Statistical methods

The obtained clinical data were analyzed on an intention-to-treat basis. Standard statistical measures and procedures were used in the analysis. The chi-square, Fisher's exact test, and Mann-Whitney's *U*-tests were used to analyze the differences of background features and biochemical data between the two groups. HCC recurrence rate was calculated from the day of HCC treatment in both groups, using the Kaplan-Meier technique. The differences in recurrence curves were tested using the log-rank test. Cox proportional hazard analysis was performed to evaluate independent predictors of tumor recurrence after treatment. A *P*-value of less than 0.05 with two-tailed analysis was considered significant. Data analysis was performed using the computer program SPSS version 11 (SPSS Inc. Chicago, IL).[18]

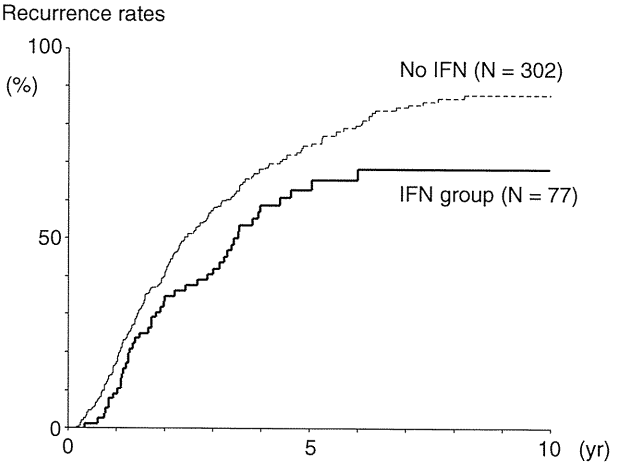

Figure 1 Cumulative recurrence rates of hepatocellular carcinoma in patients with and without interferon therapy.

RESULTS

Effects and toxicity of interferon

SVR WERE FOUND in 4 (5.2%) of 77 patients in IFN-treated group and none in untreated group. BR were found in 7 (9.1%), NR in 36 (46.8%), and undetermined judgment due to continuous administration currently in 30 (39.0%).

Almost all of the patients given IFN therapy showed varied degrees of fever, chills, myalgias, headache, and general malaise after the first injection of IFN. Most of patients revealed a various degree of leukocytopenia and thrombocytopenia. A total of 8 patients (10.4%) withdrew from IFN therapy before development of tumor recurrence. Three patients with depression or psychosis ceased the IFN therapy. The other 5 patients also stopped IFN administration because of varied degree of adverse effects: thrombocytopenia, insomnia, slight degree of hepatic encephalopathy, minor episode of cerebrovascular accident, and generalized fatigue with significant weight loss.

Recurrence rates of hepatocellular carcinoma

During the median observation period of 4.6 years, HCC recurred in 264 patients (69.7%); 45 patients belonged to the IFN group, and the other 219 patients to the untreated group. The cumulative recurrence rate in all patients was 16.2% at the end of the first year following the surgical treatment of HCC, 39.6% at the second year, 54.5% at the third year, 73.0% at the fifth year, 82.8% at the seventh year, and 85.5% at the 10th year. Crude recurrence rates in the IFN group and untreated group were 9.1% and 18.8% at the end of the first year, 33.3% and 42.1% at the second year, 41.1% and 58.1% at the third year, 63.0% and 76.6% at the 5th year, 68.5% and 86.2% at the seventh year, and 68.5% and 93.2% at the 10th year, respectively (Fig. 1). The recurrence rate in the IFN group was significantly lower than that of the untreated group (log-rank test: $P = 0.013$).

In univariate analysis, factors associated with tumor recurrence were explored in all of the 379 patients *en masse*. HCC recurrence was associated with high indocyanine green retention rate at 15 minutes (ICG R15) ($P = 0.004$), low albumin concentration ($P = 0.005$), no IFN therapy ($P = 0.010$), prolonged prothrombin time ($P = 0.041$), and RFA as treatment for HCC ($P = 0.046$).

Multivariate analysis disclosed that recurrence of HCC was independently associated with IFN therapy (hazard ratio 0.66, $P = 0.020$), a high ICG R15 of 20% or more (hazard ratio 1.43, $P = 0.008$), and RFA therapy (hazard ratio 1.32, $P = 0.041$). IFN treatment proved to prevent tumor recurrence after ablation of HCC in those patients with an early stage of HCC (Table 2).

Recurrence rates according to interferon effect

Tumor recurrence rates were evaluated according to judgment of IFN effect in the treated group: SVR ($n = 4$), BR ($n = 7$), NR ($n = 36$), continued IFN administration (N = 30), and untreated group.

Table 2 Independent factors affecting the recurrence of hepatocellular carcinoma after curative treatment

Factors	Category	Hazard ratio (95% CI)	*P*
Interferon therapy	1: No	1	
	2: Yes	0.66 (0.46–0.94)	0.020
ICG R15	1: <20%	1	
	2: ≥20%	1.43 (1.10–1.85)	0.008
Cancer treatment	1: Surgical resection	1	
	2: PRFA	1.32 (1.01–1.72)	0.041

ICG R15, indocyanine green retention rate at 15 minutes; PRFA, percutaneous radiofrequency ablation therapy.

Recurrence rates in the subgroup of SVR, BR, NR, continued administration, and untreated patients were 0%, 0%, 6.7%, 12.5%, and 18.8% at the end of the first year, 25.0%, 28.6%, 37.0%, 25.3%, and 42.1% at the second year, 25.0%, 42.9%, 52.0%, 32.6%, and 58.1% at the third year, 25.0%, 85.7%, 71.1%, 46.7%, and 76.6% at the fifth year, and 25.0%, 100%, 79.3%, 54.3%, and 86.2% at the seventh year, respectively (Fig. 2a). The recurrence rates in a combined group of SVR and continued IFN administration were significantly lower than those in a combined cohort of the other groups (log-rank test, $P = 0.0005$) (Fig. 2b). The recurrence rates of the former and the latter groups were 30.6% and 56.7% at the end of the third year, 43.3% and 75.0% at the fifth year, and 43.3% and 84.7% at the seventh year, respectively.

Recurrence rates according to length of interferon administration

Since HCV RNA eradication (SVR) was found in only four patients, significance of prolonged administration of IFN was assessed in those patients with positive HCV RNA during therapy ($n = 73$).

Recurrence rates in the subgroup with a long IFN therapy of 2 years or more ($n = 39$), a short IFN therapy of less than 2 years ($n = 34$), and in the untreated patients ($n = 302$) were 8.7%, 7.1%, and 18.8% at the end of the first year, 23.9%, 40.2%, and 42.1% at the second year, 39.3%, 46.2%, and 58.1% at the third year, 57.4%, 66.2%, 76.6% at the fifth year, and 66.0%, 77.5%, and 86.2% at the seventh year, and 66.0%, 77.5%, and 93.2%, respectively (Fig. 3). The recurrence rates in the long IFN-therapy group was significantly lower than those with a short therapy group and untreated group (log-rank test, $P = 0.012$).

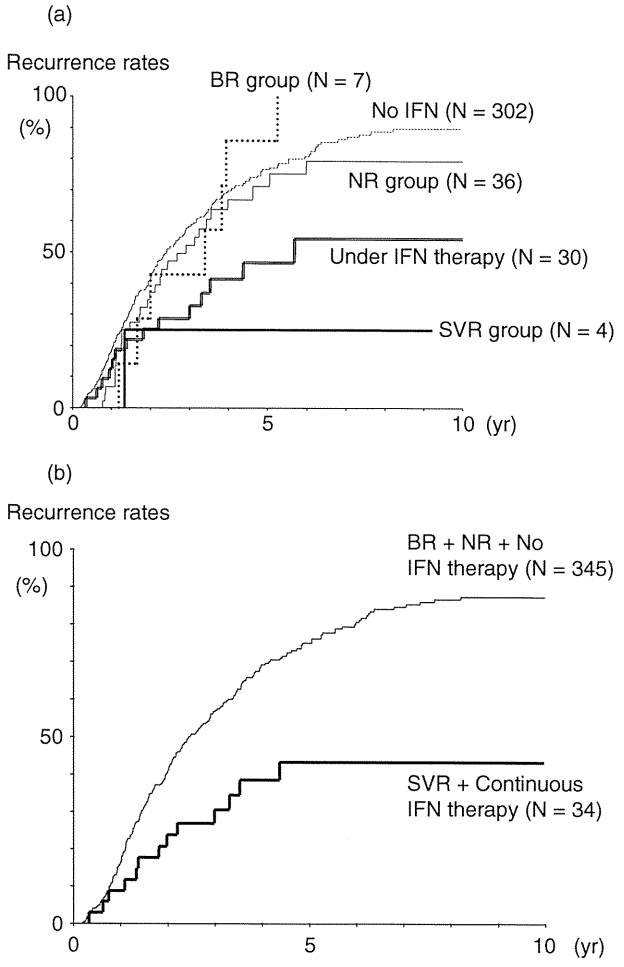

Figure 2 (a) Cumulative recurrence rates of hepatocellular carcinoma according to the effect of interferon. (b) Cumulative recurrence rates of hepatocellular carcinoma in a combined group of sustained virological response and continuous interferon administration and those in a combined group of biochemical response, no response, and no interferon therapy.

To elucidate the impact of a long-term administration of IFN in the prevention of HCC recurrence, multivariate hazard analysis was introduced in the IFN-treated patients without SVR effect ($n = 73$) and the untreated patients ($n = 302$). Multivariate analysis showed that a long-term IFN therapy significantly lowered the recurrence rate in patients with HCV-related HCC: hazard ratios of short-term therapy less than two years and long-term therapy for two years or longer of 2 years or more were 0.80 and 0.60, respectively ($P = 0.044$). The other covariates for recurrence rate included high ICGR15, high AFP value, and initial treatment modality (Table 3).

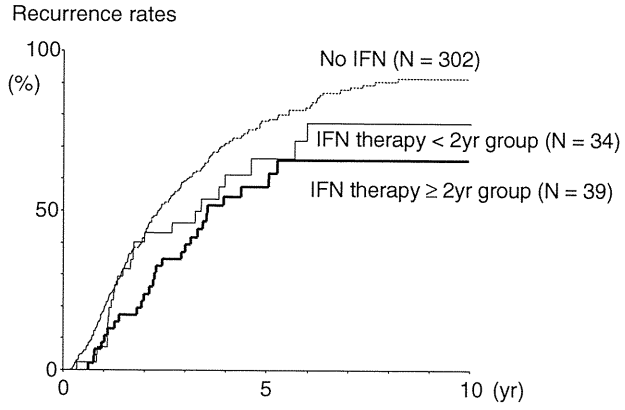

Figure 3 Cumulative recurrence rates of hepatocellular carcinoma in patients without sustained virological response. Recurrence rates were assessed according to the length of interferon administration.

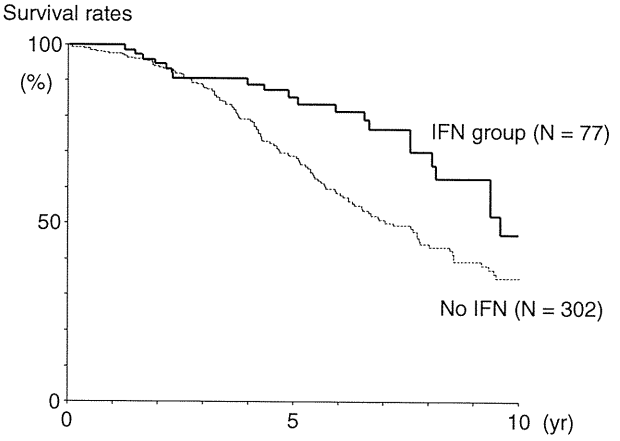

Figure 4 Overall survival rates of patients with or without interferon therapy after potentially curative therapy for hepatocellular carcinoma.

Overall survival rates

A total of 159 patients died during the observation period: 23 (29.9%) in the IFN-treated group and 136 (45.0%) in the untreated group. Crude survival rates of patients after potentially curative therapy for HCC in the IFN-treated and untreated patients were 90.7% and 88.5% at the end of the third year, 85.6% and 68.8% at the fifth year, 76.5% and 50.9% at the seventh year, and 47.0% and 34.7% at the tenth year, respectively (Fig. 4). The survival rates of IFN-treated group were significantly higher than that of those of untreated group (log-rank test, $P = 0.0044$).

Table 3 Independent factors affecting the recurrence of hepatocellular carcinoma after curative treatment, according the length of interferon administration†

Factors	Category	Hazard ratio (95% CI)	*P*
Interferon therapy	1: None	1	0.044
	2: <2 years	0.80 (0.51–1.24)	
	3: ≥2 years	0.60 (0.40–0.91)	
ICG R15	1: <20%	1	
	2: ≥20%	1.37 (1.06–1.77)	0.018
Alpha-fetoprotein	1: <40 mg/L	1	
	2: ≥40 mg/L	1.31 (1.00–1.71)	0.051
Cancer treatment	1: Surgical resection	1	
	2: PRFA	1.28 (0.98–1.65)	0.066

†Four patients with sustained virological response were excluded in the analysis. ICG R15, indocyanine green retention rate at 15 minutes; PRFA, percutaneous radiofrequency ablation therapy.

Multivariate analysis showed overall survival rates were significantly affected by interferon therapy ($P = 0.014$), albumin concentration ($P = 0.015$), platelet count ($P = 0.014$), and ICG R15 ($P = 0.0068$) (Table 4). Hazard ratio for death in those patients with IFN therapy was 0.55 (95% confidence interval 0.34–0.88).

DISCUSSION

ALTHOUGH THIS STUDY was not a prospective, randomized one, there was no significant difference in the background features and laboratory tests except for age, between the treated and untreated groups. This study was based on a long-term observation for a median of 4.6 years, and the number of patient was sufficiently large for sensitivity and reliabil-

Table 4 Independent factors affecting the survival rates of patients with hepatocellular carcinoma after curative treatment

Factors	Category	Hazard ratio (95% C.I.)	*P*
Interferon therapy	1: None	1	
	2: Yes	0.55 (0.39–0.88)	0.014
ICG R15	1: <20%	1	
	2: ≥20%	1.65 (1.15–2.37)	0.0068
Albumin	1: <3.5 g/dl	1	
	2: ≥3.5 g/dl	0.64 (0.44–0.92)	0.015
Platelet count	1: <100,000/mm3	1	
	2: ≥100,000/mm3	0.64 (0.45–0.91)	0.014

ICG R15, indocyanine green retention rate at 15 minutes.

ity for the data regarding recurrence and survival. We also analyzed only those patients with "an early stage" of HCC to minimize the influence of tumor recurrence due to small and undetectable metastatic tumors often found in patients with large or multiple tumors. In the establishment of the diagnosis of early stage of HCC, more than 93% of the patients underwent intensive imaging investigation with CT-HA and CT-AP, together with dynamic CT and dynamic MRI study. Therefore, the diagnosis of a few numbers with small-sized tumor was sufficiently reliable in the study.

This cohort study indicated IFN suppressed the recurrence rate after potentially curative treatment of HCC caused by HCV. Indeed SVR effect after IFN therapy did decrease recurrence rate, majority of patients were not tolerable for a large amount of IFN administration with or without ribavirin because of an old age or advanced liver disease with significant cytopenia. This study demonstrated interferon significantly decreased tumor recurrence rate, irrespective of "anti-viral interferon effect". This study also revealed relatively "rapid" anti-carcinogenic effect compared with the results of a study performed by Mazzaferro *et al.*[11] Most cases of late-phase recurrence are thought to be due to metachronous multicentric, or *de novo*, carcinogenesis. This is quite understandable, because the remaining liver, often cirrhotic, is still at high risk of carcinogenesis.

Our study also emphasizes that long-term, low-dose, intermittent administration of IFN was useful in prevention of tumor recurrence in patients without SVR, with a hazard ratio of 0.60 compared to those with no IFN administration.

The reason why IFN administration suppresses the recurrence rate in HCV-related liver disease remains uncertain. One reason may be anti-tumor activity in the early stage of HCC and another antiviral or anti-necroinflammatory effect for hepatitis. Our data did not disclose the relationship between ALT normalization and prevention of cancer recurrence, since the number of BR group was small (N = 7), and since many patients were currently continuing IFN therapy with normal ALT. Human lymphoblastoid IFN alpha has a powerful anti-proliferative effect on human hepatoma cell line PLC/PRF/5, both *in vitro* and *in vivo*, after implantation in nude mice.[19] Lai *et al.*[20] showed IFN induced objective tumor regression in a significant number of patients with inoperable hepatocellular carcinoma in a randomized controlled trial. Considering the short period to recurrence in our study, IFN may have a direct anti-tumor effect on clinically undetectable HCC. Wang *et al.*[21] showed anti-angiogenesis activity of IFN, and Wu *et al.*[22] demonstrated suppression of vascular endothelial growth factor and inhibition of tumor signaling pathways. Moreno *et al.*[23] reported that IFN induced remission of liver fibrosis irrespective of anti-viral effect. Control of necro-inflammatory process may therefore induce a suppression of the growth process of HCC. Tarao *et al.*[24] reported that high aminotransferase activity resulted in an increased HCC recurrence rate. A randomized controlled trial of IFN for patients with cirrhosis showed that IFN therapy decreased the HCC appearance rate in association with disappearance of HCV-RNA[3]. We also demonstrated IFN suppressed the carcinogenesis rate in patients with chronic hepatitis type C[5]. Taking into account that hepatocellular carcinogenesis in HCV-related chronic liver disease is accelerated by a prolonged period of necro-inflammation of hepatocytes, IFN is hypothesized to diminish the HCC appearance rate through suppression of excessive replication and turnover of hepatocytes. Since the entire process of hepatocellular carcinogenesis from initial transformation of a hepatocyte to detectable growth is considered to take at least several years, the influence of IFN on the carcinogenesis rate or recurrence rate might not be evaluated in as short period of three years or less. Aside from the exact mechanism of the prevention of HCC recurrence, our study demonstrated an encouraging result in the medical management of HCC.

Since these results were not generated from a prospective randomized study, we tried to adjust background biases using multivariate analysis between the treated and untreated group, if any. We should realize the significance of the decrease in recurrence rate by IFN therapy with a hazard ratio by 0.66. Cost-effectiveness and individual and social expenses should be evaluated in detail between those patients with reduction of recurrence rate and those with high recurrence rate with additional tumor ablation therapy. Considering that a long-term prospective trial with and without IFN arm seemed very difficult to perform ethically and economically, we should further accumulate these comparative studies and consider the efficacy of weekly injections of pegylated IFN and adequate dose and length of IFN therapy. Identification of suitable cases for IFN therapy and exact mechanisms of suppression of tumor recurrence are of paramount importance for increasing number of patients with HCC.

In conclusion, long-term intermittent IFN therapy reduced HCC recurrence rate in patients with HCV-related HCC.

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CLINICAL RESEARCH STUDY

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Diabetes Enhances Hepatocarcinogenesis in Noncirrhotic, Interferon-treated Hepatitis C Patients

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ABSTRACT

BACKGROUND: This retrospective cohort study assessed the impact of diabetes mellitus on hepatocarcinogenesis and determined the predictors of hepatocarcinogenesis in noncirrhotic, interferon-treated patients with hepatitis C virus infection.

METHODS: A total of 2058 hepatitis C virus-positive, noncirrhotic patients treated with interferon were enrolled. The median follow-up period was 6.7 years. The primary end point was the onset of hepatocellular carcinoma. The cumulative rate of new hepatocellular carcinoma cases was computed by the Kaplan–Meier method and Cox proportional hazard analysis according to diabetic state and response to interferon therapy.

RESULTS: The cumulative rates of hepatocellular carcinoma in diabetic patients (3.2% at 4 years, 8.5% at 8 years, and 24.4% at 12 years) were significantly higher than those of nondiabetic patients (1.3% at 4 years, 2.2% at 8 years, and 5.6% at 12 years, $P<.001$). In patients with a sustained virologic response, diabetes had no significant effect on the rate of hepatocarcinogenesis. In contrast, the rate in patients with a nonsustained virologic response was significantly higher in diabetic than in nondiabetic patients. Multivariate analysis identified lack of sustained virologic response (hazard ratio [HR] 7.28; 95% confidence interval [CI], 3.28-16.15; $P<.001$) and diabetes as independent risk factors for hepatocarcinogenesis (HR 2.00; 95% CI, 1.05-3.84; $P = .036$).

CONCLUSIONS: Our results highlight the enhancing effect of diabetes mellitus on hepatocarcinogenesis in noncirrhotic, interferon-treated patients with hepatitis C virus. The sustained virologic response induced by interferon therapy eliminates the influence of diabetes and markedly reduces the rate of hepatocarcinogenesis in such patients.

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KEYWORDS: Diabetes; Hepatocellular carcinoma; Interferon; Sustained virologic response

Hepatitis C virus is a common cause of chronic liver disease worldwide and a major risk of hepatocellular carcinoma.[1-10] The estimated incidence of hepatocellular carcinoma in patients with hepatitis C virus-related cirrhosis is 5% to 10% per year, and hepatocellular carcinoma is one of the major causes of death, especially in Asian countries.[10] In recent years, diabetes mellitus has attracted attention as a risk factor of hepatocarcinogenesis. Evidence suggests that in addition to various factors that affect liver fibrosis and hepatocarcinogenesis, diabetes and obesity are independent risk factors for the progression of liver fibrosis and development of hepatocellular carcinoma in chronic hepatitis C.[10-15] The majority of such clinical studies included patients with liver cirrhosis. However, for pathophysiologic reasons, liver cirrhosis increases the probability of impaired glucose tolerance. Therefore, in studies of cirrhotic patients,

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it is difficult to pinpoint the true effects of diabetes on hepatocarcinogenesis. On the other hand, we recently reported that a sustained virologic response to interferon therapy reduces the incidence of type 2 diabetes onset in chronic hepatitis C.[16] Thus, there is a gap in our knowledge on the exact effect of diabetes on hepatocarcinogenesis in interferon-treated patients.

The present retrospective study was designed to determine the effects of diabetes on hepatocarcinogenesis in noncirrhotic, interferon-treated patients with chronic hepatitis C virus infection, including the effects of viral clearance on diabetes-related hepatocarcinogenesis.

CLINICAL SIGNIFICANCE

- The hepatocarcinogenesis rate from first interferon therapy for noncirrhotic patients with chronic hepatitis C was 2 times greater in diabetic cases than in nondiabetic cases.
- Diabetes was an independent predictive factor of hepatocellular carcinoma in interferon-treated, noncirrhotic patients with chronic hepatitis C virus.
- In patients without a sustained virologic response from interferon therapy, the hepatocarcinogenesis rate of diabetic cases was approximately 15 times greater than that of nondiabetic, noncirrhotic patients with chronic hepatitis C and a sustained virologic response.

PATIENTS AND METHODS

Study Population

In this retrospective cohort study, we obtained the medical records of all patients in our database who had received interferon therapy for chronic hepatitis C between 1987 and 2007 at the Department of Hepatology, Toranomon Hospital, Tokyo, Japan. Of these patients, 2058 satisfied the following criteria: 1) no evidence of diabetes after termination of interferon; 2) laparoscopy or liver biopsy performed before initiation of interferon therapy confirmed the lack of liver cirrhosis; 3) measurement of serologic type and hepatitis C virus viral load before initiation of interferon therapy; 4) platelet count of $\geq 10 \times 10^4$/mL; 5) negativity for hepatitis B surface antigen, antinuclear antibodies, or antimitochondrial antibodies in serum, as determined by radioimmunoassay or spot hybridization; 6) no underlying metabolic disease, such as hemochromatosis, alpha-1-antitrypsin deficiency, or Wilson disease; 7) no underlying systemic disease, such as systemic lupus erythematosus or rheumatic arthritis; 8) no evidence of hepatocellular carcinoma on ultrasonography or computed tomography before the initiation of interferon therapy; and 9) follow-up period of ≥ 24 weeks.

All patients who did not show a sustained virologic response and persistently high alanine aminotransferase level (normal range: 6-50 IU/L) received liver protection therapy, consisting mainly of glycyrrhizin and ursodeoxycholic acid (300-600 mg/d), during this research.

In all patients, the observation starting point was the time of initiation of the first interferon treatment. All of the studies were performed retrospectively by collecting and analyzing data from the patient records. The study was approved by the institutional review board of the Toranomon Hospital.

Background and Laboratory Data

Table 1 (available online) summarizes the clinical profile and laboratory data of 2058 interferon-treated patients with chronic hepatitis C. The male to female ratio was 1.78:1. Of 2058 patients, 164 (8.0%) were alcoholic (total alcohol intake > 500 kg until the initiation of interferon therapy). Before the initiation of interferon therapy, 104 patients (5.1%) were known diabetics. Furthermore, 71.2% patients had a high viral titer (low viral load; Amplicor <100 KIU/mL [Cobas Amplicor HCV Monitor Test, version 2.0, Roche Molecular Systems, Inc, Belleville, NJ] or probe <1 MEq/mL [branched DNA probe assay; version 2,0; Chiron, Daiichi Kagaku, Tokyo], high viral load; Amplicor ≥ 100 KIU/mL or probe ≥ 1 MEq/mL).

Type of Interferon and Assessment of Response to Interferon Therapy

Among 2058 patients treated with interferon, 1207 (58.6%) received interferon-α, 329 (16.0%) received interferon-β, and the remaining 522 (25.4%) received a combination therapy of interferon and ribavirin. The response to interferon therapy was assessed on the basis of sustained virologic response (sustained virologic response was regarded as elimination of hepatitis C virus-RNA at 6 months after the termination of interferon treatment). After interferon therapy, 52.5% of the patients showed sustained virologic response.

Markers of Hepatitis B and C Viruses

Anti-hepatitis C virus was detected using a second-generation enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA II; Abbott Laboratories, North Chicago, IL). Hepatitis C virus-RNA was determined by the Amplicor method (Cobas Amplicor HCV Monitor Test, version 2.0; Roche, Tokyo, Japan) or the branched DNA probe assay (branched DNA probe assay; version 2.0; Chiron). Hepatitis B surface antigen was tested via radioimmunoassay (Abbott Laboratories, Detroit, MI). The used serum samples were stored at −80°C at the first consultation. Diagnosis of hepatitis C virus infection was based on detection of serum hepatitis C virus antibody and hepatitis C virus RNA.

Histopathologic Examination of the Liver

Liver biopsy specimens were obtained percutaneously or at peritoneoscopy using a modified Vim-Silverman needle with an internal diameter of 2 mm (Tohoku University, Kakinuma Factory, Tokyo, Japan), fixed in 10% formalin, and stained with hematoxylin–eosin, Masson's trichrome, silver impregnation, and pe-

Table 1 Characteristics of 2058 Noncirrhotic, Interferon-Treated Patients with Chronic Hepatitis C Virus Infection at the Initiation of Interferon and Efficacy

Parameter	(n = 2058)
Gender (M:F)	1317:741
Age (y)†	50 (15-72)
Histopathologic grade (F1-2:F3)	1916:142
Total ethanol intake (≥500 kg) (yes/no)	164:1894
Follow-up period (d)†	2443 (170-7562)
Albumin (g/dL)†	4.2 (2.3-5.3)
Total bilirubin (mg/dL)†	0.7 (0.1-11.7)
AST (IU/L)†	68 (21-488)
ALT (IU/L)†	77 (5-1212)
γ-GTP (IU/L)†	43 (5-805)
Platelet count ($\times 10^4/\mu L$)†	18.3 (10.0-48.1)
AFP ($\mu g/L$)†	4 (1.0-780)
Fasting/casual plasma glucose (mg/dL)†	96 (66-376)/100 (49-415)
Diabetes (yes/no)	104:1954
Total cholesterol (mg/dL)†	172 (102-348)
Triglyceride (mg/dL)†	89 (32-325)
LDL cholesterol (mg/dL)†	105 (39-209)
HDL cholesterol (mg/dL)†	46 (8-107)
IFN (monotherapy/combination therapy)	1536:522
HCV serologic group (1:2)	1310:748
Viral load (low:high)	592:1466
Efficacy of IFN therapy acquired viral elimination* (yes:no)	1081:977

AST = aspartate aminotransferase; ALT = alanine aminotransferase; γ-GTP = gamma-glutamyl transpeptidase; AFP = alpha-fetoprotein; LDL = low-density lipoprotein; HDL = high-density lipoprotein; IFN = interferon; HCV = hepatitis C virus.

*Viral elimination means sustained virologic response.

†Expressed as median (minimum, maximum).

riodic acid-Schiff after diastase digestion. All specimens for examination contained at least 6 portal areas. Chronic hepatitis was diagnosed on the basis of histopathologic assessment according to the scoring system of Desmet et al.[17]

Definition of Diabetes Mellitus

Diabetes was diagnosed by the use of the 2003 criteria of the American Diabetes Association.[18] These criteria include 1) casual plasma glucose ≥ 200 mg/dL; 2) fasting plasma glucose ≥ 126 mg/dL; and 3) 2-hour post-glucose (oral glucose tolerance test) ≥ 200 mg/dL.

Follow-up and Diagnosis Procedure of Hepatocellular Carcinoma

The starting time of follow-up was the point of the initiation of the first interferon treatment. After that, patients were followed up monthly to tri-monthly in our hospital. Physical examination and biochemical tests were conducted at each visit together with regular checkups. Ultrasonography or computed tomography were performed every 3 to 6 months. The diagnosis of hepatocellular carcinoma was performed by biochemical examination (include alpha-fetoprotein and des-gamma carboxyprothrombin) and triple-phase dynamic computed tomography study. The number of cases lost to follow-up was 147 patients (7.1%) in this group.

Statistical Analysis

The cumulative rate of hepatocarcinogenesis (new cases of hepatocellular carcinoma) was calculated from the point of initiation of the first interferon treatment to the diagnosis of hepatocellular carcinoma using the Kaplan–Meier method. Differences in the development of hepatocellular carcinoma between different groups were tested using the log-rank test. Independent factors associated with the rate of hepatocellular carcinoma were analyzed by the Cox proportional hazard model. The following 19 variables were analyzed for potential covariates for incidence of hepatocellular carcinoma at the time of first interferon treatment initiation at Toranomon Hospital: gender, age, histologic stage of the liver, amount of total ethanol intake, existence of diabetes, viral serologic group, viral load, existence of sustained viral clearance by interferon therapy, serum concentration of albumin, total bilirubin, aspartate aminotransferase, alanine aminotransferase, gamma-glutamyl transpeptidase, alpha-fetoprotein, total cholesterol, triglyceride, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, and platelet count. A P value of less than .05 in a 2-tailed test was considered significant. Data analysis was performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 11.0 for Windows (SPSS, Inc, Chicago IL).

RESULTS

Incidence of Hepatocellular Carcinoma in Noncirrhotic, Interferon-Treated Patients with Chronic Hepatitis C

In this cohort, hepatocellular carcinoma developed in 73 patients (3.5%) during a median observation period of 6.7 years. The cumulative rate of newly diagnosed hepatocellular carcinoma was 1.2% at 4 years, 2.6% at 8 years, and 6.8% at 12 years (Figure 1). The hepatocarcinogenesis rate according to interferon therapy was 2.1% at 4 years, 4.4% at 8 years, and 11.6% at 12 years in patients who did not acquire a sustained virologic response, and 0.7% at 4 years, 1.0% at 8 years, and 1.6% at 12 years in patients who acquired a sustained virologic response (Figure 2). The cumulative incidence rate of hepatocellular carcinoma was significantly lower in patients who acquired a sustained virologic response than in those who did not ($P < .001$).

Effect of Diabetes Mellitus on Hepatocarcinogenesis in Noncirrhotic, Interferon-Treated Patients with Hepatitis C

During the follow-up period, 58 of the 1954 nondiabetic patients (3.0%) developed hepatocellular carcinoma, and 15 of the 104

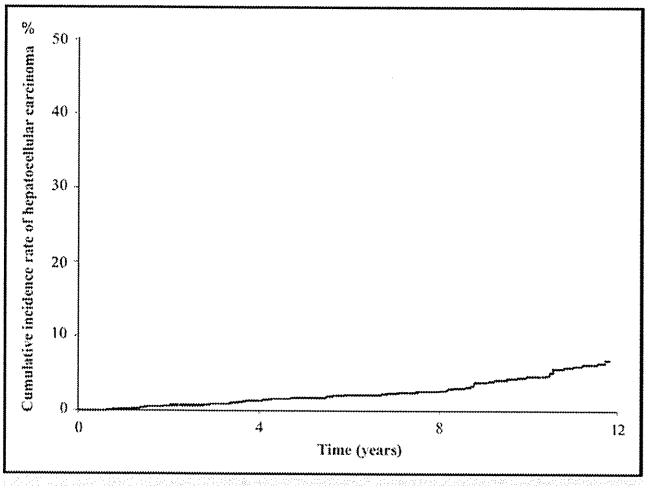

Figure 1 Cumulative rate of development of hepatocellular carcinoma from first interferon therapy in noncirrhotic patients with chronic hepatitis C infection.

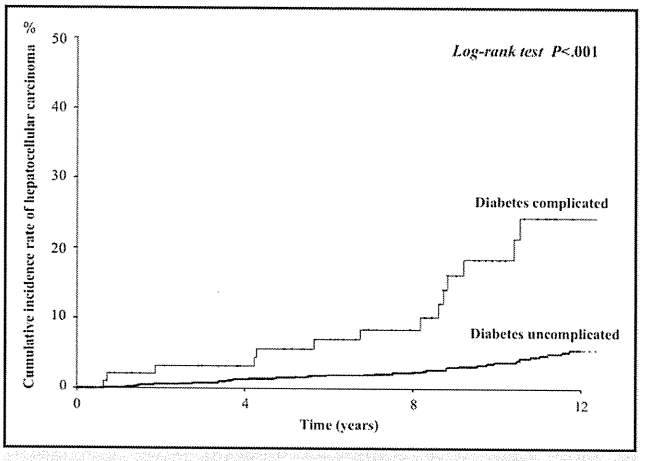

Figure 3 Cumulative rate of development of hepatocellular carcinoma from first interferon therapy in noncirrhotic patients with chronic hepatitis C infection according to the presence or absence of diabetes.

diabetic patients (14.4%) developed hepatocellular carcinoma. The cumulative rate of hepatocellular carcinoma in nondiabetic patients was 1.3% at 4 years, 2.2% at 8 years, and 5.6% at 12 years. For diabetic patients, these rates were 3.2%, 8.5%, and 24.4%, respectively (Figure 3). The cumulative rate of hepatocellular carcinoma was significantly higher in patients with diabetes than those without ($P < .001$).

Effect of Sustained Virologic Response on Rate of Hepatocarcinogenesis in Noncirrhotic, Interferon-Treated Patients with Hepatitis C According to Presence of Diabetes

In the nonsustained virologic response group (n = 977), 47 (5.2%) of the nondiabetic patients (n = 906) developed hepatocellular carcinoma during the observation period, whereas 14 (19.7%) of diabetic patients (n = 71) developed hepatocellular carcinoma. In the sustained virologic response group (n = 1081), 11 (1.0%) of the nondiabetic patients (n = 1048) developed hepatocellular carcinoma during the observation period, whereas 1 (3.0%) of the diabetic patients (n = 33) developed hepatocellular carcinoma.

Analysis of data according to the efficacy of interferon therapy in diabetic and nondiabetic patients showed that in patients with nonsustained virologic response, the cumulative rate of hepatocellular carcinoma in nondiabetic patients was 1.9% at 4 years, 3.6% at 8 years, and 9.6% at 12 years, whereas in diabetic patients, these rates were 4.7%, 12.1%, and 31.0%, respectively (Figure 4). The cumulative rate of hepatocellular carcinoma was significantly higher in diabetic patients with a nonsustained virologic response than in nondiabetic patients ($P < .001$). The same analysis in

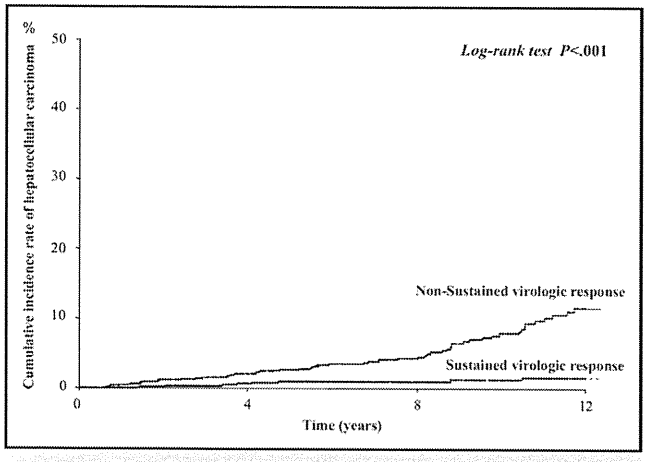

Figure 2 Cumulative rate of development of hepatocellular carcinoma from first interferon therapy in noncirrhotic patients with chronic hepatitis C infection according to effect of interferon therapy.

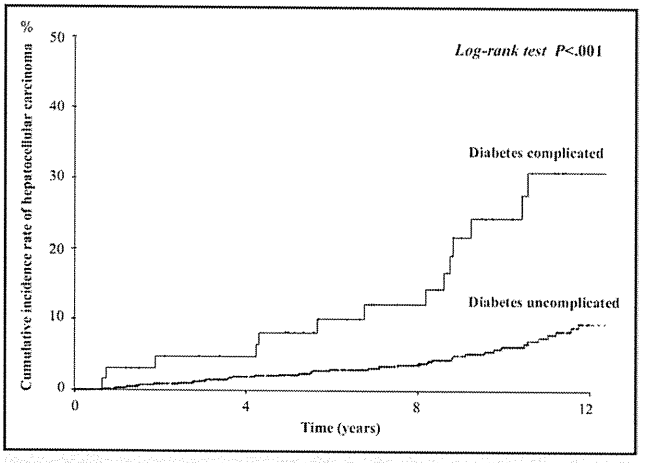

Figure 4 Cumulative rate of development of hepatocellular carcinoma from first interferon therapy in noncirrhotic patients with chronic hepatitis C infection who showed nonsustained virologic response to interferon therapy according to the presence or absence of diabetes.

patients with a sustained virologic response showed a cumulative rate of hepatocellular carcinoma of 0.7%, 1.0%, and 1.7% in nondiabetic patients, and 0.0%, 0.0%, and 0.0% in diabetic patients, respectively (Figure 5). There was no significant difference between diabetic and nondiabetic groups in patients with a sustained virologic response ($P = .249$).

Factors Associated with Rate of Hepatocarcinogenesis

Multivariate Cox proportional hazard analysis revealed the following independent factors for hepatocellular carcinoma development after the initiation of the first interferon therapy in patients who showed a nonsustained virologic response (hazard ratio 7.28; 95% confidence interval [CI], 3.28-16.15; $P < .001$): male (hazard ratio 4.90; 95% CI, 2.47-9.71; $P < .001$), aged ≥ 60 years (hazard ratio 3.28; 95% CI, 1.88-5.74; $P < .001$); aspartate aminotransferase ≥ 50 IU/L (hazard ratio 3.91; 95% CI, 1.81-8.43; $P = .001$); alpha-fetoprotein ≥ 20 mg/L (hazard ratio 2.89; 95% CI, 1.43-5.84; $P = .003$); diabetes (hazard ratio 2.00; 95% CI, 1.05-3.84; $P = .036$); and platelet count $< 17 \times 10^4$/mL (hazard ratio 1.96; 95% CI, 1.11-3.48; $P = .021$) (Table 2, available online).

Rate and Prognosis of Diabetic Patients with Marked Fatty Deposition at First Interferon Initiation

Fourteen of 104 diabetic patients (13.5%) had fatty deposition in hepatic cells of ≥ 30% before the initiation of interferon therapy. Of these 14 patients, 2 were diagnosed with hepatocellular carcinoma during the observation period. One patient underwent liver resection to treat hepatocellular carcinoma, and background liver tissue was liver cirrhosis. One patient did not receive a liver resection; however, this patient's platelet count was approximately $20 \times 10^4/\mu L$ at the time of diagnosis of hepatocellular carcinoma. Thus, severe fibrosis was not suspected in view of this platelet count level.

Rate of Liver Cirrhosis at Hepatocellular Carcinoma Diagnosis

In 23 of 73 patients with hepatocellular carcinoma (31.5%), hepatic resection was performed for treatment. Five of 23 resected patients (21.7%) had liver cirrhosis in background hepatic tissue. The remaining 50 of 73 patients (68.5%) did not receive hepatic resection, and these patients received other nonresection therapy. Because the platelet count level was less than $10 \times 10^4/\mu L$ in 17 of 50 patients without resection (34.0%), liver cirrhosis was suspected. In these patients with histologic or clinical diagnosis of liver cirrhosis at the time of onset of hepatocellular carcinoma, none had a sustained virologic response by interferon therapy.

DISCUSSION

The present study described the incidence of hepatocellular carcinoma after the initiation of interferon therapy in patients with chronic hepatitis C infection. The results indicate that the annual incidence of hepatocellular carcinoma over a prolonged follow-up from first interferon therapy among noncirrhotic patients with hepatitis C virus is 0.3% to 0.5%. The present study was limited by its retrospective design. Moreover, the number of diabetic and nondiabetic patients was markedly different, which might be a potential source of bias. Another limitation of the study was that patients received different types of antiviral therapies for different duration. Thus, we did not evaluate the effect of different interferon regimens but assessed the impact of having or not having a sustained virologic response. This heterogeneity makes it somewhat difficult to interpret the results. On the other hand, the strengths of the present study are the long-term follow-up in a large number of patients treated at the same institution. The present study highlights several new findings with regard to the development of hepatocellular carcinoma after interferon therapy in noncirrhotic patients with hepatitis C virus. First, in patients with a sustained virologic response, diabetes had no significant effect on the rate of hepatocarcinogenesis. Second, in patients with a nonsustained virologic response, the rate of hepatocarcinogenesis was significantly higher in diabetics; diabetes was associated with 2-fold increase in the incidence of hepatocellular carcinoma.

In the present study, no significant difference was noted in the rate of hepatocarcinogenesis in patients with a sustained virologic response with and without diabetes. However, at least 2 studies have described a relationship between diabetes and hepatocellular carcinoma in patients without viral hepatitis.[18,19] In our study, 7.3% of the patients with a nonsustained virologic response were diabetics, compared with approximately 3.0% in the group with a sustained virologic response. These rates were lower than those in the general Japanese population (~15% for men, 9% for women), especially in those with a sustained virologic response. With regard to interferon treatment, previous studies reported that insu-

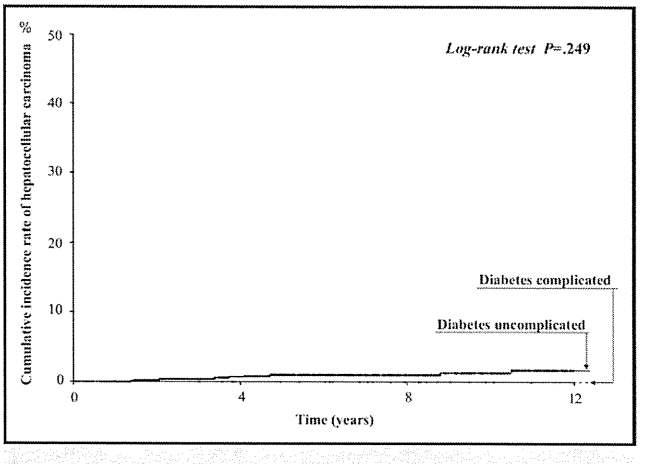

Figure 5 Cumulative rate of development of hepatocellular carcinoma from first interferon therapy in noncirrhotic patients with chronic hepatitis C infection who showed sustained virologic response to interferon therapy according to the presence or absence of diabetes.

lin resistance and diabetes lower the sustained virologic response rate in patients treated with peginterferon plus ribavirin.[20,21] Therefore, interferon therapy itself may explain the different rates of diabetes in the 2 groups.

Diabetes is an independent predictor of several types of cancers, including hepatocellular carcinoma in patients with or without viral infection.[19,22,23] However, the rate of hepatocarcinogenesis in our patients with a sustained virologic response was not significantly influenced by the presence or absence of diabetes. Our retrospective study included a low rate of diabetes compared with that of the general Japanese population. This lower rate of diabetes in patients with a sustained virologic response may explain the lack of effect of diabetes on the rate of hepatocarcinogenesis.

Several studies reported the relevance of hepatitis C virus core gene to insulin resistance in patients with chronic hepatitis C.[24-26] interferon therapy is considered to worsen blood glucose control, but if the cause of insulin resistance is based on the involvement of hepatitis C virus core gene, one could consider probable improvement of insulin resistance after a sustained virologic response. Further studies are necessary to examine in these points.

CONCLUSIONS

Our retrospective cohort study is the first to examine the effects of diabetes mellitus and sustained virologic response on hepatocarcinogenesis in noncirrhotic, interferon-treated patients with hepatitis C infection. Our results indicate that a sustained virologic response induced by interferon therapy eliminates the influence of diabetes mellitus and markedly reduces the rate of hepatocarcinogenesis in noncirrhotic, interferon-treated, hepatitis C virus-positive patients.

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Table 2 Predictors of Hepatocarcinogenesis in Noncirrhotic, Interferon-Treated Patients with Chronic Hepatitis C Infection

		Univariate Analysis		Multivariate Analysis	
Variables	Category	HR (95% CI)	*P*	HR (95% CI)	*P*
Gender	1: Female	1		1	
	2: Male	2.38 (0.23-0.77)	.005	4.90 (2.47-9.71)	<.001
Age	1: <60	1		1	
	2: ≥60	3.34 (2.01-5.52)	<.001	3.28 (1.88-5.74)	<.001
Histopathologic grade	1: F1-2	1			
	2: F3	2.98 (1.48-6.02)	.002		
Total ethanol intake (kg)	1: <500	1			
	2: ≥500	3.486 (2.02-6.01)	<.001		
Albumin (g/dL)	1: ≥4.0	1			
	2: <4.0	1.73 (0.10-3.00)	.053		
Total bilirubin (mg/dL)	1: <0.5	1			
	2: ≥0.5	1.50 (0.75-3.02)	.256		
AST (IU/L)	1: <50	1		1	
	2: ≥50	5.75 (2.86-11.59)	<.001	3.91 (1.81-8.43)	.001
ALT (IU/L)	1: <100	1			
	2: ≥100	2.22 (1.37-3.60)	.001		
γ-GTP (IU/L)	1: <50	1			
	2: ≥50	2.59 (1.58-4.25)	<.001		
Platelet count ($\times 10^4$/mL)	1: ≥17	1		1	
	2: <17	3.00(1.85-4.88)	<.001	1.96 (1.11-3.48)	.021
AFP (μg/L)	1: <20	1		1	
	2: ≥20	4.71 (2.51-8.85)	<.001	2.89 (1.43-5.84)	.003
Diabetes mellitus	1: No	1		1	
	2: Yes	4.50 (2.54-7.95)	<.001	2.00 (1.05-3.84)	.036
Total cholesterol level (mg/dL)	1: ≥220	1			
	2: <220	1.28 (0.30-5.41)	.735		
Triglyceride level (mg/dL)	1: <150	1			
	2: ≥150	2.221 (0.78-6.20)	.134		
LDL cholesterol level (mg/dL)	1: ≥140	1			
	2: <140	1.19 (0.27-5.21)	.817		
HDL cholesterol level (mg/dL)	1: ≥40	1			
	2: <40	1.98 (0.80-4.93)	.142		
HCV serologic group	1: sero group 2	1			
	2: sero group 1	2.23 (1.22-4.07)	.009		
Viral load	1: Low	1			
	2: High	2.18 (1.29-3.67)	.003		
Effect of IFN therapy acquired viral elimination*	1: Yes	1		1	
	2: No	2.30 (1.03-7.09)	<.001	7.28 (3.28-16.15)	<.001

HR = hazard ration; CI = confidence interval; AST = aspartate aminotransferase; ALT = alanine aminotransferase; γ-GTP = gamma-glutamyl transpeptidase; AFP = alpha-fetoprotein; LDL = low-density lipoprotein; HDL = high-density lipoprotein; HCV = hepatitis C virus; IFN = interferon.

*Viral elimination means sustained virologic response.

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Metronomic S-1 Chemotherapy and Vandetanib: An Efficacious and Nontoxic Treatment for Hepatocellular Carcinoma[1]

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Abstract

BACKGROUND: Metronomic chemotherapy involves frequent, regular administration of cytotoxic drugs at nontoxic doses, usually without prolonged breaks. We investigated the therapeutic efficacies of metronomic S-1, an oral 5-fluorouracil prodrug, and vandetanib, an epidermal growth factor receptor and vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) receptor tyrosine kinase inhibitor, in models of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). *METHODS:* We compared anti-HCC effects and toxicity in the six treatment groups: control (untreated), maximum tolerated dose (MTD) S-1, metronomic S-1, vandetanib, MTD S-1 with vandetanib, and metronomic S-1 with vandetanib. Tumor microvessel density (MVD) and tumor apoptosis were evaluated by immunohistochemistry. The expression of VEGF and thrombospondin-1, an endogenous inhibitor of angiogenesis, was analyzed by Western blot. *RESULTS:* Metronomic S-1 significantly inhibited tumor growth, which was enhanced by combination with vandetanib. With respect to toxicities, MTD S-1 caused severe body weight loss and myelosuppression, whereas metronomic S-1 did not cause any overt toxicities. Moreover, metronomic S-1 or metronomic S-1 with vandetanib prolonged survival, the latter treatment providing the greatest benefit. Metronomic S-1 and metronomic S-1 with vandetanib decreased MVDs and increased apoptosis in tumor tissues. The expression of VEGF in tumor tissues was upregulated by vandetanib and metronomic S-1 with vandetanib, whereas the expression of thrombospondin-1 was upregulated by metronomic S-1 and metronomic S-1 with vandetanib. *CONCLUSION:* Metronomic S-1 with an antiangiogenic agent seems to be an effective and safe therapeutic strategy for HCC.

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Introduction

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is the fifth most common solid tumor and the third leading cause of cancer-related deaths globally [1]. Although prognosis of early and intermediate stage HCC has improved owing to advances in treatments, there are few proven effective systemic therapies for advanced HCC [2]. In particular, conventional chemotherapy using cytotoxic drugs for advanced HCC has not been shown to improve survival. Almost all cases of HCC occur in patients with chronic liver disorders, such as liver cirrhosis. Patients with liver cirrhosis have liver dysfunction and also pancytopenia. These pathologies

Abbreviations: HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; MTD, maximum tolerated dose; MVD, microvessel density; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor; EGF, epidermal growth factor; TSP-1, thrombospondin-1; HUVEC, human umbilical vascular endothelial cell

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[1]All authors agreed to the submission of this article, and there is no conflict to disclose.

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limit the use of conventional chemotherapy as a treatment strategy for HCC.

Conventional chemotherapy often involves pulsatile administration schedules using maximum tolerated doses (MTDs) of cytotoxic drugs. The long break periods between therapies not only allow recovery from various toxicities, especially myelosuppression, but also provide an opportunity, unfortunately, for the drug-treated tumors to recover as well [3]. In contrast, metronomic chemotherapy is given at frequent intervals using minimally or nontoxic doses without prolonged breaks. In several preclinical studies, such metronomic protocols have shown surprisingly effective antitumor effects, despite the reduced toxicity [4–6].

S-1 is an orally novel cytotoxic 5-flurouracil (5-FU) prodrug, which consists of tegafur and two biochemical modulators, 5-chloro-2,4-dihydroxypyridine and potassium oxonate [7]. 5-Chloro-2,4-dihydroxypyridine competitively inhibits dihydropyrimidine dehydrogenase approximately 180 times more effectively than uracil. Thus, S-1 gives rise to high concentrations of 5-FU in blood and tumor tissue for long-term periods since biochemical modulation [7,8]. A drug similar to S-1, namely, UFT, has been used successfully in metronomic preclinical studies [5]. Moreover, in the clinic it has been used successfully in randomized phase 3 trials in a metronomic fashion to treat in an adjuvant manner a variety of early stage cancers, after surgery, including non–small cell lung cancer [9] and breast cancer [10]. Because S-1 is thought to be more potent than UFT with respect to the effect of biochemical modulations, one might expect a stronger antitumor effect by using S-1 [7]. In this study, we describe a method of administering metronomic S-1 to treat HCC and compare it to conventional MTD S-1 chemotherapy, either alone or with an antiangiogenic drug.

Tyrosine kinase inhibitors such as sorafenib have proven activity in HCC patients and now represent one of the few effective systemic therapies for HCC [11]. Preclinical studies have also shown that the antitumor effect of metronomic chemotherapy can be significantly enhanced by combination with vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) pathway targeting agents [12,13]. In this study, we show here that metronomic S-1 might be a promising therapy to consider for concurrent daily combination with an oral antiangiogenic drug, in this case, vandetanib (ZD6474; AstraZeneca Pharmaceuticals, Macclesfield, UK). Vandetanib inhibits not only the catalytic function of VEGFR-2 but also EGF receptors (EGFRs), in contrast to sorafenib or sunitinib that do not affect EGFRs [14]. We evaluated the efficacies of vandetanib alone *in vivo* for HCC-bearing mice using various hepatoma cell lines that had different expressions of EGFR (submitted for publication). EGFR is known to contribute to 5-FU drug resistance, and 5-FU is the major metabolite of S-1 [15]. Therefore, there is a rationale for drug targeting of both EGF receptors and VEGF receptors along with metronomic chemotherapy, which was the purpose of this study. Thus, we investigated the efficacy of combining with each treatment schedule of S-1 and vandetanib using two HCC cell lines, which express low or high levels of EGFR, that is, KYN-2 and Huh-7, respectively. Overall, our results suggest that the combination treatment of metronomic S-1 plus vandetanib may be useful for the therapy of HCC.

Materials and Methods

Cell Lines and Culture

In human hepatoma cell lines, Huh-7 was originally purchased from CAMBREX Bio Science Walkersville, Inc (Walkersville, MD), and KYN-2 was provided by the Department of Pathology, Kurume University School of Medicine. Cells were maintained in Dulbecco modified Eagle medium (DMEM; Gibco Invitrogen Cell Culture Co, Auckland, New Zealand) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS).

Human umbilical vascular endothelial cells (HUVECs) were purchased from CAMBREX Bio Science Walkersville, Inc, and maintained with endothelial cell growth medium-2 (Clonetics, San Diego, CA) containing 5% FBS.

Animals and Drugs

Male 5-week-old nude mice (BALB/c *nu/nu*) were purchased from Kyudo KK (Fukuoka, Japan). All experiments were conducted in accordance with the National Institutes of Health guidelines for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals.

5-FU was purchased from Kyowa Hakko Kogyo Co, Ltd (Tokyo, Japan). S-1 was provided by Taiho Pharmaceutical Co, Ltd (Tokyo, Japan). S-1 consists of a mixture of tegafur, gimeracil, and oteracil at molar ratio of 1:0.4:1 in 0.5% hydroxypropylmethylcellulose (HPMC) solutions. Vandetanib (ZD6474; Zactima) was provided by AstraZeneca Pharmaceuticals (Macclesfield, UK).

In Vitro *Cell Proliferation Assay*

As the tegafur component of S-1 is physiologically converted to 5-FU in the body, we evaluated the difference of antiproliferative effects *in vitro* of 5-FU using different schedules with both hepatoma cells and HUVECs. Approximately 1000 cells in 100 μl of DMEM containing 10% FBS was added to each well of 96-well plate. After incubation for 24 hours, the medium was exchanged to the serum-containing medium with various concentrations of 5-FU (0, 1, 10, 100, 500, 1000, 10,000 ng/ml). Each cell line was exposed to 5-FU for 5 days. To evaluate the antiproliferative effect of "MTD" *versus* "metronomic" chemotherapy, exchange of the medium containing 5-FU was performed using different schedules. For the metronomic schedule, the medium containing 5-FU was exchanged daily as described previously [16]. For the MTD schedule, the medium containing 5-FU was not changed. After incubation, cell proliferation was evaluated by a tetrazolium-based assay (Cell Count Reagent SF; Nakalai Tesque, Inc, Kyoto, Japan).

Determination of the Optimal Dose for S-1 Using Metronomic Chemotherapy

We determined the optimal metronomic dose of S-1 according to a previous report, which involved evaluating different doses of a chemotherapy drug both for antitumor effects and toxicity, with the aim of determining a dose that has minimal toxicity but retains good efficacy [17]. A total of 5×10^6 Huh-7 cells were injected into the flank regions of nude mice. Therapy with different doses of S-1 was initiated when the estimated tumor volume ($0.52 \times \text{length} \times \text{width}^2$) reached 150 to 200 mm^3. Mice received S-1 orally administrated by gavage with the following agents on a daily basis for 14 days: 1) HPMC as the control group; 2) S-1, 7.5 mg/kg per day; 3) S-1, 5.0 mg/kg per day; 4) S-1, 2.5 mg/kg per day; or 5) S-1, 1.0 mg/kg per day. Tumor-bearing mice were randomly divided into groups of 10 mice. The mice were killed at day 15 after start of treatment. The inhibition rate of tumor growth (IR %) was calculated as follows: IR % = (1 − mean RTV of treatment group / mean RTV of control group) × 100, where RTV indicates the relative tumor volume: tumor volume on killing / tumor volume on initial treatment. For comparison of the toxicity in each group, mouse body weights were measured every 3 days. Peripheral leukocyte count and hemoglobin (Hb) concentrations of these mice were also measured at day 15.

Tumor Growth and Toxicity Assessment in the Subcutaneous Tumor Transplant Model

We selected as the optimal metronomic dosage for S-1, 5.0 mg/kg per day based on our aforementioned study. We selected the MTD for S-1 15 mg/kg per day for 7 days, followed by a 7-day break period, based on previous published findings [6]. To compare the antitumor effect and toxicity caused by MTD or metronomic S-1, long-term experiments were performed using the Huh-7 subcutaneous transplant model. Mice were randomly divided to six groups: 1) HPMC as the control group; 2) MTD S-1, 15 mg/kg per day p.o. for 1 week, followed by a 1-week break period for a cumulative dose of 95 mg/kg; 3) metronomic S-1, 5 mg/kg per day p.o. for 2 weeks without any break period for a cumulative dose of 70 mg/kg; 4) vandetanib 25 mg/kg per day p.o. for 2 weeks; 5) MTD S-1 with vandetanib; or 6) metronomic S-1 with vandetanib. Each group consisted of 10 mice. It is important to note that the cumulative metronomic doses were distinctly less than the cumulative MTD. In other words, whereas the schedule used was "dose-dense," it was not "dose intense." The aforementioned schedules were performed in two cycles, 4 weeks in total. Estimated tumor volumes were measured every 3 days, and all mice were killed after 4 weeks of treatment. For comparison of the toxicity in each group, mouse body weights were measured every 3 days. Peripheral leukocyte count and hemoglobin (Hb) concentrations in these mice were also measured at sacrifice.

Tumor Growth and Survival Assessment in the Orthotopic Transplant Model

We also examined tumor growth using an orthotopic liver transplant model. The mice were implanted with 2×10^6 KYN-2 cells into the left lobe liver. Mice were randomly divided into six groups, as outlined above, and therapy was initiated 7 days after implantation of tumor cells. Each group consisted of 10 mice. The mice were killed at day 29 of initial treatment, and tumor volumes were evaluated.

In addition, a survival study was also performed using the KYN-2 orthotopic transplant model for the six groups as mentioned above. Each group consisted of 10 mice. In the group for survival observation, animals were killed according to (pre)clinical signs of weakness, for example, anorexia, or greater than 20% weight loss, and days of life were recorded from initial treatment.

Immunohistochemical Staining of CD31, PCNA, and TUNEL

The sections of all tumor tissues obtained from KYN-2 orthotopic transplant model were boiled for 30 minutes by high pH target retrieval solution (DAKO Japan, Kyoto, Japan) for antigen retrieval. The sections were incubated with rabbit anti–human CD31 antibody (diluted 1:300; Abcam, Inc, Tokyo, Japan) and rabbit anti–human PCNA antibody (diluted 1:250; Abcam, Inc) at 4°C overnight. Then the avidin-biotin procedures were subsequently performed using a Vectastatin ABC Kit (Vector Laboratories, Inc, Burlingame, CA). The sections were reacted with 0.005% H_2O_2–3,3′-diaminobenzidine at room temperature for 1 minute. For quantification of microvessel density (MVD), CD31-positive vessels were counted in randomly selected 30 areas per five tumors in each treatment group at 200-fold magnification.

The terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase–mediated dUTP nick end labeling (TUNEL) method was performed for the evaluation of apoptosis in each of the treated tumor tissues. TUNEL labeling was performed using the ApopTag Kit (Chemicon, Temecula, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The stained sections of tumors of each group were reviewed, and the apoptosis index, determined by TUNEL staining, was determined by counting at least 1000 cells in five randomly selected high-power fields (magnification, ×200).

Expression of Thrombospondin-1 and VEGF in Tumor Tissues

We examined the expression of VEGF and thrombospondin-1 (TSP-1) in treated tumor tissues using Western blot analysis. TSP-1 is a known endogenous antiangiogenic protein [18]. Five samples of each treatment group and control group were loaded in equal conditions, respectively. Thirty micrograms of protein was loaded onto a NuPAGE 4% to 12% Bis-Tris gel (Invitrogen, CA). Membranes were incubated with rabbit anti–TSP-1 antibody (1:350 dilution; Abcam, Inc) or rabbit anti-VEGF antibody (1:500 dilution; Abcam, Inc) at 4°C overnight. Equal protein loading was assessed by mouse anti–β-actin antibody (1:1000 dilution; Sigma, St Louis, MO). After incubation with HRP-conjugated anti–rabbit immunoglobulin G (1:10,000 dilution; GE Healthcare UK Ltd, Buckinghamshire, UK) or HRP-conjugated anti–mouse immunoglobulin G antibody (1:5000 dilution; GE Healthcare UK Ltd) for 1 hour, immunoreactive bands were stained by an enhanced chemiluminescence Western blot analysis system using LAS 4000 mini (Fujifilm, Tokyo, Japan) and were calculated with the amount of luminescence in each sample using multigauge software (Fujifilm). The relative amount of luminescence in each treatment group for the control group was expressed as [(treatment group VEGF or TSP-1 / treatment group β-actin) / (control group VEGF or TSP-1 / control group β-actin)] and compared with each group.

Statistical Analysis

All experimental data were expressed as mean ± SD. Differences between groups were examined for statistical significance using the Mann-Whitney *U* test, the Kruskal-Wallis test, and nonparametric analysis of variance. If the one-way analysis of variance was significant, differences between individual groups were estimated using the Fisher least significant difference test. Overall survival was estimated according to the Kaplan-Meier method and compared using the log-rank test. $P < .05$ was considered to be statistically significant.

Results

Comparison of Antiproliferative Effects of Metronomic versus MTD Type Chemotherapy In Vitro

The 50% inhibitory concentration (IC_{50}) levels of metronomic and MTD schedules of 5-FU, the major metabolite of S-1, for each cell line are shown in Table 1. The antiproliferative effects of 5-FU for each cell line were found to be dose-dependent (Figure 1, *A–C*). The IC_{50} levels for the MTD and metronomic schedule for Huh-7 cells were 3.84 and 0.77 μM, respectively (Figure 1*A*). The IC_{50}

Table 1. IC_{50} Levels of MTD and Metronomic Schedule in Hepatoma Cell Lines and Endothelial Cell.

	5-FU IC_{50} (μM)	
	MTD	Metronomic
Hepatoma cell lines		
Huh-7	3.84	0.77
KYN-2	7.69	3.84
Endothelial cell		
HUVECs	7.7	0.76

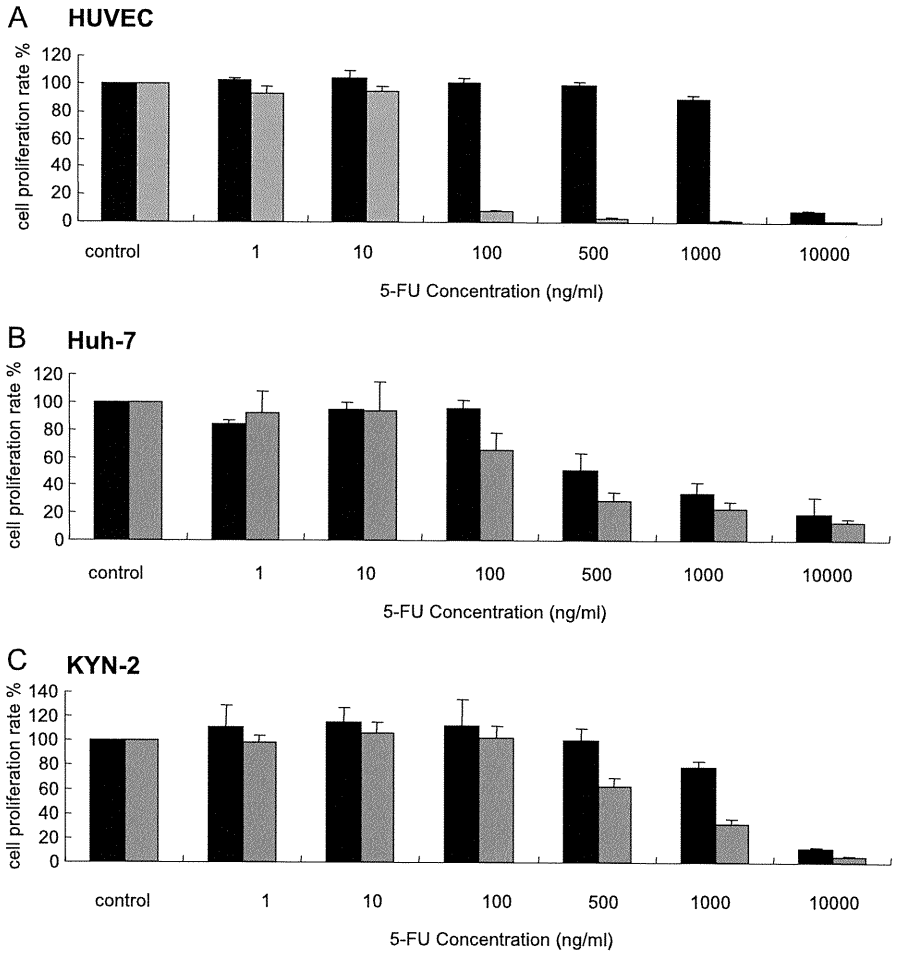


Figure 1. Inhibitory effect of metronomic chemotherapy for each cell line tested in a cell proliferation assay. To evaluate the antiproliferative effect of "MTD" and "metronomic" chemotherapy *in vitro*, exchange of the medium containing 5-FU was performed in different schedules. For the metronomic schedule, the medium containing 5-FU (0, 1, 10, 100, 500, 1000, and 10,000 ng/ml) was exchanged once a day. For the MTD schedule, the medium containing 5-FU was not changed. Data are shown as a ratio of the control and expressed as mean ± SD of 10 samples. *$P < .001$ compared with each schedule. Dark gray–shaded columns show MTD schedule, and light gray–shaded columns showed metronomic schedule. (A) HUVEC. HUVEC was cultured with 100 μl of endothelial cell growth medium-2 with 5% FBS containing 5-FU. (B) Huh-7. (C) KYN-2. Hepatoma cells were cultured with 100 μl of DMEM with 10% FBS containing 5-FU.

levels for KYN-2 were 7.69 and 3.84 μM, respectively. For the hepatoma cell lines, the metronomic schedule inhibited cell proliferation at approximately 1/2 to 1/4 concentrations of 5-FU compared with MTD schedule (Table 1). The metronomic schedule for HUVECs inhibited cell proliferation at apparently lower levels (IC_{50} levels, 0.76 μM) approximately 1/10 the concentration of 5-FU compared with MTD schedule (IC_{50} levels, 7.7 μM; Table 1).

Determination of the Optimal Dose of S-1 for Metronomic Chemotherapy In Vivo*: Maximum Tumor Growth Inhibition with Minimal Toxicity*

In the 7.5- and 5.0-mg/kg-per-day S-1 treatment groups, there were significant differences in suppression of tumor growth compared with the control group ($P < .05$; Figure 2*A*), and dosages lower than 2.5 mg/kg per day S-1 were not statistically effective compared with the control group. In addition, we evaluated body weight loss and myelosuppression toxicities associated with administration of S-1 (Figure 2, *B–D*). With respect to body weight loss, there was no significant difference between each group (Figure 2*B*). But only the 7.5-mg/kg-per-day group showed severe toxicity as determined by reductions in Hb concentration and leukocyte count ($P < .001$, compared with the control group; Figure 2, *C* and *D*). Therefore, we selected 5.0 mg/kg per day as the optimal metronomic dosage of S-1, which was used in all subsequent experiments.

Evaluation of the Antitumor Effect and Toxicity for Metronomic S-1 Chemotherapy in the Subcutaneous Transplant Tumor Model

In the assay for tumor growth, statistical differences were observed between the control group and all treatment groups (Figure 3*A*).

Metronomic S-1 potently inhibited tumor growth compared with MTD S-1 ($P < .01$). The mean tumor volumes were 4810.5 ± 1440.9 cm^3 in the control group, 3212.6 ± 1364.7 cm^3 in the MTD S-1 group, 1927.1 ± 652.9 cm^3 in the metronomic S-1 group, and 2331.4 ± 662.1 cm^3 in the vandetanib group, respectively. The mean tumor volumes in the MTD S-1 plus vandetanib group and metronomic S-1 plus vandetanib group were 2026.7 ± 1106.7 and 1383.7 ± 697.5 cm^3, respectively. The greatest inhibition of tumor growth was induced by the metronomic S-1 in combination with vandetanib (Figure 3*A*). In addition, we evaluated toxicity in each of Huh-7 subcutaneous tumor treatment groups (Figure 3, *B–D*). In leukocyte count, there were no significant differences in the groups (Figure 3*B*). In Hb concentration, the control group was 12.84 ± 1.82 g/dl, the MTD S-1 group was 9.77 ± 3.63 g/dl, the metronomic S-1 group was 11.73 ± 3.27 g/dl, and the vandetanib group was 12.34 ± 2.77 g/dl. For the combination treatments, the MTD S-1 plus vandetanib group was 8.24 ± 1.64 g/dl, and for the metronomic S-1 plus vandetanib group, it was 11.74 ± 1.55 g/dl (Figure 3*C*). With respect to rate of body weight loss, in the MTD S-1 monotherapy and MTD S-1 with vandetanib groups, the values observed were 10.48% ± 6.85% and 8.59% ± 5.02% reduction compared with the control group, respectively. Vandetanib, metronomic S-1, and the combination therapy resulted in 5.64% ± 4.23%, 3.04% ± 2.23%, and −0.51% ± 5.56% reduction compared with the control group, respectively (Figure 3*D*). Both the MTD S-1 and MTD S-1 plus vandetanib treatment groups experienced severe body weight loss and reduced Hb concentrations compared with the control group (Figure 3, *C* and *D*). In marked contrast, the metronomic S-1 monotherapy and metronomic S-1 with vandetanib groups did not manifest any overt toxicity (Figure 3, *B–D*).

Evaluation of Antitumor Efficacy Using Metronomic S-1 Chemotherapy in an Orthotopic Liver Transplant Model

For tumor volume assessments, all treatments except MTD S-1 monotherapy were effective compared with the control group (Figure 4*A*). Tumor volumes at sacrifice were 4186.0 ± 1128.0 cm^3 in the control group, 3259.0 ± 788.7 cm^3 in the MTD S-1 group, 1501.3 ± 1002.2 cm^3 in the metronomic S-1 group, and 1582.0 ± 354.9 cm^3 in the vandetanib group. There was a significant difference between metronomic S-1 and MTD S-1 in tumor growth inhibition ($P < .05$; Figure 4*A*). For the combination treatment groups, tumor volumes were 931.1 ± 331.7 cm^3 in the MTD S-1 plus vandetanib group and 875.0 ± 369.4 cm^3 in the metronomic S-1 plus vandetanib group. There was no significant difference between the metronomic S-1 plus vandetanib group and the MTD S-1 plus vandetanib group. However, the greatest inhibition of tumor growth was detected in the metronomic S-1 plus vandetanib treatment group ($P < .001$; Figure 4*A*).

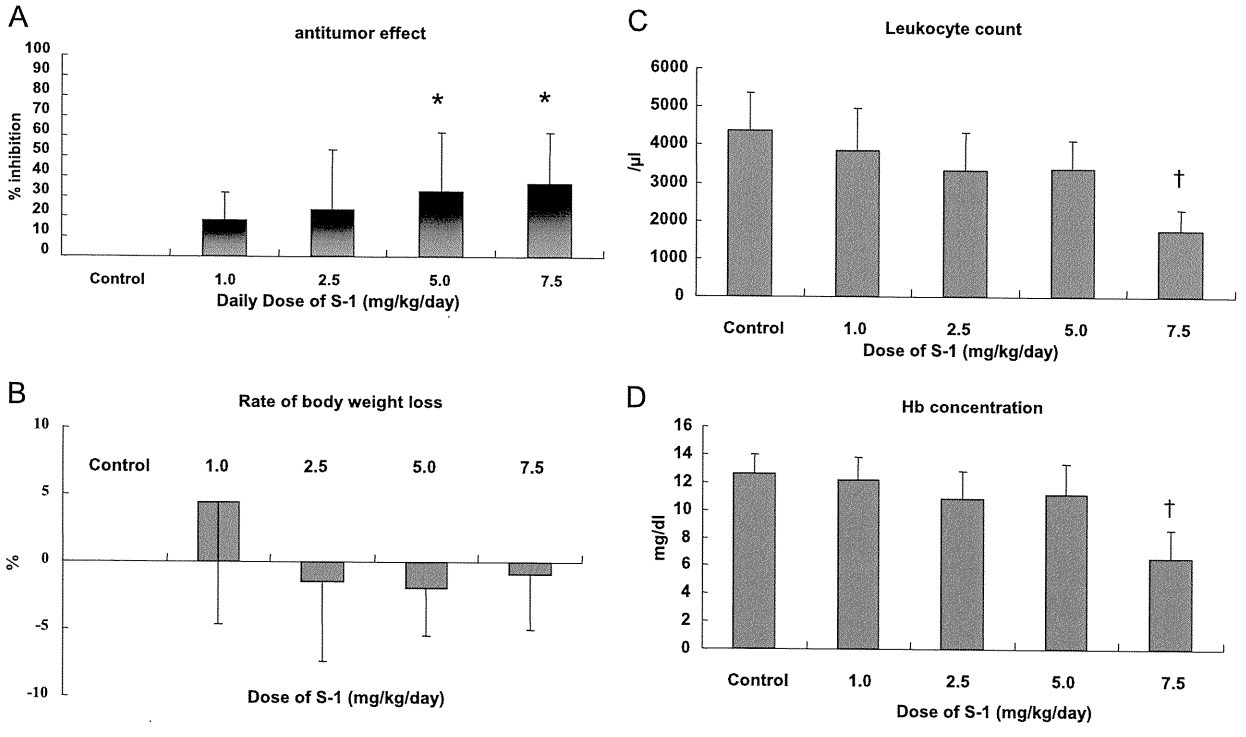


Figure 2. Determination of the optimal dose of S-1 in metronomic chemotherapy. Huh-7 subcutaneous tumor models were treated daily with either HPMC or different metronomic doses of S-1 (1.0, 2.5, 5.0, or 7.5 mg/kg per day) for 14 consecutive days. (A) Inhibition rates of tumor volumes (%) are expressed as mean ± SD ($n = 10$ per group). Dosages of 5.0 and 7.5 mg/kg per day S-1 groups statistically inhibited tumor growth compared with the control group (*$P < .05$). (B–D) Toxicity parameters are represented as mean ± SD. (B) Body weight (BW) changes on killing were calculated according to the following formula: BW change (%) = [(BW on sacrifice) − (BW on day 0)] × 100. (C) Hb concentration. (D) Leukocyte count. Each different dose of S-1 did not show body weight loss. However, the only 7.5-mg/kg-per-day S-1 group represented severe myelosuppression, such as decreased Hb concentration or leukocyte count. †$P < .001$ by compared with the control group.

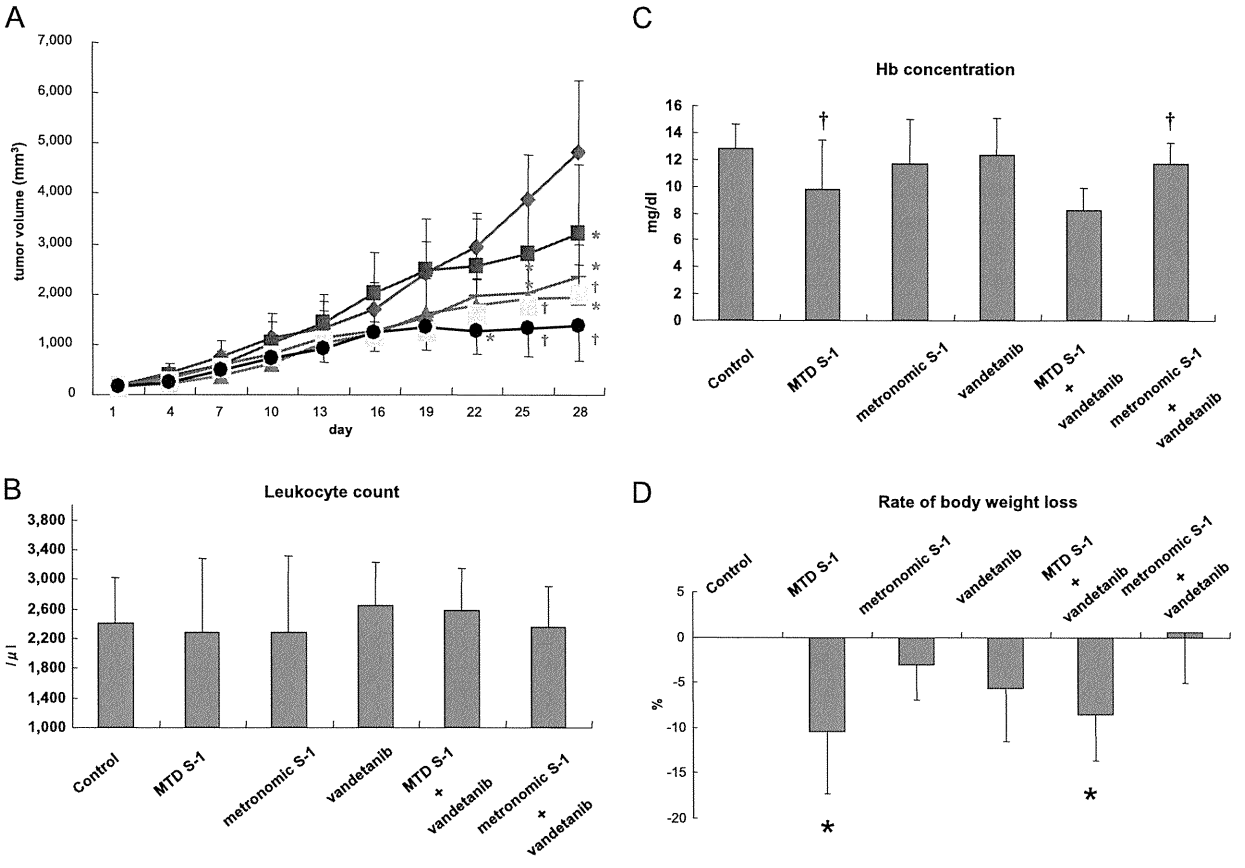


Figure 3. Therapeutic effects of metronomic S-1 chemotherapy in the Huh-7 subcutaneous tumor transplant model. (A) Tumor-bearing nude mice (n = 10 per group) were treated in the following six groups: 1) HPMC as the control group (blue); 2) MTD S-1 15 mg/kg per day for 1 week, followed by a 1-week break period (purple); 3) metronomic S-1 5 mg/kg per day for 2 weeks without break period (green); 4) vandetanib 25 mg/kg per day for 2 weeks (red); 5) MTD S-1 with vandetanib (yellow); or 6) metronomic S-1 with vandetanib (black). All treatments were performed for 4 weeks in total. Tumor volume changes are expressed as mean ± SD. All treatments showed efficacy compared with the control group (*P < .05), and the metronomic S-1 therapy was more effective than the MTD S-1 treatment. The metronomic S-1 with vandetanib significantly inhibited tumor growth compared with the control group (†P < .001). (B–D) Toxicity parameters are expressed as mean ± SD. (B) Hb concentration. (C) Leukocyte count. (D) Rate of body weight loss. MTD S-1 and the MTD S-1 with vandetanib showed severe body weight loss (*P < .01) and decreased Hb concentration (†P < .05) compared with the control group. Metronomic S-1 and the metronomic S-1 with vandetanib did not show any overt toxicities.

Evaluation of Survival Using Metronomic S-1 Chemotherapy in an Orthotopic Liver Transplant Model

The mean survival time in the control group was 28.9 ± 6.4 days. MTD S-1 did not prolong survival (mean survival time, 29.6 ± 3.9 days). In contrast, metronomic S-1 significantly prolonged survival (mean survival time, 34.3 ± 4.8 days). The mean survival time in the vandetanib group was 33.6 ± 5.0 days. MTD S-1 plus vandetanib treatment did not prolong survival times compared with vandetanib monotherapy (mean survival time, 37.6 ± 5.5 days). However, the metronomic S-1 plus vandetanib group provided the greatest prolonged survival times among all the treatment groups (mean survival time, 49.6 ± 11.5 days; Figure 4*B*).

Effect of Metronomic S-1 Chemotherapy Alone and in Combination with Vandetanib on Parameters of Tumor Angiogenesis

The results in Figure 5 show the MVD count in each treatment group. There was no significant difference in the MVD count between the control and the MTD S-1 group (control 41.1 ± 9.2, MTD S-1 35.8 ± 5.5; Figure 5*B*). However, tumor MVD was decreased in the metronomic S-1 group (17.2 ± 4.1) compared with the control group (P < .001) and the MTD S-1 group (P < .001; Figure 5*B*). Tumor MVD in mice treated with vandetanib was 13.7 ± 5.1. In the MTD S-1 plus vandetanib group, the MVD count was 18.8 ± 7.4. Metronomic S-1 plus vandetanib group showed the greatest reduction of tumor MVD (P < .01 compared with MTD S-1 plus vandetanib group, 8.2 ± 1.6; Figure 5*B*).

Detection of Proliferation and Apoptotic Cells in Tumor Tissues

To further investigate the mechanism of the observed antitumor effect, we examined the effect of metronomic S-1 and in combination with vandetanib on tumor cell proliferation and apoptosis (Figure 5). With respect to tumor cell proliferation, there were no differences between the control and all treated groups. The mean

number of apoptotic tumor cells (apoptotic index) measured in the control group was 6.2 ± 2.6. The MTD S-1 group did not show any significant difference (6.1 ± 4.9). However, the metronomic S-1 and vandetanib groups showed a significant increase in the apoptosis index (26.0 ± 5.4 and 18.4 ± 8.8, respectively, $P < .0001$). A significant increase in the tumor cell apoptosis index was also observed in the metronomic S-1 plus vandetanib group with 42 ± 3.5 ($P < .0001$).

Expression of VEGF and TSP-1 in Tumor Tissues

The results in Figure 6 show the expression of TSP-1 and VEGF in treated tumor tissues. The expression level of TSP-1 was significantly upregulated by approximately two- to three-fold in both the metronomic S-1 and the metronomic S-1 plus vandetanib treatment groups ($P < .05$ compared with the control group; Figure 6, *A* and *B*). With respect to expression levels of VEGF, there were no differences between the control and the MTD S-1 and metronomic S-1 groups (Figure 6, *C* and *D*). In contrast, the vandetanib and the metronomic S-1 plus vandetanib groups showed significantly upregulated the VEGF expression compared with the control group ($P < .05$; Figure 6, *C* and *D*). There was a significant difference between the vandetanib monotherapy group and the metronomic S-1 plus vandetanib treatment group ($P = .045$).

Discussion

Our results add to an expanding body of literature reporting the therapeutic benefit of metronomic chemotherapy, especially when it is combined concurrently with a targeted antiangiogenic drug [5,12,13]. Moreover, to our knowledge, this is the first preclinical report of using S-1 in a metronomic dosing and administration schedule for HCC preclinical model. Also noteworthy is that we undertook a comparative

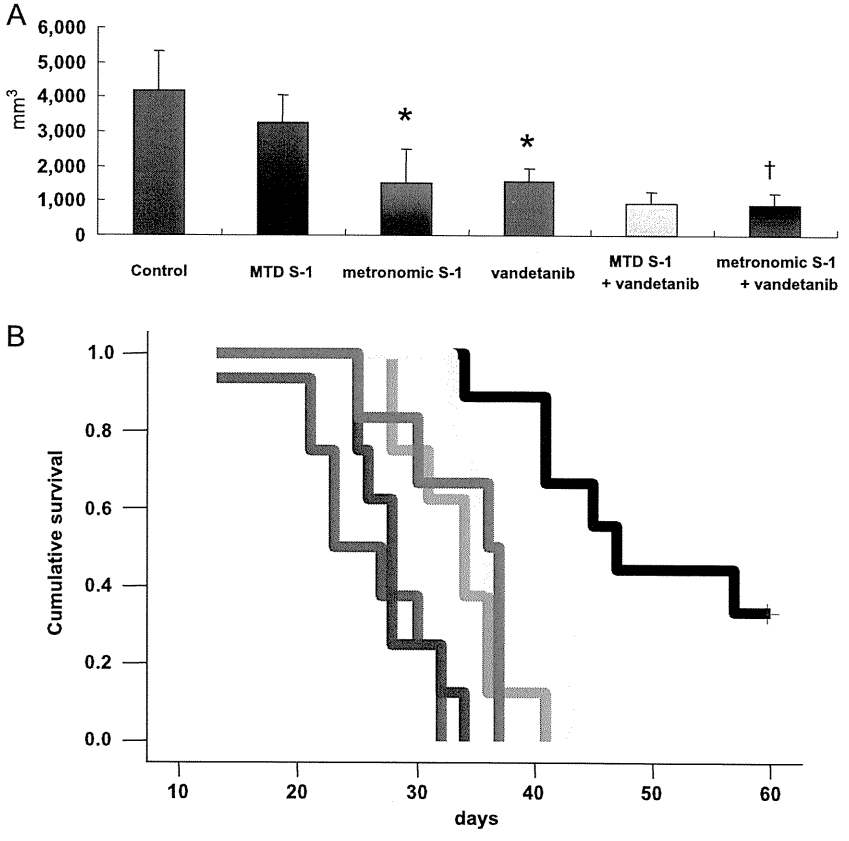
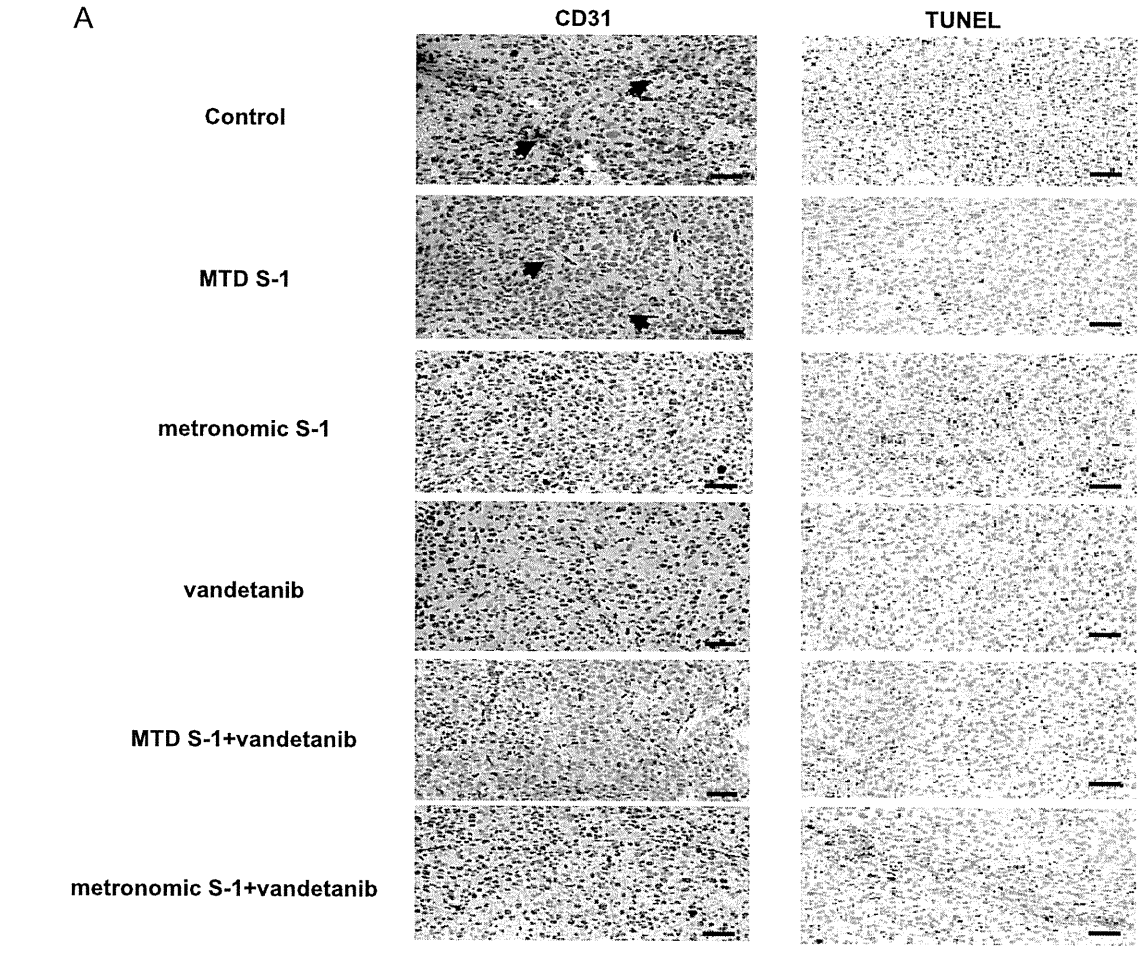


Figure 4. Assessment of therapeutic effects in KYN-2 liver transplant model. Tumor-bearing nude mice were treated in the following six groups: 1) HPMC as the control group (blue); 2) MTD S-1: 15 mg/kg per day for 1 week, followed by 1 week break period (purple); 3) metronomic S-1: 5 mg/kg per day for 2 weeks without break period (green); 4) vandetanib 25 mg/kg per day for 2 weeks (red); 5) MTD S-1 with vandetanib (yellow); or 6) metronomic S-1 with vandetanib (black). (A) Inhibition of tumor growth for KYN-2 liver transplant model. All treatments were performed 4 weeks in total. There was no significant difference between the control and the MTD S-1 groups. The metronomic S-1 group contributed to obvious inhibitory effect of tumor growth (*$P < .05$ compared with the control and the MTD S-1 groups). The metronomic S-1 with vandetanib treatment group showed the greatest inhibitory effect of tumor growth among all the groups (†$P < .001$). (B) Survival of mice treated with MTD S-1 or metronomic S-1 and in combination with vandetanib ($n = 10$ per group). Treatment was continued until mice were moribund, and days of life were recorded. Survival data were compared for significance with the log-rank test. MTD S-1 did not prolong survival compared with the control group. In contrast, metronomic S-1 prolonged survival compared with the control and MTD S-1 groups. The metronomic S-1 with vandetanib group provided the most effective therapy with longest survival times among all the groups ($P < .001$).


A
CD31
TUNEL
Control
MTD S-1
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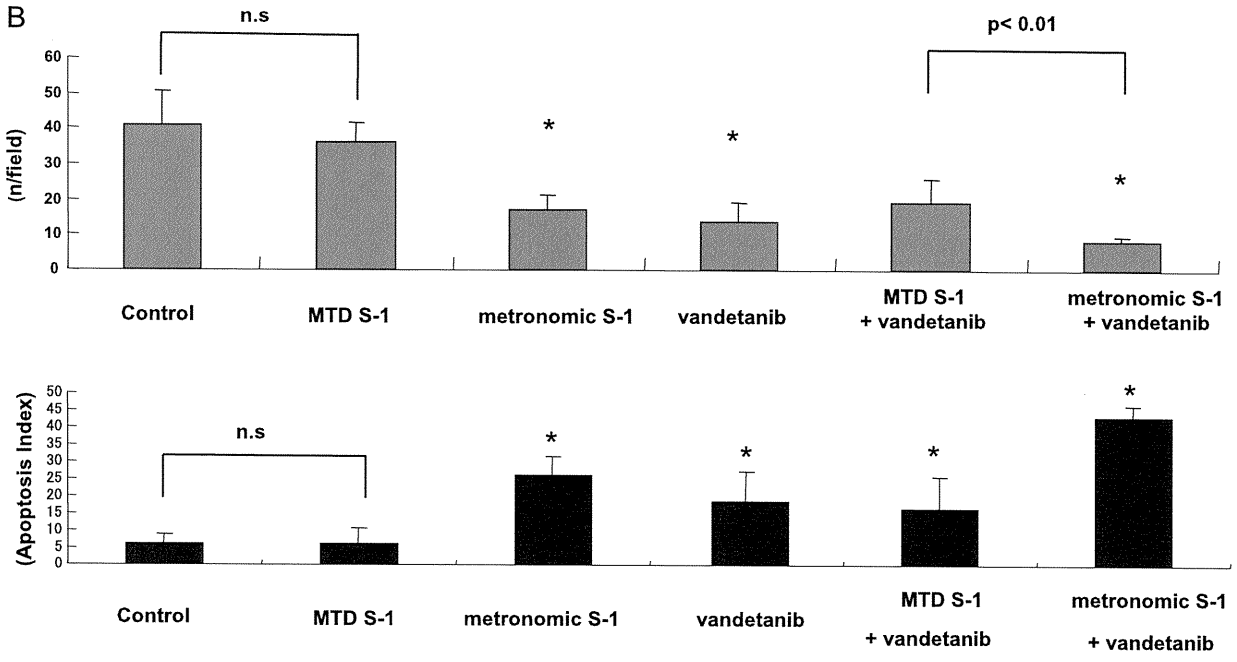
vandetanib
MTD S-1+vandetanib
metronomic S-1+vandetanib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