factors is useful for the clinical assessment of atherosclerosis and probably in the prevention and control of atherosclerotic disease. We also need to pay attention to high-risk individuals without abdominal obesity, but with high blood pressure, high glucose or dyslipidemia.

Conflict of Interest Statement

None declared.

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Appendix 1

The following individuals were Defining Vascular Disease (DVD) Research Group Members: A Kitamura, H Daida, T Shoji, T Mannami, T Murohara, K Kukiyama, M Masutani, K Kitagawa, T Hiro, A Kawaguchi, M Kuroki, M Kinoshita, S Ishibashi, M Eto, H Kotake, T Hayashi, K Shimada, Y Kumon, T Miura, H Bujo, E Nomura, T Gotohda, N Yoshioka, Y Ishigaki, S Koba, K Hirata, M Akishita, H Ogawa, S Sugiyama, K Ishiwata, K Kozaki, Y Sato, K Shirai, M Yoshida, T Hirano, K Mizuno, K Node.

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RESEARCH Open Access

Safety and pharmacokinetics of recombinant human hepatocyte growth factor (rh-HGF) in patients with fulminant hepatitis: a phase I/II clinical trial, following preclinical studies to ensure safety

Akio Ido[1,2*], Akihiro Moriuchi[1,2], Masatsugu Numata[1,2], Toshinori Murayama[3], Satoshi Teramukai[4], Hiroyuki Marusawa[5], Naohisa Yamaji[1,2], Hitoshi Setoyama[1,2], Il-Deok Kim[1], Tsutomu Chiba[5], Shuji Higuchi[6], Masayuki Yokode[3], Masanori Fukushima[4], Akira Shimizu[7] and Hirohito Tsubouchi[1,2]

Abstract

Background: Hepatocyte growth factor (HGF) stimulates hepatocyte proliferation, and also acts as an anti-apoptotic factor. Therefore, HGF is a potential therapeutic agent for treatment of fatal liver diseases. We performed a translational medicine protocol with recombinant human HGF (rh-HGF), including a phase I/II study of patients with fulminant hepatitis (FH) or late-onset hepatic failure (LOHF), in order to examine the safety, pharmacokinetics, and clinical efficacy of this molecule.

Methods: Potential adverse effects identified through preclinical safety tests with rh-HGF include a decrease in blood pressure (BP) and an increase in urinary excretion of albumin. Therefore, we further investigated the effect of rh-HGF on circulatory status and renal toxicity in preclinical animal studies. In a clinical trial, 20 patients with FH or LOHF were evaluated for participation in this clinical trial, and four patients were enrolled. Subjects received rh-HGF (0.6 mg/m^2/day) intravenously for 12 to 14 days.

Results: We established an infusion method to avoid rapid BP reduction in miniature swine, and confirmed reversibility of renal toxicity in rats. Although administration of rh-HGF moderately decreased BP in the participating subjects, this BP reduction did not require cessation of rh-HGF or any vasopressor therapy; BP returned to resting levels after the completion of rh-HGF infusion. Repeated doses of rh-HGF did not induce renal toxicity, and severe adverse events were not observed. Two patients survived, however, there was no evidence that rh-HGF was effective for the treatment of FH or LOHF.

Conclusions: Intravenous rh-HGF at a dose of 0.6 mg/m^2 was well tolerated in patients with FH or LOHF; therefore, it is desirable to conduct further investigations to determine the efficacy of rh-HGF at an increased dose.

Background

Acute liver failure (ALF) is a rare but fatal clinical syndrome marked by the abrupt loss of hepatic cellular function, with the subsequent development of coagulopathy, jaundice and encephalopathy [1-3]. In Japan, ALF with the histological appearance of hepatitis, caused by viral infection, autoimmune hepatitis and drug allergy-induced liver injury, is classified as fulminant hepatitis (FH) or as the related disease late-onset hepatic failure (LOHF) [4]. FH is identified as hepatitis in which hepatic encephalopathy develops within 8 weeks after the onset of disease symptoms, with prothrombin time (PT) less than 40% of the standardized values. Also, FH is further classified into two subtypes: acute (FHA) and subacute type (FHSA) in which the encephalopathy occurs, respectively, within 10 days or after 11 days or more. Patients in whom the

* Correspondence: ido-akio@m2.kufm.kagoshima-u.ac.jp
[1]HGF Hepatic Regeneration Therapy Project, Department of Experimental Therapeutics, Translational Research Center, Kyoto University Hospital, Kyoto, Japan
Full list of author information is available at the end of the article

encephalopathy develops between 8 and 24 weeks after disease onset with PT less than 40% are diagnosed as having LOHF. This distinction is useful in guiding prognosis: the time to onset of encephalopathy is negatively correlated with outcome. The only effective therapy for FH is liver transplantation. Other therapies, including corticosteroids, have no demonstrable benefit [5], lamivudine for acute hepatitis B [6], and plasmapheresis [7]. Therefore, patients with FH who did not receive liver transplantation had extremely poor prognoses: the survival rates were 53.7% in FHA and 24.4% in FHSA, and 11.5% in LOHF in Japan [4].

Hepatocyte growth factor (HGF) was first purified as a potent mitogen for hepatocytes from the plasma of patients with FH [8,9]. HGF is one of the primary agents promoting the proliferation of mature hepatocytes [10-12]. The stimulatory effect of HGF on liver regeneration has been observed *in vivo* using normal and partially hepatectomized rats [11]. Additionally, HGF stimulates proliferation of hepatic progenitor cells, which appear following hepatic injury [13]. Furthermore, recent investigations using mice deficient in c-met, a specific receptor for HGF, demonstrated that the HGF/c-met signaling pathway is essential for efficient liver regeneration and repair [14,15]. Conversely, HGF exerts protective and anti-apoptotic functions toward hepatocytes *in vitro* [16-18] and *in vivo* [19-21], and is able to prevent Fas (CD95/APO-1)-triggered death of adult hepatocytes, leading to rescue from Fas-induced fulminant hepatic failure [20]. These results indicate that HGF has the potential to be a new therapeutic agent for ALF through its mitogenic and anti-apoptotic activities.

We have worked to develop translational medicine protocols for recombinant human HGF (rh-HGF), and have performed an investigator-initiated International Conference on Harmonization of Technical Requirements for Registration of Pharmaceuticals for Human Use (ICH)-Good Clinical Practice (GCP)-registered phase I/II clinical trial of rh-HGF. As this application is the first clinical trial to administer rh-HGF to humans, we performed additional preclinical studies to ensure minimization of the predicted side effects, and then treated four patients with repeated doses of rh-HGF in order to evaluate the safety, pharmacokinetics and clinical efficacy of FH therapy.

Methods

Animal experiments to ensure safety of rh-HGF administration

Animals

Female Crown miniature swine, six to seven months of age, and male Wistar rats, seven weeks of age, were obtained from Japan Farm (Kagoshima, Japan) and Charles River Laboratories Japan Inc. (Yokohama, Japan), respectively. The animals were maintained under constant room temperature (25°C), and given free access to water and the indicated diet throughout the study. The protocol for animal studies was approved by the ethics committee of the Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto University (Kyoto, Japan). All animal experiments were performed after one to three weeks acclimation on a standard diet.

General pharmacological test

After Female Crown miniature swine were anesthetized by inhalation of sevoflurane, nitric dioxide and oxygen, catheters were inserted into one internal jugular vein (for injection of rh-HGF) and to one common carotid artery (to measure BP). One mg/kg of rh-HGF was injected through the internal jugular vein over the course of 20 min. HR was recorded by electrocardiographic monitoring, and cardiac function was measured via echocardiography. To evaluate the effect of stepwise infusion of rh-HGF on BP, 0.4 mg/kg of rh-HGF was injected over the course of three hours, with a stepwise increase in dose rate (10% of the total dose over the first 60 min, 30% over the next 60 min, and 60% over the last 60 min) through the catheter inserted into an internal jugular vein.

Evaluation of renal toxicity of repeat dose of rh-HGF

rh-HGF (0.4, 1.0 and 4.0 mg/kg) was administered to rats intravenously in a bolus for 14 days, followed by observation for 2 weeks. Urinary excretion of albumin and protein were measured periodically during and after rh-HGF administration. Animals were sacrificed at the ends of rh-HGF administration (day 14) and the observation period (day 28) to evaluate renal involvement, including serum creatinine and histological findings.

A phase I/II clinical trial for patients with acute liver failure

Overview

This single-arm, open-labeled, and dose-escalation study was conducted at Kyoto University Hospital, Kyoto, Japan. Study protocols were reviewed and approved by the Investigational Review Board and Ethics Committee governing Kyoto University Hospital before the commencement of patient enrollment. Studies were performed in accordance with principles of GCP, and conformed to ethical guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki. All participating patients, or (when participants were not able to subscribe because of hepatic encephalopathy) their legal representatives provided written informed consent before being enrolled into the study.

Selection of patients

Consenting patients were prospectively screened from September 2005 to June 2008. Eligible patients with FHSA or LOHF, who were not able to receive liver transplantation, met at least one of the following four

parameters: (1) aged 45-year-old or above, (1) PT 10% or less of the standardized values, (3) total bilirubin (T-Bil) level of 18.0 mg/dL or more, or (4) direct/total bilirubin ratio less than 0.67. The following patients were not eligible: those under 16 years old; those treated with glucagon and insulin, or prostaglandin E1 48 hours before registration; those with presence or past-history of malignant tumors; those with heart failure; those with severe complication including pneumonia, sepsis, disseminated intravascular coagulation syndrome or gastrointestinal bleeding; and those with allergic reaction against rh-HGF. Pregnancy-aged women were also ineligible, because toxicity of rh-HGF to reproductive development in female animals has not been examined. Additionally, patients were also excluded on the grounds of renal involvement, including urinary excretion of ≥1 mg/mL protein, deformed red blood cells or RBC casts in sedimentary urine, a serum creatinine level of 2.0 mg/dL or more, or urine volume less than 400 mL/day.

Protocol therapy and observation after rh-HGF dosing period

rh-HGF was prepared as a GMP-grade material. The initial dose of rh-HGF was fixed at 0.6 mg/m^2/day, which ensured not only safety but also clinical efficacy, as determined by several preclinical animal studies. In this dose escalation study, dose of rh-HGF can be increased from the initial dose (0.6 mg/m^2) to 1.2, 1.8 or 2.4 mg/m^2. rh-HGF was administered intravenously with a stepwise increase during 3 hours for up to 14 days, followed by a 14-day observation period. All patients were followed in order to determine the outcomes after the study period (up to 28 days).

End points

The primary endpoint of interest was the safety of repeated doses of intravenous rh-HGF, which was evaluated on the basis of the occurrence, frequency, and severity of adverse events. All patients were treated in an intensive care unit. During the on-study period, patients were monitored for safety at regular intervals from the start of rh-HGF administration until 14 days after completion of study drug dosing. Safety assessments included physical examination, clinical laboratory test and adverse events. Adverse events were monitored throughout the duration of the study, and evaluated in terms of adverse events graded according to the Common Toxicity Criteria grading system. Causal association of adverse events with rh-HGF was determined by clinician's best judgment. All adverse events were treated appropriately regardless of the cause; where necessary, patients were withdrawn from the study. The incidence of adverse events was computed from the number of patients experiencing at least one adverse event from among those who received at least a single dose of rh-HGF.

The secondary endpoints were the pharmacokinetics of intravenously injected rh-HGF and clinical efficacy, including survival period and outcome. To examine pharmacokinetics of rh-HGF, blood samples were collected for analysis of rh-HGF at multiple time points on days 1, 3, 5, 8, and 11 for assessment. Serum concentrations of HGF were determined by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) (Otsuka Co., Ltd., Tokushima, Japan) [22]. Laboratory data, including PT-international normalized ratio (PT-INR), T-Bil, serum albumin, alanine aminotransferase (ALT), and α-fetoprotein (AFP), were examined before plasma exchange or rh-HGF administration.

Statistical analysis

To evaluate survival benefits by administration of rh-HGF, the stratified proportional hazards model was used for analyzing matched datasets. All statistical analyses were done using SAS version 9.1 (SAS Institute, Inc., Cary, NC).

Results

Establishment of rh-HGF dosing method to respond to a decrease in blood pressure in miniature swine

In general pharmacological tests, intravenous rh-HGF (1.0 or 0.2 mg/kg) caused a rapid decrease in systolic blood pressure (BP) in miniature swine, whereas respiratory status was not affected (data not shown). Therefore, before starting the clinical trial, we further investigated the effect of rh-HGF on circulatory status in miniature swine under general anesthesia. When a total dose of rh-HGF of 1.0 mg/kg was administered over the course of 20 min, a decrease in systolic BP occurred promptly, and continued throughout rh-HGF administration (Figure 1A). Although heart rate (HR) gradually decreased, no electrocardiographic abnormalities, including arrhythmia and ischemic changes, were observed throughout the experimental period. Additionally, cardiac ultrasonography showed a decrease in left ventricular end-diastolic volume (LVEDV) as well as ejection fraction (EF), in parallel with a decrease in BP, but no abnormalities of left ventricular movement (Figure 1A). These results indicate that intravenous injection of rh-HGF reduced BP through dilatation of capacitance vessels.

Next, we tried to develop a method for rh-HGF administration that would avoid rapid BP reduction. We finally established a stepwise infusion method in which rh-HGF was administered with a stepwise increase over the course of three hours (10% dose for 60 min, 30% for next 60 min, and 60% for the last 60 min) (Figure 1B). We found that appropriate infusion effectively prevented the decrease in BP caused by intravenous rh-HGF administration (Figure 1C). The preventive effect of additional infusion also supports the idea that dilatation

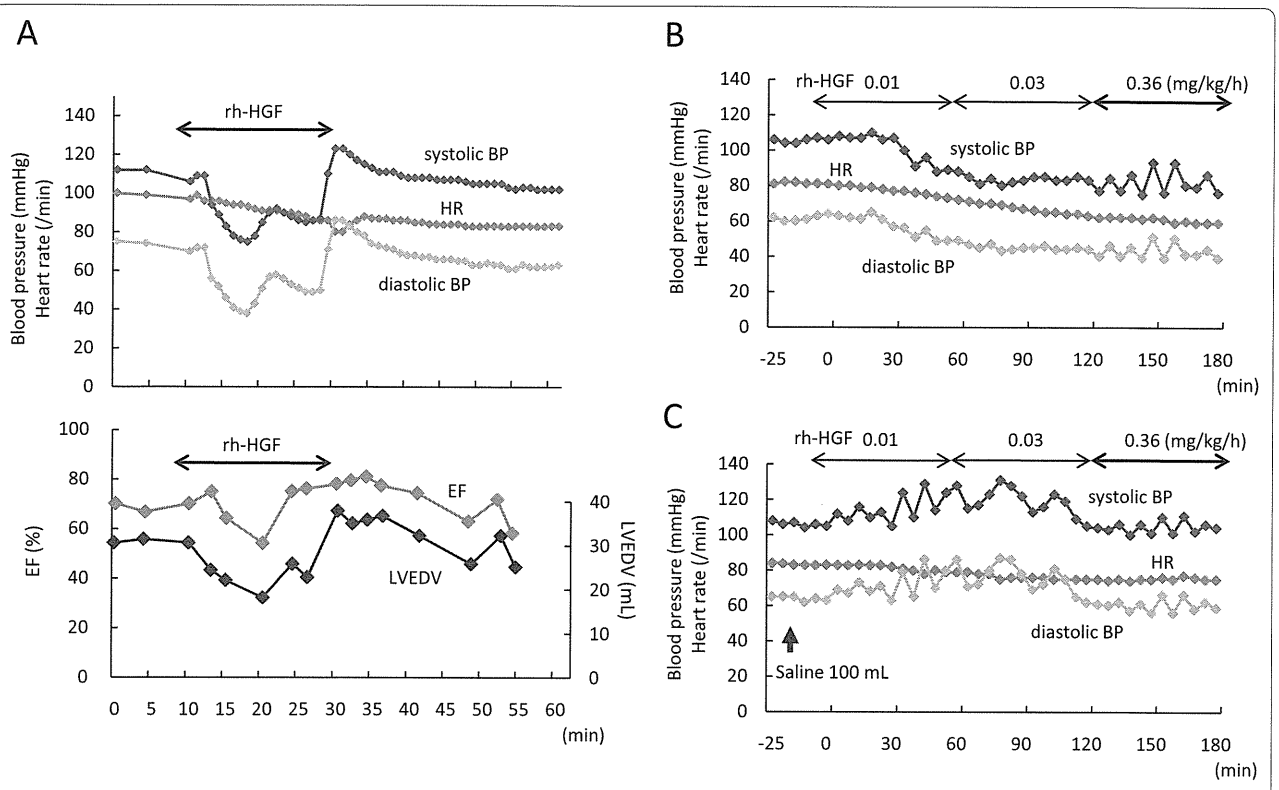

Figure 1 Intravenous injection of rh-HGF reduced blood pressure through capacitance vessels in miniature swine. Effect of intravenously administered rh-HGF on BP, HR, and cardiac function was examined in miniature swine under general anesthesia. (A) Intravenous injection of rh-HGF (1.0 mg/kg) rapidly reduced systolic and diastolic BP. Reduced BP was persistent during rh-HGF administration (for 20 min), and was immediately recovered after the rh-HGF injection. Echocardiography showed that ejection fraction (EF) and left ventricular end-diastolic volume (LVEDV) were reduced during rh-HGF administration. (B) rh-HGF (0.4 mg/kg) administered for three hours with a stepwise increase (0.01 mg/kg for first 60 min, 0.03 mg/kg for the next 60 min, and 0.36 mg/kg for the last 60 min) gradually decreased BP and HR. (C) Infusion of 100 mL of saline prior to rh-HGF administration prevented a decrease in BP during exposure to rh-HGF.

of capacitance vessels is a cause of HGF-induced BP reduction.

Evaluation of renal toxicity induced by repeated dose of rh-HGF in rats

Repeated dose toxicity tests using rats or cynomolgus monkeys identified an increase in urinary excretion of albumin and protein as a potential adverse event in a clinical trial. Therefore, we further examined whether renal toxicity induced by repeated rh-HGF dosing for 14 days was reversible. We intravenously administered 0.4, 1.0, and 4.0 mg/kg/day of rh-HGF to rats for 14 days, followed by a 14-day observation. Urinary excretion of albumin increased in rats treated with rh-HGF from day 4 in a dose dependent manner (Figure 2). In animals treated with 0.4 or 1.0 mg/kg/day of rh-HGF, excretion of urinary albumin preceded an increase in proteinuria (Figure 2A and 2B). Conversely, neither serum creatinine nor BUN were affected throughout the experimental period, and increased urinary excretion of albumin gradually decreased after the completion of rh-HGF dosing during the 14-day observation period. In histological analysis, mesangial expansion, hyaline droplet deposition in glomeruli and tubules, and renal hypertrophy were observed after repeated doses of rh-HGF for 14 days; however, these histological findings were in the slight-to-mild range, and still identified as reversible changes (data not shown). In a clinical trial, the clinical dose of rh-HGF, 0.6 mg/m^2, corresponds to 0.1 mg/kg in rodents. Therefore, renal toxicity, induced by repeated rh-HGF dosing for 14 days, would be predicted to be reversible; furthermore, excretion of urinary albumin is a useful way to monitor renal toxicity.

Patient characteristics

Between September 2005 and June 2008, 20 patients with FHSA or LOHF were evaluated for participation in the clinical trial of rh-HGF. Sixteen patients were excluded because they met one or more of the exclusion criteria. Consequently, four patients were enrolled; despite a dose-escalation study, only the initial dose of rh-HGF (0.6 mg/m^2) was administered. Among the

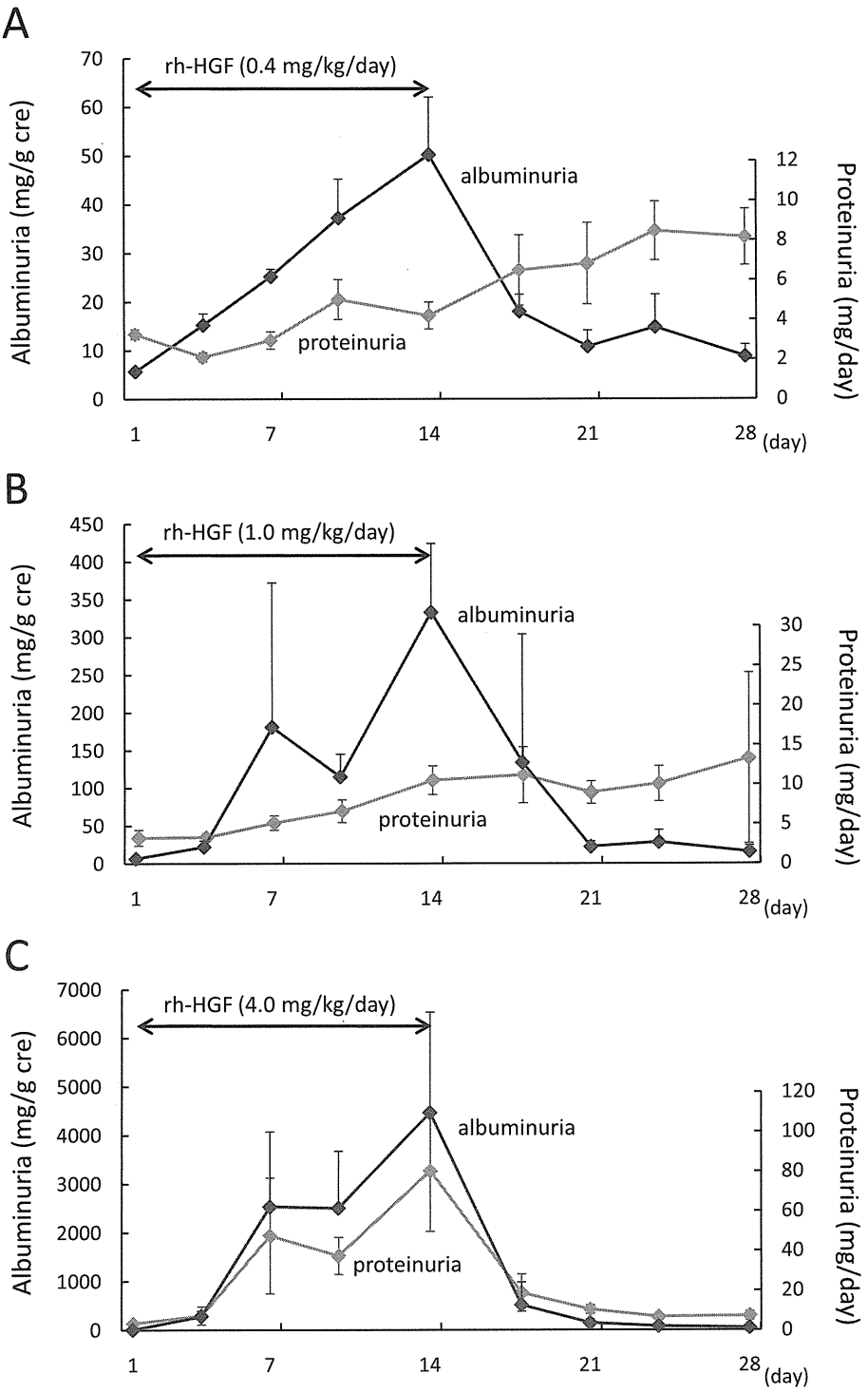

Figure 2 Repeated dose of rh-HGF induced an increase in urinary excretion of albumin and protein in rats. Rats were administered rh-HGF, 0.4 (A), 1.0 (B), and 4.0 mg/kg/day (C) (n = 4 for each), intravenously for 14 days, and urinary excretion of albumin and protein was measured before (day 1), during (days 7 and 14), and 7 and 14 days after HGF administration. Repeated doses of rh-HGF induced an increase in urinary albumin excretion in dose dependent manner. Urinary excretion of albumin was reversible even when dosing 4.0 mg/kg/day of rh-HGF (C), and preceded an increase in proteinuira in rats treated with 0.4 and 1.0 mg/kg of rh-HGF (A and B, respectively).

participating subjects, the age was between 40 and 71, and two were male (Table 1). Patients 1, 2 and 4 were diagnosed as having FHSA, and patient 3 as having LOHF. These four patients were not able to receive liver transplantation, because patients 1, 3, and 4 lacked appropriate donors, and patient 2 was over 70 years old. FHSA in patients 1 and 4 was caused by HEV and a supplement containing coenzyme Q-10, respectively, whereas the cause of hepatic failure in patients 2 and 3 was undetermined. Two patients with FHSA (patients 1 and 2) and one with LOHF (patient 3) exhibited hepatic encephalopathy at grade II and V, respectively, whereas the consciousness level of patient 4 with FHSA was not impaired at the time of enrollment. In all patients, markedly prolonged PT and an increase in T-Bil and serum HGF were observed. Patient 2, with FHSA, and patient 3, with LOHF, exhibited reduced liver volume as determined by CT volumetry at enrollment. Treatment with rh-HGF was started between five and seven days after appearance of hepatic encephalopathy. rh-HGF (0.6 mg/m^2/day) was intravenously administered for 14 days in patients 2 and 4. Patients 1 and 3 required cessation of rh-HGF on days 14 and 13, respectively, because of increased serum creatinine (2.1 mg/dL) and oliguria, respectively. Both of these symptoms were determined to accompany hepatic failure, but not rh-HGF dosing. Thus, these patients were subject to a total of 13- and 12-day HGF administration regimens, respectively. Plasma exchange was performed in all patients. Three patients, except for patient 1 with FHSA caused by HEV, were treated with corticosteroid (Additional file 1, Additional file 2, Additional file 3, Additional file 4). Finally, two of the patients with FHSA (2 and 4) survived, whereas the other two patients died. Patient 1, who had FHSA, died after the study period; patient 3, who had LOHF, died during the study period (Table 1).

Pharmacokinetics of stepwise infusion of rh-HGF for three hours

In patients 1, 2, and 3, rh-HGF was administered after plasma exchange. Serum levels of HGF increased in parallel with a stepwise increase of rh-HGF dosing, and reached maximum drug concentration (Cmax) at the end of a three-hour rh-HGF injection (Figure 3). Cmax gradually increased from 18.8 ± 6.0 ng/mL on day 1 to 22.3 ± 9.6 ng/mL on day 11 during the HGF dosing period (Table 2). The mean value of half-life ($T_{1/2}$) was approximately 630 to 840 min. The area under the blood concentration-time curve (AUC) gradually increased, and the clearance (CL) and steady-state volume of distribution (Vdss) appeared to gradually decrease, during the HGF dosing period.

Intravenous rh-HGF was well tolerated in all patients with FH or LOHF

Preclinical safety studies revealed that a decrease in BP during rh-HGF infusion and renal toxicity induced by repeated rh-HGF dosing, including an increase in urinary excretion of albumin, were potential adverse events in a human study. In the phase I/II study of patients

Table 1 Patient characteristics

Patient No.	1	2	3	4
Age/Gender	67/M	71/F	64/F	40/M
Diagnosis/Etiology	FHSA/HEV	FHSA/unknown	LOHF/unknown	FHSA/drug
Reason for not receiving LT	donor[1]	age[2]	donor[1]	donor[1]
Before rh-HGF administration				
Grade of HE	II	II	V	0
Prothrombin time INR (%)	2.07 (33)	1.55 (49)	1.78 (37)	1.62 (43)
Albumin (g/dL)	2.9	3.2	2.9	2.9
T-Bil (mg/dL)	11.2	6.9	11.7	27.6
Direct/total bilirubin ratio	0.58	0.41	0.44	0.71
ALT (IU/L)	32	131	260	253
Serum HGF (ng/mL)	0.77	1.94	1.07	1.88
AFP (ng/ml)	7.0	22.9	3.9	39.7
Liver volume (mL)	1055	595	640	1110
Days between HE and rh-HGF administration (days)	7	5	5	5
Duration of rh-HGF dosing (days)	13	14	12	14
Outcome				
during the study period	alive	alive	dead	alive
during the follow-up period	dead	alive	-	alive

FHSA, fulminant hepatitis subacute type; LOHF, late onset hepatc failure; HEV, hepatitis E virus; LT, liver transplantation; HE, hepatic encephalopathy. [1]lack of an appropriate donor; [2]age 70 or over.

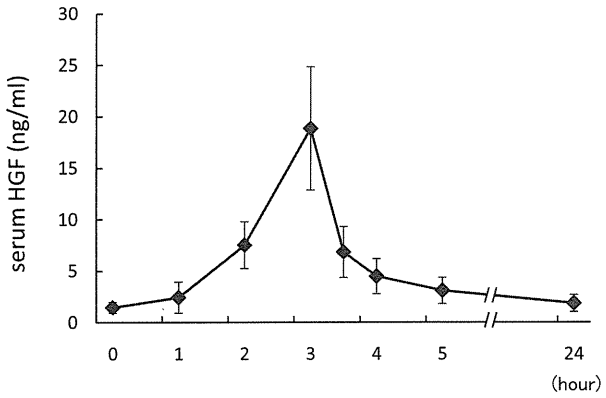

Figure 3 Sequential changes in serum HGF concentration during and after rh-HGF administration. rh-HGF (0.6 mg/m^2) was administered intravenously with a stepwise increase for three hours (0.06 mg/m^2 for 60 min, 0.18 mg/m^2 for next 60 min, and 0.36 mg/m^2 for last 60 min). Serum levels of HGF were measured by ELISA. Sequential changes in (A) serum HGF levels on day 1 of rh-HGF dosing period.

with FH or LOHF, respiratory status was not affected by rh-HGF administration in any patient, but BP was decreased mildly to moderately from approximately one hour after the beginning of HGF injection in patients 1, 2 and 3 (Figure 4). As HGF reduces BP through dilatation of capacitance vessels, the HR increased up to 30%. However, this decrease in BP did not require cessation of rh-HGF or any vasopressor therapy, and BP returned to resting levels after the completion of HGF administration. Patient 2, who awoke from hepatic encephalopathy on day 3 of the HGF dosing period, did not suffer from any symptoms during HGF administration, even though the HR increased up to ~30% (Figure 4).

Table 2 Pharmacokinetic parameters of rh-HGF

parameters	Estimate values	95% confidence interval	
Day 1			
C_{max} (ng/mL)	18.8	13.0	24.7
$AUC_{0\text{-}300}$ (ng/mL*min)	1485.6	991.3	1979.8
$AUC_{0\text{-}\infty}$ (ng/mL*min)	1994.0	1214.6	2773.3
$T_{1/2}$ (min)	756.2	526.8	985.7
CL (mL/m^2/min)	0.000361	0.000160	0.000561
V_{dss} (mL/m^2)	0.125	0.063	0.186
Day 5			
C_{max} (ng/mL)	21.3	12.8	29.9
$AUC_{0\text{-}300}$ (ng/mL*min)	1727.2	1099.7	2354.7
$AUC_{0\text{-}\infty}$ (ng/mL*min)	2493.8	1647.0	3340.5
$T_{1/2}$ (min)	843.6	540.5	1146.6
CL (mL/m^2/min)	0.000277	0.000138	0.000416
V_{dss} (mL/m^2)	0.106	0.059	0.153
Day 11			
C_{max} (ng/mL)	22.3	11.4	33.1
$AUC_{0\text{-}300}$ (ng/mL*min)	1965.5	801.6	3129.5
$AUC_{0\text{-}\infty}$ (ng/mL*min)	3126.4	1355.2	4897.5
$T_{1/2}$ (min)	633.3	318.0	948.6
CL (mL/m^2/min)	0.000230	0.000095	0.000365
V_{dss} (mL/m^2)	0.088	0.031	0.146

All patients showed slight to mild increase in urinary excretion of albumin at enrollment and a decrease in urine volume during the rh-HGF study period. However, repeated doses of rh-HGF did not increase urinary excretion of albumin, and urine volume was affected by several factors other than rh-HGF administration, including volume of infusion, amount of circulating plasma, and diuretic dosing. Although hypokalemia, anemia, a decrease in platelet count, prolonged PT, a decrease in anti-thrombin III, and hematuria were also observed in three of four patients, there was no apparent evidence for a causal relationship between these adverse events and rh-HGF administration. Patient 3, who died of advanced hepatic failure during the observation period, exhibited respiratory failure. However, this severe adverse event was associated with progression of hepatic failure, not rh-HGF; no other severe adverse events directly caused by single or repeated doses of rh-HGF were observed during the study period.

HGF administration did not show a beneficial effect on hepatic encephalopathy, laboratory data results, or patient survival

Three out of four patients exhibited hepatic encephalopathy at enrollment (Table 1). Patient 1 presented with grade II hepatic encephalopathy at the beginning of protocol therapy. This patient did not recover from hepatic encephalopathy either during or after the study period. The patient ultimately died 68 days after the onset of hepatic encephalopathy (Additional file 1). In patient 2, who had FHSA and ultimately survived, plasma exchange was performed on days 2, 4, and 8 during the HGF dosing period (Additional file 2), and hepatic encephalopathy had improved by day 3. Patient 3 showed advanced hepatic encephalopathy at enrollment. Although the consciousness level was transiently alleviated during the rh-HGF dosing period, hepatic encephalopathy continued to progress during the observation period; the patient died 28 days after the onset of hepatic encephalopathy (Additional file 3). Patient 4 had already recovered from hepatic encephalopathy at enrollment, and did not show any impairment of consciousness level during the study period (Additional file 4). Consequently, we did not observe a definite effect of rh-HGF administration on hepatic encephalopathy.

Laboratory data results, including PT-INR, T-Bil, serum albumin, and ALT, were not affected during the rh-HGF dosing and observation period (Figure 5). In

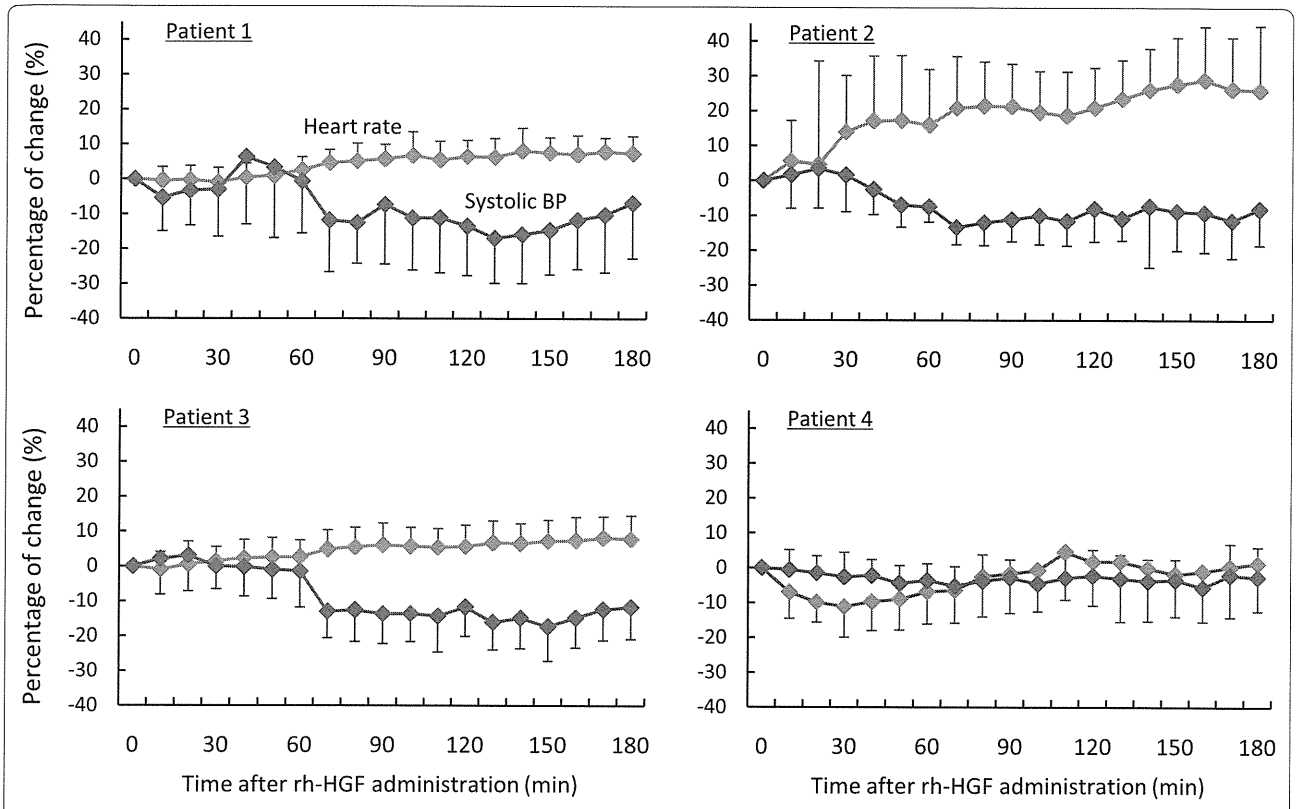

Figure 4 Blood pressure decreased during infusion of rh-HGF in patients with FH or LOHF. BP and HR were monitored during rh-HGF infusion for three hours. Intravenous rh-HGF (0.6 mg/m^2) reduced systolic BP, and increased HR in patients 1, 2 and 3. BP reduction during rh-HGF infusion did not affected patients' general condition. BP immediately recovered following the completion of rh-HGF administration.

patient 1, serum AFP, which is known to increase not only during development of hepatocellular carcinoma but also liver regeneration, modestly increased during the rh-HGF dosing period, followed by a gradual decrease during the observation period. Conversely, patients 2 and 4, who ultimately survived, exhibited an increase in serum AFP at enrollment, whereas AFP levels gradually decreased throughout the study period. However, no definite effect of rh-HGF dosing on serum AFP levels was observed.

To assess the effect of administration of rh-HGF on patient survival, we selected subjects as a control, who matched each patient in diagnosis (FHSA or LOHF), age (≥45 or <45), gender, PT (<10% or ≥10%), T-Bil (≤18.0 or >18.0 mg/dL) and direct/total bilirubin ratio (≤0.67 or >0.67), from the data of national survey of FH and LOHF in Japan between 1998 and 2006. Consequently, we set 57 control subjects for patients 1 and 2, 13 for patient 3, and 17 for patient 4, and estimated hazard ratios using the stratified proportional hazards model. The survival time from the onset of hepatic encephalopathy or disease in patients treated with rh-HGF was slightly longer than that in control subjects, but the difference was not statistically significant (Table 3).

Discussion

This clinical trial covered patients with FH, an extremely severe and fatal liver disease: subjects enrolled in this trial are predicted to die without liver transplantation. Indeed, a nationwide survey of the patients with FH or LOHF (1998-2002) in Japan revealed that the survival rate of the patients (n = 192) who met this study's inclusion criteria was 17.7% (n = 34). Additionally, FH is a relatively rare syndrome in Japan (698 patients between 1998 and 2003) [4]; patients with severe complications, especially renal dysfunction and heart failure, were excluded in order to more precisely evaluate the safety and efficacy of the proposed therapy. Therefore, we had difficulty with recruitment of trial subjects. Ultimately, we recruited only four patients to our institute, Kyoto University Hospital, for treatment with the initial dose of rh-HGF.

Predicted adverse events included a decrease in BP, by dilatation of capacitance vessels, and proteinuria. Therefore, we established a stepwise infusion method to avoid a rapid reduction of BP, and confirmed reversibility of renal toxicity through additional preclinical studies. In this clinical trial, rh-HGF was administered intravenously for 12 to 14 days, and severe side effects and

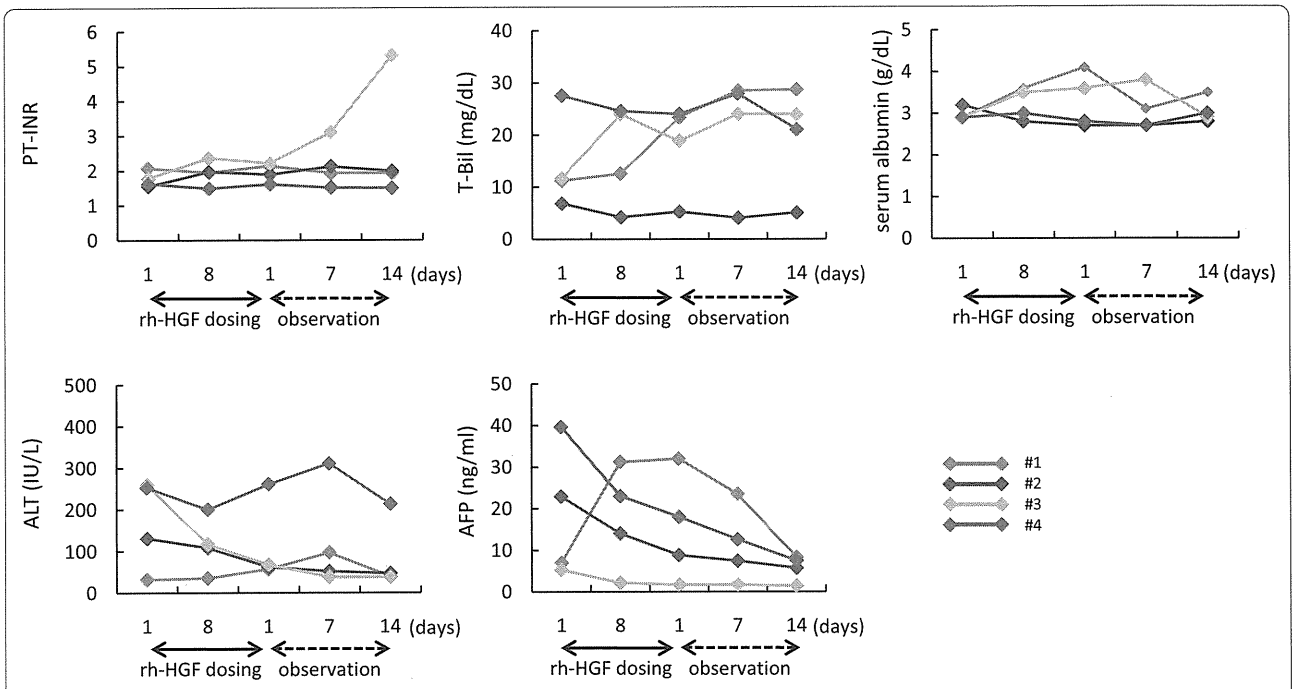

Figure 5 Changes in laboratory data results during rh-HGF dosing and observation period. PT-INR, T-Bil, serum albumin, ALT and AFP, were measured before rh-HGF administration (day 1 of rh-HGF dosing); on day 7 of the rh-HGF dosing period; and one, seven and 14 days after the protocol therapy (days 1, 7 and 14 of the observation period, respectively). Laboratory data results were not affected during or after rh-HGF administration.

complications caused by rh-HGF dosing were not observed. BP was gradually reduced during stepwise infusion of rh-HGF in three of the four patients, whereas repeated doses of rh-HGF did not affect albuminuria. In the first patient, when BP decreased during rh-HGF administration, 200-300 mL of infusion was sufficient to restore BP immediately; prior infusion ameliorated HGF-induced BP reduction, as observed in preclinical animal experiments (Figure 1C). In any event, the decrease in BP observed during HGF infusion was reversible, and did not affect patients' general condition. Although patients 2 and 3, but not 4, also exhibited BP reduction during rh-HGF infusion, their general condition was stable without additional infusion or cessation of rh-HGF. Of particular importance, patient 2, who had awakened from hepatic encephalopathy, showed no symptom or sign during rh-HGF administration. Therefore, we concluded that rh-HGF administered intravenously with a stepwise increase for up to 14 consecutive days was very well tolerated.

Table 3 Effect of rh-HGF administration on survival time

	hazard ratio	95% CI		*p value*
Survival time from:				
onset of hepatic encephalopathy	0.20	0.03	1.45	0.08
onset of disease	0.28	0.04	2.04	0.18

In this study, although two of four patients survived, there was no evidence that rh-HGF was effective in improving outcome of patients with FHSA or LOHF. There are three potential reasons for the failure of this trial to demonstrate the efficacy of rh-HGF in patients with FH or LOHF.

First, the dose of rh-HGF and/or the 14-day treatment schedule used in this study might have been too low to produce beneficial effect. The dose chosen for this study was based on a scaling of the doses used in pre-clinical animal studies, and ensured safety in several repeated dose toxicity tests. Also, this dose, corresponding to 0.1 mg/kg in rodents, has been reported to accelerate liver regeneration in normal and partially hepatectomized rats [11]. Conversely, the treatment duration was based on a nationwide survey of FH and LOHF in Japan between 1998 and 2002. In this survey, 90.4% (n = 47) of surviving patients from FHSA and LOHF (n = 52) awaked within 14 days after hepatic encephalopathy occurred, and 71% (n = 135) of non-surviving patients (n = 190) died within 28 days following the onset of hepatic encephalopathy. Therefore, rh-HGF administration for up to 14 days, followed by a 14-day observation period, was considered to be sufficient to evaluate both safety and efficacy. However, in the current study, there

was no evidence of inhibited disease progression or stimulated liver regeneration. This suggests either that the dose of rh-HGF administered in this study was insufficient to induce liver regeneration and suppress liver injury, or that the 14-day treatment regimen was too short.

Second, HGF/c-Met pathways may be impaired in patients with FH or LOHF. When rh-HGF was intravenously injected in a bolus, most rh-HGF was distributed into the liver, and development of liver injury or cirrhosis retarded clearance of rh-HGF [23,24]. In this clinical study, serum levels of HGF increased to 10-20 ng/mL (Cmax) just after a stepwise infusion of rh-HGF (0.6 mg/m^2). HGF is known to stimulate proliferation of both mature hepatocytes and hepatic progenitor cells: less than 10 ng/mL of HGF was sufficient to induce proliferation of primary cultured rat hepatocytes [12,25], and *in vivo* proliferation of rat hepatic progenitor cells was stimulated by serum levels of ~2 ng/mL human HGF [13,26]. In patients with FH, serum levels of growth and growth-inhibitory factors were elevated [27-29], and reciprocal action of these factors in FH patients results in impaired liver regeneration. In this clinical trial, the increase in serum HGF concentration did not lead to improvement of hepatic reserve; furthermore, serum levels of transforming growth factor (TGF)-β, a growth-inhibitory factor, were not affected by HGF administration (Additional file 5). However, patient 1 revealed an increase in serum AFP, a marker of liver regeneration in patients with FH, during rh-HGF dosing period, and gradually decreased after the completion of rh-HGF administration. In contrast, patients 2 and 4, who survived, showed an increase in serum AFP at enrollment, but serum AFP levels decreased during the rh-HGF dosing period. These two patients received PSL in parallel with rh-HGF (Additional files 2 and 4); AFP expression is known to be affected by a glucocorticoid responsive element (GRE) present in the 5'-flanking region of AFP gene [30]. Once serum AFP levels decreased, slowly tapered PSL did not affected serum AFP in these surviving patients. However, AFP expression at enrollment may be suppressed via the GRE, leading to a decrease in serum AFP levels. Therefore, dose escalation or prolonged exposure to rh-HGF may be able to overcome impaired liver regeneration.

Third, both FH and LOHF patients enrolled in this trial were predicted to die without liver transplantation; thus, the subjects already presented with an extremely serious condition. This life-threatening condition was influenced by the degree of impaired hepatic reserve and varying complications. Indeed, in this trial, all eligible patients with FH or LOHF developed hepatic encephalopathy, and the impaired hepatic reserve and general condition varied in severity. In these patients, even though safety could be evaluated, it may be difficult to evaluate the clinical efficacy. Therefore, it will be desirable to examine the clinical efficacy of rh-HGF in additional clinical trials involving patients with less severe conditions.

Systemic administration of potent growth factors could theoretically stimulate premalignant lesions in distant organs. Therefore, in this first clinical trial of rh-HGF, it was prudent to limit systemic therapy to life-threatening conditions. Although the two surviving patients in this study should be observed over the long term, we showed here that repeated doses of intravenous rh-HGF were well tolerated even in patients with a fatal disease. Recent investigations have indicated that HGF has the potential to improve treatment for intractable diseases of various organs, including the nervous system [31,32], lung [33], heart [34-36], intestine [26,37], kidney [38], and vessels [39]. Therefore, the safety assessment of protein-based therapy of HGF described here sheds light on the development of new therapeutic modalities aimed at treating patients with intractable diseases.

Conclusions

Despite a mild BP reduction during rh-HGF infusion, intravenous rh-HGF at a dose of 0.6 mg/m^2 was well tolerated in patients with FH or LOHF. However, there was no evidence that those dose of rh-HGF was effective for the treatment of these patients. Additional studies of rh-HGF at doses higher than 0.6 mg/m^2, for longer periods, or in treatment of patients with less severe conditions, will be valuable in determining the clinical efficacy of rh-HGF.

Additional material

Additional file 1: Clinical course of patient 1 with FHSA, the first patient receiving intravenous rh-HGF. We first administered rh-HGF to a 67-year-old Japanese man with FHSA caused by hepatitis E virus infection. On admission, he presented with hepatic encephalopathy, jaundice, ascites, edema, and microhematuria caused by bladder catheter. Although ALT had already decreased to 32 IU/L, we observed thrombocytopenia (6.1 × 10^4/μL), increased T-Bil (11.2 mg/dL), a marked decrease in serum albumin (2.9 g/dL), and prolonged PT (33%) (PT-INR 2.07), indicating severely impaired hepatic reserve. Serum HGF and AFP levels were 0.77 and 7.0 ng/mL, respectively, and liver volume measured by CT was 1055 mL. Following observation of general condition for two days, administration of rh-HGF (0.6 mg/m^2/day) was initiated. Because of an increase in serum creatinine level of 2.0 mg/dL, caused by diuretics administration to reduce massive ascites, protocol therapy was discontinued on day 14, resulting in 13-day administration of rh-HGF. Although prolonged PT was stable during rh-HGF dosing and observation period, T-Bil gradually increased and hepatic encephalopathy did not improve. Hepatic failure gradually progressed after the observation period; the patient ultimately died 68 days after the onset of hepatic encephalopathy. PE, plasma exchange; CHDF, continuous hemodiafiltration.

Additional file 2: Clinical course of patient 2 with FHSA, who survived. The second patient (patient 2) was a 71-year-old Japanese woman with FHSA of undetermined etiology. She presented with mild hepatic encephalopathy with flapping tremor, jaundice, and urinary findings, including proteinuria and microhematuria, caused by bladder catheter. Platelet count and serum albumin level decreased to 6.9×10^4/μL, and 3.2 g/dL, respectively, and PT was prolonged to 49% (PT-INR 1.55). In addition to increased T-Bil level of 6.9 mg/dL, serum ALT level increased to 131 IU/L. Serum HGF and AFP levels were 1.94 and 22.9 ng/mL, respectively, and liver volume was 595 mL. Following observation of general condition for 24 hours, treatment with rh-HGF was initiated, and the protocol therapy was continued for 14 days without any severe adverse events. Hepatic encephalopathy disappeared after plasma exchange (PE) on day 2; consciousness level was not impaired throughout the study period. Intravenous rh-HGF reduced systolic BP. The patients with lucidity, however, did not complain any symptom. Although prednisolone (PSL) was administered to reduce ALT, blood biochemical findings and patient condition were stable throughout the study period. After the completion of the study, biochemical findings were gradually improved, and, finally, the patient survived.

Additional file 3: Clinical course of patient 3, with LOHF, who died within the observation period. Sixty four-year-old Japanese woman with LOHF of undetermined etiology suffered from advanced hepatic encephalopathy (HE). She presented with platelet count of 9.2×10^4/μL, PT of 37% (PT-INR 1.78), T-Bil level of 11.7 mg/dL, ALT level of 260 IU/L, and serum albumin level of 2.9 g/dL. Serum HGF and AFP levels were 1.07 and 3.9 ng/mL, respectively, and liver volume was 640 mL. Because of oliguria (392 mL/day), protocol therapy was discontinued on day 13, resulting in 12-day rh-HGF dosing. Additionally, PSL was administered to reduce serum ALT, and plasma exchange (PE) and/or continuous hemodiafiltration (CHDF) was performed throughout the study period. Serum ALT levels reduced immediately, and hepatic encephalopathy was transiently improved during rh-HGF dosing period. However, hepatic encephalopathy, prolonged PT, and an increase in T-Bil progressed during the observation period, and the patient died during the observation period (28 days after the onset of hepatic encephalopathy).

Additional file 4: Clinical course of patient 4, with FHSA caused by a drug, who survived. Forty-year-old Japanese man with FHSA, which was caused by a supplement containing coenzyme Q-10, showed platelet count of 7.0×10^4/μL, PT of 43% (PT-INR 1.62), T-Bil level of 27.6 mf/dL, ALT level of 253 IU/L, and serum albumin level of 2.9 g/dL, but not hepatic encephalopathy (HE), which was temporarily observed before enrollment. Serum HGF and AFP levels were 1.88 and 39.7 ng/mL, respectively, and liver volume was 1110 mL. Administration of rh-HGF was continued for 14 days, and PSL was administered to reduce ALT throughout the study period. An increase in T-Bil and prolonged PT was modestly improved during rh-HGF dosing, followed by further improvement after the observation period. Ultimately, the patient survived. PE; plasma exchange.

Additional file 5: Serum levels of TGF-β were not affected by rh-HGF dosing. Serum TGF-β concentrations before and after the rh-HGF dosing period were determined by ELISA. Although patient 2 exhibited an increase in serum TGF-β after 14-day rh-HGF administration, there was no significant difference in serum levels of TGF-β (mean ± SE: 230.4 ± 21.0 vs 266.4 ± 68.1 pg/ml, $p = 0.52$).

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Author details
[1]HGF Hepatic Regeneration Therapy Project, Department of Experimental Therapeutics, Translational Research Center, Kyoto University Hospital, Kyoto, Japan. [2]Digestive Disease and Life-style Related Disease, Kagoshima University Graduate School of Medical and Dental Sciences, Kagoshima, Japan. [3]Department of Clinical Innovative Medicine, Translational Research Center, Kyoto University Hospital, Kyoto, Japan. [4]Department of Clinical Trial Design and Management, Translational Research Center, Kyoto University Hospital, Kyoto, Japan. [5]Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Kyoto University Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto, Japan. [6]R&D and Corporate Integration, Kyoto University Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto, Japan. [7]Department of Experimental Therapeutics, Translational Research Center, Kyoto University Hospital, Kyoto, Japan.

Authors' contributions
AI, AM, MN, and IDK conducted preclinical studies. AI, AM, MN, IDK, TM, ST, SH, MY, MF, AS, and HT participated in research design. AI, SH, AS, and HT contributed to preparation of rh-HGF at GMP grade. AI, AM, MN, TM, HM, NY, HS, IDK, TC, and MY provided medical care. ST and MF performed data analysis. AI, AM, MN, ST, AS, and HT wrote or contributed to the writing of the manuscript.

Competing interests
The authors declare no competing interests. Mitsubishi Tanabe Pharma Corporation had no role in the design of the study, in data accrual or analysis, or in preparation of the manuscript.

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Differential effect of statins on diabetic nephropathy in db/db mice

YUKINORI TAMURA[1,3], TOSHINORI MURAYAMA[1], MANABU MINAMI[1], MASAYUKI YOKODE[1] and HIDENORI ARAI[2]

Departments of [1]Clinical Innovative Medicine and [2]Human Health Sciences, Kyoto University Graduate School of Medicine, Shogoin, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto 606-8507, Japan

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Abstract. Recent studies suggest a potential benefit of the lipid-lowering medication in the treatment of chronic kidney disease (CKD) such as diabetic nephropathy. Although statins have been widely used to lower serum cholesterol levels, the effect of these drugs on diabetic nephropathy has not been fully elucidated. In the present study, therefore, we addressed the role of different kinds of statins on diabetic nephropathy in db/db mice. Mice were fed with a standard diet with 0.005% (w/w) of pitavastatin, rosuvastatin, and pravastatin for 8 weeks starting from 8 weeks of age. The treatment with statins did not affect the food intake, body weight gain, adiposity, or blood pressure in db/db mice. Treatment with statins also had no effect on plasma lipid levels. In terms of the effect on albuminuria, pitavastatin and rosuvastatin reduced the urinary excretion of albumin by 60 and 40%, respectively, but not pravastatin, suggesting the effect of these two drugs on diabetic nephropathy. Furthermore, pitavastatin and rosuvastatin improved glomerular hypertrophy. All statins treatment improved insulin resistance. In addition, rosuvastatin and pravastatin treatment reduced oxidative stress measured by urinary 8-OHdG level, whereas the statins had no effect on the inflammatory response in the kidney of db/db mice. These results are not consistent with the renoprotective effect of statins. In conclusion, our data suggest that pitavastatin and rosuvastatin can improve diabetic nephropathy through the suppression of glomerular hypertrophy, independent of lipid-lowering or anti-oxidative effects.

Introduction

Diabetic nephropathy is one of the most common forms of chronic kidney disease (CKD) and the most frequent cause of mortality in patients with diabetes (1,2). The number of people affected by diabetic nephropathy or who need renal replacement is steadily increasing (3). Therefore, the establishment of therapeutic strategies for diabetic nephropathy is needed. Diabetic nephropathy results from complex interactions between genetic, metabolic, and hemodynamic factors, and can be characterized by mesangial expansion followed by glomerulosclerosis and a decline in renal function. The development of glomerulosclerosis in diabetes mellitus is always preceded by persistent albuminuria and glomerular hypertrophy (2). Therefore, these two manifestations could be promising therapeutic targets for the treatment of diabetic nephropathy.

3-Hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl (HMG)-coenzyme A (CoA) reductase inhibitors (statins) are widely used for diabetic patients to reduce their cardiovascular risk (4). Statins also have renoprotective actions and have been shown to reduce albuminuria in both experimental and clinical diabetic renal disease (5-8). Some of these benefits may be due to lipid lowering, since lipid levels are strongly associated with the development and progression of diabetic kidney disease (9,10). On the other hand, statins have a range of lipid-independent actions on cell proliferation, inflammation, and oxidative stress (11,12), which may impact the development and progression of renal damage in diabetes. These pleiotropic effects have been suggested to contribute to the renoprotective effect of statins. However, the precise mechanisms of the renoprotective effects are not fully understood. In addition, whether different statins have the same effect on diabetic nephropathy is not well known.

In this study, we addressed the role of various statins, such as pitavastatin, rosuvastatin, and pravastatin on the development of diabetic nephropathy in db/db mice.

Materials and methods

Materials. Pravastatin and rosuvastatin were provided by Daiichi Sankyo Co., Ltd. and pitavastatin was provided by Kowa Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd.

Animal procedure and experimental design. Male db/db mice (n=24) and their lean control db/m (n=6) mice were obtained from Charles River at 6 weeks of age. The mice were fed with normal chow without additional supplementation (non-treated group) or with chow supplemented with 0.005% (w/w) pravastatin, pitavastatin or rosuvastatin for 8 weeks starting from 8

Correspondence to: Dr Hidenori Arai, Department of Human Health Sciences, Kyoto University Graduate School of Medicine, 53 Kawahara-cho, Shogoin, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto 606-8507, Japan
E-mail: harai@kuhp.kyoto-u.ac.jp

Present address: [3]Department of Physiology and Regenerative Medicine, Kinki University School of Medicine, 377-2 Ohno-higashi, Osakasayama, Osaka 589-8551, Japan

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Table I. Characteristics of db/m and db/db mice treated with or without statins.

		db/db			
	db/m	Con	Pra	Pit	Ros
Body weight (g)	32.5±0.40	53.1±3.90	51.2±5.1	50.3±3.80	51.3±5.70
Liver weight (g)	1.15±0.29	2.99±0.41	2.78±0.54	2.55±0.36	3.19±0.85
eWAT weight (g)	0.37±0.05	3.23±0.25	3.08±0.59	3.01±0.41	3.10±0.62
Kidney weight (g)	0.31±0.07	0.50±0.02	0.51±0.06	0.42±0.01[a]	0.41±0.03[a]
Food intake (g/day)	3.82±0.33	7.45±2.43	7.15±0.72	7.70±1.65	7.04±1.58
SBP (mmHg)	NA	113.2±11.6	113.5±3.00	109.5±9.50	114.6±5.60

Con, control; Pra, pravastatin; Pit, pitavastatin; Ros, rosuvastatin; eWAT, epididymal white adipose tissue; SBP, systolic blood pressure. Results are expressed as mean ± SD (n=6 in each group). [a]P<0.05 vs. Con.

weeks of age. Animals had access to food and water *ad libitum* and were maintained on a 12-h light/dark cycle. All animal experiments were conducted according to the Guidelines for Animal Experiments at Kyoto University.

Analysis of metabolic parameter. Plasma glucose concentration was measured with a Glutest Ace (Sanwa Kagaku Kenkyusho Co., Ltd.). Plasma insulin concentration was measured with an insulin assay kit (Morinaga Institute of Biological Science). Plasma cholesterol and triglyceride levels were respectively measured with the Cholesterol E and Triglyceride E tests (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Ltd.).

Measurement of urinary albumin and creatinine. Urinary albumin and creatinine were measured at 16 weeks of age from 24-h collection samples from mice housed in individual metabolic cages. During the urine collection, the mice were allowed free access to food and water. Albumin concentration in the urine was measured by Albuwell (Exocell). Urinary creatinine was measured with a Hitachi Mode 736 analyzer (Hitachi). The urinary albumin concentration was adjusted by the urinary creatinine concentration.

Measurement of urinary oxidative stress. Urinary 8-OHdG concentrations were measured at 16 weeks of age using a competitive enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay kit (8-OHdG Check, Japan Institute for the Control of Aging). Urinary 8-OHdG excretion was expressed as the total amount excreted in 24 h.

Quantitative real-time PCR. Total-RNA was extracted from frozen kidney tissue (50 mg) at 16 weeks of age using an RNeasy mini kit (Qiagen). The cDNA was synthesized from total-RNA using SuperScript III (Invitrogen). Real-time PCR was performed on an ABI PRISM 7900 using the SYBR-Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems). Primer sets were as follows: tumor necrosis factor (TNF)-α forward, 5'-CCCAGA CCCTCACACTCAGATC-3' and reverse, 5'-GCCACTCCAG CTGCTCCTC-3'; β-actin forward, 5'-TACCACAGGCATTG TGATGG-3' and reverse, 5'-TTTGATGTCACGCACGAT TT-3'. The mRNA levels were normalized relative to the amount of β-actin mRNA and expressed in arbitrary units.

Measurement of glomerular size. The mice were euthanized at 16 weeks of age. The kidneys were rapidly fixed in 10% formaldehyde, and embedded in paraffin. Paraffin sections were cut at 3 μm. For measurement of the glomerular size, paraffin sections were stained with hematoxylin and eosin. The size of the glomerular surface area was measured using the Image-Pro Plus software version 3.0.1 (Media Cybernetics, Inc.).

Statistical analysis. Data are expressed as the mean ± SD. Multiple comparisons among the groups were conducted by one-way analysis of variance with Fisher's PLSD test for post hoc analysis. P-values of <0.05 were considered significant.

Results

Effect of statin treatment on body weight, adiposity and systolic blood pressure. In db/db mice fed with a standard diet for 8 weeks starting at 8 weeks of age, body weight, epididymal white adipose tissue (eWAT) weight, liver weight were increased compared to those of db/m mice. Treatment with statins had no effect on body weight, food intake, liver weight and eWAT weight in db/db mice (Table I). In addition, there was no difference in systolic blood pressure between statin-treated and non-treated db/db mice.

Effect of statin treatment on renal function in db/db mice. Because albuminuria reflects renal function (13), we measured the urinary excretion of albumin in normal chow-fed db/db mice at 16 weeks of age. Urinary excretion of albumin was markedly increased in db/db mice compared with db/m mice (Fig. 1). Pitavastatin, rosuvastatin, but not pravastatin improved albuminuria in db/db mice. Kidney weights in pitavastatin- and rosuvastatin-treated db/db mice were reduced compared with non-treated db/db mice (Table I). These data suggest that pitavastatin and rosuvastatin treatment improves renal function in db/db mice.

Effect of statin treatment on plasma lipid level in db/db mice. To clarify the mechanism by which statins ameliorated renal function, we first examined the effect of statin treatment on lipid metabolism in db/db mice. Plasma triglyceride and total cholesterol level were increased in non-treated db/db mice compared with db/m mice (Fig. 2A and B). On the other hand,

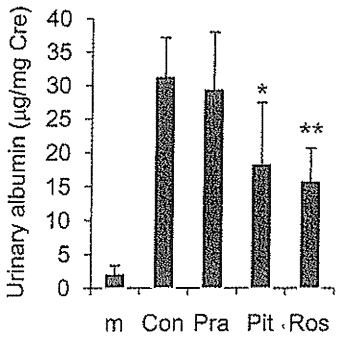

Figure 1. Effect of statins on renal function in db/db mice. The graph shows the urinary excretion of albumin in db/m mice (m), non-treated (Con), pravastatin-treated (Pra), pitavastatin-treated (Pit) and rosuvastatin-treated (Ros) db/db mice. Results are expressed as mean ± SD. *P<0.05, **P<0.01 vs. non-treated db/db mice (n=6 in each group).

statin treatment had no effect on plasma lipid levels in db/db mice (Fig. 2A and B), suggesting that the renoprotective effect of statins is independent of their lipid-lowering action.

Effect of statin treatment on insulin resistance in db/db mice. It has been reported that the development of insulin resistance contributes to renal dysfunction (14). Therefore, we next examined the effect of statin treatment on glucose metabolism in db/db mice. Blood glucose level, plasma insulin level, and HOMA-IR were markedly increased in db/db mice compared with db/m mice, indicating an increase in insulin resistance (Fig. 2C-E). Although statin treatment had no effect on plasma glucose, all statins reduced plasma insulin levels, resulting in a decrease in HOMA-IR (Fig. 2C-E). The data suggest that statin treatment improves insulin resistance.

Because hypoadiponectinemia is associated with the development of insulin resistance and kidney disease (15), we examined the effect of statin treatment on plasma adiponectin levels in db/db mice. In non-treated db/db mice, plasma adiponectin levels were decreased compared with db/m mice. Meanwhile, statin treatment had no effect on plasma adiponectin level in db/db mice (Fig. 2F).

Effect of statin treatment on the renal inflammation in db/db mice. Accumulating evidence now indicates that inflammatory mechanisms play a significant role in the development and progression of diabetic nephropathy. Especially, TNF-α is a pleiotropic inflammatory cytokine and has been shown to cause enhanced albumin permeability (16). Therefore, we next examined the effect of statin treatment on inflammation in the kidney of db/db mice. The expression of TNF-α mRNA was increased in the kidney of db/db mice compared with that of db/m mice, whereas statin treatment had no effect on its expression in db/db mice (Fig. 3A). These data suggest that statins had no effect on the inflammatory response in the kidneys of db/db mice.

Effect of statin treatment on the oxidative stress in db/db mice. To examine the effect of statin treatment on oxidative stress, we measured urinary 8-OHdG concentrations in db/db mice. Urinary 8-OHdG levels in non-treated db/db mice were significantly higher than those in db/m mice. Pravastatin and rosuvastatin reduced urinary 8-OHdG levels in db/db mice, whereas pitavastatin had no effect on oxidative stress despite detecting the amelioration of albuminuria (Fig. 3B).

Effect of statin treatment on glomerular hypertrophy in db/db mice. Glomerular hypertrophy is a hallmark in diabetic

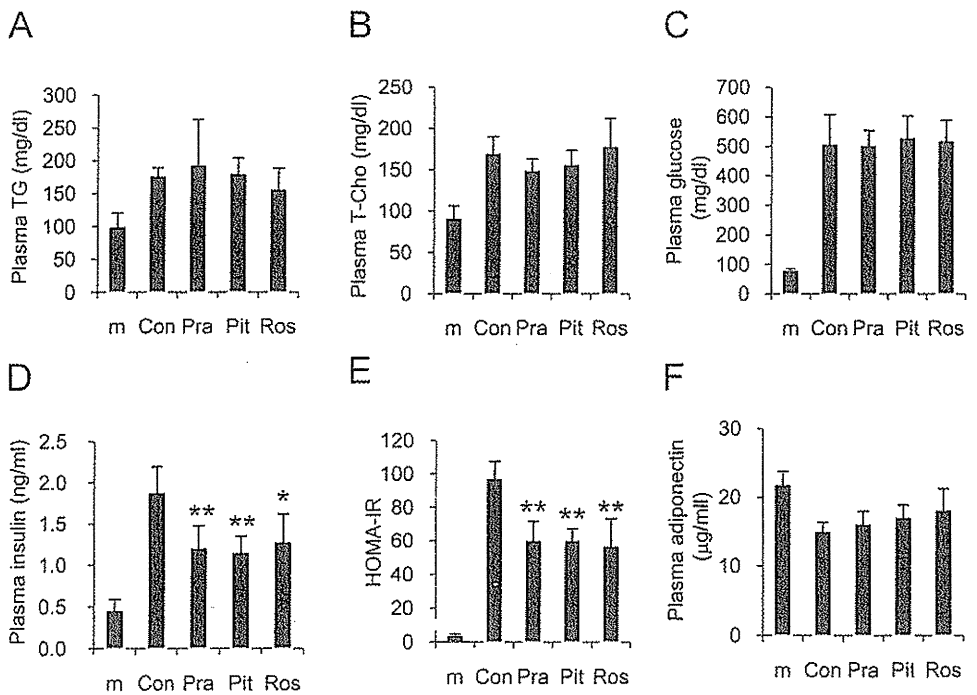

Figure 2. Effect of statins on lipid and glucose metabolism in db/db mice. (A) Plasma triglyceride (TG), (B) total cholesterol (T-Cho), (C) glucose, (D) insulin, (E) HOMA-IR and (F) adiponectin levels in db/m mice (m), non-treated (Con), pravastatin-treated (Pra), pitavastatin-treated (Pit) and rosuvastatin-treated (Ros) db/db mice. Results are expressed as mean ± SD. *P<0.05, **P<0.01 vs. non-treated db/db mice (n=6 in each group).

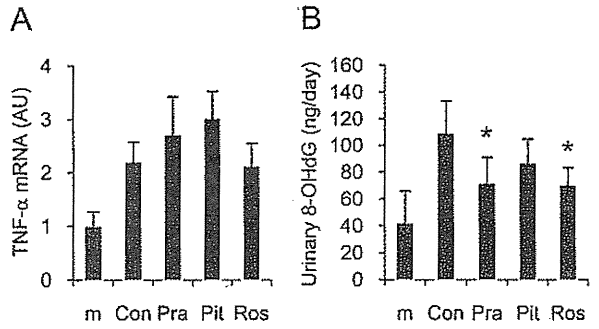

Figure 3. Effect of statins on renal inflammation and oxidative stress in db/db mice. (A) Expression of TNF-α mRNA in whole kidney and (B) urinary 8-OHdG levels in db/m mice (m), non-treated (Con), pravastatin-treated (Pra), pitavastatin-treated (Pit) and rosuvastatin-treated (Ros) db/db mice. Results are expressed as mean ± SD. *P<0.05 vs. non-treated db/db mice (n=6 in each group).

nephropathy along with albuminuria. Therefore, we assessed the glomerular hypertrophy in db/db mice and the effect of statins by measuring the glomerular surface area. Mean glomerular surface area size in db/db mice was increased compared with db/m mice. Pitavastatin and rosuvastatin treatment, but not pravastatin treatment, suppressed the glomerular hypertrophy as well as urinary excretion of albumin in db/db mice (Fig. 4).

Discussion

In the present study, we showed that pitavastatin and rosuvastatin treatment improved albuminuria and suppressed glomerular hypertrophy, independent of its lipid-lowering and anti-oxidative effect in db/db mice.

In CKD patients, there is an increase in total cholesterol and LDL levels (17). The level of cholesterol is directly correlated with the degree of albuminuria (18), suggesting that hyperlipidemia is associated with the development of CKD such as diabetic nephropathy. In fact, lipid-lowering therapy by statin has been successful to the amelioration of renal function in patients with diabetic nephropathy (19,20). However, the present study and other animal studies showed that statin treatment significantly improved renal function without affecting the plasma lipid profile (5,8,21). Therefore, the renoprotective effect of statins may be mainly caused by its pleiotropic action rather than their lipid-lowering action.

Insulin resistance is associated with the development of renal dysfunction in type 2 diabetes. It has been shown that insulin resistance correlates with the onset of microalbuminuria in patients with type 2 diabetes as well as in nondiabetic subjects (14). Several studies showed that amelioration of insulin resistance resulted in a restoration of renal function (22-24). Statin also has an ability to ameliorate insulin resistance. Takagi *et al* (25) reported that pravastatin treatment improved insulin resistance through the increase in plasma adiponectin levels in db/db mice. In the present study, we also observed that all statin treatment improved insulin resistance detected by the reduction of HOMA-IR, while adiponectin was not altered by statin treatment in db/db mice. However, this amelioration was not consistent with the renoprotective effects of statins in db/db mice.

Oxidative stress and inflammation are also far more prevalent in CKD patients than in normal subjects (26). In the present study, we also observed the elevation of oxidative stress and inflammation in the kidneys of db/db mice compared with that of lean control mice. Renal disease is associated with a graded increase in oxidative stress markers even in early CKD (27). This oxidative stress can accelerate renal injury progression. In addition, inflammatory markers such as C reactive protein and cytokines increase with renal function deterioration suggesting that CKD is a low-grade inflammatory process (28). Therefore, the agents which have anti-oxidative and anti-inflammatory action have been attracted as a therapeutic strategy for renal dysfunction (29). Anti-oxidative and anti-inflammatory actions are also major pleiotropic effects of statins (12). Several reports have shown that these actions of statins contribute to their renoprotective effects (5,30,31). In the present study, we also observed that pravastatin and rosuvastatin suppressed oxidative stress in db/db mice as well as these reports, whereas we could not detect the anti-inflammatory effect of statins in the kidneys of db/db mice. Pitavastatin had no effect on oxidative stress, despite the presence of the restored renal function in db/db mice. This result suggests that the anti-oxidant action of statins is not primarily responsible for their renoprotective effect.

In the present study, we observed a correlation between the renoprotective effects of statins and their suppressive effect

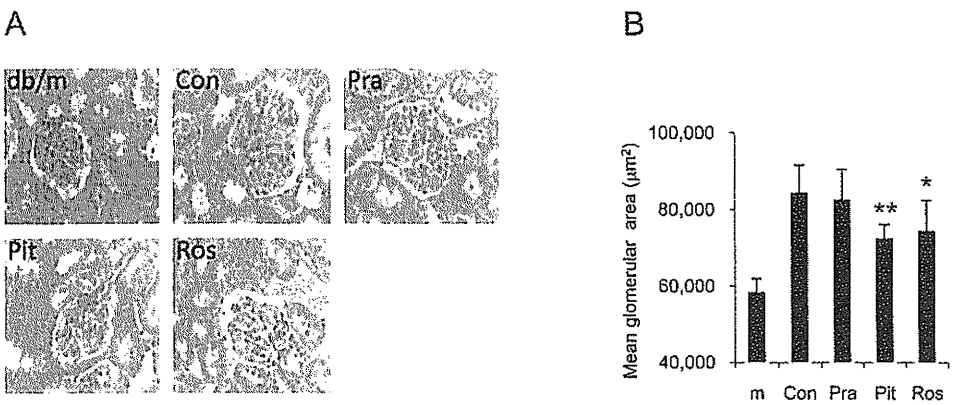

Figure 4. Effects of statins on the glomerular hypertrophy in db/db mice. (A) H&E staining of glomeruli (magnification, x200) and (B) mean glomerular surface area of db/m mice (m), non-treated (Con), pravastatin-treated (Pra), pitavastatin-treated (Pit) and rosuvastatin-treated (Ros) db/db mice. The mean area of fifty glomeruli per mouse was analyzed. Results are expressed as mean ± SD. *P<0.05, **P<0.01 vs. non-treated db/db mice (n=6 in each group).

of glomerular hypertrophy in db/db mice. The glomerular morphological changes in diabetic nephropathy are characterized primarily by mesangial expansion and glomerular based membrane (GBM) thickening. It has been reported that the dysregulated cell cycle by the increased inhibitor of cyclin dependent kinase (such as p21 and p27) contributes to these morphological changes and renal dysfunction (32,33). Pleiotropic effects of statins on the cell cycle are well known (12). Furthermore, Danesh *et al* (34) reported that statin treatment normalized the cell cycle through the suppression of p21 expression in high glucose-stimulated mesangial cells. In the present study, pleiotropic effects of statin on the cell cycle thus might improve glomerular hypertrophy and albuminuria. However, further study is required to clarify the effect of statins in glomerular hypertrophy and renal dysfunction.

In conclusion, we have shown the effects of various statins on diabetic nephropathy in db/db mice. Our study suggests that its renoprotective effect is mainly dependent on suppressing the glomerular hypertrophy, independent of its lipid-lowering or anti-oxidative effects, and there may be differences in the renoprotective ability between various statins.

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A novel gain-of-function *KCNJ2* mutation associated with short-QT syndrome impairs inward rectification of Kir2.1 currents

Tetsuhisa Hattori[1], Takeru Makiyama[1]*, Masaharu Akao[2], Eiji Ehara[3], Seiko Ohno[1], Moritake Iguchi[2], Yukiko Nishio[1], Kenichi Sasaki[1], Hideki Itoh[4], Masayuki Yokode[5], Toru Kita[6], Minoru Horie[4], and Takeshi Kimura[1]

[1]Department of Cardiovascular Medicine, Kyoto University Graduate School of Medicine, 54 Shogoin Kawahara-cho, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto 606-8507, Japan; [2]National Hospital Organization Kyoto Medical Center, Kyoto, Japan; [3]Department of Pediatric Cardiology, Osaka City General Hospital, Osaka, Japan; [4]Department of Cardiovascular and Respiratory Medicine, Shiga University of Medical Science, Otsu, Japan; [5]Clinical Innovative Medicine Translational Research Center, Kyoto University Hospital, Kyoto, Japan; and [6]Kobe City Medical Center General Hospital, Kobe, Japan

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Aims Short-QT syndrome (SQTS) is a recently recognized disorder associated with atrial fibrillation (AF) and sudden death due to ventricular arrhythmias. Mutations in several ion channel genes have been linked to SQTS; however, the mechanism remains unclear. This study describes a novel heterozygous gain-of-function mutation in the inward rectifier potassium channel gene, *KCNJ2*, identified in SQTS.

Methods and results We studied an 8-year-old girl with a markedly short-QT interval (QT = 172 ms, QTc = 194 ms) who suffered from paroxysmal AF. Mutational analysis identified a novel heterozygous *KCNJ2* mutation, M301K. Functional assays displayed no Kir2.1 currents when M301K channels were expressed alone. However, co-expression of wild-type (WT) with M301K resulted in larger outward currents than the WT at more than −30 mV. These results suggest a gain-of-function type modulation due to decreased inward rectification. Furthermore, we analysed the functional significance of the amino acid charge at M301 (neutral) by changing the residue. As with M301K, in M301R (positive), the homozygous channels were non-functional, whereas the heterozygous channels demonstrated decreased inward rectification. Meanwhile, the currents recorded in M301A (neutral) showed normal inward rectification under both homo- and heterozygous conditions. Heterozygous overexpression of WT and M301K in neonatal rat ventricular myocytes exhibited markedly shorter action potential durations than the WT alone.

Conclusion In this study, we identified a novel *KCNJ2* gain-of-function mutation, M301K, associated with SQTS. Functional assays revealed no functional currents in the homozygous channels, whereas impaired inward rectification demonstrated under the heterozygous condition resulted in larger outward currents, which is a novel mechanism predisposing SQTS.

Keywords Arrhythmia (mechanisms) • Short-QT syndrome • K-channel • Atrial fibrillation • Inward rectification

1. Introduction

Short-QT syndrome (SQTS) is a recently recognized disorder, characterized by a shortened QT interval in the electrocardiogram (ECG), and associated with a high incidence of atrial fibrillation (AF), syncope, and sudden death due to ventricular tachyarrhythmias without structural cardiac abnormalities. The syndrome was first described by Gussak *et al.*[1] in 2000 within the context of a familial AF case associated with short-QT interval. SQTS is a genetically heterogeneous disease, and five ion channel genes (SQT1-6) have been identified as causative genes thus far: *KCNH2* encoding the α-subunit of the rapidly activating delayed rectifier potassium channels, I_{Kr} (SQT1)[2]; *KCNQ1* encoding the α-subunit of the slowly activating delayed rectifier potassium channels, I_{Ks} (SQT2)[3]; *KCNJ2* encoding

* Corresponding author. Tel: +81 75 751 3196; fax: +81 75 751 3289, Email: makiyama@kuhp.kyoto-u.ac.jp