

the objective response [43]. Our experience of GDC as the third-line chemotherapy in a patient with CDDP-resistant bladder cancer was compatible with the partial response (Fig. 3). When emphasizing the healthy balance between chemotherapeutic efficacy and maintenance of QOL, the combination chemotherapy of taxanes and GEM might be more acceptable

than CDDP-based chemotherapy, because of the therapeutic superiority coupled with lower toxicity involving gastrointestinal tract and/or kidney function in the former.

A phase II trial of IFM monotherapy as second-line chemotherapy showed an overall RR of 20%, while the combination of IFM and GEM in cases with

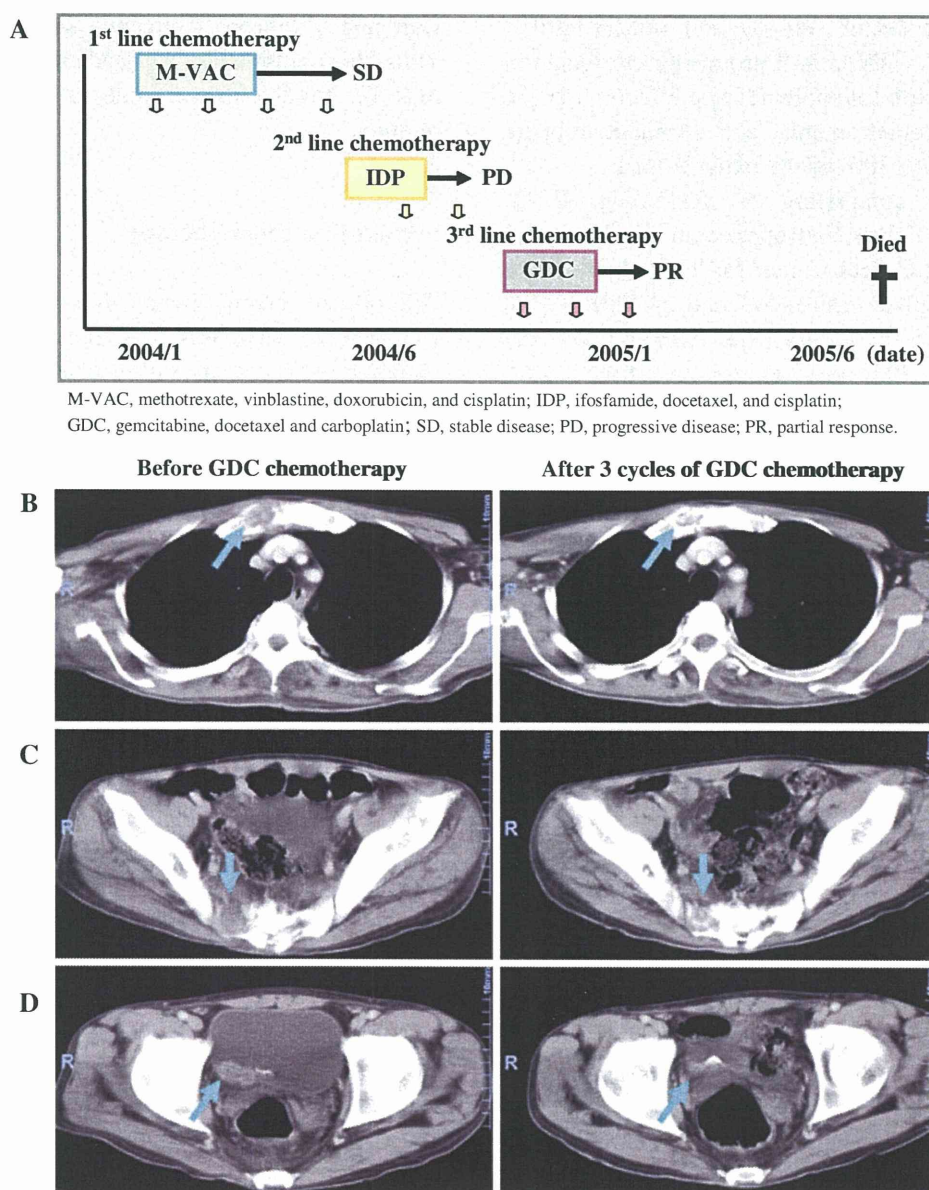


Fig. 3 Representative case of having GDC chemotherapy was shown. A 50-year-old man with diagnosis of bladder cancer (T3aN0M1) was treated with 3 cycles of GDC chemotherapy as third-line treatment, following CDDP-based chemotherapy [M-VAC and IDP (IFM, DOC, and CDDP)]. Schema of clinical course with depiction of chemotherapeutic strategy

was shown (a). As was evident on CT images, metastatic spread to the sternum (b) and sacrum (c) was decreased in size after 3 cycles of GDC therapy. Likewise, primary lesion showed partial response after 3 cycles of GDC therapy (d); however, progressive chemoresistant disease resulted in multiple organ failure 7 months after GDC chemotherapy

recurrence after CDDP/CBDCA or taxane-based chemotherapy had an overall RR of 21%, with a median TTP of 4 months and survival period of 9 months [44]. In this trial, it is noteworthy that the majority of cases showed subjective improvements in cancer-related symptoms, despite grade 3/4 myelosuppression [36]. Nedaplatin (CDGP), an analog of CDDP developed in Japan, does not exhibit cross-resistance to CDDP and does not show significant adverse effects on kidney and gastrointestinal tract functions [45]. On the basis of the superior clinical effects of IFM as second-line therapy in addition to the excellent overall RR of ITP therapy for urothelial cancer, as noted previously, several trials have been conducted to validate the clinical benefits of a combination approach of CDGP, PTX, and IFM (PIN therapy). Although only a small number of cases were studied, this second-line PIN therapy for chemoresistant cases demonstrated an excellent overall RR of 82% [46]. Also, no chemotherapy-related death was encountered in that study, in spite of the fact that all cases exhibited grade 4 neutrocytopenia, indicating second-line PIN therapy may be applicable for CDDP-resistant cases [47].

Vinflunine is a novel microtubule inhibitor of the vinca alkaloid class that has more activity than vinblastine or vinorelbine [48–50]. Several phase II trials of vinflunine monotherapy after first-line platinum-containing regimen showed an overall RR of 15–18%, with a median TTP of 2.8–3.0 months and OS of 6.6–8.2 months [51, 52]. This regimen included several adverse effects such as grade 3/4 neutropenia, constipation, and asthenia/fatigue, which frequently occurred, but every toxicity was not severe and tolerable. These results indicate that vinflunine is moderately active and has a manageable toxicity in platinum-pretreated patients with advanced bladder cancer, and further randomized study is required.

Chemotherapy for cases with impaired renal function or unfit cases

The majority of bladder cancer patients are elderly; thus, they may already have impaired renal, cardiac, and respiratory functions, and/or potential reductions in bone marrow function or general condition, as reflected by worsened PS. In these cases, administration of CDDP appears to be contraindicated. To

overcome the negative impact of standard chemotherapy, CBDCA, with less nephrotoxicity, or GEM which is metabolized in the liver, can be well substituted for CDDP. In a chemotherapeutic strategy of CBDCA, GEM, or taxanes in either a monotherapy or combination approach, an inferior overall RR remains an issue of concern. However, it has not been confirmed whether an inferior overall RR is a reflection of merely impaired renal function or potential problems relating to the combination of chemotherapeutic agents. A small trial of combination chemotherapy with GEM and CBDCA showed an overall RR of 44–56%, as well as treatable myelosuppression [53, 54]. More recently, the phase II/II EORTC-30986 trial including patients with worsened PS and/or impaired renal function showed that the combination chemotherapies of GEM with CBDCA (GCA) and CBDA + MTX + VBL (M-CAVI) provided good overall RR results (GCA: 42%, M-CAVI: 30%) in these so-called “unfit” patients, though patients with both worsened PS and impaired renal function did not benefit [55]. Thus far, investigations into alternative treatment regimens for such unfit cases remain challenging.

Combination with molecular target therapies

Systemic chemotherapy for progressive bladder cancer has made steady progress since M-VAC therapy was first reported in 1983, though that has not translated into improved DFS. In recent years, based on the understanding of cancer pathogenesis at the molecular level, some studies have investigated the efficacy of molecular target therapies in patients with progressive advanced urothelial cancer (Table 1).

Epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR), which has been identified in certain bladder cancers, is a tyrosine kinase transmembrane receptor that facilitates tumor growth and represses tumor apoptosis in vivo [56]. Gefitinib is an orally active EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitor. In a phase II trial of gefitinib, an overall RR of 3% was shown, along with rash, general fatigue, diarrhea, anemia, cerebral ischemic disorder, and elevation of serum creatinine level [57]. In addition, a phase II trial of the combination approach of CDDP, GEM, and gefitinib for first-line chemotherapy demonstrated an overall RR of 43%, with a median TTP of 7.4 months, which was not confirmed as a result of substantial benefits added by

Table 1 Phase II trial of molecular target therapy for advanced and/or metastatic urothelial cancer

Source	Regimens	Setting	No. of patients	ORR (%)	MPFS (mo)	MST (mo)
Petrylak et al. [57]	Gefitinib (500 mg/day orally)	2nd line	31	3.0	2.0	3.0
Philips et al. [58]	Gefitinib (500 mg/day orally) Cisplatin (70 mg/m ² day 1 i.v.) Gemcitabine (1,000 mg/m ² day 1, 8 i.v.)	1st line	58	42.6	7.4	15.1
Wülfing et al. [62]	Lapatinib (1,250 mg/day orally)	2nd line	59	1.7	2.2	4.5
Hussain et al. [63]	Trastuzumab (4 mg/kg day 1, 8, 15 i.v.) Paclitaxel (200 mg/m ² day 1 i.v.) Carboplatin (AUC5 day 1 i.v.) Gemcitabine (800 mg/m ² day 1, 8 i.v.)	1st line	44	70	9.3	14.1
Dreicer et al. [66]	Sorafenib (400 mg × 2/day orally)	2nd line	27	0	2.2	6.8
Sridhar et al. [67]	Sorafenib (400 mg × 2/day orally)	1st line	17	0	1.9	5.9
Gallagher et al. [68]	Group A Sunitinib (50 mg/day for 4 weeks on and 2 weeks off orally)	2nd line	45	7.0	2.4	7.1
	Group B Sunitinib (37.5 mg/day continuously)	2nd line	32	3.0	2.3	6.0
Hahn et al. [69]	Bevacizumab (15 mg/kg day 1 i.v.) Cisplatin (70 mg/m ² day 1 i.v.) Gemcitabine (1,000 mg/m ² day 1, 8 i.v.)	1st line	45	72	8.2	19.1

ORR overall response rate, MPFS median progression-free survival, MST median survival time, mo month

gefitinib [58]. This study demonstrated that gefitinib used with conventional chemotherapeutic agents did not bring additional therapeutic effects and may be ineffective for bladder cancer.

HER-2/neu is another transmembrane tyrosine kinase receptor, which is frequently overexpressed in bladder cancer and associated with poor prognosis [59, 60]. Lapatinib (GW572016) is a dual tyrosine kinase inhibitor that inhibits both EGFR and HER-2/neu. In bladder cancer cell lines, lapatinib was found to be a potent inhibitor of EGF-induced activation of HER-2/neu signaling [61]. A phase II trial of lapatinib monotherapy as second-line therapy found an overall RR of 2%, with a median TTP of 8.6 weeks and OS of 17.9 weeks, though there was not significant correlation between clinical benefits and EGFR and/or HER-2/neu expression [62]. On the other hand, a multicenter phase II trial of combination chemotherapy with PTX, CBDCA, GEM, and trastuzumab (a humanized monoclonal antibody that binds to HER-2/neu) reported an overall RR of 70.0%, with a median TTP of 9.3 months and OS of 14.1 months [63]. However, adverse effects

included grade 3/4 neutropenia (86%), thrombocytopenia (70%), and two chemotherapy-related deaths.

Vascular endothelial growth factor receptor (VEGFR) is expressed in urothelial cancer, and recent studies suggest that signaling through VEGFR-2 may directly enhance tumorigenesis [64, 65]. Sorafenib is an oral multikinase inhibitor that blocks angiogenesis by targeting VEGFR-2 and 3, and the platelet-derived growth factor receptor-beta. In a phase II study of sorafenib monotherapy as first- or second-line therapy, no response was observed, while adverse events included fatigue, hand-foot reactions, and grade 4 pulmonary embolism [66, 67]. Sunitinib is also a multitargeted tyrosine kinase inhibitor that selectively inhibits VEGFR-1, 2, and 3. A phase II study of sunitinib monotherapy as second-line therapy demonstrated an overall RR of 7%, with a median TTP of 2.4 months [68]. Bevacizumab is a recombinant monoclonal antibody for circulating VEGF-A. Although the Hoosier Oncology Group showed significant antitumor efficacy of bevacizumab under combination strategy with GC as first-line therapy for

patients with metastatic UC, the additional effect of bevacizumab with GC on metastatic UC appears to be limited owing to unexpectedly significant treatment-related toxicity [69].

Some of the major molecular targeting drugs currently available seem to be effective on advanced urothelial cancer. Management strategies might be based on the individualized molecular alternations in addition to histopathologic features.

Conclusion

M-VAC therapy has been established as a standard systemic chemotherapy treatment for bladder cancer, though its adverse effects and poor long-term outcome results remain challenging problems. In addition, effective treatment for the cases showing resistance to M-VAC or recurrent cases after first-line chemotherapy has not been established. Considering efficacy and tolerance, GC therapy is thought to be a promising substitution as compared to M-VAC. Furthermore, a combination of taxanes with GEM and/or platinum-based agents likely provides clinical benefits following M-VAC or GC therapy. In the future, additional investigations using various trial designs may lead to new therapeutic strategies with molecular target agents.

References

1. Sternberg CN, Yagoda A, Scher HI et al (1988) M-VAC (methotrexate, vinblastine, doxorubicin and cisplatin) for advanced transitional cell carcinoma of the rothelium. *J Urol* 139:461–469
2. Igawa M, Ohkuchi T, Ueki T et al (1990) Usefulness and limitations of methotrexate, vinblastine, doxorubicin and cisplatin for the treatment of advanced urothelial cancer. *J Urol* 144:662–665
3. Advanced Bladder Cancer (ABC) Meta-analysis Collaboration (2003) Neoadjuvant chemotherapy in invasive bladder cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet* 36:1927–1934
4. Advanced Bladder Cancer (ABC) Meta-analysis Collaboration (2005) Neoadjuvant chemotherapy in invasive bladder cancer: update of a systematic review and meta-analysis of individual patient data. *Eur Urol* 48:202–206
5. Stockle M, Meyenburg W, Wellek S et al (1995) Adjuvant polychemotherapy of non-organ confined bladder cancer after radical cystectomy revisited: long term results of a controlled prospective study and further clinical experience. *J Urol* 153:47–52
6. Studer UE, Bacchi M, Biedermann C et al (1994) Adjuvant cisplatin chemotherapy following cystectomy for bladder cancer: results of a prospective randomised trial. *J Urol* 152:81–84
7. Freiha F, Reese J, Torti FM (1996) A randomised trial of radical cystectomy versus radical cystectomy plus cisplatin, vinblastine and methotrexate chemotherapy for muscle invasive bladder cancer. *J Urol* 155:495–500
8. Skinner DG, Daniels JR, Russel CA et al (1990) Adjuvant chemotherapy following cystectomy benefits patients with deeply invasive bladder cancer. *Semi Urol* 8:279–284
9. Bono AV, Benvenuti C, Gibba A et al (1997) Adjuvant chemotherapy in locally advanced bladder cancer. Final analysis of a controlled multicentre study. *Acta Urol Ital* 11:5–8
10. Advanced Bladder Cancer (ABC) Meta-analysis Collaboration (2005) Adjuvant chemotherapy in invasive bladder cancer. A systematic review and meta-analysis of individual patient data. *Eur Urol* 48:189–201
11. Paz-Ares LG, Solsona E, Esteban E et al (2010) Randomized phase III trial comparing adjuvant paclitaxel/gemcitabine/cisplatin (PGC) to observation in patients with resected invasive bladder cancer: results of the Spanish Oncology Genitourinary Group (SOGUG) 99/01 study. *J Clin Oncol In: ASCO annual meeting proceedings (post-meeting edition)* 28: no. 18 suppl
12. Harker WG, Meyers FJ, Freiha FS et al (1985) Cisplatin, methotrexate, and vinblastine (CMV): an effective chemotherapy regimen for metastatic transitional cell carcinoma of the urinary tract. A Northern California Oncology Group study. *J Clin Oncol* 3:1463–1470
13. Logothetis CJ, Dexeus FH, Finn L et al (1990) A prospective randomized trial comparing MVAC and CISCA chemotherapy for patients with metastatic urothelial tumors. *J Clin Oncol* 8:1050–1055
14. Sternberg CN, de Mulder PH, Schornagel JH et al (2001) European organization for research and treatment of cancer genitourinary tract cancer cooperative group. Randomized phase III trial of high-dose-intensity methotrexate, vinblastine, doxorubicin, and cisplatin (MVAC) chemotherapy and recombinant human granulocyte colony-stimulating factor versus classic MVAC in advanced urothelial tract tumors: European organization for research and treatment of cancer protocol no. 30924. *J Clin Oncol* 19:2638–2646
15. Sternberg CN, de Mulder P, Schornagel JH et al (2006) EORTC Genito-urinary Cancer Group. Seven year update of an EORTC phase III trial of highdose intensity M-VAC chemotherapy and G-CSF versus classic M-VAC in advanced urothelial tract tumours. *Eur J Cancer* 42:50–54
16. Dreicer R, Manola J, Roth BJ et al (2000) Phase II study of cisplatin and paclitaxel in advanced carcinoma of the urothelium: an Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group Study. *J Clin Oncol* 18:1058–1061
17. Sengelov L, Kamby C, Lund B et al (1998) Docetaxel and cisplatin in metastatic urothelial cancer: a phase II study. *J Clin Oncol* 16:3392–3397
18. Dimopoulos MA, Bakoyannis C, Georgoulas V et al (1999) Docetaxel and cisplatin combination chemotherapy in advanced carcinoma of the urothelium: a multicenter phase II study of the Hellenic Cooperative Oncology Group. *Ann Oncol* 10:1385–1388

19. Bamias A, Aravantinos G, Deliveliotis C et al (2004) Hellenic Cooperative Oncology Group. Docetaxel and cisplatin with granulocyte colony stimulating factor (G-CSF) versus MVAC with G-CSF in advanced urothelial carcinoma: a multicenter, randomized, phase III study from the Hellenic Cooperative Oncology Group. *J Clin Oncol* 22:220–228
20. Peters GJ, Bergman AM, Ruiz van Haperen VW et al (1995) Interaction between cisplatin and gemcitabine in vitro and in vivo. *Semin Oncol* 22:72–79
21. von der Maase H, Sengelov L, Roberts JT et al (2005) Long-term survival results of a randomized trial comparing gemcitabine plus cisplatin, with methotrexate, vinblastine, doxorubicin, plus cisplatin in patients with bladder cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 23:4602–4608
22. von der Maase H, Hansen SW, Roberts JT et al (2000) Gemcitabine and cisplatin versus methotrexate, vinblastine, doxorubicin, and cisplatin in advanced or metastatic bladder cancer: results of a large, randomized, multinational, multicenter, phase III study. *J Clin Oncol* 18:3068–3077
23. Redman BG, Smith DC, Flaherty L et al (1998) Phase II trial of paclitaxel and carboplatin in the treatment of advanced urothelial carcinoma. *J Clin Oncol* 16:1844–1848
24. Zielinski CC, Schnack B, Grbovic M et al (1998) Paclitaxel and carboplatin in patients with metastatic urothelial cancer: results of a phase II trial. *Br J Cancer* 78:370–374
25. Vaughn DJ, Malkowicz SB, Zoltick B et al (1998) Paclitaxel plus carboplatin in advanced carcinoma of the urothelium: an active and tolerable outpatient regimen. *J Clin Oncol* 16:255–260
26. Pycha A, Grbovic M, Posch B et al (1999) Paclitaxel and carboplatin in patients with metastatic transitional cell cancer of the urinary tract. *Urology* 53:510–515
27. Dreicer R, Manola J, Roth BJ et al (2004) Phase III trial of methotrexate, vinblastine, doxorubicin, and cisplatin versus carboplatin and paclitaxel in patients with advanced carcinoma of the urothelium. *Cancer* 100:1345–1639
28. Bellmunt J, Guillem V, Paz-Ares L et al (2000) Phase I/II study of paclitaxel, cisplatin, and gemcitabine in advanced transitional-cell carcinoma of the urothelium. Spanish Oncology Genitourinary Group. *J Clin Oncol* 18:3247–3255
29. Lorusso V, Crucitta E, Silvestris N et al (2005) Italian Bladder Cancer Group. Randomised, open-label, phase II trial of paclitaxel, gemcitabine and cisplatin versus gemcitabine and cisplatin as first-line chemotherapy in advanced transitional cell carcinoma of the urothelium. *Oncol Rep* 13:283–287
30. Pectasides D, Glotsos J, Bountouroglou N et al (2002) Weekly chemotherapy with docetaxel, gemcitabine and cisplatin in advanced transitional cell urothelial cancer: a phase II trial. *Ann Oncol* 13:243–250
31. Bajorin DF, McCaffrey JA, Dodd PM et al (2000) Ifosfamide, paclitaxel, and cisplatin for patients with advanced transitional cell carcinoma of the urothelial tract: final report of a phase II trial evaluating two dosing schedules. *Cancer* 88:1671–1678
32. Li J, Juliar B, Yiannoutsos C et al (2005) Weekly paclitaxel and gemcitabine in advanced transitional cell carcinoma of the urothelium: a phase II Hoosier Oncology Group study. *J Clin Oncol* 23:1185–1191
33. Ardavanis A, Tryfonopoulos D, Alexopoulos A et al (2005) Gemcitabine and docetaxel as first-line treatment for advanced urothelial carcinoma: a phase II study. *Br J Cancer* 92:645–650
34. Witte RS, Elson P, Bono B et al (1997) Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group phase II trial of ifosfamide in the treatment of previously treated advanced urothelial carcinoma. *J Clin Oncol* 15:589–593
35. Sweeney CJ, Williams SD, Finch DE et al (1999) A Phase II study of paclitaxel and ifosfamide for patients with advanced refractory carcinoma of the urothelium. *Cancer* 86:514–518
36. Meluch AA, Greco FA, Burris HA III et al (2001) Paclitaxel and gemcitabine chemotherapy for advanced transitional-cell carcinoma of the urothelial tract: a phase II trial of the Minnie pearl cancer research network. *J Clin Oncol* 19:3018–3024
37. McCaffrey JA, Hilton S, Mazumdar M et al (1997) Phase II trial of docetaxel in patients with advanced or metastatic transitional-cell carcinoma. *J Clin Oncol* 15:1853–1857
38. Roth BJ, Dreicer R, Einhorn LH et al (1994) Significant activity of paclitaxel in advanced transitional-cell carcinoma of the urothelium: a phase II trial of the Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group. *J Clin Oncol* 12:2264–2270
39. Dreicer R, Gustin DM, See WA et al (1996) Paclitaxel in advanced urothelial carcinoma: its role in patients with renal insufficiency and as salvage therapy. *J Urol* 156:1606–1608
40. Lorusso V, Pollera CF, Antimi M et al (1998) A phase II study of gemcitabine in patients with transitional cell carcinoma of the urinary tract previously treated with platinum. Italian Co-operative Group on bladder cancer. *Eur J Cancer* 34:1208–1212
41. Moore MJ, Tannock IF, Ernst DS et al (1997) Gemcitabine: a promising new agent in the treatment of advanced urothelial cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 15:3441–3445
42. Sternberg CN, Calabro F, Pizzocaro G et al (2001) Chemotherapy with an every-2-week regimen of gemcitabine and paclitaxel in patients with transitional cell carcinoma who have received prior cisplatin-based therapy. *Cancer* 92:2993–2998
43. Hoshi S, Ohyama C, Ono K et al (2004) Gemcitabine plus carboplatin; and gemcitabine, docetaxel, and carvoplatin combined chemotherapy regimens in patients with metastatic urothelial carcinoma previously treated with a platinum-based regimen: preliminary report. *Int Clin Oncol* 9:125–129
44. Pectasides D, Aravantinos G, Kalofonos H et al (2001) Combination chemotherapy with gemcitabine and ifosfamide as second-line treatment in metastatic urothelial cancer. A phase II trial conducted by the Hellenic Cooperative Oncology Group. *Ann Oncol* 12:1417–1422
45. Piccart MJ, Lamb H, Vermorken JB (2001) Current and future potential roles of the platinum drugs in the treatment of ovarian cancer. *Ann Oncol* 12:1195–1203
46. Shinohara N, Harabayashi T, Suzuki S et al (2006) Salvage chemotherapy with paclitaxel, ifosfamide, and nedaplatin in patients with urothelial cancer who had received prior cisplatin-based therapy. *Cancer Chemother Pharmacol* 58:402–407

47. Fahy J, Duflos A, Ribet JP et al (1997) Vinca alkaloids in superacidic media: a method for creating a new family of antitumor derivatives. *J Am Chem Soc* 119:8576–8577
48. Fahy J (2001) Modifications in the “upper” velbanamine part of the Vinca alkaloids have major implications for tubulin interacting activities. *Curr Pharm Des* 7:1181–1197
49. Hill BT, Fiebig HH, Waud WR et al (1999) Superior in vivo experimental antitumor activity of vinflunine, relative to vinorelbine, in a panel of human tumor xenografts. *Eur J Cancer* 35:512–520
50. Kruczynski A, Colpaert F, Tarayre JP et al (1998) Pre-clinical in vivo antitumor activity of vinflunine, a novel fluorinated Vinca alkaloid. *Cancer Chemother Pharmacol* 41:437–447
51. Culine S, Theodore C, De Santis M et al (2006) A phase II study of vinflunine in bladder cancer patients progressing after first-line platinum-containing regimen. *Br J Cancer* 94:1395–1401
52. Vaughn DJ, Srinvas S, Stadler WM et al (2009) Vinflunine in platinum-pretreated patients with locally advanced or metastatic urothelial carcinoma. *Cancer* 115:4110–4117
53. Carles J, Nogue M, Domenech M et al (2000) Carboplatin + gemcitabine treatment of patients with transitional cell carcinoma of the bladder and impaired renal function. *Oncology* 59:24–27
54. Bellmunt J, de Wit R, Albanell J et al (2001) A feasibility study of carboplatin with fixed dose of gemcitabine in “unfit” patients with advanced bladder cancer. *Eur J Cancer* 37:2212–2215
55. De Santis M, Bellmunt J, Mead G et al (2009) Randomized phase II/III trial assessing gemcitabine/carboplatin and methotrexate/carboplatin/vinblastine in patients with advanced urothelial cancer “unfit” for cisplatin-based chemotherapy: phase II-results of EORTC study 30986. *J Clin Oncol* 27:5634–5639
56. Neal DE, Sharples L, Smith K et al (1990) The epidermal growth factor receptor and the prognosis of bladder cancer. *Cancer* 65:1619–1625
57. Petrylak DP, Tangen CM, Van Veldhuizen PJ Jr et al (2010) Results of the southwest oncology group phase II evaluation (study S0031) of ZD1839 for advanced transitional cell carcinoma of the urothelium. *Br J Urol Int* 105:317–321
58. Philips GK, Halabi S, Sanford B et al (2009) A phase II trial of cisplatin (C), gemcitabine (G) and gefitinib for advanced urothelial tract carcinoma: results of cancer and leukemia group B (CALGB) 90102. *Ann Oncol* 20:1074–1079
59. Jimenez RE, Hussain M, Bianco FJ Jr et al (2001) Her-2/neu overexpression in muscle-invasive urothelial carcinoma of the bladder: prognostic significance and comparative analysis in primary and metastatic tumors. *Clin Cancer Res* 7:2440–2447
60. Coogan CL, Estrada CR, Kapur S et al (2004) HER-2/neu protein overexpression and gene amplification in human transitional cell carcinoma of the bladder. *Urology* 63:786–790
61. McHugh LA, Kriaievska M, Mellon JK et al (2007) Combination treatment of bladder cancer cell lines with lapatinib and varying chemotherapy regimens-evidence of schedule-dependent synergy. *Urology* 69:390–394
62. Wülfing C, Machiels JPH, Richel DJ et al (2009) A single-arm, multicenter, open-label phase 2 study of lapatinib as the second-line treatment of patients with locally advanced or metastatic transitional cell carcinoma. *Cancer* 115:2881–2890
63. Hussain MHA, MacVicar GR, Petrylak DP et al (2007) Trastuzumab, paclitaxel, carboplatin, and gemcitabine in advanced human epidermal growth receptor-2/neu-positive urothelial carcinoma: results of a multicenter phase II National cancer institute trial. *J Clin Oncol* 25:2218–2224
64. Wu W, Shu X, Hovsepian H et al (2003) VEGF receptor expression and signaling in human bladder tumors. *Oncogene* 22:3361–3370
65. Duff SE, Jezioraka M, Rosa DD et al (2006) Vascular endothelial growth factors and receptors in colorectal cancer: implications for anti-angiogenic therapy. *Eur J Cancer* 42:112–117
66. Dreicer R, Li H, Stein M et al (2009) Phase 2 trial of sorafenib in patients with advanced urothelial cancer. *Cancer* 115:4090–4095
67. Sridhar SS, Winquist E, Eisen A et al (2010) A phase II trial of sorafenib in first-line metastatic urothelial cancer: a study of the PMH phase II consortium. *Invest New Drugs*. Published online 27 Feb 2010, doi:10.1007/s10637.9408.4
68. Gallagher DJ, Milowsky MI, Gerst SR et al (2010) Phase II study of sunitinib in patients with metastatic urothelial cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 28:1373–1379
69. Hahn NM, Stadler WM, Zon RT et al (2011) Phase II trial of cisplatin, gemcitabine, and bevacizumab as first-line therapy for metastatic urothelial carcinoma: Hoosier Oncology Group GU 04-75. *J Clin Oncol* 21 March 2011, doi:10.1200/JCO.2010.31.6067

Requirement for FBP17 in Invadopodia Formation by Invasive Bladder Tumor Cells

Hayato Yamamoto, Mihoko Sutoh, Shingo Hatakeyama, Yasuhiro Hashimoto, Takahiro Yoneyama, Takuya Koie, Hisao Saitoh, Kanemitsu Yamaya, Tomihisa Funyu, Toshiya Nakamura, Chikara Ohyama and Shigeru Tsuboi*

From the Department of Urology, Graduate School of Medicine (HY, SH, TY, TK, CO, ST) and Department of Biomedical Sciences, Graduate School of Health Sciences (TN), Hirosaki University and Departments of Urology (YH, HS, TF) and Biochemistry (MS, KY, TF), Ooyokyo Kidney Research Institute, Hirosaki, Japan

Abbreviations and Acronyms

Arp3 = actin-related protein 3
dSH3 = SH3 domain deletion
EFC = extended FER-CIP4 homology
F-actin = filamentous actin
FBP = formin-binding protein
GFP = green fluorescent protein
HA = hemagglutinin
HEK293 = human embryonic kidney 293
K33E = lysine at 33 to glutamine substitution
PMSF = phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride
SH3 = Src homology 3
WT = wild-type FBP17

Purpose: Invadopodia (protrusions of the plasma membrane formed by invasive tumor cells) have an essential role in bladder tumor invasion. To understand the process of bladder tumor invasion it is crucial to investigate the molecular mechanisms of invadopodia formation. We found that invasive bladder tumor cells express FBP17. In this study we examined the role of FBP17 in bladder tumor cell invadopodia formation and invasion.

Materials and Methods: We used the 3 bladder tumor cell lines YTS-1, T24 and RT4 (ATCC®), and primary culture of bladder tumors from patients. Cells were stained with phalloidin for invadopodia formation. FBP17 knockdown cells were tested for invadopodia formation and subjected to invasion assay using a Transwell® cell culture chamber. We also examined the role of the extended FER-CIP4 homology and Src homology 3 domains of FBP17 in invadopodia formation in FBP17 mutant constructs.

Results: Invadopodia formation was observed in invasive bladder tumor cells and FBP17 was localized to invadopodia in invasive cells. FBP17 knockdown decreased invadopodia formation in invasive cells to 13% to 14% ($p < 0.0005$) and decreased their invasive capacity to 14% to 16% ($p < 0.001$). The extended FER-CIP4 homology and Src homology 3 domains of FBP17 were necessary for invadopodia formation and invasion.

Conclusions: Invadopodia formation requires membrane deformation activity and recruitment of dynamin-2 mediated by FBP17. FBP17 has a critical role in the process of bladder tumor cell invasion by mediating invadopodia formation.

Key Words: urinary bladder; urinary bladder neoplasms; neoplasm invasiveness; FNBP1 protein, human; cell surface extensions

Submitted for publication August 23, 2010.
Study received Department of Urology, Hirosaki University Graduate School of Medicine institutional review board approval.

Supported by Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research B-22390301 (CO) and 22570131 (ST) from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science, and 21791483 (CO) and 21791484 (TK) from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan.

* Correspondence: Department of Urology, Hirosaki University Graduate School of Medicine, 5 Zaifucho, Hirosaki 036-8562, Japan (telephone: 81-172-39-5091; FAX: 81-172-39-5092; e-mail: urology@cc.hirosaki-u.ac.jp).

BLADDER tumor is the fifth common tumor and the ninth leading cause of cancer death in males in the United States.¹ A large population of bladder tumor cases consists of noninvasive and superficial tumors that can be effectively treated with transurethral resection of the malignant lesions. Most deaths occur in patients with invasive bladder tumors since tumor

invasion results in recurrence with metastasis.

Two types of actin based membrane protrusions, blebs and invadopodia, are implicated in tumor invasion. Tumor invasion involves the disruption of anatomical barriers and migration of tumor cells into normal adjacent host tissues. Blebs only mediate the latter process² but invado-

podia mediate each process.³ Invadopodia are the membrane protrusions enriched by F-actin, actin-binding proteins, matrix metalloproteases, separase and cell signaling molecules.^{4,5} Invadopodia formation was observed in various types of cancer cells, such as melanoma, breast cancer, colon cancer, prostate cancer, and head and neck squamous cell carcinoma.^{6–9} Recently we identified invadopodia formation by invasive bladder tumors.¹⁰ To understand and control the tumor cell invasion process it is crucial to investigate the molecular mechanisms of invadopodia formation.

Formins function as actin nucleators and polymerization factors of actin filaments.¹¹ FBPs regulate formin dependent actin assembly *in vivo*.¹² Of the 32 mammalian FBPs FBP17 mediates endocytosis by its membrane deformation activity.^{13–15} We tested the possibility that FBP17 is involved in the formation of invadopodia and invasion of bladder tumor cells since invadopodia formation includes deformation of the plasma membrane.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Reagents and Antibodies

Phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, leupeptin, pepstatin A, aprotinin, IGEPAL® CA-630, paraformaldehyde, saponin, bovine serum albumin, collagenase, fibronectin, Anti-FLAG® monoclonal antibody and anti- β -actin antibody were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich®. Anti-HA antibody (clone 12CA5) was obtained from Boehringer Ingelheim, Ridgefield, Connecticut. Anti-dynamin-2 and anti-Arp3 antibodies were obtained from BD Pharmingen™. Alexa Fluor® 488 labeled secondary antibodies, Alexa Fluor 568 labeled phalloidin and anti-FBP17 polyclonal antibody¹⁴ were also used.

Cell Culture

We used the human bladder tumor cell lines YTS-1,¹⁶ T24, RT4¹⁷ and HEK293. The bladder tumor cell lines were maintained in RPMI-1640 medium (Sigma-Aldrich). HEK293 cells were cultured in DME high glucose medium (Invitrogen™). Medium was supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (PAA Laboratories, Pasching, Austria), 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 μ g/ml streptomycin and 0.25 μ g/ml Fungizone™ amphotericin B. Cells were grown in a humidified incubator with 5% CO₂ at 37°C. Using the Myco-Probe® Mycoplasma Detection Kit we confirmed that no mycoplasma contamination was detected before we started the experiments.

Primary Culture of Bladder Tumors

Invasive bladder tumors were removed by transurethral resection from several genetically independent patients at the Department of Urology, Hirosaki University Graduate School of Medicine, Hirosaki, Japan. Tumors were incubated with RPMI-1640 medium containing 5% fetal bovine serum and 0.1% collagenase at 37°C for 16 hours to prepare single cell suspensions. Cells were cultured on coverslips in a humidified incubator with

5% CO₂ at 37°C. Tumor stage was determined according to the 2002 American Joint Committee for Cancer staging system. Written consent was obtained from all patients in this study. The Department of Urology, Hirosaki University Graduate School of Medicine institutional review board approved the experiments. The success rate of our primary culture of bladder tumors was 83%.

Transfection and RNA Interference

Cells were co-transfected with the FBP17 constructs and with the GFP expressing plasmid pmaxGFP™ (5:1 molar ratio) using Lipofectamine™ 2000. The targeting sequence for FBP17 was 5'-CCCACTTCATATGTCGAAGTCTGTT-3'.¹³ Cells were co-transfected with siRNA and pmaxGFP (5:1 molar ratio) using Lipofectamine 2000 with pmaxGFP serving as a transfection marker. Transfection efficiency measured using pmaxGFP was 50% to 70%.

Immunofluorescence Microscopy

Cells seeded on coverslips were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde and permeabilized with 0.1% saponin. Cells were incubated with Alexa 568 labeled phalloidin (1:50 dilution) and/or first antibodies (1:100 dilution) for 1 hour at room temperature. After extensive washing with phosphate buffered saline cells were incubated with Alexa 488 labeled secondary antibodies (1:100 dilution). Coverslips were placed on the slides (76 × 26 mm). Cell staining was examined using an IX-71 fluorescence microscope (Olympus®) and an LSM 710 confocal laser scanning microscope (Carl Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany).

Immunoprecipitation

For FLAG-FBP17 immunoprecipitation 1×10^7 transfected cells were lysed in buffer A, composed of 50 mM tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, 1% IGEPAL CA-630, 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, 1 μ g/ml leupeptin, 1 μ g/ml pepstatin A and 1 μ g/ml aprotinin. Total lysates were centrifuged at 13,000 rpm at 4°C for 15 minutes. Supernatant was incubated with anti-FLAG monoclonal antibody-agarose (Sigma-Aldrich). The resin binding the immune complex was washed 3 times with 0.5 ml buffer A and the complex was then eluted with $1 \times$ Laemmli sodium dodecylsulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis sample buffer. Eluted proteins were subjected to sodium dodecylsulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and analyzed by Western blot.

Invasion Assay

Transwell cell culture chambers were used for *in vitro* invasion assay.^{18,19} The upper face of the filter was covered with 1 mg/ml Matrigel™ and the lower face was covered with 100 μ g/ml fibronectin. Cells (5×10^4) were placed in the upper chamber and incubated for 24 hours. Cells that remained on the upper face of the membrane were removed with a cotton swab. Cells on the lower face of the membrane were fixed with paraformaldehyde and examined by fluorescence microscopy for counting. The total invaded cell number per filter was calculated using transfection efficiency.

Statistical Analysis

We used SPSS® 12.0. Statistically significant differences were determined using the Student's t test with differences considered significant at $p < 0.05$.

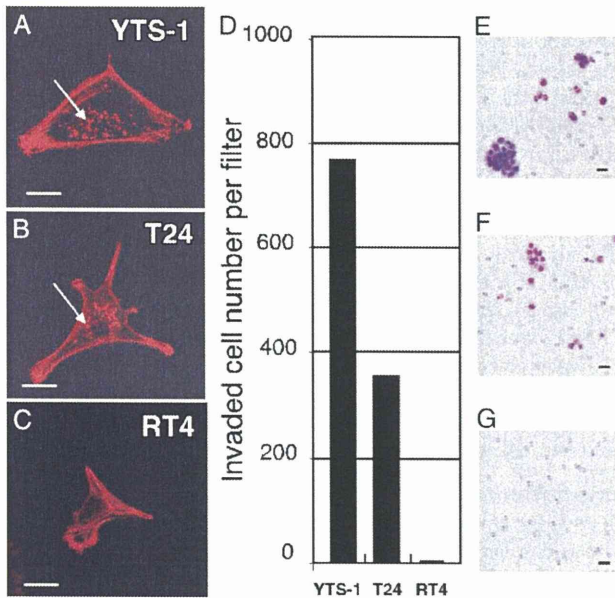


Figure 1. Invadopodia formation and invasion capacity of bladder tumor cell lines. Note invasive YTS-1 (A) and T24 (B), and noninvasive RT4 (C) bladder tumor cells. Scale bars indicate 10 μ m. (D), in vitro invasion capacity of bladder tumor cells. In vitro invasion assay shows representative fields on bottom of Matrigel coated membrane insert, including YTS-1 (E), T24 (F) and RT4 (G) cells. Bars indicate 25 μ m.

RESULTS

We first examined the invasive bladder tumor cell lines YTS-1 and T24, and the noninvasive bladder tumor cell line RT4 for invadopodia formation and in vitro invasion capacity. Cells were stained with phalloidin to visualize F-actin cores of invadopodia. A number of F-actin puncta was observed in YTS-1 and T24 cells but no F-actin puncta were observed in RT4 cells (fig. 1, A to C). YTS-1 and T24 cells showed high invasive capacity but the invasive capacity of RT4 was undetectable (fig. 1, D to G). Our previous results confirmed that the F-actin puncta in the YTS-1 and T24 cells were functionally active invadopodia.¹⁰ Results suggest that invadopodia correlate with the invasive capacity of bladder tumor cells.

FBP17 is an 80 kDa cytosolic protein consisting of several functional domains, including an N-terminal EFC domain and an SH3 domain at the C-terminus (fig. 2, A). Previous studies showed that FBP17 is involved in endocytosis due to the membrane deformation activity of the EFC domain.¹³⁻¹⁵ This activity led us to hypothesize that FBP17 is involved in invadopodia formation since the invadopodia formation process includes deformation of the plasma membrane. To test this hypothesis we first determined whether the bladder tumor cells expressed FBP17. Total lysates were prepared from the 3 blad-

der tumor cell lines YTS-1, T24 and RT4, and the bladder tumor specimens from patients 1 and 2 with pathological stage pT2 bladder tumors, and analyzed by Western blot using anti-FBP17 polyclonal antibody. All bladder tumor cells expressed FBP17 at similar levels (fig. 2, B, lanes 1 to 5).

We performed immunofluorescence experiments to examine FBP17 localization in invasive bladder tumor cells. Phalloidin staining revealed a number of invadopodia in YTS-1 and T24 cells (fig. 3, A and B). To validate the results of the experiments in cell lines using physiologically relevant materials we prepared primary culture cells from the bladder tumor specimens of 2 patients as described, and tested the cells for invadopodia formation. Phalloidin staining revealed that the primary culture cells also formed invadopodia (fig. 3, C and D). To examine FBP17 localization we used the HA tagged FBP17 construct HA-FBP17 and anti-HA monoclonal antibody since anti-FBP17 polyclonal antibody is not suitable for immunofluorescence microscopy.^{13,14,20} Invasive bladder tumor cells, including YTS-1 and T24 cells, and cells from the 2 patients, were transfected with HA-FBP17 and then double stained with

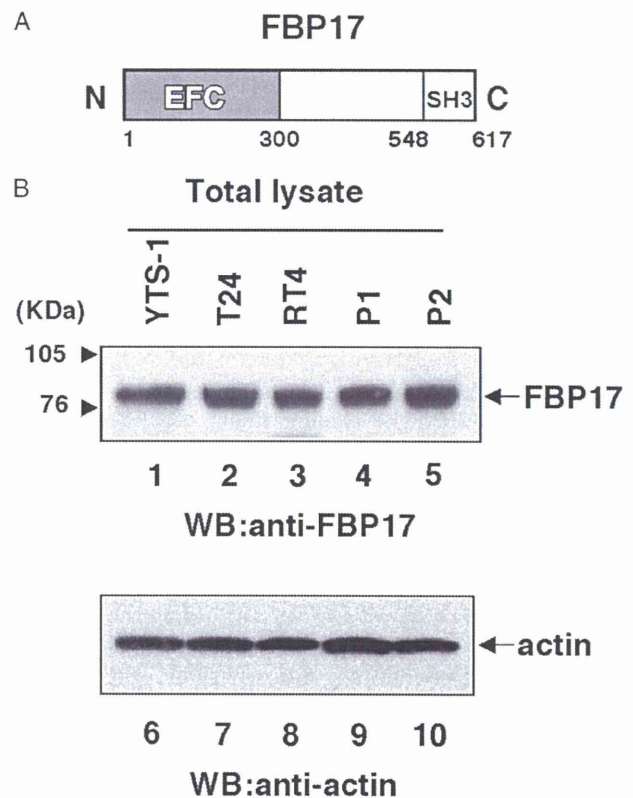


Figure 2. FBP17 domain organization (A), and total lysates from bladder tumor cell lines and invasive bladder tumor specimens from patients 1 (P1) and 2 (P2) (B). N, N-terminus. C, C-terminus. Lysates were analyzed by Western blot (WB) with β -actin as internal control.

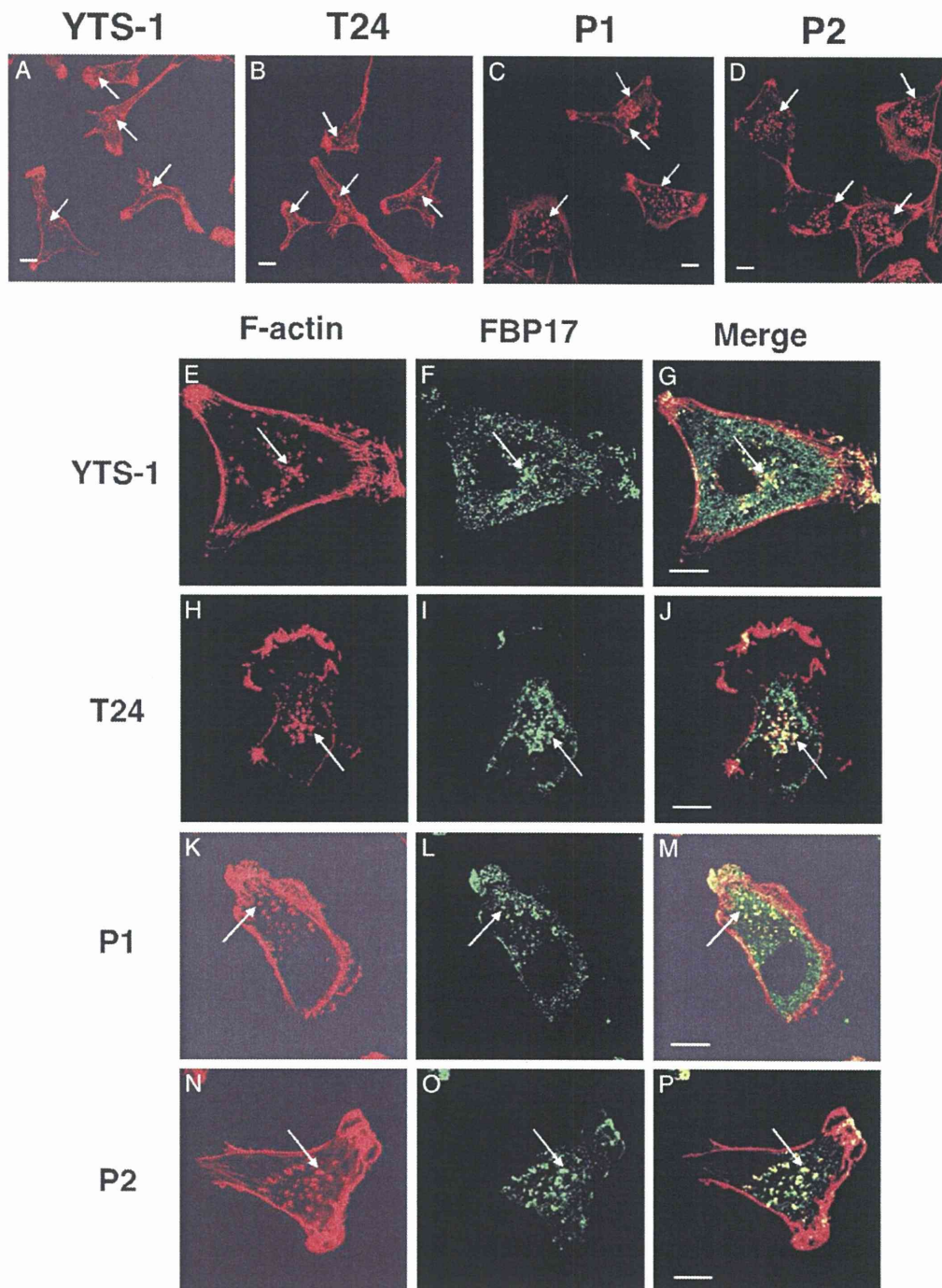


Figure 3. FBP17 localized at invadopodia. Note invadopodia formation by invasive bladder tumor cells YTS-1 (A) and T24 (B), and primary culture tumor cells from patients 1 (P1, C) and 2 (P2, D). Arrows indicate representative invadopodia. Confocal laser scanning micrography reveals YTS-1 (E to G), T24 (H to J), patient 1 (K to M) and patient 2 (N to P). Yellow areas (G, J, M and P) indicate co-localization of HA-FBP17 (green areas) (E, H, K and N) and invadopodia (red areas) (F, I, L and O). Scale bars indicate 10 μm .

phalloidin and anti-HA. Merged images of phalloidin and anti-HA staining revealed that HA-FBP17 co-localized with F-actin puncta in YTS-1, T24 cells and primary culture tumor cells (fig. 3, G, J, M and P), indicating that FBP17 localizes at invadopodia.

In invasive bladder tumor cells FBP17 co-localized with Arp3, another invadopodia marker in bladder tumor cell lines and primary culture tumor cells (fig. 4). This confirmed that FBP17 localizes at invadopodia.

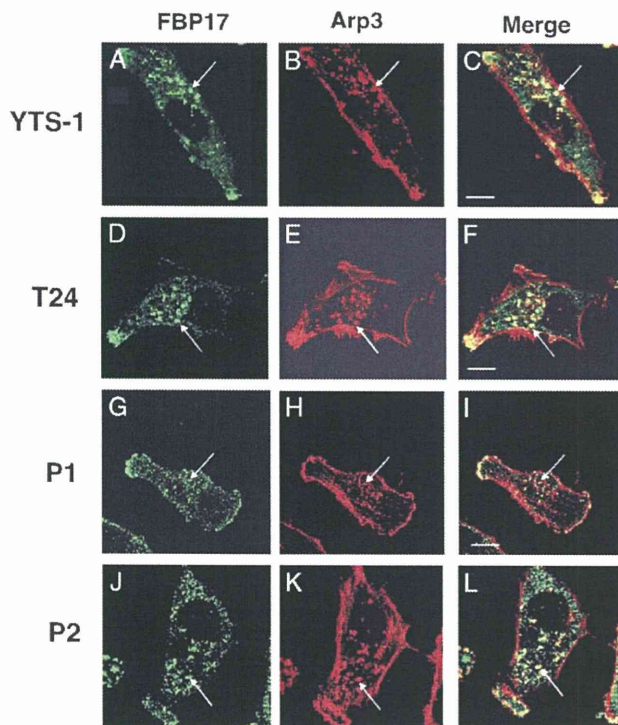


Figure 4. Confocal laser scanning shows FBP17 and Arp3 colocalization in YTS-1, T24, and patient 1 (P1) and 2 (P2) samples. Yellow areas (C, F, I and L) indicate co-localization of HA-FBP17 (green areas) (A, D, G and J) and Arp3 (red areas) (B, E, H and K). Arrows indicate representative invadopodia. Scale bars indicate 10 μm .

To determine the importance of FBP17 in invadopodia formation in bladder tumor cells we knocked down FBP17 using siRNA. To confirm that FBP17 expression was knocked down in cells we transfected YTS-1 cells with siRNA and analyzed the expression levels of FBP17 in cells by Western blot. YTS-1 cells transfected with FBP17 siRNA expressed approximately 80% less FBP17 than cells transfected with its scrambled control siRNA but the 2 cells expressed almost the same β -actin levels (fig. 5, A). This indicates that FBP17 expression was efficiently knocked down in most transfected cells. YTS-1 and T24 cells were co-transfected with FBP17 siRNA and pmaxGFP. Two days after transfection cells were stained with Alexa 568 labeled phalloidin. GFP positive cells were examined for invadopodia formation by fluorescence microscopy. To quantify invadopodia formation we scored the percent of cells with invadopodia. Invadopodia formation in YTS-1 and T24 cells was significantly impaired in FBP17 knock-down cells (fig. 5, B). This suggests that FBP17 is required for invadopodia formation in invasive bladder tumor cells. Figure 5, C to F shows several representative cells from each experiment.

To determine the role of FBP17 in invadopodia function we assayed tumor cell invasion in the FBP17 knockdown cells. We tested the transfected cells for in vitro invasion. We counted the number of invaded GFP positive cells through the Matrigel and calculated the total number of invaded cells per filter. Invasion of YTS-1 and T24 bladder tumor cells was significantly decreased in the FBP17 knockdown cells (fig. 5, G to K). Results suggest that FBP17 has a critical role in tumor cell invasion by mediating invadopodia formation.

FBP17 contains the functionally important EFC domain¹³ and SH3 domain (fig. 2, A). The EFC domain has membrane deformation activity by binding to the membrane phospholipid phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate.^{13,15} The SH3 domain binds to dynamin-2 to recruit dynamin-2 to the plasma membrane.^{13,14,21} Dynamin-2 has an important role in endocytosis by regulating vesicle recruitment to the plasma membrane.²² Previous studies showed that FBP17 has an essential role in endocytosis and the regulation of neuronal morphology through EFC and SH3 domain activity.^{15,21}

We then asked whether the activity of these 2 domains is needed for invadopodia formation. To address this question we constructed FBP17 mutants defective in these activities and examined whether FBP17 mutant over expression would affect invadopodia formation. To determine the roles of the EFC and SH3 domains we made 3 FBP17 constructs, including WT, K33E and dSH3 (fig. 6, A). All constructs were N-terminally FLAG tagged. To assess and confirm the activity of each domain of the FBP17 mutants, we performed membrane tubulation assay for membrane deformation activity and FBP17 immunoprecipitation for FBP17 binding to dynamin-2 (fig. 6, A and B).^{13,15,20} Membrane tubulation in cells transfected with the FLAG-FBP17 constructs is an indicator of the membrane deformation activity of FBP17.^{13-15,20} We transfected HEK293 cells with FLAG-FBP17 constructs and stained cells with anti-FLAG monoclonal antibody. The relative membrane tubulation activity of each mutant was expressed as very strong (+++) to almost nothing (-). A number of tubular structures was observed in cells expressing WT and dSH3 but not in cells expressing K33E, indicating that K33E membrane deformation activity was undetectable (fig. 6, A).^{13,20}

To examine whether the FBP17 mutants would bind to dynamin-2 in cells we transfected YTS-1 cells with the FBP17 constructs. Western blot confirmed that the transfected cells expressed FLAG-FBP17 and its mutants, and endogenous dynamin-2 (fig. 6, B, lanes 1 to 6). FLAG-FBP17 was immuno-

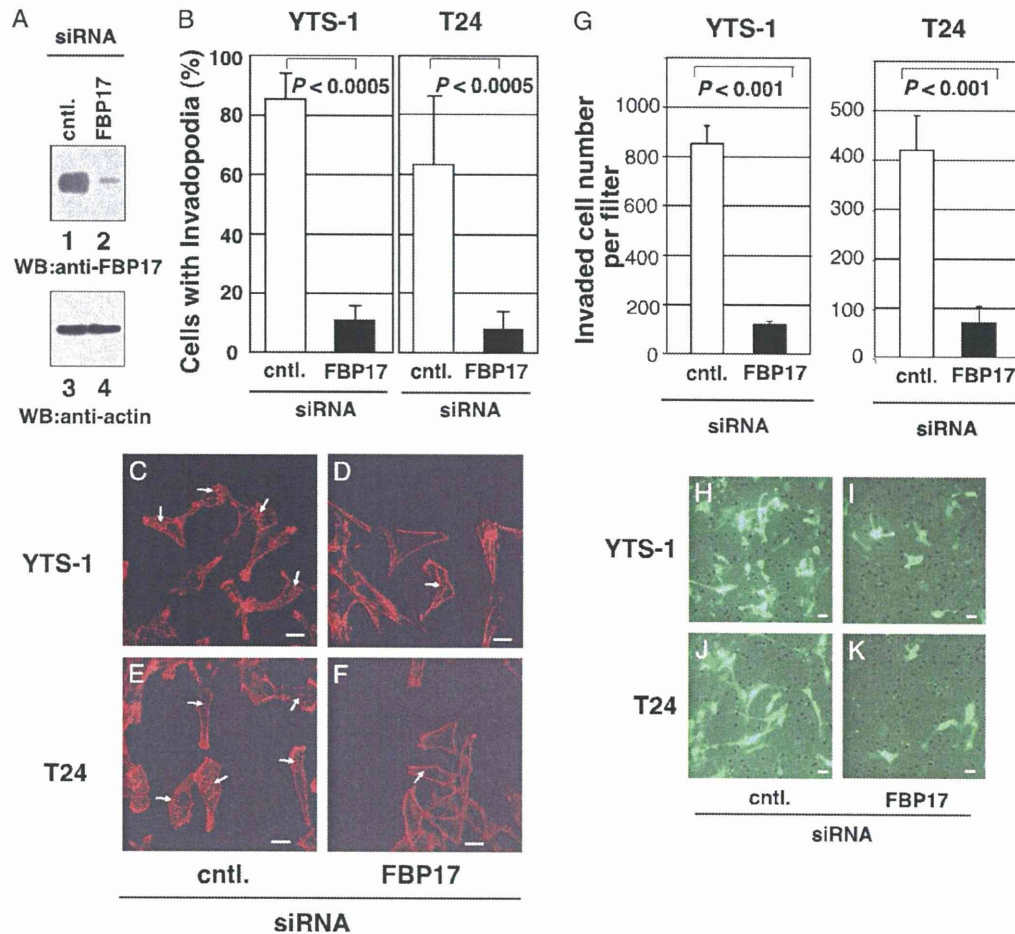


Figure 5. FBP17 role in invadopodia formation. Western blot (WB) of FBP17 (lanes 1 and 2) and β -actin (lanes 3 and 4) (A). *cntl.*, control. Invadopodia formation in transfected cells examined by fluorescence microscopy in 3 randomly selected fields (B to F). Percent with invadopodia was scored per transfected cells in total of 200 to 300 cells (B). Invadopodia formation was determined in cells transfected with scrambled control and FBP17 siRNA. Data represent mean \pm SD of triplicate experiments (B and G). Transfected cells were examined for invadopodia formation (C to F). Arrows indicate representative invadopodia. Scale bars indicate 10 μ m. Invasion of cells transfected (G to K) with scrambled control and FBP17 siRNA (G). Representative fields on bottom of Matrigel coated membrane insert (H to K). Scale bars indicate 25 μ m.

precipitated from transfected cell lysates with anti-FLAG monoclonal antibody (fig. 6, B, lanes 7 to 9). Endogenous dynamin-2 co-immunoprecipitated with WT and K33E but not with dSH3 (fig. 6, B, lanes 10 to 12). We also confirmed that FBP17 interacted with dynamin-2 in RT4 noninvasive bladder tumor cells (fig. 6, C).

Cells co-transfected with the FLAG-FBP17 mutant constructs and pmaxGFP were stained with Alexa 568-phalloidin for invadopodia formation. The percent of cells with invadopodia was scored. Invadopodia formation by invasive bladder tumor cells was severely impaired in cells expressing K33E and dSH3 (fig. 7, A). Figure 7, B to G shows representative cells from each experiment. We also tested the transfected cells for in vitro invasion. Bladder tumor cell invasion capacity was

significantly decreased in the 2 cells expressing K33E and dSH3, respectively (fig. 7, H to N). Results suggest that each activity of the membrane deformation and dynamin-2 recruitment of FBP17 is needed for invadopodia formation and invasion.

DISCUSSION

FBP17 is required for invadopodia formation and bladder tumor cell invasion. To our knowledge we report the first study providing evidence that FBP17 has an essential role in invadopodia formation, although invadopodia formation was observed in various types of cancer cells.⁶⁻⁹

Previous studies of the molecular basis of invadopodia formation focused on the regulation mecha-

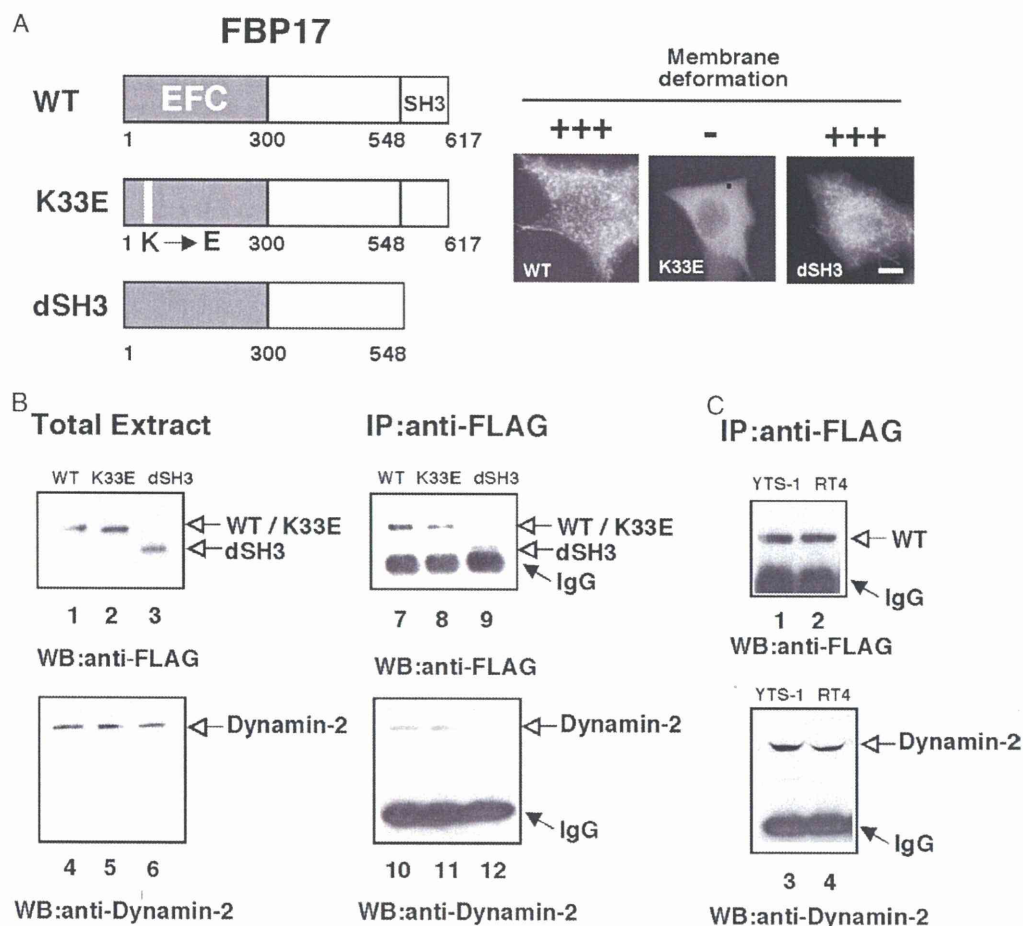


Figure 6. FBP17 EFC and SH3 domain activity in cells. Domain organization and membrane deformation activity of FBP17 mutants using FBP17 constructs WT, K33E and dSH3 (A). Note representative transfected cells. Scale bar indicates 10 μ m. Relative membrane tubulation activity of each mutant was determined (+++ and -). Western blots (WB) show FBP17 binding to dynamin-2 through SH3 domain in cells for expression of FBP17 mutants (lanes 1 to 3) and endogenous dynamin-2 (lanes 4 to 6) (B). Mutants were immunoprecipitated (IP) from transfected cell lysates with anti-FLAG, followed by Western blot with anti-FLAG (lanes 7 to 9) and anti-dynamin-2 (lanes 10 to 12). Open arrows indicate FLAG tagged FBP17 mutants and dynamin-2. Black arrows indicate IgG from anti-FLAG. Binding of FBP17 to dynamin-2 in RT4 cells (C). YTS-1 and RT4 cells were transfected with WT immunoprecipitated from total lysates (lanes 1 and 2), followed by Western blot for dynamin-2 (lanes 3 and 4).

nisms of the actin cytoskeleton since invadopodia are F-actin rich organelles.²³⁻²⁷ To our knowledge the current study provides the first evidence that the membrane deformation activity of the EFC domain of FBP17 is critical for invadopodia formation (fig. 7).

We also noted that dynamin-2 recruitment to the plasma membrane by the SH3 domain of FBP17 is needed for invadopodia formation (fig. 7). This suggests that dynamin-2 probably has an essential role in invadopodia formation by regulating the recruitment of vesicles to the plasma membrane since membrane protrusion requires the delivery of new membrane materials.²⁸

Invadopodia formation was not observed in RT4 cells, although FBP17 interacted with dynamin-2 in RT4 and in YTS-1 cells (figs. 2, B and 6, C). Results

suggest that RT4 cells are deficient in some molecular steps other than the interaction of FBP17 with dynamin-2 in the whole molecular process for invadopodia formation and such deficiency causes the lack of invadopodia in RT4 cells.

A large population of patients with bladder tumors diagnosed before muscle invasion can be effectively treated with surgery.²⁹ However, muscle invasion by bladder tumors has a great impact on prognosis and postoperative quality of life in patients with bladder tumors since muscle invasion leads directly to metastasis and tumor recurrence. Future studies of the molecular basis of invadopodia formation, including this study, may lead to the discovery or development of new agents to control the process of muscle invasion of bladder tumors by suppressing invadopodia formation.

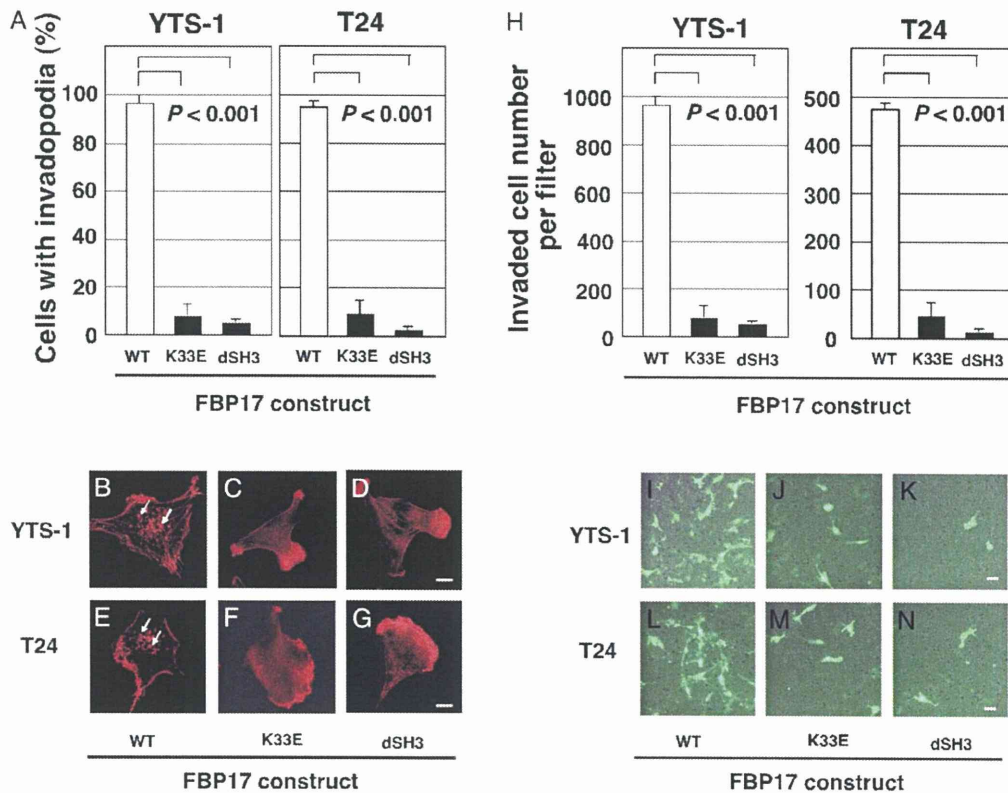


Figure 7. Invadopodia formation and invasion by cells expressing FBP17 mutants. Transfected cells were examined for invadopodia formation (A to G) and assayed for in vitro invasion (H to N). Data represent mean \pm SD of triplicate experiments (A and H). Representative cells of each experiment, including YTS-1 cells expressing WT (B), K33E (C) and dSH3 (D), and T24 cells expressing WT (E), K33E (F) and dSH3 (G). Arrows indicate representative invadopodia. Scale bar indicates 10 μ m. Invasion of cells expressing WT, and mutants K33E and dSH3 (H). Representative fields on the bottom surfaces of the membrane of Matrigel coated insert, including YTS-1 cells expressing WT (I), K33E (J) and dSH3 (K), and T24 cells expressing WT (L), K33E (M) and dSH3 (N). Scale bars indicate 25 μ m.

CONCLUSIONS

Bladder tumor invasion is mediated by invadopodia, which are the membrane protrusions rich in F-actin formed by invasive bladder tumor cells. We report that FBP17 is required for invadopodia formation and bladder tumor cell invasion. Our results contribute to the elucidation of the molecular mechanisms of invadopodia formation and may lead to the discovery of new therapeutic strategies to block bladder tumor invasion.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Drs. T. Miura, T. Sakurai and T. Sato, Hirosaki University Graduate School of Health Sciences, provided technical assistance and discussion. Dr. N. Mochizuki, National Cardiovascular Center Research Institute, Osaka, Japan, provided anti-FBP17 antibody. Dr. H. Kakizaki, Yamagata University, Yamagata, Japan provided the YTS-1 cell line. siRNA was synthesized at Dharmacon, Lafayette, Colorado.

REFERENCES

- Jemal A, Siegel R, Ward E et al: Cancer statistics, 2009. *CA Cancer J Clin* 2009; **59**: 225.
- Fackler OT and Grosse R: Cell motility through plasma membrane blebbing. *J Cell Biol* 2008; **181**: 879.
- Stylli SS, Kaye AH and Lock P: Invadopodia: at the cutting edge of tumour invasion. *J Clin Neurosci* 2008; **15**: 725.
- Gimona M and Buccione R: Adhesions that mediate invasion. *Int J Biochem Cell Biol* 2006; **38**: 1875.
- Albiges-Rizo C, Destaing O, Fourcade B et al: Actin machinery and mechanosensitivity in invadopodia, podosomes and focal adhesions. *J Cell Sci* 2009; **122**: 3037.
- Weaver AM: Invadopodia: specialized cell structures for cancer invasion. *Clin Exp Metastasis* 2006; **23**: 97.
- Yoshio T, Morita T, Kimura Y et al: Caldesmon suppresses cancer cell invasion by regulating podosome/invadopodium formation. *FEBS Lett* 2007; **581**: 3777.
- Clark ES, Whigham AS, Yarbrough WG et al: Cortactin is an essential regulator of matrix metalloproteinase secretion and extracellular matrix degradation in invadopodia. *Cancer Res* 2007; **67**: 4227.

9. Desai B, Ma T and Chellaiah MA: Invadopodia and matrix degradation, a new property of prostate cancer cells during migration and invasion. *J Biol Chem* 2008; **283**: 13856.
10. Sutoh M, Hashimoto Y, Yoneyama T et al: Invadopodia formation by bladder tumor cells. *Oncol Res* 2010; **19**: 85.
11. Schonichen A and Geyer M: Fifteen formins for an actin filament: a molecular view on the regulation of human formins. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 2010; **1803**: 152.
12. Aspenstrom P: Formin-binding proteins: modulators of formin-dependent actin polymerization. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 2010; **1803**: 174.
13. Tsujita K, Suetsugu S, Sasaki N et al: Coordination between the actin cytoskeleton and membrane deformation by a novel membrane tubulation domain of PCH proteins is involved in endocytosis. *J Cell Biol* 2006; **172**: 269.
14. Kamioka Y, Fukuhara S, Sawa H et al: A novel dynamin-associating molecule, formin-binding protein 17, induces tubular membrane invaginations and participates in endocytosis. *J Biol Chem* 2004; **279**: 40091.
15. Shimada A, Niwa H, Tsujita K et al: Curved EFC/F-BAR-domain dimers are joined end to end into a filament for membrane invagination in endocytosis. *Cell* 2007; **129**: 761.
16. Kubota Y, Nakada T, Yanai H et al: Electropermeabilization in bladder cancer chemotherapy. *Cancer Chemother Pharmacol* 1996; **39**: 67.
17. O'Toole C, Perlmann P, Unsgaard B et al: Cellular immunity to human urinary bladder carcinoma. II. Effect of surgery and preoperative irradiation. *Int J Cancer* 1972; **10**: 92.
18. Albini A, Iwamoto Y, Kleinman HK et al: A rapid in vitro assay for quantitating the invasive potential of tumor cells. *Cancer Res* 1987; **47**: 3239.
19. Kelly T, Yan Y, Osborne RL et al: Proteolysis of extracellular matrix by invadopodia facilitates human breast cancer cell invasion and is mediated by matrix metalloproteinases. *Clin Exp Metastasis* 1998; **16**: 501.
20. Tsuboi S, Takada H, Hara T et al: FBP17 mediates a common molecular step in the formation of podosomes and phagocytic cups in macrophages. *J Biol Chem* 2009; **284**: 8548.
21. Kakimoto T, Katoh H and Negishi M: Regulation of neuronal morphology by Toca-1, an F-BAR/EFC protein that induces plasma membrane invagination. *J Biol Chem* 2006; **281**: 29042.
22. Pelkmans L and Helenius A: Endocytosis via caveolae. *Traffic* 2002; **3**: 311.
23. Linder S, Nelson D, Weiss M et al: Wiskott-Aldrich syndrome protein regulates podosomes in primary human macrophages. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 1999; **96**: 9648.
24. Mizutani K, Miki H, He H et al: Essential role of neural Wiskott-Aldrich syndrome protein in podosome formation and degradation of extracellular matrix in src-transformed fibroblasts. *Cancer Res* 2002; **62**: 669.
25. Buccione R, Orth JD and McNiven MA: Foot and mouth: podosomes, invadopodia and circular dorsal ruffles. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 2004; **5**: 647.
26. Yamaguchi H and Condeelis J: Regulation of the actin cytoskeleton in cancer cell migration and invasion. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 2007; **1773**: 642.
27. Oikawa T, Itoh T and Takenawa T: Sequential signals toward podosome formation in NIH-src cells. *J Cell Biol* 2008; **182**: 157.
28. Linder S: The matrix corroded: podosomes and invadopodia in extracellular matrix degradation. *Trends Cell Biol* 2007; **17**: 107.
29. Cancer Facts and Figures 2009. American Cancer Society. Available at <http://www.cancer.org/downloads/STT/500809web.pdf>. Accessed 2009.

尿中剥離細胞 survivin mRNA 測定による膀胱癌の診断

坂本 佑子*¹ 西岡 淳二*² 野間 桂*³ 安田 和成*⁴
中谷 中*⁵ 木瀬 英明*⁶ 杉村 芳樹*⁷ 登 勉*⁸

The Usefulness of Survivin/Glyceraldehyde-3-Phosphate Dehydrogenase Ratio in Urine Exfoliated Cells for the Detection of Bladder Tumor

Yuko SAKAMOTO*¹, Junji NISHIOKA, PhD*², Katsura NOMA*³,
Kazunari YASUDA*⁴, Kaname NAKATANI, MD*⁵, Hideaki KISE, MD*⁶,
Yoshiki SUGIMURA, MD*⁷ and Tsutomu NOBORI, MD*⁸

Objective: Survivin is one of the apoptosis inhibitor proteins and is rarely expressed in adult normal tissues. However, survivin expression has been detected in various tumors. In this study, we evaluated the usefulness of urinary survivin/glyceraldehyde 3 phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) ratio as a marker for bladder tumor.

Patients and methods: Urine samples were obtained from 72 patients with bladder tumor, 36 with urinary tract inflammation as controls. Survivin and GAPDH mRNA expression was measured by quantitative real-time PCR assay in urine cells. The GAPDH housekeeping gene was used for normalization of survivin expression. We also analyzed survivin protein levels using urine samples and recombinant protein by western blotting.

Results: High expression of survivin was confirmed on the protein level using urine samples of bladder tumor by western blotting. Survivin/GAPDH mRNA ratios of bladder tumor quantified by real-time PCR was significantly higher than those of controls ($p=0.001$). In pathological stage of bladder tumor, survivin/GAPDH mRNA ratio of pTis was significantly high compared with pTa and pT1 ($p<0.001$, $p=0.001$, respectively). Grade3 tumors expressed high level of survivin/GAPDH mRNA ratio compared with Grade1 and Grade2 tumors ($p=0.03$). The sensitivity, the specificity and AUC (area under the curve) of survivin/GAPDH mRNA ratio was 83.3%, 86.1% and 0.898, respectively.

Conclusion: Measuring survivin/GAPDH mRNA ratio in urine is non invasive and high sensitive examination. Therefore, survivin/GAPDH mRNA ratio is useful marker for the detection of bladder tumor, especially to detect carcinoma *in situ*.

[Rinsho Byori 59 : 446~451, 2011]

Corresponding author: Kaname NAKATANI, Personalized Medicine/Clinical Laboratories, Mie University Hospital, Tsu 514-8507, Japan. E-mail: nakatani@clin.medic.mie-u.ac.jp

受付 2011 年 1 月 14 日・受理 2011 年 3 月 24 日

*^{1~4} 三重大学医学部附属病院中央検査部, *⁵ 同 オーダーメイド医療部/中央検査部,

*^{6,7} 同 大学院医学系研究科腎泌尿器外科学, *⁸ 同 大学院検査医学(〒514-8507 津市江戸橋 2-174)

本論文は第 57 回日本臨床検査医学会学術集会における座長推薦論文である。

【Key Words】 survivin(サバイビン), glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase: GAPDH(グリセルアルデヒド3リン酸脱水素酵素), bladder tumor(膀胱癌), real-time PCR(リアルタイムPCR)

膀胱癌は、50～70歳代の男性に好発する腫瘍であり、年間罹患数は一万二千人程度と推測されている¹⁾。膀胱癌は、時間的、空間的に多発する傾向にあり、外科的摘出手術後も再発を繰り返しやすいという特徴をもっている。

膀胱癌の診断や経過観察には、尿細胞診や膀胱鏡による生検・組織診断が一般的に用いられている。しかし、尿細胞診は診断率が低く、膀胱鏡は侵襲的であり、出血や炎症などの合併症を惹き起こすという欠点がある。そこで、膀胱癌の早期診断、早期治療のために、スクリーニングとして活用できる高感度かつ非侵襲的な膀胱癌特異的マーカーの検索が続けられている。

近年、IAP(Inhibitor of apoptosis protein)ファミリーに属するアポトーシス阻害分子である survivin の機能が明らかにされつつある。survivin は、抗アポトーシス作用をもつ baculovirus IAP repeat(BIR)ドメインを1個有し²⁾、このBIRドメインが caspase に直接結合し caspase 活性を阻害することで、アポトーシスを抑制する³⁾。また、ユビキチン化に関わる RING finger ドメインを含まず、種々のアポトーシス阻害分子の中でも最も単純な構造をしている²⁾。survivin は、細胞死の制御に加え、細胞分裂においてもその重要性が示唆されており、細胞周期に依存して G2/M 期で高発現する特徴をもつ⁴⁾。

さらに発現調節の特徴として、survivin は、成人における正常組織では、胸腺など一部組織を除いて殆ど発現していないが、乳癌、胃癌、大腸癌など様々な悪性腫瘍では過剰発現していることが報告されている⁵⁾。

今回我々は、膀胱癌患者尿中に剥離した癌細胞における survivin 発現量と、ハウスキーピング遺伝子である glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) 発現量の測定による膀胱癌診断の有用性について検討を行った。

I. 対象および方法

対象は、三重大学医学部附属病院泌尿器外科を受診し、組織学的に膀胱癌と診断された患者72例(年齢71.4±9.6歳)および尿中に白血球が多数認められた尿路系炎症患者36例(年齢55.0±16.4歳)で

ある。尿検体は、基本的には自然排泄尿を使用し、一部の膀胱癌患者では膀胱鏡検査中ならびに摘出手術中に回収した尿検体を用いた。

72例の膀胱癌は、膀胱癌取扱い規約1997年度TNM分類に従い分類した。72例の膀胱癌を腫瘍の深達程度を表わす組織学的深達度別に分類すると、上皮内癌である pTis が16例、乳頭状非浸潤癌である pTa が27例、粘膜固有層までの癌の進展がみられる pT1 が19例、膀胱周囲組織など筋層以上への癌浸潤が認められる pT2, pT3, pT4 があわせて10例である。また、細胞異型度、構造異型度により分類した組織学的異型度別では、軽度異型である Grade1 と中等度異型である Grade2 があわせて41例、高度異型である Grade3 が31例である。

なお、本研究は、三重大学医学部臨床研究倫理委員会に申請・承認され、担当医から対象者に文書によって説明し、文書による同意書を取得した後、実施した。

A. ウエスタンブロット法による survivin 蛋白の検出

膀胱癌患者および尿路系炎症患者の尿15ml中の沈渣蛋白をBCA法にて測定した結果、おおよそ1mg程度であったので、ウエスタンブロット法により survivin 蛋白の検出を試みた。尿沈渣を lysis buffer (0.05M Tris/HCl, 0.1M NaCl, 0.1% SDS)にて可溶化した蛋白、ならびにリコンビナント survivin 蛋白の希釈系列を試料として、20%ポリアクリルアミドゲルで SDS-PAGE 後、ニトロセルロースメンブレンにブロットした。リコンビナント survivin 蛋白は、ヒト肝癌由来細胞株 HepG2 より、pQE-30 ベクター(QIAGEN)を使用してクローニングを行い、大腸菌により発現させた後、Ni-NTA Spin Kit(QIAGEN)により精製した。検出には、化学発光を利用した BM ケミルミネッセンスウエスタンブロットティングキット(Roche Diagnostics)を使用し、一次抗体には250倍希釈した抗 survivin 抗体(Santa Cruz Biotechnology)を、二次抗体には1,000倍希釈した HRP 標識抗マウス IgG 抗体(Bio Rad Laboratories)を使用した。撮影・定量解析には、ルミノイメージアナライザー LAS-3000(GE Healthcare)を使用した。

Table 1 Primers and probes for quantitative real-time PCR

Gene		Sequence
survivin (185bp)	Forward primer	5'-AAGAACTGGCCCTTCTTGGA-3'
	Reverse primer	5'-CAACCGGACGAATGCTTTT-3'
	Probe	5'-FAM-CCAGATGACGACCCCATAGAGGAACA-TAMRA-3'
GAPDH (226bp)	Forward primer	5'-GAAGGTGAAGGTCGGAGTC-3'
	Reverse primer	5'-GAAGATGGTGTATGGGATTTC-3'
	Probe	5'-VIC-TTGCCATCAATGACCCCTTCATTGAC-TAMRA-3'

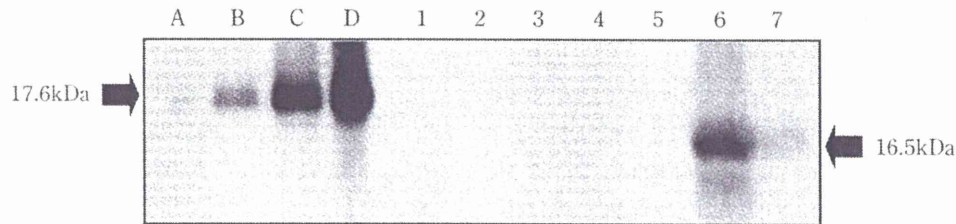


Figure 1 Expressions of survivin protein were detected by western blotting.

Lane A, B, C and D were dilution series of recombinant survivin protein expressed by *E. coli*. Survivin protein levels of lane A, B, C and D were 10ng, 50ng, 100ng and 200ng, respectively.

Lane 1, 2 and 3 were urine samples obtained from patients with urinary tract inflammation, lane 4, 5, 6 and 7 were those with bladder tumor.

Survivin protein levels were determined using MultiGauge, those of lane 6 and 7 were 845ng and 360ng, respectively.

Molecular weight of recombinant survivin was larger than that of urinary survivin because of His-Tag.

B. Real-time PCR 法による発現定量

尿検体を 1,500 回転, 10 分間遠心処理し, 収集した細胞より QIAamp RNA Blood Mini Kit (QIAGEN) を使用し RNA を抽出し, Ready-To-Go You-Prime First-Strand Beads (GE Healthcare) と Random primer (Takara) を用いて cDNA を合成した。合成した cDNA から, Real-time PCR 法により survivin 発現量を定量し, また内部標準として GAPDH 発現量を同時測定した。GAPDH 発現量は survivin 発現量に比較して大きいため, survivin 発現量を GAPDH 発現量にて除した後, 10⁵ 倍した値にて評価を行った。それぞれの発現量は, QuantiTect Multiplex PCR Master Mix (QIAGEN) を使用し, 1 チューブにおいて survivin mRNA と GAPDH mRNA の発現量を同時測定した。**Table 1** にそれぞれのプライマーおよびプローブを示す。Real-time PCR 反応液 25μl を 95°C 15 分処理し, 続いて 94°C 1 分, 60°C 1 分を 45 サイクルで増幅した。

Real-time PCR は, 7900HT Fast Real Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems) を使用し, 検量線作成のための標準試料には survivin ならびに GAPDH の断片 cDNA を組み込んだプラスミドを使用した。

Realtime PCR 法では測定毎に, 10 倍毎の 5 段階濃度の標準資料を測定し, Ct 値を確認した。また標準資料, 測定検体とも二重測定を行い, ほぼ同じ数値を示すことを確認し, 平均値を結果に使用した。

C. 統計解析

測定値は, 平均値±標準偏差で表示した。統計学的検討は, Dr.SPSS II for Windows 11.0.1 J (SPSS Inc.) を使用して独立 t 検定を行い, 危険率 5% 未満を有意差ありと判定した。

II. 結 果

A. ウェスタンブロット法による膀胱癌患者尿中 survivin 蛋白の検出

ウェスタンブロット法の結果を **Fig. 1** に示す。尿中に高度に白血球が検出された尿路系炎症患者 3 例では, いずれの尿沈渣可溶性蛋白質においても survivin 蛋白は検出されなかった。一方, 膀胱癌患者の尿沈渣では 4 例中 2 例において survivin 蛋白が検出され, 大腸菌により発現させたりコンビナント蛋白から検量線を作成し定量解析したところ, 膀胱癌患者尿 15ml 中の survivin 蛋白量はそれぞれ 845ng および 360ng であり, 膀胱癌患者の尿中剥離細胞に

survivin 蛋白の発現が確認された。

B. 膀胱癌患者尿中 survivin mRNA の測定

Real-time PCR 法にて, survivin mRNA と GAPDH mRNA との発現量比を測定・算出した結果, 膀胱癌群では 64.8 ± 103.4 , 尿路系炎症群では 3.0 ± 5.6 であった。膀胱癌群での Ct 値 (Threshold Cycle) の平均値は, survivin で 33.7, GAPDH で 23.2 であり, 尿路系炎症群では, survivin で 39.5, GAPDH で 24.0 であった。膀胱癌群は, 尿路系炎症群に比較して有意に高値を示した (Fig. 2)。

次に, 組織学的異型度別に survivin 発現量を比較検討したところ, Grade1 と Grade2 では 42.6 ± 101.6 , Grade3 では 94.1 ± 100.0 であり, 異型度が増加するに伴い survivin 発現量の上昇が認められる結果となった (Fig. 3)。

続いて組織学的深達度別に survivin 発現量を比較した (Fig. 4)。pTis では 170.9 ± 169.8 , pTa では 25.1 ± 27.6 , pT1 では 30.4 ± 35.6 , pT2 以上では $67.4 \pm$

66.0 であり, pTis は pTa および pT1 と比較して, 有意に高値であった。また, pTis を除く pTa, pT1, pT2 以上では, 浸潤が深くなるにつれ, survivin 発現量が上昇する傾向が認められた。

尿路系炎症を対照群として, 膀胱癌群に対する ROC (Receiver Operating Characteristic curve) 解析を実施した結果, カットオフ値は 5.24 と算出され, 感度ならびに特異度はそれぞれ 83.3%, 86.1% であった。また AUC は 0.898 と良好な値が得られた (Fig. 5)。

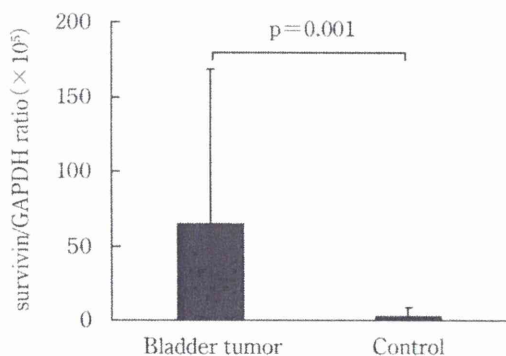


Figure 2 Mean values of survivin/GAPDH ratio for bladder tumor and control. Results are given as the mean \pm SD.

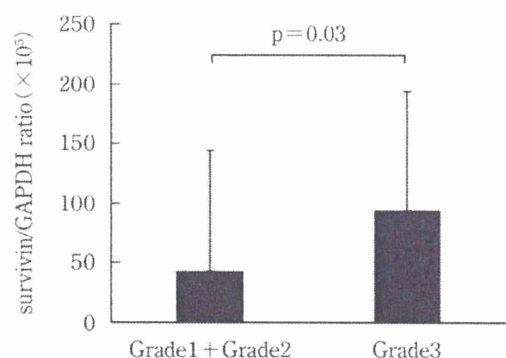


Figure 3 Mean values of survivin/GAPDH ratio for pathological grade of bladder tumor. Results are given as the mean \pm SD.

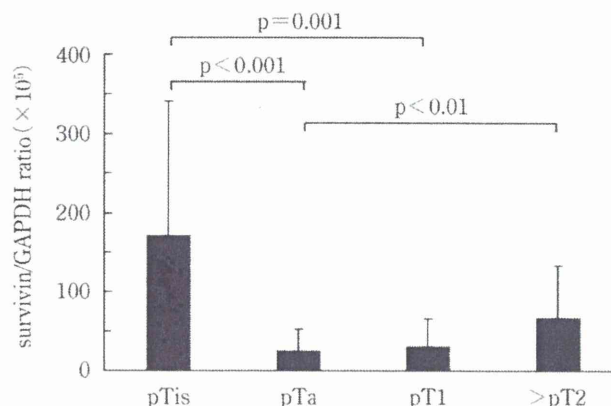


Figure 4 Mean values of survivin/GAPDH ratio for pathological stage of bladder tumor. Results are given as the mean \pm SD.

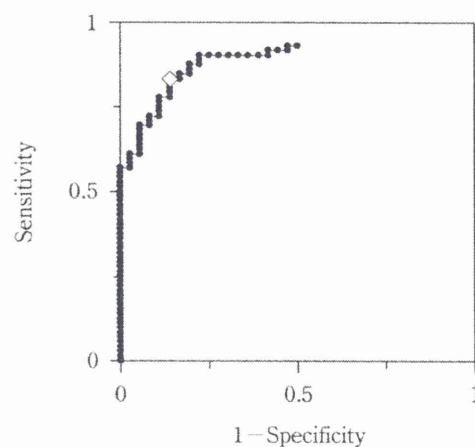


Figure 5 The ROC analysis of survivin/GAPDH ratio ($\times 10^5$) to diagnose patients with bladder tumor.

The calculated cut-off value was 5.24 (\diamond) and the area under the curve was 0.898.

The sensitivity and specificity were 83.3% and 86.1%, respectively.

III. 考 察

膀胱癌の診断や経過観察には、一般的には尿細胞診や膀胱鏡による生検・組織診断が用いられている。しかし、尿細胞診は、非侵襲的で経済的な検査方法ではあるが、感度が40~60%、特異度が90~95%であると報告されており、特に低異型度の腫瘍では診断率が低いことが課題である⁶⁾。また、膀胱鏡による生検は、膀胱癌の確定診断のために必須の検査であるが、侵襲的であり、出血や炎症などの合併症を惹き起こす場合もある。

隆起性病変であれば、腹部エコー、コンピュータ断層撮影(CT)、磁気共鳴画像(MRI)、膀胱鏡などで診断が可能であるが、上皮内癌である場合、これらの方法では診断が困難であることが多い。そこで、膀胱癌の早期診断、早期治療のために、高感度かつ非侵襲的スクリーニングとなる膀胱癌特異的マーカーの検索が続けられている。

今回、著者らは、survivin mRNA と GAPDH mRNA 発現量の測定による膀胱癌診断の有用性を検討したが、膀胱癌群は尿路系炎症群と比較して著しく高値を示し、有意な差が認められた。

survivin/GAPDH mRNA 定量による膀胱癌診断において、偽陽性、偽陰性となる原因としては、尿中への剥離細胞が少なく、抽出される RNA 量が不十分である場合が考えられ、この場合は、survivin/GAPDH 比の測定精度が低下する。また、survivin は、ほとんどの正常組織では発現していないと考えられているが、末梢血好中球において極微量の survivin が発現していることが報告されている⁷⁾。そこで我々は、末梢白血球を混合した尿の希釈系列を作製し検討したところ、白血球数が 1×10^6 個までは偽陽性とならなかったことから、通常、白血球中の survivin mRNA による偽陽性は除外できると考えられた(data not shown)。

偽陰性となる要因には、尿中への癌細胞の剥離がない場合の他、今回検討に使用したプライマー、プローブでは測定できない survivin の splice variant が著しく高発現している場合が考えられる。survivin には、survivin2B, survivin Δ Ex3, survivin2 α , survivin3B の4種類の splice variant が報告されているが⁸⁾、今回使用したプライマー、プローブでは splice variant のうち、survivin3B は包含して測定されるが、survivin2B, survivin Δ Ex3, survivin2 α は測

定されない。膀胱癌においても、wild type survivin の他に survivin2B, survivin Δ Ex3 などの splice variant の発現が報告されており⁹⁾¹⁰⁾、我々も、survivin cDNA クローニングならびに splice variant 特異的 Real-time PCR にてその発現を確認している。しかし、その発現量は、wild-type survivin に比較して著しく低発現であり、本法による膀胱癌の診断に対して偽陰性に作用するものではないと考えられた(data not shown)。

膀胱癌の組織学的所見と survivin/GAPDH 比との関連性を検討した。組織学的異型度別に比較すると、異型度が増加するに伴い、survivin 発現量の増加が認められ、腫瘍の悪性度に survivin が関与していることが示唆された。さらに、組織学的深達度別での比較では、pTis において survivin 発現量が最も高値を示したことより、膀胱鏡、CT、MRI などでは診断が非常に困難である pTis において、survivin/GAPDH mRNA 発現量比の測定が非常に有用な検査法であると考えられた。また、pTis を除外した pTa, pT1, pT2 以上では、浸潤が深くなるにつれ、survivin 発現量の上昇が認められ、組織学的異型度別での検討と同様に、survivin 発現量が腫瘍の悪性度に関与することが示唆された。

浸潤癌ではない pTis において survivin 発現量が高値であった理由として、pTis は Grade3 の癌細胞が中心となり、放置すると浸潤癌になることが多い悪性度の高い癌であること¹¹⁾、また、尿中細胞中の剥離腫瘍細胞の割合が高かったことが要因と考えられる。つまり、上皮内癌である pTis は、腫瘍が粘膜上皮内にとどまり、浸潤することなく広範囲に扁平に広がるので¹¹⁾、浸潤腫瘍と比較して、膀胱内へ剥離する癌細胞の割合が高く、本測定法での検出率が高まると考えられた。

尿路系炎症を対照群とした、膀胱癌群に対する ROC 解析の結果、感度ならびに特異度はそれぞれ 83.3%, 86.1%であり、また AUC は 0.898 であった。これまでの報告¹²⁾¹³⁾における感度・特異度はそれぞれ、68.6~79%, 93~100%であり、著者らの方法では特異度は若干劣るものの、非常に高感度な検査法であることが示された。

IV. 結 語

今回の検討により、尿中剥離細胞の survivin と GAPDH との発現量比の測定は、非侵襲的かつ高感