appropriately, this strategy could not only minimize damage to cells at high concentrations, but also reduce the drug dosage needed, and thereby be more effective, safe and inexpensive for bone tissue engineering.

Histological examination 12 weeks after transplantation revealed that the amount of new bone formation in the SRBFS group was significantly higher than in the BFS group. Twelve weeks after transplantation, SRBFS alone without BMSCs did not induce bone formation in the murine back (data not shown). These data suggest that BMSCs could play an important role in ectopic bone formation, and statin may promote the osteogenic activity of BMSCs for bone formation. To the best of our knowledge, successful ectopic bone formation *in vivo* using statin-releasing materials without cell transplantation has not been reported in detail. A previous study reported that statin-loaded

biodegradable fiber without seeding cells was applied for healing a critical-size bone defect of an animal,<sup>19</sup> and suggested the necessity of cell-seeded scaffolds. While statin alone was insufficient to induce ectopic bone formation, in combination with preosteogenic cells statin resulted in significant promotion of such formation.

Analyses of radiodensity and calcium deposition were performed to determine the mineralized matrix deposition in scaffolds. Some studies reported that local application of statin could increase bone mineral density.<sup>17,29</sup> Our results reveal that the SRBFS group showed significantly higher mineralization, which suggests that statin may play a pivotal role in mineralization during bone maturation. The osteogenic phenotype of BMSCs seeded onto SRBFS was also assessed by the immunodetection of a specific osteoblastic protein, BSP. High BSP expression confirms the presence of mature osteoblasts.<sup>4</sup> These results suggest that released simvastatin may also promote bone maturation as well as osteogenic induction.

Our results demonstrate that the combination of BMSCs and biodegradable fiber scaffolds releasing simvastatin, which acts like an osteoinductive factor,

may be an excellent strategy for bone tissue engineering applications. We here combined simvastatin-releasing materials with cell transplantation to a bone tissue engineering scaffold in an attempt to form new ectopic bone. This “cotton wool”-like configuration fiber scaffold can flexibly fit any shape of a local bone defect site. Furthermore, the present result of ectopic bone formation *in vivo* shows that this strategy has potential for application to large bone defects under severe conditions. Although its clinical utility for large bone defects is limited by its relatively poor mechanical properties, these can be improved by combination with other materials.

In summary, our data suggest that sustained simvastatin release from biodegradable nano-microfiber scaffolds promotes osteogenic differentiation of BMSCs and enhances new bone formation *in vivo*.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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## 進行口腔癌に対する逆行性超選択的動注化学放射線療法

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### 要旨

進行口腔癌に対する逆行性超選択的動注化学療法は放射線療法との連日同時併用が可能となることから高い抗腫瘍効果が得られる。今回われわれは進行口腔癌に対して根治的逆行性超選択的動注化学放射線療法を施行し、治療効果、累積生存率、局所制御率について検討したので報告する。

2003年1月から2009年12月に受診した口腔・顎顔面悪性腫瘍688例中、根治的逆行性超選択的動注化学放射線療法を施行した175症例を対象とした。治療は逆行性超選択的動注化学放射線療法 (docetaxel, total 60mg/m<sup>2</sup>, cisplatin, total 125-150mg/m<sup>2</sup>, total 50-60Gy) を5~6週間行った。治療4週後に画像検索および原発の生検にて腫瘍残存の有無の確認を行ったところ、175例中160例(91.4%)がCR、腫瘍残存は15例(8.6%)に認めた。CRであった160例についてはその後の経過観察中に14例(8.0%)の再発を認めた。5年累積生存率および局所制御率はそれぞれ71.6%と82.2%であった。

キーワード：進行口腔癌，逆行性超選択的動注法，化学放射線療法，累積生存率，局所制御率

Chemoradiotherapy using retrograde superselective intra-arterial infusion for advanced oral cancer:

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### Summary

Concurrent chemoradiotherapy using retrograde superselective intra-arterial infusion demonstrates good local control and overall survival rates due to the advantage of simultaneous infusion of anticancer agent with the synergistic effects of chemotherapy and radiotherapy. This study evaluated the therapeutic results, overall survival and local control rates in patients with advanced oral cancer treated with definitive concurrent chemoradiotherapy using retrograde superselective intra-arterial infusion.

A total of 688 patients with carcinoma of the head and neck were referred to our institution between January 2001 and December 2006. Among them, 175 patients with carcinoma of the oral cavity underwent definitive concurrent chemoradiotherapy using retrograde superselective intra-arterial infusion. Treatment consisted of superselective intra-arterial infusions (docetaxel, total 60 mg/m<sup>2</sup>, cisplatin, total 125-150 mg/m<sup>2</sup>) and daily concurrent radiotherapy (total 50-60 Gy) for 5-6 weeks. Four weeks after the completion of all treatments, patients underwent biopsy of the primary lesion and radiological examinations. Complete response (CR) of the primary site was achieved in 160 (91.4%) of the 175 patients. Residual disease at the primary site was seen in 15 patients (8.6%), and 14 patients (8.0%) showed local recurrence during follow-up. Five-year survival and local control rates were 71.6% and 82.2%, respectively.

Key words : Advanced oral cancer, Retrograde superselective intra-arterial infusion, Chemoradiotherapy, Overall survival rate, Local control rate

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横浜市立大学大学院医学研究科顎顔面口腔機能制御学

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はじめに

頭頸部癌に対する超選択的動注法は大腿動脈經由の Seldinger 法 (以下 Seldinger 法)<sup>1-3)</sup>と浅側頭動脈、後頭動脈よりの逆行性超選択的動注法<sup>4-6)</sup>に分類される。逆行性超選択的動注法は放射線療法との連日同時併用が可能となることから高い抗腫瘍効果が得られ、これまでにわれわれは進行口腔癌に対し術前治療として逆行性超選択的動注化学療法、連日同時放射線併用療法 (以下、動注 CCRT) を施行し、良好な治療成績につき報告した<sup>7)</sup>。さらに現在では臓器、機能温存を目的とした原発部位の手術回避も可能となっている<sup>8)</sup>。今回われわれは根治的動注 CCRT を施行した進行口腔癌における治療効果、累積生存率、局所制御率、有害事象について検討したので報告する。

対象と方法

2003 年 1 月から 2009 年 12 月の 6 年間に横浜市立大学附属病院歯科口腔外科、名古屋大学医学部附属病院歯科口腔外科を受診した口腔・顎顔面悪性腫瘍 688 例中、根治的動注 CCRT を施行し治療が完遂できた 175 症例を対象とした。年齢は 28 歳から 91 歳、性別は男性 106 例 (60.6%)、女性 69 例 (39.4%)、原発部位は舌 67 例 (38.2%)、上顎歯肉 34 例 (19.4%)、下顎歯肉 30 例 (17.1%)、頬粘膜 18 例 (10.3%)、口底 15 例 (8.6%)、硬口蓋 4 例 (2.3%)、口唇 2 例 (1.1%)、その他 5 例であった (表 1)。治療開始時には 175 例すべてに遠隔転移は認めなかった。Stage 分類は stage II : 40 例 (22.9%)、stage III : 41 例 (23.4%) stage IV : 94 例 (53.7%) と stage IV が半数以上であった (表 2)。

治療前に 3 dimensional CT angiography (3D-CTA) を用いて腫瘍の栄養動脈および栄養動脈の解剖学的検索を行った。浅側頭動脈よりの超選択的動注カテーテル留置術は Fuwa ら<sup>4,9)</sup>、Tohnai ら<sup>5,10)</sup>の方法に従って行い、2007 年以降は複数の栄養動脈を有する進行口腔癌に対しては浅側頭動脈および後頭動脈よりの同時カテーテル留置術を行った<sup>6)</sup>。カテーテル留置後は angio-CT, digital subtraction angiography (DSA) の撮影を行い、腫瘍への血流を確認した。また週に 1 回、インジゴカルミンを用いて腫瘍への血流を確認した。抗癌剤は docetaxel (DOC) を 10mg/m<sup>2</sup>/week, cisplatin (CDDP) を 5 mg/m<sup>2</sup>/day とし、動注カテーテルを 2 本留置している場合には抗癌剤を半量ずつとした。治療スケジュールは DOC と CDDP の 2 剤を投与する場合は各抗癌剤を 1 時間ずつ計 2 時間にて投与し、その間に放射線治療を行い、CDDP 1 剤を投与する場合は CDDP を 1 時間で投与し、同様にその間に放射線治療を行った。根治的動注 CCRT (DOC : 60mg/m<sup>2</sup>, CDDP : 125-150mg/m<sup>2</sup>, 50-60Gy) を 5~6 週間施行し、治療終了 4 週間後に画像検索および原発部位の生検を行い、治療効果判定を行った。頸部リンパ節転移を認める症例に対しては原則として頸部郭清術を行った (図 1)。

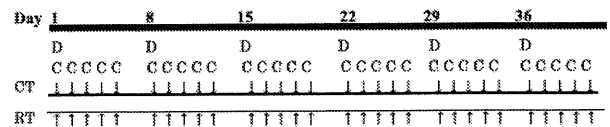
治療中および治療終了 4 週間後までの有害事象 (粘膜炎、

表 1 根治的動注 CCRT を施行した口腔癌 175 症例の原発部位

原発部位	症例数	%
舌	67	38.2
上顎歯肉	30	19.4
下顎歯肉	30	17.1
頬粘膜	18	10.3
口底	15	8.6
硬口蓋	4	2.3
口唇	2	1.1
その他	5	2.9

表 2 根治的動注 CCRT を施行した口腔癌 175 症例の Stage 分類

Stage	症例数	%
Stage II	40	22.9
Stage III	41	23.4
Stage IV	94	53.7



CT : Chemotherapy using intra-arterial infusion  
 D : Docetaxel 10mg/m<sup>2</sup>/week: bolus infusion (Total 60mg/m<sup>2</sup>)  
 C : Cisplatin 5 mg/m<sup>2</sup>/day: bolus infusion (Total 125-150mg/m<sup>2</sup>)  
 RT : Radiotherapy 2 Gy/day (Total: 60Gy)

(頸部リンパ節転移症例 → 頸部郭清術)

図 1 根治的動注 CCRT の治療スケジュール

皮膚炎、好中球減少、血小板減少、貧血、クレアチニン、発熱) を National Cancer Institute-Common Terminology Criteria for Adverse Events v3.0. (CTCAE v3.0) 日本語訳 JCOG/JSCO 版に従って検討した。

結 果

根治的動注 CCRT を施行した 175 症例中 160 例 (91.4%) が CR, 15 例 (8.6%) に腫瘍残存を認めた。CR であった 160 例についてはその後の経過観察中、14 例 (8.0%) に原発の再発を認めた。175 症例中 133 例は生存、45 例は死亡した。死亡原因は遠隔転移 26 例、原発、頸部の非制御 11 例、他病死 8 例であった。3 年、5 年累積生存率はそれぞれ 75.9%、71.6%、3 年、5 年局所制御率はともに 82.2% であった (図 2)。

治療中および治療終了 4 週間後までの有害事象を表 3 に示す。Grade 3, 4 の重篤な有害事象は粘膜炎 148 例 (84.6%)、皮膚炎 35 例 (20.0%)、好中球減少症 33 例 (18.9%)、血小板減少症 7 例 (4.0%)、貧血 29 例 (16.6%)、

発熱13例(7.4%)，嘔吐21例(12.0%)であった。有害事象による死亡例はなかった。

考 察

頭頸部癌に対し臓器温存のために化学放射線療法を選択することが多くなっており，プラチナ製剤，フッ化ピリミジン系の代謝拮抗剤，タキサン系抗癌剤などの多剤を用いた同時化学放射線療法 (Concurrent chemoradiotherapy) のトライアルも報告された<sup>11-13)</sup>。当科では stage I, II 口腔癌に対しては通常原発巣の切除術を原則としているが，late T2 症例，手術拒否症例に対しては動注 CCRT を適応することもある。局所進行口腔癌であっても根治的動注 CCRT を施行することによって高い局所制御率を示し，機能温存が可能となった<sup>8)</sup>。表4に頭頸部癌，口腔癌に対する超選択的動注化学放射線療法の生存率，局所制御率，局所・所属リンパ節制御率を示す。Robbinsら<sup>14)</sup>は stage IV の頭頸部癌 61 症例，Hommaら<sup>3)</sup>は頭頸部癌 43 症例，Kobayashiら<sup>15)</sup>は口腔癌 22 症例に対し，Seldinger 法による動注化学放射線療法を行ったところ，3年生存率はそれ

ぞれ56.2%，54.0%，78.5%であった。また，3年局所・所属リンパ節制御率は57.2%<sup>14)</sup>，68.9%<sup>3)</sup>であった。われわれが stage II, III, IV の口腔癌に対して根治的動注 CCRT を施行した175 症例の3年累積生存率，局所制御率はそれぞれ75.9%，82.2%と良好な結果であった。

われわれが根治的動注 CCRT を施行したところ，grade 3, 4 の粘膜炎は84.6%に認めたが，皮膚炎，血液毒性，腎機能障害，嘔吐については20%以下であった。表5にこれまでに報告されている頭頸部癌，口腔癌症例に対する根治的動注化学放射線療法を行った際の有害事象を示す。Robbinsら<sup>14)</sup>は stage IV の頭頸部癌症例に対して RAD-PLAT を用いて治療を行ったところ grade 3, 4 の粘膜炎を58%に認め，grade 3, 4 の血液毒性を49%，grade 5 を2%に認めた。Hommaら<sup>3)</sup>は stage III, IV の頭頸部癌に対して同様に RADPLAT を用いて治療を行ったところ grade 3, 4 の粘膜炎を37.2%に認め，grade 3, 4 の好中球減少症，血小板減少症，貧血はそれぞれ27.9%，2.3%，4.7%であった。Kobayashiら<sup>15)</sup>は22 症例の進行口腔癌に対し，nedaplatin と DOC による Seldinger 法による動注

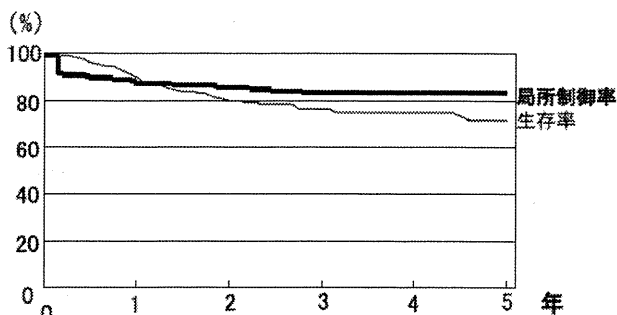


図2 根治的動注 CCRT を施行した口腔癌 175 症例の累積生存率 (細線) と局所制御率 (太線)

表3 根治的動注 CCRT を施行した口腔癌 175 症例の有害事象

	Grade			3, 4 (%)
	0-2	3	4	
粘膜炎	27	86	62	148 (84.6)
皮膚炎	140	30	5	35 (20.0)
好中球減少	142	31	2	33 (18.9)
血小板減少	168	6	1	7 (4.0)
貧血	146	26	3	29 (16.6)
腎機能障害	175	0	0	0
発熱	162	13	0	13 (7.4)
嘔吐	154	21	0	21 (12.0)

表4 超選択的動注化学放射線療法後の生存率，局所制御率の報告

	部位 (症例数)	生存率 (%)		局所制御率 (%)	
		3年	5年	3年	5年
Robbins et al. <sup>14)</sup>	頭頸部 (61)	56.2		57.2*	
Homma et al. <sup>3)</sup>	頭頸部 (43)	54.0		68.9*	
Kobayashi et al. <sup>15)</sup>	口腔 (22)	78.5	78.5		
本報告	口腔 (175)	75.9	71.6	82.2	82.2

\*局所・所属リンパ節制御率 (%)

表5 超選択的動注化学放射線療法による有害事象の報告

Grade 3-5 (%)	粘膜炎	皮膚炎	好中球減少	血小板減少	貧血	腎機能障害	発熱	嘔吐
Robbins et al. <sup>14)</sup>	58	-	-	-	-	-	12	-
Homma et al. <sup>3)</sup>	37.2	7.0	27.9	2.3	4.7	0	-	18.6
Kobayashi et al. <sup>15)</sup>	68.2	-	86.4	4.5	1.8	-	-	0
本報告	84.6	20.0	18.9	4.0	16.6	0	7.4	12.0

化学放射線療法を行ったところ、grade 3, 4の粘膜炎を68.2%認めた。Grade 3, 4の好中球減少症、血小板減少症、貧血はそれぞれ86.4%, 4.5%, 18.2%であった。これらはすべてSeldinger法でRobbinsら、Hommaらは毎週の抗癌剤の投与、Kobayashiらは4週毎の抗癌剤投与であった。われわれはgrade 3, 4の粘膜炎を多く認めたが、これは連日の抗癌剤の動注を行っていることおよびDOCの動注を行っていることが影響していると思われた。粘膜炎に伴う嚥下障害も認めたが、治療終了後3か月以内にはすべての症例で経口摂取が可能となっている。

#### まとめ

今回われわれは進行口腔癌に対して根治的な逆行性超選択的動注化学放射線療法を施行し、治療効果、累積生存率、局所制御率について検討したところ、治療終了後の評価として91.4%にCRが得られ、5年累積生存率および局所制御率はそれぞれ71.6%と82.2%と良好な結果であった。今後さらに症例を増やし、根治的動注CCRT後の腫瘍残存、再発症例の検証を行い、治療成績の向上、予後の改善を目指していく予定である。

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