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Ezetimibe as potential treatment for cholesterol gallstones: The need for clinical trials

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Abstract

Obesity is associated with insulin resistance, non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) and gallstones. High fat diets (unsaturated fats) rich in cholesterol have been demonstrated to produce not only gallstones but also NAFLD and insulin resistance. Interestingly, a high incidence of gallstones is being reported in association with insulin resistance and NAFLD. Laparoscopic cholecystectomy is the best definitive therapy for symptomatic gallbladder disease. Ezetimibe is a drug that inhibits the absorption of both dietary and biliary cholesterol in the small intestine. Importantly, ezetimibe showed potential benefit not only in treating and preventing gallstones but also in insulin resistance and NAFLD. Further studies are required before the use of ezetimibe for the treatment of gallstones can be advocated.

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Key words: Ezetimibe; Gallstones; Insulin resistance; Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease

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INTRODUCTION

Gallstones are a common problem and is likely to have existed since the appearance of mankind on Earth. Interestingly, gallstones have been identified in autopsy studies of Egyptian mummies^[1]. Gallstones and associated complications cost approximately 6.5 billion dollars annually in the USA. The incidence of gallstones is more frequent in females than males and increase with age. The role of ethnicity and genetics is known in gallstone formation. Importantly, the distribution of gallstones in different populations appears to be related to high dietary intake of cholesterol and fats (Western diets). Furthermore, gallstones are primarily cholesterol or black pigment stones (bilirubin polymers) or brown pigment stones (calcium bilirubinate). The only established dietary risk is a high caloric intake. Other modifiable risk factors for gallstones are obesity, the metabolic syndrome, rapid weight loss, certain diseases (cirrhosis, Crohn's disease) and gallbladder stasis (from spinal cord injury or drugs such as somatostatin). Therefore, it is anticipated that diets containing fibre, vegetable protein, nuts, calcium, vitamin C, coffee, plus physical activity are all regarded as protective factors. In developed countries, cholesterol gallstones predominate; 15% are black pigment stones. It is thought that gallstones affect around 15% of white adults in developed countries. East Asians develop brown pigment stones in bile ducts, associated with biliary infection or parasites, or in intrahepatic ducts (hepatolithiasis). In view of the high prevalence of obesity and metabolic

syndrome, the burden of disease is epidemic in American Indians at around 60%-70%. The frequency of gallstones is reduced in Black Americans, Hispanics of mixed Indian origin, East Asians and sub-Saharan Africans^[2,3]. Most asymptomatic gallstone carriers require no therapy. Laparoscopic cholecystectomy is the best definitive therapy for symptomatic gallstone disease. Primary prevention is unproven but focuses on early identification and risk alteration to decrease the possibility of developing gallstones. Ursodeoxycholic acid has a limited role in stone dissolution but can prevent stone development in severe obesity during rapid weight reduction with diet therapy or after bariatric surgery^[4].

EZETIMIBE AND CHOLESTEROL GALLSTONES

Recently, it was shown both in animal models and humans that ezetimibe may prevent and treat cholesterol gallstones^[5]. Ezetimibe inhibits intestinal uptake of cholesterol with a half life of approximately of 22 h. The major metabolic pathway for ezetimibe consists of glucuronidation of the 4-hydroxyphenyl group by uridine 5'-diphosphate-glucuronosyltransferase isoenzymes to form ezetimibe-glucuronide in the intestine and liver. Approximately 78% of the dose is excreted in the faeces predominantly as ezetimibe, with the balance found in the urine mainly as ezetimibe-glucuronide^[6]. Niemann-Pick C1 like1 (NPC1L1), highly expressed in the jejunum of different species and only in human liver, is the main transporter of intestinal cholesterol. Mice deficient in NPC1L1 showed a significant > 70% reduction in cholesterol absorption, and a further reduction in cholesterol level with ezetimibe administration was not achievable. It was concluded that ezetimibe reduces intestinal absorption by inhibiting the action of NPC1L1. Ezetimibe significantly reduces low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol and is used as monotherapy or in combination with statins to treat hyperlipidaemia^[7].

Wang *et al*^[5] showed that ezetimibe treatment for 8 to 12 wk in male gallstone-susceptible C57L mice and in 7 patients (treated with 20 mg ezetimibe for 30 d) resulted in a decrease in intestinal cholesterol absorption and biliary cholesterol secretion. Ezetimibe also protected gallbladder motility function by desaturating bile. Furthermore, ezetimibe treatment promoted the dissolution of gallstones by forming an abundance of unsaturated micelles and reduced biliary cholesterol saturation. However, Tamel *et al*^[8] found that mice transgenic for *NPC1L1* gene, displayed an increase in biliary cholesterol concentration, suggesting that ezetimibe treatment may reduce biliary cholesterol secretion and increase the cholesterol saturation index. This is not in agreement with previous studies which showed the potential benefit of ezetimibe in treating gallstones, and may lead to speculation that it is actually intestinal cholesterol absorption which is largely responsible for the formation of cholesterol gallstones.

Furthermore, administration of ezetimibe in Golden Syrian hamsters fed a diet high in cholesterol and sun-

flower oil resulted in a significant reduction in absolute and relative cholesterol levels in bile^[9]. Ezetimibe treatment in C57BL female mice, prevented biliary crystals and normalized gallbladder wall fat and function^[10]. Importantly, gallstone-susceptible C57BL/6 inbred mice were fed control and lithogenic diets with or without simultaneous ezetimibe administration. Lithogenic diets increased biliary cholesterol content and secretion, and induced sludge or gallstone formation in 100% of the animals. Ezetimibe administration reduced intestinal cholesterol absorption by 90% in control animals and by 35% in mice receiving the lithogenic diets. Ezetimibe prevented the appearance of cholesterol crystals and gallstones. In addition, mice fed the lithogenic diets plus ezetimibe exhibited a 60% reduction in the biliary cholesterol saturation index. Of note, ezetimibe treatment caused a significant increase in bile flow (+50%, $P < 0.01$) as well as bile salt, phospholipid and glutathione secretion rates (+60%, +44% and +100%, respectively, $P < 0.01$), which was associated with a moderately increased expression of hepatic bile salt transporters^[11]. From the above discussion it is possible to suggest that ezetimibe acts by decreasing intestinal cholesterol absorption and biliary cholesterol secretion, preserving gallbladder motility function by de-saturating bile in mice, promoting the dissolution of gallstones by forming an abundance of unsaturated micelles and significantly reducing biliary cholesterol saturation and retarding cholesterol crystallization in the bile of patients with gallstones.

Another important precipitating factor for gallstones and a therapeutic target for ezetimibe is insulin resistance. Interestingly, Chang *et al*^[12] showed in 19 503 Korean men, that the prevalence of obesity, abdominal obesity, and metabolic syndromes in the subjects with gallstones were higher than in those without gallstones. The prevalence of elevated homeostatic model assessment (HOMA) (> 75 percentile) in subjects with gallstones was significantly higher than in those without gallstones, and this association remained even after the obesity stratification was applied. In multiple logistic regression analyses, only age and HOMA proved to be independent predictors of gallstones. Insulin resistance was positively associated with gallstones in non-diabetic Korean men, and this occurred regardless of obesity. Importantly, gallstones appear to be a marker for insulin resistance, even in non-diabetic, non-obese men. Furthermore, hepatic insulin resistance directly promotes the formation of cholesterol gallstones in mice^[13]. Nakeeb *et al*^[14] showed that in lean, non-diabetic volunteers without gallstones, gallbladder dysmotility is associated with an elevated fasting glucose as well as a high index of insulin resistance, and their conclusion was that insulin resistance alone may be responsible for gallbladder dysmotility which may result in acalculous cholecystitis or gallstone formation. Insulin resistance is also associated with non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD)^[15]. Loria *et al*^[16] showed a higher prevalence of gallstones in association with NAFLD compared with a normal population. In liver biopsy screening for NAFLD, it was documented that 55% of subjects have gallstones^[17]. Recent studies showed the potential benefit of ezetimibe as treat-

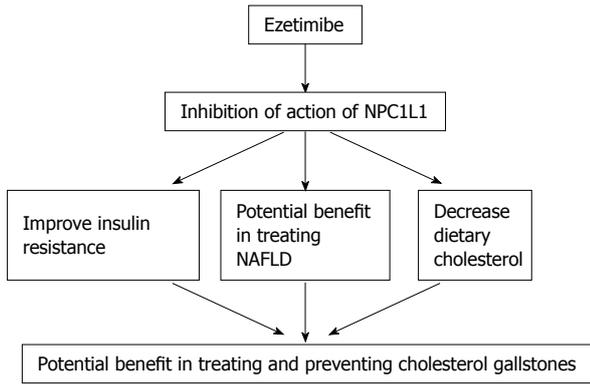


Figure 1 Mechanism of action of ezetimibe and ezetimibe may not only be of potential benefit in the treatment of cholesterol gallstones but also insulin resistance and NAFLD.

ment for NAFLD and associated hyperlipidaemia and insulin resistance. Interestingly, Zheng *et al*^[18] showed that ezetimibe treatment for 4 wk reduced alanine transaminase (ALT), hepatic triglyceride, hepatomegaly, cholesterol ester and free cholesterol in diet-induced obese mice fed a high fat/cholesterol diet for 7 mo with proof of NAFLD. Importantly, administration of ezetimibe in obese Zucker rats (a model of NAFLD and metabolic syndrome) resulted in a significant improvement in both cholesterol and triglyceride levels, hepatic steatosis and improved insulin resistance^[19]. This is in accordance with a recent study by Nomura *et al*^[20] who showed that ezetimibe improved hepatic insulin sensitivity.

CONCLUSION

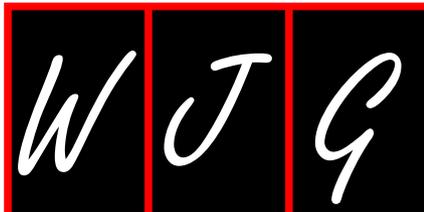
In summary, Ezetimibe is a unique medication with potential for treating not only gallbladder stones but also insulin resistance and NAFLD (Figure 1). Taking all these factors into consideration, it is possible to suggest that a clinical trial designed to investigate the potential of ezetimibe for reducing biliary cholesterol saturation and insulin resistance in populations with a predisposition to cholelithiasis is now warranted.

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Liver magnetic resonance imaging: State of the art

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Abstract

Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) has now been used for about three decades to characterize the human liver in a non-invasive way, that is without the need of using ionizing radiation or removing tissue samples. During the past few years, technical progress has been considerable and novel applications of MRI have been implemented in the clinic. The beginning of a new decade offers an excellent opportunity for having five experts to present their view on the current status of MRI (and magnetic resonance spectroscopy) in the study of perfusion, fat and iron contents, diffusion and the metabolism of diffuse liver diseases. This topic highlight series thus provides an update of current knowledge in the field of liver MRI.

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Key words: Liver; Magnetic resonance imaging

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focus on five magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) methods offering opportunities for parametric exploration of the liver^[1]. The first contribution focuses on the microcirculatory status in liver parenchyma and liver lesions as studied by perfusion MRI, i.e. MRI with the use of (contrast) agents to improve the contrast between the features on images^[2]. Great progress has been made in turning perfusion weighted imaging into a quantitative method for detecting tumor, evaluating tumor viability after therapy and, for instance, the diagnosis of liver cirrhosis and its severity. Another important development is that nowadays, the sampling of liver tissue for the assessment of hepatic steatosis, related to alcoholic and non-alcoholic liver disease, metabolic syndrome, obesity and insuline resistance, can be replaced by the use of MRI or magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) for determining liver fat content^[3]. The next review is a thorough assessment of the present status in another novel application of MRI presenting an alternative to biopsy: liver iron content determination^[4]. Accurate evaluation of iron overload is necessary to establish the diagnosis of hemochromatosis and guide chelation treatment in transfusion-dependent anemia. Diffusion weighted imaging (DWI), best used in combination with conventional unenhanced MRI and perfusion weighted MRI, is a promising tool used in predicting tumor responsiveness and following up oncological treatment since DWI might be capable of detecting recurrent disease earlier than conventional imaging^[5]. The final contribution features the use of MRS to study metabolism in diffuse liver diseases, diabetes and cancer^[6]. Although this method still is in the preclinical stage, it is anticipated that future developments such as clinical magnets with a higher field strength (3 T, 7 T) and improved delineation of multi-component signals, will lead to intensified research in metabolic syndrome, cardiovascular disease, hepato-biliary diseases, *etc.* We believe that this issue will be of interest not only to gastroenterologists, but also to those involved in metabolic studies, cell physiology and pathology.

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Liver fat content determined by magnetic resonance imaging and spectroscopy

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Abstract

Hepatic steatosis as the most prevalent liver disorder can either be related to alcoholic liver disease (ALD) or non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD). In both conditions, hepatocytes excessively accumulate fat-containing vacuoles within their cytoplasm, which is the key histological feature. In contrast to ALD, NAFLD is commonly associated with metabolic syndrome, obesity and insulin resistance. To determine increased liver fat content, liver biopsy is currently considered the gold standard. Besides the invasive technique, various other non-invasive techniques have been developed, such as ultrasound, computed tomography (CT), magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) based methods. Among these techniques, ultrasound and CT provide only qualitative information about hepatic steatosis, whereas MRS- or MRI-based

methods are able to determine even small amounts of fat accurately. These non-invasive magnetic resonance techniques have already proven their great potential, especially in longitudinal and cross-sectional studies regarding various metabolic conditions and medical treatment regimens. In this review, the most common, non-invasive MRS/MRI techniques for assessment of intrahepatic lipid content are described with their inherent advantages and limitations.

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Key words: Hepatic steatosis; Magnetic resonance imaging; Proton magnetic resonance spectroscopy; Lipids

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INTRODUCTION

Hepatic steatosis is a common finding during liver examination and is found in a broad spectrum of diseases. It is related to an increased deposition of triglycerides within the cytoplasm of hepatocytes. Besides alcoholic liver disease (ALD), intrahepatic accumulation of lipids can also be associated with obesity, insulin resistance and metabolic syndrome, and is then termed non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD). NAFLD is constantly gaining prevalence throughout the western world and is related to obesity as an increasing problem in recent decades^[1,2]. Nevertheless, NAFLD can also be found in non-obese subjects with a body mass index within the normal range. Those patients

often suffer from insulin resistance. Thus, intrahepatic fat fraction denotes an interesting metabolic parameter for longitudinal or cross-sectional studies regarding various metabolic conditions. Moreover, it is considered an independent risk factor for insulin resistance and atherosclerosis^[3-7]. The current gold standard for quantification of intrahepatic lipid content is based on invasive liver biopsies and subsequent histological analysis. However, due to its invasive character, it is not useful for longitudinal studies or metabolic studies on otherwise healthy subjects.

Magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) provide non-invasive means to accurately quantify intrahepatic lipid content^[8-10]. In contrast to other modalities such as ultrasound and computed tomography (CT), MRI/MRS are capable of detecting even small amounts of intrahepatic lipid accumulation^[10]. Therefore, MRI/MRS are especially useful to measure changes in hepatic steatosis during various treatment regimens. During recent years, clinical and research investigations have been performed on this subject.

This review gives an overview of various magnetic-resonance-based methods that are capable of quantifying intrahepatic lipid content non-invasively. Different strategies of ¹H-MRS, as well as phase-sensitive and frequency-selective MRI methods are described.

¹H-MRS

In 1993, Longo *et al.*^[11,12] first published their results of ¹H-MRS of liver parenchyma and correlated the data with CT studies and biopsies. In these studies, they found an excellent agreement between the different investigated methods. Since then, several studies have been performed that have further verified these results by means of whole-body MR scanning^[13-15].

However, various strategies have been developed to obtain volume-selective ¹H-MR spectra from liver parenchyma *in vivo*. Spectra are usually recorded from volumes ranging from 1 to 27 cm³, which are small enough to be positioned well in the liver parenchyma. To record reliable spectra from pure liver parenchyma, voxels have to be carefully placed in order to avoid artificial signal contributions from surrounding adipose tissue or intrahepatic blood vessels.

Two main strategies are used for single-voxel spectroscopy (SVS): point resolved spectroscopy (PRESS) or stimulated-echo acquisition mode (STEAM)^[16,17]. The PRESS acquisition scheme (multi-echo single-shot technique) uses a 90°-180°-180° pulse sequence with long echo time (TE) and allows for better visualization of metabolites with long T₁ relaxation times. In contrast, the STEAM sequence applies a 90°-90°-90° pulse sequence and is less sensitive to J-coupling effects. The STEAM sequence provides shorter TE and lower signal yield compared to PRESS, which is usually not a limitation for fat quantification in the liver. However, both techniques can be applied for intrahepatic fat quantification in clinical examinations.

Since both techniques only provide spectra of a small sub-region of the liver parenchyma, so-called spectroscopic imaging techniques with 2D or even 3D matrices of spectra have been developed to obtain detailed information on lipid distribution^[18,19]. Compared to SVS, these techniques are rarely used clinically for routine investigation of liver parenchyma, due to their rather long acquisition and post-processing times^[20,21]. In most cases of NAFLD, hepatic lipid distribution has been shown to be relatively homogeneous, which allows one to quantify intrahepatic fat fraction by only one single representative voxel^[22-24]. However, it should be noted that significant differences in sub-regions of both liver lobes have also been reported^[13].

The above-mentioned ¹H-MRS techniques have been applied in studies investigating NAFLD in the general adult population^[25]. Moreover, an increasing number of longitudinal clinical studies have been performed evaluating intrahepatic fat fraction in the obese population or patients at risk for developing type 2 diabetes^[26-31]. Intrahepatic fat fraction has also been evaluated in morbidly obese patients undergoing bariatric surgery^[32-35]. Moreover, additional cross-sectional studies have revealed different intrahepatic fat fractions depending on genetic background or hormonal status of the examined subjects^[36-42].

All of these MRS fat quantification techniques have been shown to be safe and non-invasive alternatives to the current invasive gold standard (liver biopsy). They have been tested regarding their accuracy and have shown high intra-individual reproducibility in repeated measurements^[13,23,25]. However, one has to consider that MR spectroscopic fat quantification relies on determination of overall volume fraction of lipids in the liver parenchyma. In contrast, in histological examinations, the percentage of hepatocytes that show distinct fat droplets is used for quantification. Thus, the reported percentage values that characterize steatosis from MR examinations might differ from those in histological analysis. On the other hand, data from MRI and histology correlate with each other and both techniques allow, nevertheless, for reliable quantification of intrahepatic lipid content.

It should be also mentioned that spectroscopic examinations are especially recommended for assessment of small lipid fractions in the liver, because sensitivity to low signal intensities from fat is higher than for imaging-based strategies. Furthermore, water and fat signals can be well distinguished.

FAT-SENSITIVE IMAGING METHODS

¹H-MRS capabilities are still not available on all standard clinical scanners and require dedicated prerequisites including spectroscopic sequences and post-processing software. Therefore, ¹H-MRS still remains a research tool for clinical studies and is usually not used in daily routine liver examinations. There are, nevertheless, MRI sequences that allow for reliable and accurate quantification of intrahepatic lipid content.

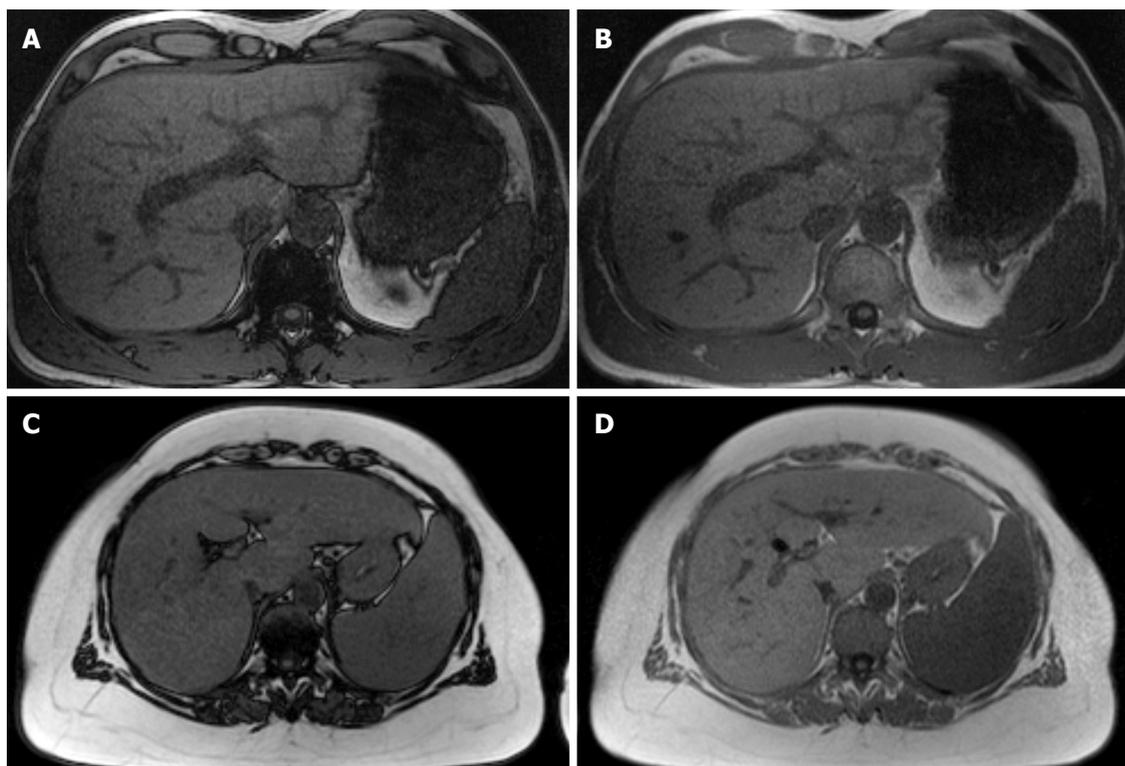


Figure 1 T1-weighted gradient echo images recorded with OP (parts A and C) and IP (B and D) conditions. A and B show a lean subject with almost equal signal intensity of the liver under OP (A) and IP (B) conditions, since no intrahepatic lipid storage is present. In contrast, C and D show an obese subject with lower signal intensity under OP conditions compared to IP conditions, which indicated relevant intrahepatic lipid storage.

Techniques based on differences in signal phase of water and fat

So-called in-phase/opposed-phase (IP/OP) techniques are available on most MR units and can be performed easily in routine examinations. Using this technique, T1-weighted images can be acquired extremely fast, with the use of multi-segment phased array coils and parallel imaging techniques. Moreover, T1-weighted gradient echo sequences can cover most of the liver parenchyma within a single breath-hold^[43-46]. The IP/OP technique is based upon the fact that, during TE, transverse magnetization vectors of fat and water develop a phase difference that results in decreased overall length of the magnetization vector under OP conditions. At a main magnetic field strength of 1.5 T, the frequency shift between fat and water is approximately 220 Hz, which results in OP conditions at a TE of about 2.4 ms and in-phase conditions at a TE of about 4.8 ms^[47-49]. The hepatic fat fraction can then be quantified by calculating the loss of signal intensity in OP images compared to IP images^[50-52], as shown in Figure 1. From congruent sets of IP and OP images, acquired within the same breath-hold, the fat fraction can be calculated pixel-wise and misregistration errors can be avoided. Thus, maps of intrahepatic fat fraction can be obtained to estimate liver fat content and show differences in regional fat distribution.

However, not only the phase difference between water and fat protons contribute to the observed signal loss in OP images, but also additional transverse and longitudinal relaxation effects may play a major role. Recent studies

have shown that especially transverse relaxation time can vary largely between different individuals, as well as intra-individually in the time-course of longitudinal studies^[46,53,54]. These changes in transverse relaxation time are mainly due to increased iron deposition in the liver parenchyma; either artificially acquired or, for example, hemochromatosis-associated^[55]. It has been shown that transverse relaxivity correlates well with serum ferritin levels^[53,56]. Thus, transverse relaxation time of liver parenchyma has to be measured additionally using a multi-echo gradient echo sequence. The data necessary for estimation of T2* can then be obtained within a single additional breath-hold. Integration of individual T2* values in the calculation of the fat fraction requires a somewhat more sophisticated approach^[57].

In contrast, longitudinal relaxation times are relatively stable throughout the population and individual calculation requires additional time-consuming sequences. Therefore, it seems legitimate for the general population to account for longitudinal relaxivity using constant values for longitudinal relaxation time of liver parenchyma.

Compared to the above-described gradient-echo-based IP/OP technique, Dixon *et al.*^[47] described in 1984 the use of a spin-echo technique with a small timing-offset of the 180° refocusing pulse, which is used to create a so-called OP image. The IP image is then acquired using a conventional spin-echo sequence. From these two images, fat- and water-selective images can be subsequently obtained. However, sensitivity to magnetic field inhomogeneity cannot be neglected and has prevented the wides-

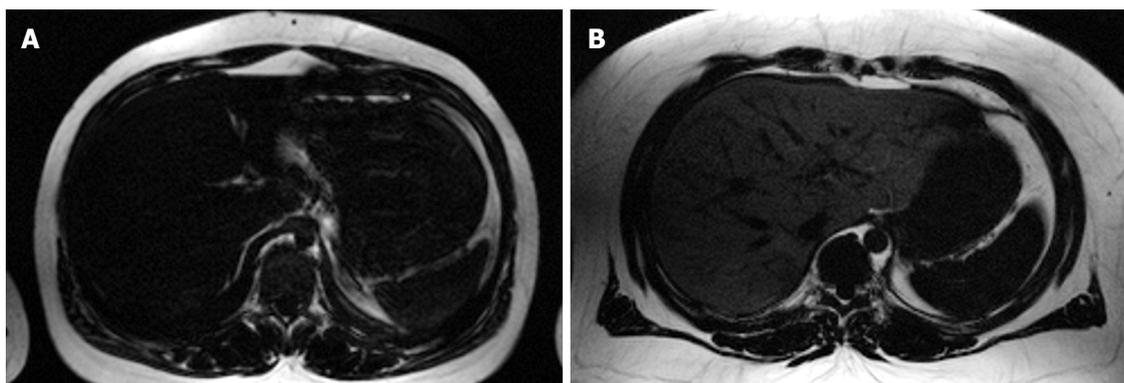


Figure 2 A and B show fat-selective spectral-spatial imaging of the body trunk. A lean subject with almost no intrahepatic lipid storage (A) and an obese subject with markedly increased lipid storage in the liver parenchyma is shown (B).

pread routine clinical usage of the Dixon technique. Since its introduction more than 20 years ago, several modifications have been reported that have aimed at overcoming its inherent limitations^[45,48,58,59]. Three-point Dixon methods have been developed that additionally acquire a third image with a phase shift of -180° or 360° . Then, using three different images and sophisticated phase-correction algorithms, true fat- and water-selective images are derived from the recorded data. This technique allows one to distinguish which constituent (water or fat) is predominant in each voxel^[60-66]. Acquiring all three images in a single breath-hold is often not possible, whereas recording in multiple breath-holds poses the problem of misregistration artefacts due to variable positions of the liver parenchyma.

Another approach was first described by Reeder *et al.*^[67-69] and is termed the IDEAL technique (iterative decomposition of water and fat with echo asymmetry and least squares estimation). Using optimized echo shifts and gradient echo imaging, it provides robust quantification of the intrahepatic fat fraction. This technique allows for fat quantification even in the presence of moderate inhomogeneities of the static magnetic field, which are often encountered in examinations of extremely obese patients on wide-bore MRI scanners. However, it is not free of limitations. Liu *et al.*^[70] have reported techniques for reduction of noise bias and longitudinal relaxation effects that affect quantification of the hepatic fat fraction in the IDEAL technique. These drawbacks can be partially overcome by small- or dual-flip angle approaches, magnitude discrimination and phase-constrained methods. Besides its capabilities in measuring parenchymal fat content, the IDEAL method has also been used for fat suppression in clinical studies of various body regions^[71-75].

Techniques based on frequency selective excitation

Previous studies have described a so-called spectral-spatial excitation technique to quantify fat content accurately in parenchymal organs and muscles^[57,76]. A combination of chemical shift selectivity and slice-selective excitation in gradient echo or spin echo imaging sequences provides a high sensitivity to detect even small amounts of fat^[23,49,77,78].

Furthermore, spatial information about parenchymal lipid distribution is also obtained. Slice-selectivity is implemented using six equidistant radio frequency pulses (time increment between pulses, 2.38 ms at 1.5 T) with nearly binomial amplitude ratios. These radio frequency pulses excite the methylene and methyl signal of fatty acids (0.8-2.0 ppm) selectively, as shown in Figure 2. Thus, signal contributions from water protons are below the noise level. To achieve this optimal spectral-spatial excitation, relatively homogeneous static magnetic fields are required, which makes adequate shimming procedures necessary. However, especially in wide-bore MR scanners that are designed to examine extremely obese patients, the inhomogeneity of the static magnetic field is often problematic. Even time-consuming shimming procedures might fail. For quantitative assessment of intrahepatic fat, adjacent subcutaneous or visceral fat is used as an internal reference because it contains almost 100% fat. The spectral-spatial excitation method is capable of detecting even small amounts of lipids (starting at 1%-2% volume fraction of fat in the liver), with additional spatial information about its distribution^[23]. However, some advantages and disadvantages of this technique should be noted. As a result of highly selective visualization of fat, the technique offers relatively low soft tissue contrast compared to conventional gradient echo sequences (Figure 3). Moreover, only a small number of representative slices can be acquired during a single breath-hold. Since only a reference region-of-interest in subcutaneous adipose tissue adjacent to liver parenchyma is needed for quantification of fat fraction, the calculation of intrahepatic lipid content can easily be done. Furthermore, there is no need for additional time-consuming sequences that are necessary to correct for transverse and longitudinal relaxation effects.

CONCLUSION

Several non-invasive methods have been developed for quantification of intrahepatic fat content using whole-body MRI scanners. Being aware of the inherent advantages and disadvantages of each technique, one has to choose carefully the appropriate method for specific examination

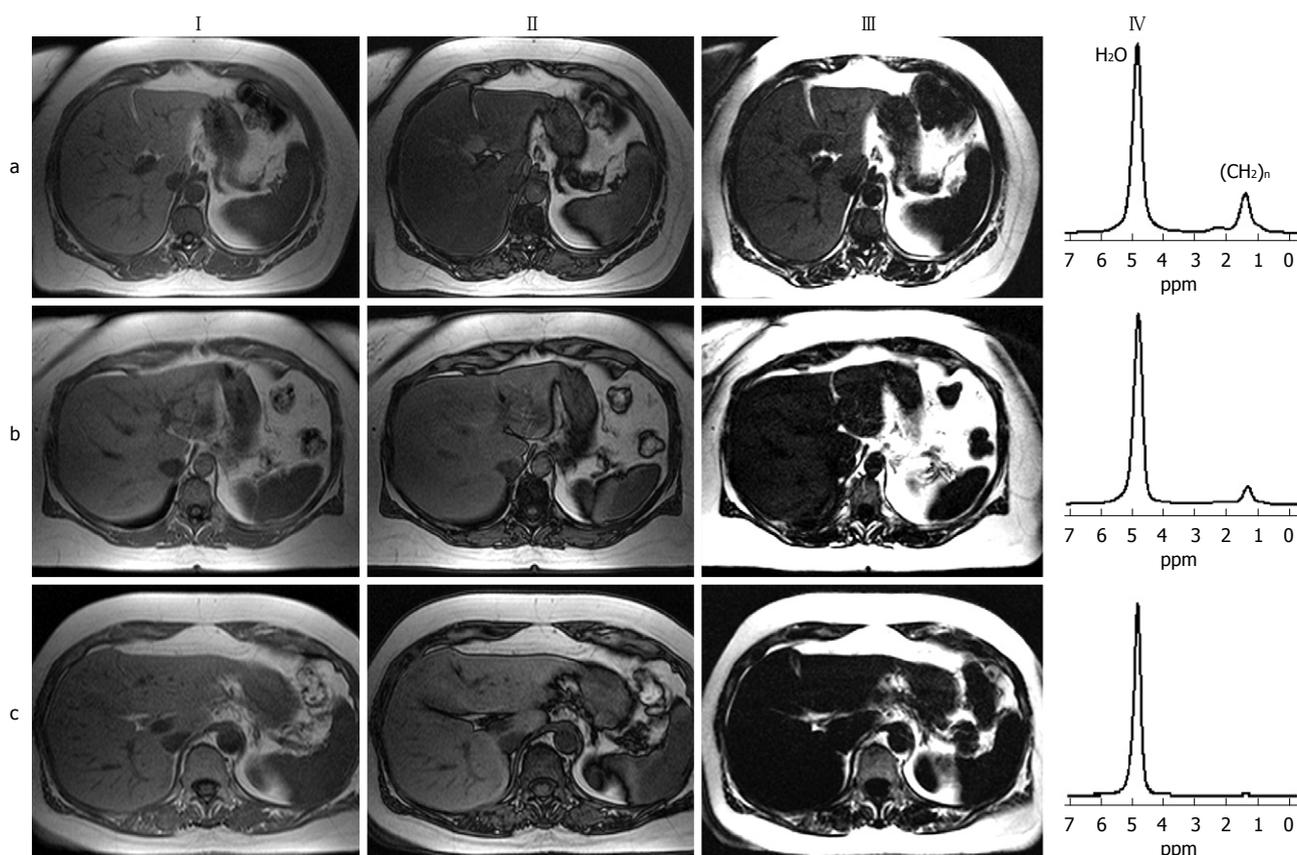


Figure 3 Three subjects with different intrahepatic lipid contents are compared. The subject in row (a) shows intrahepatic lipid content of about 20%; the subject in row (b) shows intrahepatic lipid content of about 10%; and the subject in row (c) shows intrahepatic lipid content in the normal range (about 1%). The figure shows IP (column I) and OP (column II) images of a T1-weighted gradient echo sequence. Column III shows the results of a fat-selective spectral-spatial imaging sequence, and column IV shows the results from single-volume ^1H -MRS using a STEAM sequence.

circumstances, as well as for hard- and software capabilities. Correctly applied, each technique (MRS/MRI) provides accurate data on intrahepatic fat fraction, correlating well with findings in liver biopsies, which is often considered as the current gold standard. The methods described above provide non-invasive quantification of the intrahepatic fat fraction, and give a reliable basis for longitudinal clinical and research studies. Thus, the influence of various medical treatments and diseases on intrahepatic lipid storage can be easily investigated in a non-invasive way.

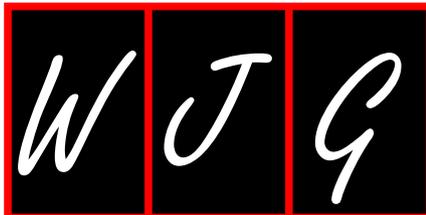
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Diffusion weighted imaging in the liver

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This review focuses on the most common applications of DWI in the liver.

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Abstract

Diffusion weighted magnetic resonance imaging (DWI) is an imaging technique which provides tissue contrast by the measurement of diffusion properties of water molecules within tissues. Diffusion is expressed in an apparent diffusion coefficient (ADC), which reflects the diffusion properties unique to each type of tissue. DWI has been originally used in neuroradiology. More recently, DWI has increasingly been used in addition to conventional unenhanced and enhanced magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) in other parts of the body. The reason for this delay was a number of technical problems inherent to the technique, making DWI very sensitive to artifacts, which had to be overcome. With assessment of ADC values, DWI proved to be helpful in characterization of focal liver lesions. However, DWI should always be used in conjunction to conventional MRI since there is considerable overlap between ADC values of benign and malignant lesions. DWI is useful in the detection of hepatocellular carcinoma in the cirrhotic liver and detection of liver metastases in oncological patients. In addition, DWI is a promising tool in the prediction of tumor responsiveness to chemotherapy and the follow-up of oncological patients after treatment, as DWI may be capable of detecting recurrent disease earlier than conventional imaging.

INTRODUCTION

Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is an imaging technique which is used to visualize the internal structure and function of the body. MRI provides excellent tissue contrast, which is much greater than that of any other imaging modality^[1,2]. Tissue contrast is realized by a wide range of pulse sequences. For example, tissue contrast on T1- and T2-weighted images is based on the rate at which signals from protons in water molecules in a static magnetic field decay following excitation by a sequence of radiofrequency (RF) pulses. Diffusion weighted imaging (DWI) is another mechanism for developing image contrast and relies on changes in the diffusion properties of water molecules in tissues. DWI is a widely accepted technique in neuroradiology for detecting early ischemia in cerebrovascular accidents and characterization of brain tumors and intracranial infections^[1-3]. The use of DWI in other parts of the body is relatively new, but very promising for the detection and differentiation of benign and malignant lesions, imaging for dissemination (i.e. staging) in oncological patients before treatment and

for follow-up after treatment of liver tumors. Besides this, DWI is thought to be capable of predicting the response to therapy of malignant tumors (especially chemotherapy)^[4].

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF DWI

Diffusion

Diffusion is a physical property, which describes the microscopic random movement of (water) molecules driven by their internal thermal energy. This movement is known as Brownian motion. In biological tissues, water diffusion is movement of water molecules in intracellular, extracellular and intravascular spaces. Diffusion is affected by the biophysical properties of tissue cell organization (cell membranes, fibers and macromolecules), density, microstructure and microcirculation. Intracellular water diffusion is more hindered than that in the extracellular spaces which are lacking natural barriers. Pathological processes which change the volume ratio or physical nature of intra- and extracellular spaces affect the diffusion of water molecules. Restricted or impeded diffusion is seen in tissues with high cellularity, e.g. tumors, abscesses, fibrosis and cytotoxic edema. Relative free or unimpeded diffusion is encountered in tissues with low cellularity or tissues with disrupted cell membranes, for example in cysts and necrotic tissues^[3-5] (Figure 1A and B).

DWI

DWI relies on measuring diffusion of water molecules in the tissue by MRI. It uses a pulse sequence (T2-weighted spin echo sequence) and 2 strong motion probing gradients on either side of the 180° refocusing pulse, known as the Stejskal-Tanner sequence. The first gradient, prior to the 180° RF pulse is the dephasing (diffusion sensitizing) gradient. The second gradient, after the RF pulse, is the rephasing gradient. In tissues with restricted diffusion, the effect of the dephasing gradient is cancelled out by the rephasing gradient. This causes little impact on the overall T2 decay, reflected as a maintained T2 signal in the tissue. When diffusion is not impeded, water molecules can move a considerable distance between the dephasing and rephasing gradients. The mobile water molecules will not be fully rephased and a reduction in overall T2 signal intensity follows.

DWI is sensitive to very small scale motion of water molecules at a microscopic level. The sensitivity of a DWI sequence is characterized by its b-value, expressed in s/mm^2 . The b-value summarizes the influence of the gradients in DWI. The higher the b-value, the more sensitive the sequence is to diffusion effects. DWI is performed with at least two b-values. Diffusion is quantitatively reflected in a diffusion coefficient. The diffusion coefficient is related to the molecular mobility of water molecules and reflects tissue properties such as the size of the extracellular space, viscosity and cellularity. Diffusion coefficients in DWI are reflected in the *apparent diffusion coefficient* (ADC, expressed in mm^2/s), apparent because it is a mean value of diffusion contributed by

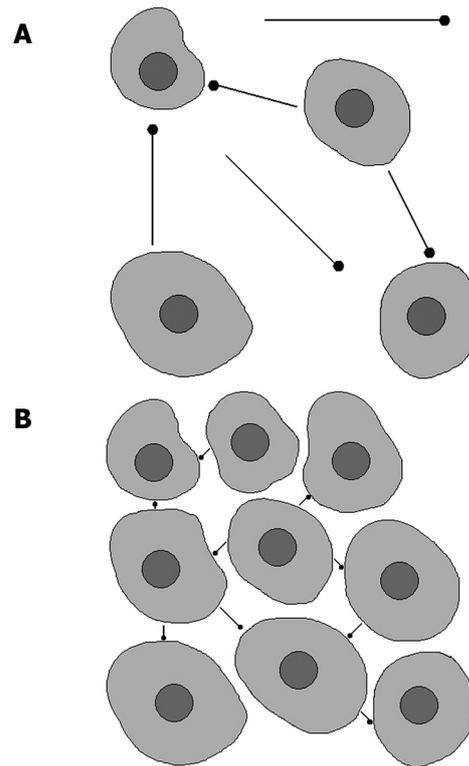


Figure 1 Brownian movements in hypocellular (A) and hypercellular (B) environment. A: Tissue with low cellularity permits movement of the water molecules; B: Tissue with high cellularity restricts the movement of water molecules.

movement of intracellular, extracellular and vascular water molecules within an image voxel (volumetric pixel) at different b-values. Analysis of ADC is an automated process, available as an application on most scanners or workstations. Calculation of ADC is made for each voxel of an image and can be displayed as a parametric (ADC) map. ADC measurements are then recorded for a given region by drawing regions of interest (ROIs) on the ADC map. Low ADC values mean restricted diffusion, thus in tissues which are highly cellular. High ADC values are seen in areas with relative free diffusion, thus in tissues with low cellularity^[1,3-5].

Problems encountered in DWI

DWI can be performed with different techniques, including spin-echo (SE), fast spin echo (FSE), gradient echo (GE) and echo-planar imaging (EPI). EPI is the gold standard DWI technique. When DWI is performed in the body, scanning can be carried out with free breathing, breath hold or respiratory triggered. There are some important limitations of DWI^[2,6].

Firstly, the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR, describes the relative contributions of the true signal and background noise to a detected signal) and spatial resolution are low due to hardware limitations and high bandwidth (a measure of frequency range, the range between the highest and lowest frequency allowed in the signal), inherent to the technique and EPI sequence. SNR will be decreased in incomplete spin echo formation, as is the case with

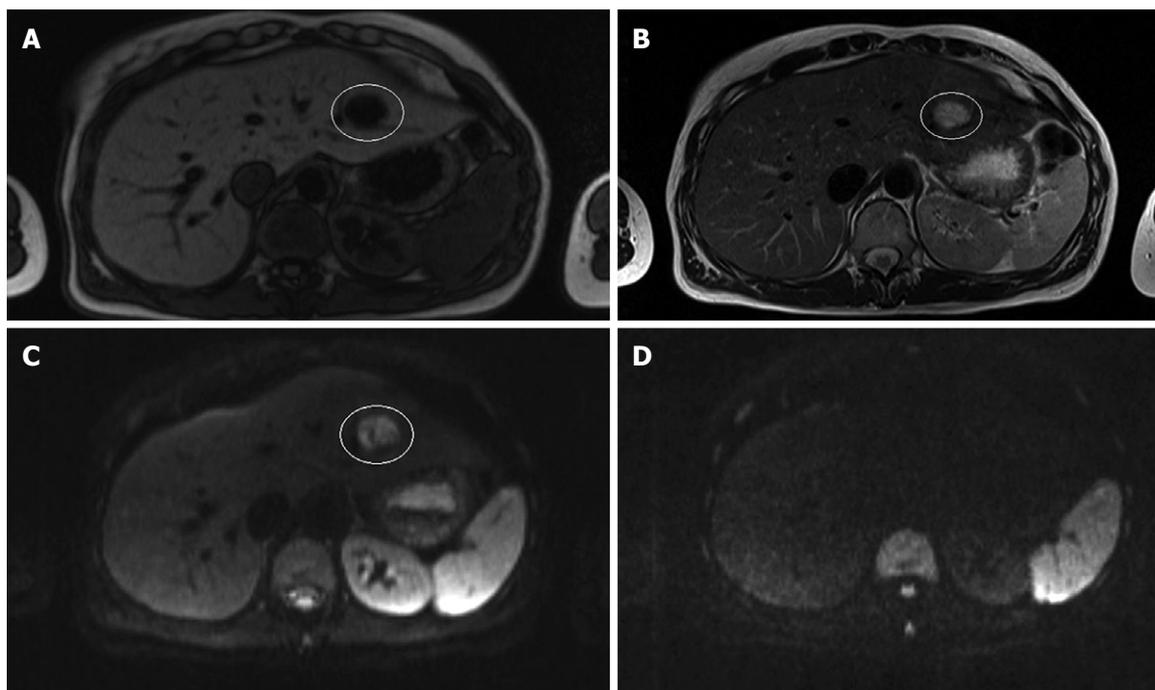


Figure 2 Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and diffusion weighted imaging (DWI) of a cyst. A: T1-weighted MRI; B: T2-weighted MRI; C: Diffusion weighted image (b-value 50 s/mm²); D: Diffusion weighted image (b-value 1000 s/mm²) in a 33-year old woman with multiple liver lesions. The cyst is hypo-intense on the T1-weighted image, hyper-intense on the T2-weighted image and the diffusion weighted image at a b-value 50 s/mm². Note that the cyst totally disappears on the diffusion weighted image at a b-value 1000 s/mm².

the most common DWI technique, the EPI sequence. SNR can be increased, but then spatial resolution is sacrificed^[2,3,6-8].

Secondly, DWI is susceptible to a number of artifacts. Ghosting images and blurring may arise from motion, caused by respiratory, cardiac and voluntary movements. Tissue contrast is maintained during free-breathing scanning, but breath hold and respiratory triggered techniques reduce image blurring. Breath hold scans have very short acquisition times of 20-30 s (i.e. the time the patient holds his or her breath) and are theoretically less likely to be degraded by motion-related artifacts. A disadvantage of breath-hold scanning is that the patient needs to hold his or her breath for a considerable time, which may be difficult when the physical condition does not allow him or her to do so. Respiratory triggering will make the acquisition time of the images longer (5 min), especially when the patient is breathing irregularly or slowly, but this is a minimal time penalty. Respiratory triggering provides substantially improved signal, spatial resolution and the ADC values are comparable to breath-hold DWI. In respiratory triggering, multiple b-values can be used to reduce errors in ADC calculation^[2,3,6,7,9-11].

Motion artifacts caused by the heart beating alter ADC in the left lobe of the liver, making measurements unreliable. Cardiac motion can be overcome by using electrocardiographic-triggering, but cardiac gating is not always reliable and increases acquisition times significantly^[2,3,6,7,12].

Susceptibility artifacts are due to magnetic field inhomogeneity (to be overcome by shimming techniques) or metal artifacts and are seen as bright spots, spatial

distortion or signal drop out. Susceptibility artifacts occur especially in fast imaging techniques like EPI^[2,6,7].

Artifacts caused by air-tissue interfaces or fat-water interfaces (chemical shift) appear as black or bright bands at the edge of an anatomical structure. Other artifacts are eddy currents, resulting from the rapid on and off switching of the gradients, leading to geometrical distortion and image shearing artifacts^[2,6,7].

Pathological diffusion

When evaluating diffusion on DWI images, the radiologist focuses on the measurement of extracellular diffusion. As mentioned earlier, the higher the cellularity in a tissue, the less far is extracellular water able to diffuse during the MR observation period without being blocked by cell membranes. Highly cellular tissues provide a short path of diffusion, resulting in low ADC values, as is seen in solid liver lesions and abscesses. Low cellularity means that there are fewer structural barriers, making the diffusion path longer. This results in high ADC values as is seen in cysts and necrotic lesions. In summary, ADC maps, derived from DWI provide a non-invasive measure of cellularity. This makes DWI a potential tool in diagnosis, treatment planning and monitoring, especially in oncology^[3-5]. Examples of different types of lesions and their diffusion weighted images are seen in Figures 2-5.

DWI IN THE LIVER

There are an increasing number of studies dealing with quantitative measurements of ADC in liver lesions, but

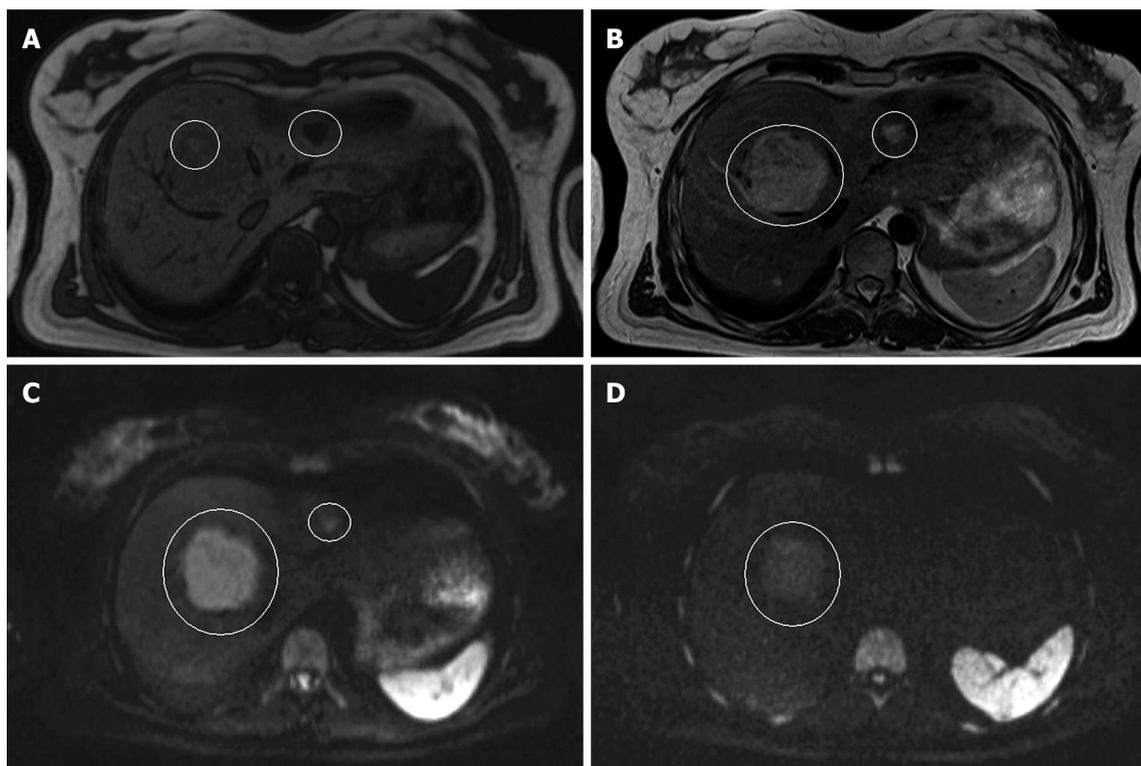


Figure 3 MRI and DWI of an adenoma and a hemangioma. A: T1-weighted MRI; B: T2-weighted MRI; C: Diffusion weighted image (b-value 50 s/mm²); D: Diffusion weighted image (b-value 1000 s/mm²) in a 41-year-old women with multiple liver lesions. The large lesion in segment 8 is an adenoma and the small one in segment 2-3 is a hemangioma. On the T1-weighted image, the adenoma is slightly hypo-intense to the normal liver parenchyma, and hyper-intense on the T2-weighted image. On the diffusion weighted images, it remains hyper-intense at both b-values. The hemangioma is also hypo-intense on the T1-weighted image and hyper-intense on the T2-weighted image. However, in contrast to the adenoma, it totally disappears at a b-value of 1000 mm/s².

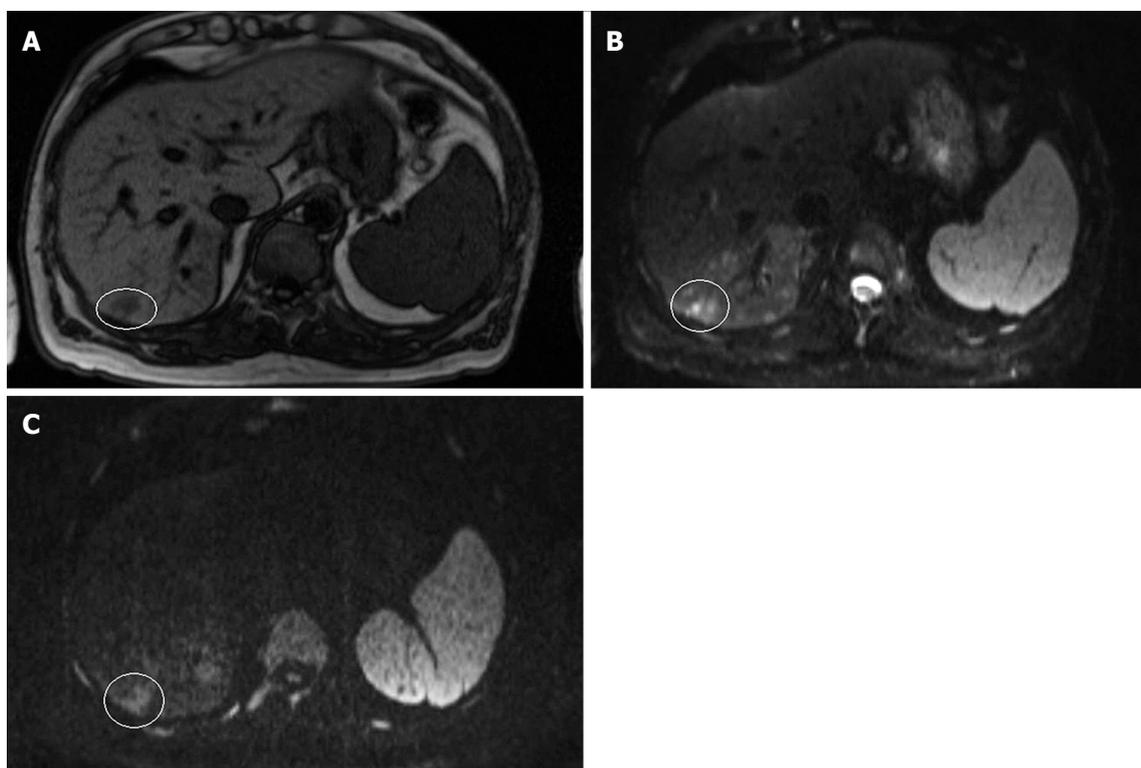


Figure 4 MRI and DWI of hepatocellular carcinoma. A: T1-weighted; B: DWI (b-value 50 s/mm²); C: Diffusion weighted image (b-value 1000 s/mm²) in a 67-year-old male with hemophilia, hepatitis C-based liver cirrhosis and HCC in segment 7. The HCC is hypo-intense on the T1-weighted image and hyper-intense on the diffusion weighted images at both b-values. Note that the lesion remains hyper-intense on the image with a b-value 1000 s/mm².

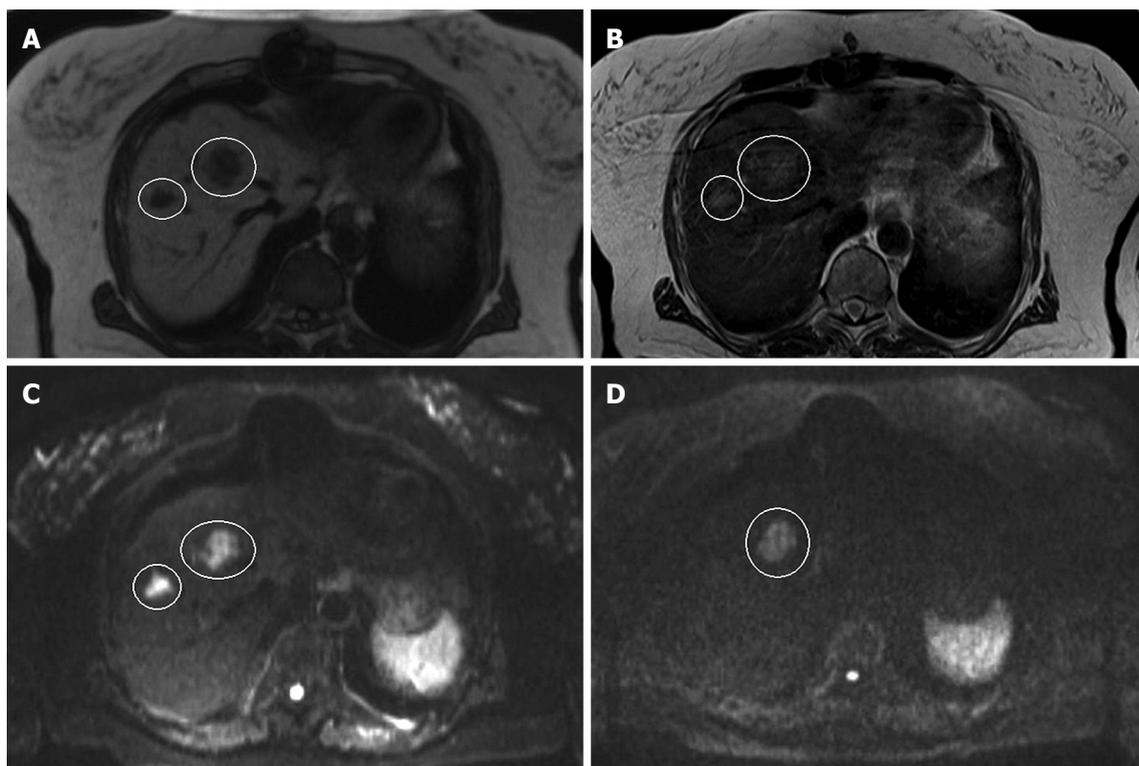


Figure 5 MRI and DWI of hepatic metastases. A: T1-weighted; B: T2-weighted; C: Diffusion weighted image (b-value 50 s/mm²); D: Diffusion weighted image (b-value 1000 s/mm²) in a 74-year-old woman with a history of rectal cancer, recently diagnosed with lung and liver metastases in segment 4 and 8, respectively. The lesions are hypo-intense to the liver parenchyma on the T1-weighted image and hyper-intense on the T2-weighted image. On the diffusion weighted image at a b-value 50 s/mm², both lesions appear hyper-intense, but at a b-value 1000 s/mm², only the lesion in segment 4 remains hyper-intense. The lesion in segment 8 has completely disappeared.

there are as many discrepancies in the reported ADC values (Table 1). This is often associated with the choice of b-values and other technical parameters. Low b-values lead to overestimation of the ADC due to the contribution of perfusion to the diffusion measurement. Large b-values underestimate ADC due to increasing contributions from low ADC components and SNR.

DWI as a tool for characterization of liver lesions

Several studies have suggested that the measurement of ADC values is useful in the characterization of focal liver lesions^[13-26]. Reduced ADC values have been reported for most malignant tumors. This finding is thought to be the result of cellular membranes impeding the mobility of water molecules. However, solid benign lesions, which are also highly cellular, exhibit decreased ADC values as well. Abscesses do so too because their viscous content with bacteria, inflammatory cells, mucoid proteins and cell debris result in restricted diffusion, thus low ADC values. On the other hand, necrotic and cystic malignancies show high ADC values resulting from larger diffusion distances as a consequence of lost membrane integrity. Benign lesions as simple cysts and hemangiomas show high ADC values because of their liquid content and large extracellular spaces. However, ADC values cannot discriminate between solid benign and malignant lesions, since there is considerable overlap. According to Feuerlein *et al*^[15], the pretest probability of malignancy is very important in the determination to which degree a large

ADC value is predictive for a malignancy, i.e. the history, demography and clinical picture of the individual patient. Even ADC values of lesions of the same kind show overlap and there is no cut-off value for ADC values in normal parenchyma, benign and malignant lesions. In the literature, ADC values vary between $0.94-2.85 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$ for metastases and $0.69-2.28 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$ for normal liver parenchyma. This is mainly because every study group uses their own scanning parameters. Differences in b-values are the main cause of non-equivocal results. Breath-hold, respiratory triggered and navigator echo techniques can also give different ADC values. There is need for a uniformly applicable scanning protocol to eliminate discrepancies in ADC values caused by different scanning parameters^[13].

DWI alone is not suitable for the characterization of liver lesions, because solid benign lesions also can show restricted diffusion, and cystic or necrotic malignant lesions have unimpeded diffusion. DWI can help direct the attention of the radiologist to findings that may otherwise be overlooked. Unenhanced and dynamic MRI contrast series alone are very capable in the discrimination of different types of liver lesions, but a combination of DWI and MRI increases the accuracy of the characterization of benign and malignant lesions^[15-17].

Detection of hepatocellular carcinoma

Multiphase multidetector contrast enhanced computed tomography (CT) has reached a high standard for the

Table 1 Reported ADC values in different types of lesions in the liver

Study	Type of lesion	n	ADC value mm ² /s, BH (SD)	ADC value mm ² /s, RT (SD)
Taouli <i>et al</i> ^[10] b-values 0, 50, 500 s/mm ²	Benign	18	2.21 (0.60)	2.39 (0.44)
	Malignant	11	1.04 (0.27)	1.16 (0.33)
Goshima <i>et al</i> ^[13] b-values 100, 200, 400, 800 s/mm ²	Hemangioma	12	1.23-2.23 (0.2-1.2) ²	
	Cyst	15	3.70-4.72 (0.9-1.2) ²	
	Metastases	7	0.99-1.70 (0.5-1.1) ²	
	HCC	21	1.08-1.79 (0.3-10.9) ³	
Kandpal <i>et al</i> ^[14] b-value 0, 500 s/mm ²	Hemangioma	11	2.22 (0.45)	2.36 (0.48)
	Cyst	11	2.66 (0.44)	2.90 (0.51)
	FNH	3	2.03 (0.24)	2.15 (0.18)
	Abscess	6	1.21 (0.36)	1.13 (0.43)
	Metastases	38	1.06 (0.36)	1.13 (0.41)
	HCC	12	1.22 (0.34)	1.27 (0.42)
Gourtsoyianni <i>et al</i> ^[18] b-values 0, 50, 500, 1000 s/mm ²	Hemangioma	7		1.90
	Cyst	15		2.55
	Metastases	13		0.99 (0.22)
	HCC	2		1.38
Oner <i>et al</i> ^[19] b-values 0, 500 s/mm ²	Hemangioma	5	1.72 (0.30)	
	Cyst	3	2.34 (0.36)	
	Metastases	6	1.03 (0.24)	
Demir <i>et al</i> ^[23] 0, 1000 s/mm ²	Benign	24	1.09-3.36 (0.32/0.28) ³	
	Malignant	17	0.54-1.24 (0.07/0.14) ³	
Bruegel <i>et al</i> ^[24] b-values 50, 300, 600 s/mm ²	Hemangioma	56		1.92 (0.34)
	Cyst	51		3.02 (0.31)
	FNH	4		1.40 (0.15)
	Metastases	82		1.22 (0.31)
	HCC	11		1.05 (0.09)
Holzapfel <i>et al</i> ^[25] b-values 50, 300, 600 s/mm ²	Hemangioma	18		1.69 (0.34)
	Cyst	71		2.61 (0.57)
	FNH/adenoma	6/9		1.43 (0.22)
	Metastases	76		1.08 (0.32)
	HCC	17		1.12 (0.28)

¹These studies found significantly higher ADC values in benign liver lesions than in malignant liver lesions; ²This study evaluated the ADC values at different b-values. The lowest and highest ADC values are reported here. The lowest ADC value corresponds with the highest b-value, the highest ADC value with the lowest b-value; ³This study evaluated the ADC values of different types of benign and malignant lesions. The lowest and highest ADC values are reported here. ADC: Apparent diffusion coefficient; BH: Breath-hold; RT: Respiratory triggered; SD: Standard deviation; FNH: Focal nodular hyperplasia; HCC: Hepatocellular carcinoma.

evaluation of the cirrhotic liver and for the detection of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). On CT images, diagnosis of HCC is made based on neovascularization with increased arterial enhancement and rapid portal venous wash-out. In the last few years, (liver-specific) contrast enhanced multiphase dynamic MRI has increasingly been used for the detection of HCC. MRI proved to be superior to CT in the detection of HCC and for the characterization of nodules in patients with liver cirrhosis because of the high tissue contrast provided by MRI and the available liver-specific contrast agents. Contrast enhanced MRI is now regarded as the best non-invasive imaging modality. However, even with liver-specific contrast enhanced MRI, there is a diagnostic problem for small HCC lesions (< 10 mm) as well as in

the differentiation from other non-malignant nodules. Large HCC lesions are well-recognized on conventional MRI by their rapid enhancement in the arterial phase and their contrast agent wash-out in the portal-venous phase. Small HCC is less typical on conventional MRI, and differentiation of atypical nodules in the cirrhotic liver is challenging^[27-31].

Xu *et al*^[27,28] found that ADC values were not useful in cirrhotic livers, because cirrhotic parenchyma and solid benign lesions have low ADC values. They cannot be differentiated from lesions with malignant diffusion restriction because of the considerable overlap among their ADC values. Necrosis and vascularization within HCC also alter diffusion, often seen as a false increase in the ADC values.

Zech *et al*^[29] reported a higher sensitivity for DWI compared to conventional MRI in the detection of HCC in the cirrhotic liver (98% for DWI *vs* 83%-85% for MRI). Vandecaveye *et al*^[30] concluded that DWI provided higher sensitivity and positive predictive value for the detection of HCC < 20 mm compared to conventional contrast enhanced MRI (sensitivity and specificity 91.2% and 82.9% *vs* 67.6% and 61.6%, positive predictive value 81.6% and 59.0%, respectively). DWI did not show significantly better results than conventional MRI in detecting HCC > 20 mm. These findings can be explained by the better contrast-to-noise ratio and background suppression of normal liver parenchyma and vascular or bile structures in DWI, which make small lesions more visible, especially when they are in close vicinity to vessels or bile ducts. DWI provides a high negative predictive value on the presence or absence of HCC and reduces the rate of unnecessary invasive diagnostic procedures and follow-up.

Detection of liver metastases

Several studies have demonstrated the usefulness of DWI in the detection of liver metastases. They compared DWI to unenhanced and dynamic liver specific contrast enhanced MRI (Table 2).

Coenegrachts *et al*^[20] showed that lesion conspicuity of hemangiomas and metastases is significantly higher with respiratory triggered DWI at low b-values compared to conventional unenhanced MRI imaging. This is due to an excellent lesion to liver contrast and suppression of background signals from vessels.

Koh *et al*^[32] compared the diagnostic accuracy of DWI and mangafodipir trisodium (MnDPDP)-enhanced MRI alone and in combination in the detection of colorectal liver metastases. They found that a combination of MnDPDP MRI and DWI resulted in the highest diagnostic accuracy (0.94-0.96 *vs* 0.88-0.92 for MnDPDP alone and 0.83-0.90 for DWI alone) with an increased sensitivity, but no loss of specificity. DWI alone is not useful because the sequence is very susceptible to motion artifacts, which obscure lesions and make images difficult to interpret. This is especially the case in the left lobe of the liver. They also stated that experience is needed to interpret DWI correctly, mainly because of the large numbers of artifacts on the images^[33].

Parikh *et al*^[34] reported a significantly higher overall lesion detection rate for breath-hold or respiratory triggered DWI than for conventional T2-weighted MRI (88% *vs* 70%). Bruegel *et al*^[35] compared respiratory DWI-EPI with T2-TSE. They found a sensitivity and specificity for T2-TSE MRI of 45%-62% for unenhanced MRI and 88%-91% for DWI-EPI for lesions > 10 mm. When considering only small metastases < 10 mm, the differences between DWI and conventional MRI with and without contrast are even more pronounced: a sensitivity of 85% for DWI-EPI and 26%-44% for T2-TSE. Lesion detection on T2-TSE is hindered by low lesion to liver contrast and by the interfering bright signal from intrahepatic vessels. Lesion conspicuity with DWI is excellent and limitation

Table 2 Performance of DWI and conventional MRI in the detection of liver metastases *n* (%)

Study	Sensitivity	Specificity	Accuracy	PPV	NPV
Vandecaveye <i>et al</i> ^[30]					
> 20 mm					
B600 SI ratio	100	81.8	94.9	93.3	100
T2-CE MRI	96.4	81.8	92.3	93.1	90.0
< 20 mm					
B600SI ratio	91.2	82.9	86.7	81.6	91.9
T2-CE MRI	67.6	61.0	64.0	59.0	69.4
Koh <i>et al</i> ^[32]					
MnDPDP MRI	81.3	93.0	88-92		
DWI 0, 150, 500 BH	78.3	95.0	83-90		
MnDPDP MRI and DWI	92.2	97.0	94-96		
DWI RT	88-91				
T2 MRI	45-62				
Nasu <i>et al</i> ^[36]					
DWI RT (0, 500)	82	94			
SPIO MRI	66	90			

¹In this study, 2 observers reviewed the images. The given values in sensitivity, specificity and diagnostic accuracy refer to the separate results of both observers. PPV: Positive predictive value; NPV: Negative predictive value.

of the DWI sequence is predominantly referred to lesion characterization rather than to lesion detectability.

Nasu *et al*^[36] assessed the diagnostic accuracy of respiratory triggered DWI in combination with unenhanced MRI *vs* superparamagnetic iron oxide (SPIO)-enhanced imaging. On the basis of a receiver operator characteristic analysis (ROC), averaged over 3 observers, they found a sensitivity and specificity for SPIO-enhanced images of 66% and 90% and for DWI 82% and 94%, respectively.

Predicting response to therapy of primary and secondary liver malignancies by DWI

Tumor responses to chemotherapy and radiation therapy are conventionally assessed by measurement of percentage reduction in tumor size after chemotherapy. However, tumor size measurement on CT or MRI is insensitive to early treatment changes. Theoretically, DWI is sensitive to microenvironmental changes in tumors that occur after treatment. Studies on the predictive value of DWI in primary cancer demonstrated a strong negative correlation between mean pre-treatment ADC values and percentage size reduction of tumors after chemotherapy and chemoradiation. High pretreatment ADC values in tumors were associated with a poor response to chemotherapy^[37,38].

Koh *et al*^[37] showed that high pre-treatment ADC values in colorectal liver metastases were predictive of a poor response to oxaliplatin and 5-fluorouracil-based chemotherapy. They determined with ROC that a mean pretreatment ADC150-500 (ADC map with b-values 150 s/mm² and 500 s/mm²) of 1.69×10^{-3} mm²/s had 60% sensitivity and 100% specificity for identification of non-responding metastatic lesions. They found also a significant linear regression relation between mean ADC150-500 and percentage in tumor size reduction

after treatment. Responding tumors showed a significant increase in ADC values at the end of the treatment. Non-responding tumors and liver parenchyma did not show significant changes in ADC values. Cui *et al.*^[38] analyzed 87 liver metastases of colorectal and gastric origin in 23 patients. They also found significant lower ADC values in responding tumors than in non-responding ones. ADC increased in responding metastases, but not in non-responding ones. They found a weak correlation between tumor size reduction and pretreatment ADC values. The theoretical background for these findings is that higher ADC values are observed in necrotic tissue, and in tissue with loss of cell membrane integrity. When these changes are present before chemotherapy, it may indicate a more aggressive phenotype. Necrotic regions within a tumor are usually poorly perfused, resulting in less delivery of chemotherapeutic agents to these areas. Necrotic regions are also exposed to a more hypoxic and acidic environment, which diminishes the effect of chemotherapy. Necrosis in hepatic metastases is present in almost half of the cases. A possible explanation for non-responding tumors with lower ADC values may be the fact that necrosis is not always associated with high ADC values, especially in the case of coagulation necrosis without cell lysis or liquefaction. The increase in ADC values at the end of the treatment suggests a change from a more cellular pretreatment to a less cellular or necrotic phenotype.

Only one study assessed DWI in HCC treatment with sorafenib. Schraml *et al.*^[39] showed that ADC values with sorafenib, an angiogenesis inhibitor for treatment of HCC, actually showed a decrease instead of an increase. This may be a result of ischemia, induced by inhibition of angiogenesis. The extracellular volume is decreasing, leading to lower ADC values during treatment. They also often observed hemorrhage within the tumors (55%), which may contribute to a decrease in ADC. However, progression of HCC more than 3 mo after therapy was related to a decrease in ADC values. Only conventional MRI could differentiate between hemorrhage and tumor progression. Pre-treatment HCC had high ADC values, because of rich vascularization of the tumors. ADC changes early after chemotherapy seem to reflect the underlying mechanisms in tumor necrosis, most probably hemorrhagic, induced by the novel targeted agent sorafenib early after therapy and may indicate tumor reactivation in the later follow-up period.

DWI after locoregional treatment for liver tumors

Locoregional therapy for liver tumors is used in patients who are not eligible for surgery. The most commonly used local ablative therapies are radiofrequency ablation (RFA) and transcatheter arterial chemoembolization (TACE). The success of these procedures is determined by the rate of ablation site recurrences (ASR), i.e. tumor recurrence as result of incomplete ablation. Close and careful follow-up is needed in patients who underwent treatment by RFA and TACE to detect ASR at an early stage. Unfortunately, diagnostic management remains an issue in these patients,

because of difficulties in differentiating ASR from non-tumoral tissue changes after thermal therapy. Since DWI can provide information about molecular tissue characteristics, it may have an additional value in the evaluation and follow-up of local ablative therapies in patients with liver tumors.

There is one study which evaluated the time-related diffusion alterations after hepatic RFA with regard to potential diagnostic information for the detection of ASR. Schraml *et al.*^[40] reviewed 54 oncological patients treated by RFA for liver metastases from different origins. The ablation zone did not show significant alterations at different time points. Measurement of the ADC value of the entire ablation zone was not suitable for the detection of ASR, because locally changing ADC values were masked by the heterogeneous appearance of the entire ablation zone. Peripheral zones should be analyzed separately. An important technical limitation of ADC measurements after RFA is that the limited spatial resolution does not allow exact ROI positioning in the narrow peripheral rim. Viable tumors after RFA appeared as hyper-intense, and necrotic regions were recognized as hypointense areas on DWI. ASR showed significantly lower ADC values than the ablation zone and normal liver parenchyma ($1.02 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$ vs $1.31 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$). Suspected areas on DWI were more easily identified and analyzed in conjunction to conventional MR. Signal alterations in the periphery, especially ones with lower ADC values should raise suspicion on ASR. Edema, inflammation, fibrosis and necrosis are associated with higher ADC values. DWI together with conventional imaging is a promising tool in the evaluation of the post-RFA liver and may contribute to the detection of ASR.

The use of DWI after TACE in HCC has recently been investigated. Goshima *et al.*^[41] reported significant increases in ADC values after TACE, but they varied widely and did not contribute to the accurate diagnosis of tumor necrosis by any cut-off points. Yu *et al.*^[42] found that DWI added to conventional MRI could increase the sensitivity for determining ASR especially in the case of atypical lesions. However, they also noticed an increase in the number of false positive findings by adding DWI which affected the overall accuracy of MRI. This was caused by perilesional inflammation and arterial reperfusion of the perilesional atrophic area after TACE. ADC measurement was not helpful for distinguishing viable tumors from perilesional nontumorous changes, since there was great overlap between the ADC values of both entities.

CONCLUSION

DWI in the liver is a relative new and increasingly used imaging technique in addition to conventional unenhanced and contrast enhanced MRI. DWI proved to be helpful in the characterization of focal liver lesions, but should always be used in conjunction with traditional MRI since there is great overlap between ADC values of benign and malignant lesions. DWI is useful in the detection of

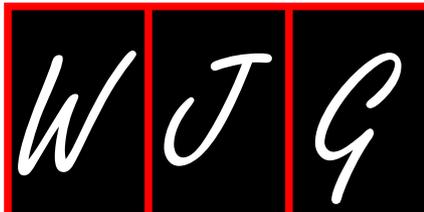
small HCC in the cirrhotic liver, with higher sensitivity, specificity and positive predictive value compared to conventional contrast enhanced imaging due to better lesion to liver contrast and background suppression of signals arising from vessels and bile ducts. This is also the case for the detection of metastases in the liver. However, it should be noted that DWI images are difficult to interpret since DWI is very sensitive to artifacts. It seems reasonable to use DWI in conjunction to conventional imaging. DWI is not yet commonly used in the follow-up after treatment of liver malignancies. Pre-treatment ADC values in tumors treated with chemotherapy seem to be useful in the prediction and evaluation of the treatment response of primary and secondary liver malignancies. DWI in the follow-up after RFA and TACE shows promising results in the detection of ablation site recurrences, especially in combination with conventional contrast enhanced imaging.

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Magnetic resonance spectroscopy to study hepatic metabolism in diffuse liver diseases, diabetes and cancer

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Abstract

This review provides an overview of the current state of the art of magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) in *in vivo* investigations of diffuse liver disease. So far, MRS of the human liver *in vivo* has mainly been used as a research tool rather than a clinical tool. The liver is particularly suitable for static and dynamic metabolic studies due to its high metabolic activity. Furthermore, its relatively superficial position allows excellent MRS localization, while its large volume allows detection of signals with relatively low intensity. This review describes the application of MRS to study the metabolic consequences of different conditions including diffuse and chronic liver diseases, congenital diseases, diabetes, and the presence of a distant malignancy on hepatic metabolism. In addition, future prospects of MRS are discussed. It is anticipated that future technical developments such as clinical MRS magnets with higher field strength (3 T) and improved delineation of multi-component signals such as phosphomonoester and

phosphodiester using proton decoupling, especially if combined with price reductions for stable isotope tracers, will lead to intensified research into metabolic syndrome, cardiovascular disease, hepato-biliary diseases, as well as non-metastatic liver metabolism in patients with a distant malignant tumor.

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Key words: Cancer; Cirrhosis; Diabetes; Diffuse liver disease; Hepatitis; Magnetic resonance spectroscopy

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INTRODUCTION

The liver is a particularly suitable and interesting organ for metabolic studies as it plays a central role in intermediary metabolism, has a high metabolic activity with rapid response to metabolic insults, and is profoundly altered in acute and chronic diseases. Magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) has been established as a non-invasive technique to study cellular biochemistry and metabolism, both at high magnetic strengths *in vitro* and in the whole body *in vivo* at field strengths of up to 3 T.

MRS has a number of important advantages over conventional approaches when studying metabolism in diffuse liver disease in humans. The non-invasive character of the technique allows valid assessment of the metabolic profile of many hepatic metabolites *in vivo* which cannot

be accurately measured using invasive biopsy techniques, due to the instability of these compounds and the invasiveness of biopsies. In addition, the non-destructive character of MRS, combined with the large hepatic blood flow, allows repeated measurements over time in the same subject, facilitating long-term longitudinal (observational/intervention) studies as well as short-term dynamic metabolic intervention studies with real-time monitoring of biochemical or metabolic alterations after a meal or an oral or intravenous metabolic challenge by nutrients (sugars, amino acids, lipids), hormones *etc.* Moreover, the technique can be complemented by dynamic stable isotope tracer studies, allowing the simultaneous assessment of hepatic metabolite concentrations by MRS and turnover measurements in plasma. Of note, although challenge techniques are also used in clinical practice for diagnostic purposes, for instance, to diagnose inherited metabolic errors of metabolism, MRS of the human liver *in vivo* has so far mainly been used as a research tool rather than a clinical tool.

However, one limitation of MRS studies is that only compounds present at mmol/L concentrations can be detected, due to the low inherent sensitivity of the MR signal *in vivo*.

The liver is a particularly suitable and interesting organ for metabolic studies for a number of reasons: first, it plays a central role in intermediary metabolism, has a high metabolic activity with a rapid response to metabolic insults, and is profoundly altered in acute and chronic diseases. Second, its superficial location in the right upper abdomen, covered only by a thin layer of skin, adipose tissue and muscle, allows excellent MRS localization using a double-tuned surface coil, by different localization techniques such as chemical shift imaging (spectroscopic imaging, CSI/SI)^[1-3] and image-selected *in vivo* spectroscopy (ISIS)^[4,5]. Third, the relatively large volume of the liver allows the detection of signals with relatively low intensity in volumes of up to 1 L; of note, for the study of diffuse liver disease, the inherent low spatial resolution of MRS does not play a restrictive role.

Different nuclei such as ³¹P, ¹H, ¹³C and ¹⁹F have been applied in studies of diffuse liver disease. So far, ¹H MRS has mainly been applied to detect hepatic lipid levels, ³¹P MRS to investigate intracellular energy metabolism, phospholipid metabolism and gluconeogenesis, and ¹³C MRS to study liver lipid and glycogen metabolism. ¹H and ³¹P are naturally abundant isotopes, whereas ¹³C represents only 1% of total carbon (the majority being ¹²C). Therefore, in many ¹³C studies, investigators have infused ¹³C-labeled compounds to increase the MR signal in dynamic metabolic studies.

The present review provides an overview of the current state of the art of MRS in *in vivo* investigations of diffuse liver disease. First, we discuss publications regarding the application of MRS to study diffuse and chronic liver diseases including cirrhosis, fibrosis and alcoholic liver disease, followed by the application of MRS in congenital diseases and pediatrics. We then discuss the

application of MRS to study the metabolic involvement of the liver in diseases, such as diabetes or the presence of a malignant tumor elsewhere in the body. Finally, future prospects including potential clinical applications of MRS are discussed.

From the present review, we excluded T2 and MRS studies on liver iron and fat content as well as *in vitro* applications of MRS in hepato-biliary disease^[6,7], as well as MRS studies of focal liver diseases such as secondary liver tumors, lymphomas and adenomas, and transplantation. We also excluded ¹⁹F MRS studies of metabolites of fluorinated chemotherapeutic drugs such as 5-FU and capecitabine^[8].

MRS IN DIFFUSE AND CHRONIC LIVER DISEASE

Over the last two decades, the usefulness of ³¹P MRS for the diagnosis of liver disease has been investigated as a non-invasive alternative to liver biopsy, which is still the gold standard and carries significant morbidity^[9]. The *in vivo* spectra of the human liver reflect metabolic and biochemical alterations in disease. Several publications on liver functionality have addressed spectral changes related to the underlying liver disease. However, in order to be helpful as a diagnostic tool, MR spectra should provide both sensitive and specific information for different types of liver disease, such as hepatitis, steatosis, fibrosis or cirrhosis.

The ³¹P MRS spectrum provides information on phosphorylated compounds of hepatic metabolism: alpha-, beta- and gamma peaks of nucleotide triphosphates (NTP), inorganic phosphate (Pi), phosphomonoesters (PME) and phosphodiester (PDE). The NTP, PME and PDE peaks are multicomponent and individual resonances of their components cannot be distinguished by the majority of techniques currently used. PME reflects components from glucose metabolism (gluconeogenesis and glycolysis) and cell membrane precursors such as phosphoethanolamine (PE) and phosphocholine (PC)^[10]. The majority of the NTP resonance contains ATP components; below, we will use ATP and NTP as synonyms, following the nomenclature of the cited publications. The PDE peak contains information on cell membrane breakdown products, such as glycerophosphorylethanolamine (GPE) and glycerophosphorylcholine (GPC), and endoplasmic reticulum^[11].

The diagnostic value of ³¹P MRS for various types of diffuse liver disease has been investigated in several studies. Overall, diffuse liver disease was associated with increasing levels of PME and decreasing levels of PDE. These changes have been attributed to hepatocyte damage, increased phospholipid turnover in hepatocyte membranes, and/or altered glucose metabolism. In general, the magnitude of MRS changes increased significantly with increased disease severity and increased functional impairment.

In one of the earliest reports^[12], liver metabolite concentrations were studied in 24 patients with various types of diffuse liver disease as compared to healthy control subjects. The authors reported high PME and low PDE levels in patients with acute viral hepatitis, high PME levels in patients with alcoholic hepatitis, and decreased Pi and Pi/ATP ratios in primary biliary cirrhosis and in some patients with hepatitis^[12]. However, they noted that these changes were not present in all patients.

Cox *et al.*^[11] studied 49 patients with liver disease of varying etiology, including 25 patients with diffuse liver disease such as cirrhosis and non-hepatic malignancies. A non-specific elevation in PME/PDE was observed in the ³¹P MR spectra of 10 (40%) out of these 25 patients with mixed diffuse liver disease. Even though the spectral pattern did not distinguish between diseases of varying etiologies, there was a linear correlation between increasing PME/PDE and a reduction in plasma albumin concentrations ($P = 0.03$).

Subsequent MRS studies showed elevated PME/NTP levels compared to healthy controls in patient populations with primary biliary cirrhosis^[13] and compensated/decompensated cirrhosis of various etiology^[14]. Jalan *et al.*^[13] studied 23 patients with primary biliary cirrhosis of varying functional severity and healthy subjects using ³¹P MRS. PME/NTP, Pi/NTP, PME/PDE, and PME/Pi ratios were higher and PDE/NTP ratios significantly lower in patients compared with healthy volunteers. Significant correlations were seen between PME/Pi ratios and prognostic indicators such as the Christensen index, the Mayo R value, and the Pugh score.

Taylor-Robinson *et al.*^[14] compared 14 patients with compensated cirrhosis (Pugh's score ≤ 7) and 17 with decompensated cirrhosis (Pugh's score ≥ 8) of various etiology with healthy subjects. Worsening liver function was associated with increased PME/NTP and decreased PDE/NTP ratios. In freeze-clamped tissue, elevated PE and PC, and reduced GPE and GPC mirrored these *in vivo* changes, but no distinction was noted between compensated and decompensated cirrhosis. In contrast, electron microscopy showed that functional decompensation was associated with reduced endoplasmic reticulum (ER) in parenchymal liver disease, but elevated ER in biliary cirrhosis. In a more recent study in only 14 cirrhotic subjects^[15], reduced ATP and elevated PME/PDE levels were detected in patients with decompensated cirrhosis only.

The capability of ³¹P MRS to detect pathological processes was further investigated by comparing *in vivo* MRS results with histological samples. In 38 patients with various types of diffuse liver disease, van Wassenae-van Hall *et al.*^[5] showed that the degree of elevation of PME/Ptotal in individual patients was significantly correlated with necrosis, intralobular degeneration, and portal inflammation scorings in liver biopsies^[5], but not with fibrosis. However, ³¹P MRS was not able to classify patients into diagnostic categories, such as fibrosis *vs* cirrhosis, and no diagnostic value of MRS was found with respect to steatosis and cholangitis.

Dezortova *et al.*^[16] studied 80 patients with liver cirrhosis of different etiology and functional status, described by Child-Pugh score, and a control group of healthy subjects. Patients with both alcoholic and viral etiology had lower absolute PDE and ATP levels than healthy subjects. Patients with alcoholic etiology, but not viral etiology, also had lower Pi levels than controls. Patients with cholestatic disease had elevated PDE levels. Thus, these authors were able to distinguish alcoholic, viral and cholestatic etiologies of liver cirrhosis based on MR spectra.

Noren *et al.*^[17] studied patients with non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) and none to moderate inflammation ($n = 13$), patients with severe fibrosis or cirrhosis ($n = 16$), and healthy controls. All patients underwent liver biopsy and extensive biochemical evaluation. Absolute concentrations and the anabolic charge (AC), defined as $(PME)/[(PME)+(PDE)]$, were calculated. AC was increased and PDE reduced in the cirrhotic group relative to healthy subjects, whereas NAFLD patients showed values similar to controls. Using a PDE concentration of 10.5 mmol/L as a cut-off value to discriminate between mild, (F0-2) and advanced (F3-4) fibrosis, the sensitivity and specificity of PDE were 81% and 69%, respectively. AC, using a cut-off value of 0.27, showed a sensitivity of 93% and a specificity of 54%. The authors concluded that PDE is a potential marker of liver fibrosis, whereas AC is a potentially clinically useful parameter discriminating mild from advanced fibrosis.

Interestingly, few authors have performed dynamic ³¹P MRS studies with a metabolic challenge, in contrast with diabetes and cancer (see below). In healthy subjects, it is well known that fructose infusion induces a rapid rise in PME and marked reductions in ATP and Pi^[3,18,19]. An early Japanese study^[20] evaluated changes in the metabolic state of the liver after an intravenous fructose load (250 mg/kg) in six patients with liver cirrhosis and eight healthy volunteers. The cirrhotic livers did not show the usual increase in PME after the fructose load, suggesting that fructose metabolism in the cirrhotic livers had impediments before the fructose-1-phosphate stage. Furthermore, the spectra of the cirrhotic livers showed a significant drop in Pi, PDE and ATP peak after the fructose challenge. Dufour and colleagues^[21] studied nine patients with nonalcoholic cirrhosis. Fructose (250 mg/kg) was injected intravenously, and further spectra were collected sequentially every 6 min for 1 h. PME formation and utilization of Pi were markedly attenuated in cirrhotic patients; these measures correlated with the impairment of liver function as measured by galactose-elimination capacity^[21].

In summary, the general observation in cirrhosis and fibrosis is an increase in PME, often combined with reductions in PDE and ATP. Of note, the observed changes were correlated with classical markers such as Pugh score and plasma albumin. However, ³¹P MRS was not able to classify patients into diagnostic categories, such as fibrosis *vs* cirrhosis, and no diagnostic value of MRS was found with respect to steatosis and cholangitis.

An intravenous fructose load induced a rapid rise in PME and reductions in ATP and Pi.

VIRAL HEPATITIS AND HIV

A study of 26 patients with an acute viral hepatitis A infection showed increased PME/PDE ratios^[22]. After 6 wk of recovery, these abnormalities in liver metabolites were restored to normal levels, as reflected by decreasing PME and increasing PDE^[22].

Lim and colleagues^[9] used ³¹P MRS to assess disease severity in 48 patients with hepatitis C virus (HCV)-related liver disease. Worse liver function was correlated with an *in vivo* elevation in PME and decrease in PDE. PME/PDE ratios showed an increase from control (0.15), *via* mild disease (0.18) and moderate disease (0.25), to the cirrhosis group (0.38). An 80% sensitivity and specificity was achieved when using a PME/PDE ratio less than or equal to 0.2 to denote mild hepatitis and a corresponding ratio greater than or equal to 0.3 to denote cirrhosis^[9]. In a subsequent study^[23], the same authors applied ³¹P MRS to prospectively study 47 patients with biopsy-proven hepatitis C undergoing viral eradication treatment with interferon and ribavirin at 6-mo intervals over a total period of 6-18 mo. In 25 out of 32 patients with virological response to HCV treatment, this was accompanied by decreasing PME/PDE ratios over time, whereas in 15 patients without virological response, PME/PDE ratios increased^[23], suggesting that PME and PDE can be used to monitor treatment response to HCV.

Elevated levels of PME were also observed in a study of 75 chronic hepatitis B and C infected patients using ¹H-MRS^[24]. In addition, compared to healthy control subjects, glutamine/glutamate and glycogen/glucose resonances were increased, whereas lipids were decreased^[24]. As in studies using ³¹P MRS, increases in metabolite levels were correlated with disease severity^[24]. In a study in patients with hepatitis C virus infection (HCV, *n* = 14) and 20 HIV/HCV co-infected individuals^[25], a significant increase in glutamine/glutamate and PME, both measured relative to hepatic lipid levels, was observed in both groups when compared with healthy individuals. These changes in metabolite ratios were attributed to an increase in the particular metabolite contents and a decrease in lipid levels. HIV/HCV-infected patients treated with anti-retroviral therapy showed elevated PME and glutamine/glutamate levels and decreased total lipid levels compared to patients not undergoing anti-retroviral treatment^[25]. The authors concluded that ¹H-MRS could be used to detect even slight alterations in hepatic metabolite ratios in this type of patient.

Orlacchio *et al.*^[26] also applied ¹H-MRS but used the water signal as a reference instead of the lipid signal. These authors studied 23 patients with biopsy-proven precirrhotic HCV-related liver disease, graded by the Ishak fibrosis (F) scoring system. Similar to the previous studies, increasing disease severity correlated with a significant increase in choline-containing compounds and glutamine/glutamate. In contrast, lipid levels in this study were found

to be increased in patients relative to healthy subjects^[26].

In summary, ³¹P MRS studies have demonstrated that PME/PDE ratios in viral hepatitis are increased, and normalization of PME/PDE over time correlates with treatment effectiveness. ¹H MRS studies showed increased glutamine/glutamate and glycogen/glucose resonances. The observation of either increased or decreased lipid resonances in different studies requires further investigation.

ALCOHOL ABUSE

Although the above data show that different ³¹P MRS studies have demonstrated elevated PME/NTP levels in patient populations with alcoholic liver disease compared to healthy subjects, there are few reports on the effects of alcohol abuse and alcohol abstinence *per se*. Menon *et al.*^[27] studied 26 chronic alcohol abusers by ³¹P MRS 6-12 h after their last alcoholic drink and following abstinence from alcohol. Results showed that in patients with minimal liver injury, recent drinking was associated with a significant elevation in PDE/ATP and a non-significant rise in PME/ATP, and abstinence with normalization of both metabolite ratios. In contrast, in patients with alcoholic cirrhosis, recent drinking was associated with a significant elevation in mean PME/ATP and a non-significant increase in PDE/ATP, whereas abstinence was associated with no significant change in PME/ATP but with a reduction in PDE/ATP. The authors suggested that the changes in PDE/ATP most likely reflected the induction of hepatocyte ER.

In summary, recent alcohol consumption is associated with elevated PME and PDE. In patients with minimal liver injury, both metabolites are normalized during abstinence; in contrast, in patients with cirrhosis, only PDE is normalized during alcohol abstinence.

OTHER LIVER DISEASES

Several studies have been performed on acute poisoning, inherited diseases and pediatrics using ³¹P MRS. A study in 18 patients after acetaminophen overdose showed that liver metabolites including PME, PDE and ATP, were all dramatically decreased with increasing liver damage expressed as the international normalized ratio (INR) of prothrombin^[28]. Repeated MRS measurements in the same patients would be particularly valuable to see whether improvement in liver damage could also be confirmed by ³¹P MRS.

The presence of hemolysis, elevated liver enzymes and low platelets in pregnant women (HELLP syndrome) can be associated with disturbed hepatic metabolism. To investigate whether or not women with HELLP syndrome have detectable abnormalities of hepatic energetics, Magee *et al.*^[29] studied seven patients with HELLP syndrome. One pregnancy was later terminated but the other women gave birth to healthy infants. One patient with the most clinically severe HELLP syndrome by laboratory criteria exhibited MR spectra which showed a relative increase in phosphomonoester and an absolute decrease in hepatic

ATP (to 62% of control)^[29]. Most patients with HELLP syndrome had normal liver metabolism as assessed by MRS, although these results show that clinically severe HELLP syndrome can be associated with disturbed hepatic metabolism consistent with that seen in hepatic ischemia and/or granulocytic infiltration of the liver.

In ten patients with severe hypothyroidism, prospective ³¹P MRS measurements before and after thyroid hormone treatment were performed. In contrast with striated muscle, which showed a marked normalization of phosphocreatine/Pi ratios within several weeks of thyroid treatment, no changes in hepatic metabolism during treatment were detected by ³¹P MRS^[30].

In a single patient with amyloid light chain (AL) amyloidosis, hepatic ¹H MR spectra were characterized by small line widths, a striking increase in trimethylammonium compounds, and the presence of a further resonance at 3.8 ppm^[31]. None of the healthy control subjects showed trimethylammonium levels of comparable intensity^[31].

Changes in liver metabolites in inherited liver diseases have been reported using ³¹P MRS. In a report by Dixon *et al.*^[32] on an infant with galactosemia, these authors showed increased levels of galactose-1-phosphate in the liver which decreased during diet therapy, paralleling the falling level of galactose-1-phosphate in red blood cells.

Elevated plasma uric acid concentrations (hyperuricemia), which are a characteristic feature in gout patients, may be caused by altered liver fructose metabolism. As hereditary fructose intolerance is known to be associated with hyperuricemia, this concept has been used in ³¹P MRS studies^[33-35]. The effect of a fructose challenge on liver metabolism was studied by ³¹P MRS in five patients with hereditary fructose intolerance (HFI) and eight heterozygotes for HFI^[33]. In patients with HFI, ingestion of small amounts of fructose was followed by an increase in sugar phosphates (PME) and a decrease in Pi in hepatic ³¹P MR spectra, combined with a rise in plasma uric acid. ³¹P MRS could be used to diagnose fructose intolerance in heterozygotes. Oral fructose (50 g) also led to sugar phosphate accumulation and Pi depletion in the liver, which was associated with a larger increase in plasma uric acid than in control subjects. The effect of fructose on liver Pi and plasma uric acid was most pronounced in heterozygotes with gout ($n = 3$). In a subsequent study in 18 additional subjects from different families with familial gout^[34], the authors demonstrated a positive association between response in ³¹P MR spectra (i.e. increase in PME, decrease in Pi) and response in serum uric acid after oral glucose, suggesting ³¹P MRS as a method for initial screening of this defect.

Limited MRS data are available in the pediatric population. Nevertheless, ³¹P MR spectra of infants have been compared with adult spectra in an attempt to investigate changes in hepatic metabolism with age^[36]. Spectra from three infants showed that PME/ATP levels were markedly higher than in adults, whereas PDE/ATP levels were decreased when compared with adults. Spectral hepatic concentrations of a single adolescent studied were

intermediary between the neonates and the adults. The authors hypothesized that this indicated an increased rate of membrane synthesis in the infant livers, and concluded that these differences should be taken into account when comparing studies using varying ages^[36].

In summary, a considerable amount of data on the use of MRS for the study of liver metabolism in disease is currently available, although most studies were performed in relatively small groups. Static measurements mainly reveal alterations in relative PME and/or PDE concentrations as compared to healthy controls. In contrast, dynamic applications of the MRS technique to obtain information during a challenge have remained limited to date. Challenge tests will be discussed in more detail in the following sections.

LIVER METABOLISM IN PATIENTS WITH DIABETES

Impairment of hypoglycemic counterregulation, which occurs even in intensively treated type diabetes, has traditionally been attributed to deficits in counterregulatory hormone secretion in type I diabetes, and to impaired hormone sensitivity of target organs in type II diabetes. In the normal fed state, the liver takes up glucose for energy production (*via* glycolysis and TCA cycle) and stores excess energy as glycogen, whereas in the fasted state, the liver releases glucose produced from glycogen and *via* gluconeogenesis; in fact, the liver is almost exclusively responsible for endogenous glucose production (EGP). After a glucose load, liver glycogen can be synthesized both directly from glucose (*via* glucose-6P, glucose-1P and UDP-glucose) and indirectly from 3 carbon units (*via* phosphoenolpyruvate-glucose-6P *etc.*). ¹³C MRS, either at natural abundance or combined with ¹³C tracer infusion, provides a tool to study glycogen content in the liver and thus, in dynamic studies, net glycogen synthesis and breakdown over time. Moreover, combined with turnover measurements using deuterated glucose tracer infusions and measurement of isotopic enrichment of UDP-glucose using acetaminophen (measured as acetaminophen glucuronide in plasma/urine) allows an estimation of relative contributions of the direct and indirect pathways of glycogen synthesis. Noninvasive sampling of hepatic glutamine pools by oral administration of phenylacetate allows simultaneous estimation of the contribution of pyruvate oxidation to the TCA cycle flux^[37].

Over the past decades, ¹³C MRS studies have significantly contributed to the notion that the liver plays a critical role in the derangements of plasma glucose regulation in both type I and type II diabetes. Most MRS studies to date have been performed in diabetes type I. To determine alterations in the direct and indirect pathways of glycogen synthesis in diabetes, Cline and coworkers^[37] studied subjects with poorly controlled diabetes type I using a 5 h hyperglycemic-hyperinsulinemic clamp (plasma glucose: 9 mmol/L, insulin: 400 pmol/L) and [1-¹³C]-glucose. Hepatic pools of UDP-glucose and glutamine

were noninvasively sampled by oral administration of acetaminophen and phenylacetate, respectively. Although total hepatic glycogen synthesis was similar in both groups, the flux through the indirect (gluconeogenic) pathway was found to be proportionately about twice as active in the diabetic subjects compared to the control subjects. Moreover, the relative contribution of pyruvate oxidation to the TCA cycle flux in diabetic subjects was decreased by circa 30%, indicating reduced glycolysis. The abnormalities were not immediately reversed by normalizing intraportal concentrations of glucose, insulin and glucagon, and might contribute to postprandial hyperglycemia.

Hwang *et al.*^[38] studied poorly controlled diabetes type I patients and weight-matched control subjects during a day in which three isocaloric mixed meals were ingested. Although fasting hepatic glycogen levels were identical in the two groups, the diabetic subjects synthesized less glycogen over the day than healthy subjects. Again, the flux through the gluconeogenic pathway relative to the direct pathway of glycogen synthesis was markedly reduced in diabetic subjects.

Bischof *et al.*^[39] studied poorly controlled diabetes type I patients (HbA1C: 8.8% and matched non-diabetic subjects (HbA1C: 5.5%) in an experiment over 24 h with 3 isocaloric mixed meals. Over 24 h, the mean plasma glucose concentration was 2.4-fold higher in diabetic subjects. Net liver glycogen synthesis and breakdown were calculated from linear regression of the glycogen concentration time curves from 19:30-22:30, and 22:30-8:00, respectively. Glycogen synthesis was reduced by 74% and glycogen breakdown by 47%, and both were partly but not completely normalized by intensified insulin treatment.

In a subsequent study in long-term well-controlled diabetes type I patients, Bischof *et al.*^[40], showed that tight glycemic control in diabetes type I patients normalized overall glycogen synthesis and breakdown as well as glucose production. However, the relative contribution of the indirect pathway of glycogen synthesis remained elevated in diabetic subjects, a finding which indicated augmented gluconeogenesis in type I diabetic patients, which would be consistent with experimental models showing increased PEP-carboxykinase and/or reduced glucokinase activity in the liver of diabetic animals.

Also, in 6 to 12-year-old children with diabetes type I^[41], the capacity to replenish hepatic glycogen after an overnight fast was at least as good as in age-matched healthy children.

Kishore *et al.*^[42] compared the hepatic response to hypoglycemia in well-controlled type I diabetes patients and healthy subjects. In the overnight fasted state, diabetes type I patients had decreased hepatic glycogen levels compared to controls. In insulin-induced hypoglycemia, the normal response of glycogenolysis observed in healthy subjects was virtually absent in diabetic subjects.

Type II diabetes patients were studied by Magnusson *et al.*^[43], who compared seven diabetic (mean duration 13 years) and five healthy subjects matched for age and body mass index (BMI) during 23 h of fasting after an initial liquid meal. Oral medication with sulfonylurea agents (n

= 5) was discontinued 3 d before the study and insulin treatment ($n = 2$) was discontinued the evening before the study. Blood glucose levels in the diabetic subjects were consistently higher throughout the experiment. Four hours after the meal, hepatic glycogen levels in diabetic subjects were < 50% of those in control subjects. During the subsequent fasting period, glycogen breakdown was reduced in diabetic subjects; instead, their rate of gluconeogenesis was markedly increased, resulting in a circa 20% overall increase in glucose output compared to healthy subjects.

Krassak and colleagues^[44] studied hepatic glycogen synthesis, glycogen breakdown and gluconeogenesis in patients with type II diabetes (mean duration 6 years) and age- and weight-matched healthy subjects before and after a mixed meal. Hepatic glycogen concentrations were lower in diabetic patients before and after dinner, and post-meal glycogen synthesis was reduced by circa 44%. Overnight, rates of glycogenolysis were also circa 50% lower in diabetic patients than controls. Endogenous glucose production was elevated in diabetic patients before dinner and remained so for 3 h after dinner; also, the nadir of glucose production was delayed in diabetic patients (240 min *vs* 60-90 min); thereafter, glucose production in patients and controls was similar. At 6-9 h after dinner, gluconeogenesis amounted to 67% of EGP in diabetic patients *vs* 43% in controls.

During a subsequent hyperglycemic-hyperinsulinemic clamp, glycogen synthesis was circa 46% lower in diabetic patients, with a similar contribution from the direct and indirect pathways. Glycogen breakdown was similar, resulting in circa 54% lower net glycogen synthesis. EGP was circa 30% elevated in diabetic patients both before and during the clamp. Hepatocellular lipid content was three times higher in type II diabetic patients and negatively correlated with rates of net glycogen synthesis and whole-body glucose uptake during the clamp test (which was circa 37% reduced in diabetic patients)^[44]. Petersen *et al.*^[45] demonstrated that an average weight loss of 8 kg in type II diabetic patients over a period of 7 wk led to normalization of plasma glucose concentrations as well as hepatic glycogenolysis, glucose production and gluconeogenesis, indicating marked restoration of hepatic insulin sensitivity. These changes were associated with a reduction in hepatic lipid content from 12% to 3%, whereas muscle lipid content and muscle insulin resistance remained unchanged^[45].

In summary, the presence of marked alterations in hepatic glucose and glycogen metabolism in type I and type II diabetes has been substantiated by ¹³C MRS in combination with isotope tracer studies. When compared with non-diabetic humans, both patients with type I and type II diabetes exhibit elevated endogenous glucose production by increased gluconeogenesis, combined with reduced glycogen synthesis and breakdown. In type I diabetes, this defect can be partly restored by combined long- and short-term optimized treatment with insulin. In contrast, in type II diabetes, increased gluconeogenesis appears to be the main cause of elevated glucose

production and fasting hyperglycemia, and it is normalized by weight reduction.

LIVER METABOLISM IN PATIENTS WITH A DISTANT MALIGNANT TUMOUR

The cancer-bearing state is generally associated with profound alterations in host metabolism. Many patients lose weight due to decreasing fat and muscle mass, a condition known as cancer cachexia, which not only leads to functional decline but is also an important predictor of poor prognosis. Although cancer cachexia is partly caused by decreased appetite, altered metabolism in host organs such as liver and muscle are now thought to play a major role in the pathogenesis of the condition. So far, most studies have concentrated on experimental animal models of cancer cachexia. To further explore the role of altered liver metabolism in the etiology of cancer cachexia in humans, Dagnelie *et al.*^[46] and Leij-Halfwerk *et al.*^[47-51] performed a series of studies in patients with advanced lung and breast cancer. Importantly, patients were only included if they were free of liver metastases, as confirmed by CT and/or ultrasound. In all studies, weight-stable and weight-losing cancer patients were compared with healthy subjects. Dietary energy intake was similar in all subjects, and all spectra were acquired in the overnight-fasted state. Since ATP peak areas differed between patients and controls, total phosphorous content of the liver (which was demonstrated to be stable) was used as a reference.

In one study, ATP peak areas were significantly reduced in both weight-stable (WS) and weight-losing (WL) cancer patients^[46]; in the second study, the reduction was only statistically significant in WL but not WS cancer patients^[47]. During a 90-min infusion of 2.8 mmol/kg per minute of the gluconeogenic amino acid alanine, liver ATP levels decreased in healthy subjects and patients to a similar extent for 60 min; however, from 60-90 min, ATP levels in WS cancer patients and healthy subjects recovered to baseline values despite continued infusion, but further decreased in WL patients, indicating impaired ATP recovery^[47]. Intravenous infusion of ATP at 75 µg/kg per minute over 24 h induced complete normalization of liver ATP levels both in WL and WS patients to levels similar to healthy subjects^[51].

As shown in Figure 1, baseline PME values in the liver were markedly increased in WL cancer patients relative to WS patients and healthy controls, due to increased glucose cycling and gluconeogenesis as indicated by both the observed downfield alteration of the PME chemical shift^[46] and the significant correlation of PME levels with glucose turnover and gluconeogenesis from alanine^[49]. Baseline alanine turnover as measured by tracer techniques was elevated in WL cancer patients, but not in WS patients^[48]. L-alanine infusion induced a steady 33% rise in PME in healthy subjects (Figure 1). In WS cancer patients, a markedly faster and higher (i.e. 69%) response of PME to alanine infusion was observed, whereas WL patients showed virtually no further rise in PME (7%) relative to their already elevated baseline PME levels (Figure 1)^[48].

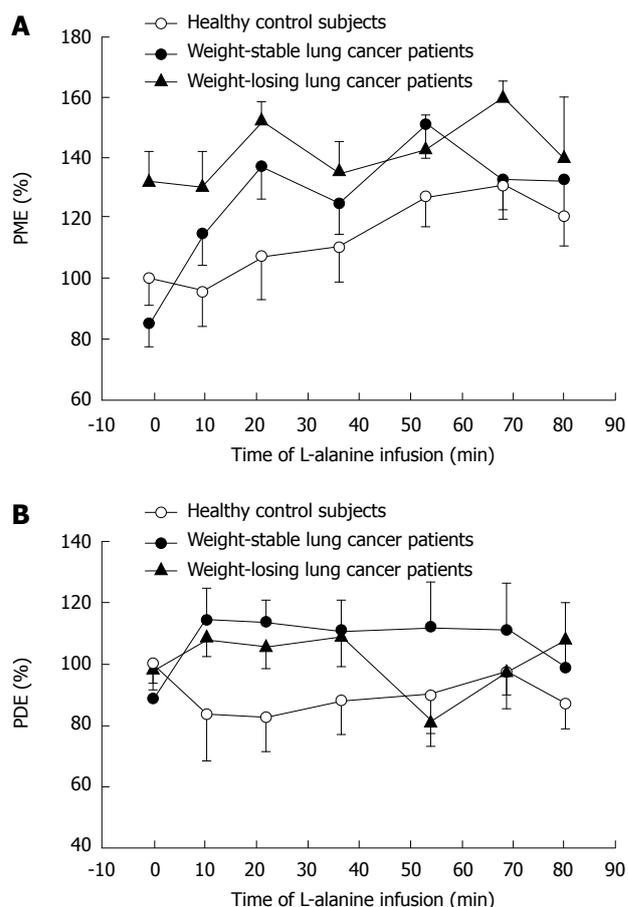


Figure 1 PME (A) and PDE (B) concentrations in the liver of healthy control subjects ($n = 9$) as well as weight-stable ($n = 10$) and weight-losing ($n = 7$) lung cancer patients during a primed-constant infusion of L-alanine (initial priming, 1.4-2.8 mmol/kg; infusion, 2.8 mmol/kg per hour). Curves represent means; bars, SE. Values are expressed as percentage of mean baseline value of healthy subjects (100%). Times during L-alanine infusion are mid-time points of ^31P MRS data collection referenced to the start of the L-alanine infusion (0 = baseline). From^[50], with permission.

In cancer patients, but not in healthy subjects, the rise in PME levels during alanine infusion was strongly inversely correlated with baseline PME ($r = -0.82$). Liver intracellular pH increased in the order: healthy < cancer-WS < cancer-WL^[46], suggesting that the host liver may have a similar intra-extracellular pH gradient as reported for cancerous tissue^[52-55].

In summary, using ^31P MRS, marked alterations in hepatic glucose metabolism were demonstrated in the non-metastatic liver of cancer patients, as shown by elevated hepatic concentrations of gluconeogenic intermediates in the overnight-fasted state, as well as during infusion of a gluconeogenic challenge. Of note, the rapid response of the PME peak to alanine infusion demonstrated rapid induction of the gluconeogenic pathway in WS cancer patients, corroborating the power of MRS as a tool to detect enzymatic alterations within the liver.

DISCUSSION

So far, MRS has primarily been used as a research tool.

MRS *in vivo* allows rapid assessment of the metabolic profile and function, including alterations in liver metabolism and physiology under different conditions. Dynamic studies have so far mainly been performed in diabetes and cancer. The limitation of these studies is the relatively high cost of the equipment and, even more, the cost of ^{13}C enriched compounds which are infused to increase hepatic ^{13}C content and to directly monitor the signal increase of ^{13}C in different metabolites above the 1% natural abundance of ^{13}C . As high-field machines become more available in the next decades, it is expected that the application of ^{13}C MRS studies in the liver may continue. However, the possibilities of ^{31}P MRS have by no means been exhausted, as is shown by the dynamic studies demonstrating altered host liver metabolism in patients with a malignant tumor elsewhere in the body. As the studies in cancer and diabetes demonstrate, metabolic challenges such as carbohydrates (like as glucose and fructose), amino acids (such as alanine) and lipids are likely to yield substantial new knowledge in the near future.

Comparing individual papers investigating disease states is difficult as there is no overall standard for representation of data or methods. Interpretation of part of the studies in diffuse liver disease is hampered by the notion that healthy controls were not always matched for age, weight/body mass index (BMI), gender, *etc.*; often, healthy subjects were younger than patients. As it has been shown that these factors may impact the quality of the spectra^[56] and concentrations of metabolites^[56], attempts should be made to minimize their bias. Many studies showed substantial between-subject variability within patient and control groups, e.g. with regard to PME.

Another important issue is the difference in magnetic field strengths and techniques used in different studies with regard to spatial resolution and differences in repetition times (TR), which lead to T1 weighting. T1 weighting in quantification of metabolites in liver MRS studies has so far been relatively neglected^[2]. Each data acquisition step in MRS comprises a brief excitation of nuclei of interest by irradiation with non-ionizing radiofrequency energy, followed by measurement of the signal derived from relaxing nuclei in the tissue of interest. TR is defined as the time between two subsequent radiofrequency pulses. The full information is only derived when the nuclei of interest are allowed sufficient time to fully relax. T1 weighting occurs when a new radiofrequency pulse is administered before full relaxation of the nuclei of interest. Although depending on the pulse angle, a rule of thumb is that the applied TR must be circa 5 times T1 or longer in order to obtain fully relaxed spectra. Sijens *et al.*^[2], using chemical shift imaging with 1 D phase encoding for localized measurement of ^{31}P metabolites to measure a large liver voxel, showed that, with a pulse angle of 70° at TR 1 s, concentrations of liver metabolites are only 54%-84% of those at full relaxation (TR 50 s). Importantly, T1 relaxation times may change in disease: Dagnelie *et al.*^[46] showed ATP concentrations in WL-cancer patients to be reduced relative to healthy subjects at TR 5 s and TR 20 s, but not at TR 1 s. In a later study, Leij-Halfwerk *et al.*^[51]

showed that ATP infusion induced an increase in hepatic ATP levels at TR 15 s; however, this was not observed at TR 1 s (Leij-Halfwerk *et al.*, 2002, unpublished data). Thus, accurate assessment of changes in metabolite concentrations in different conditions is only possible if TR is chosen to be sufficiently long to allow a large degree of relaxation. As the measured MR signal becomes larger as TR increases, signal to noise ratios will improve, allowing a smaller number of acquisitions per phase encoding step, thereby relatively reducing measurement time. Thus, using 4 phase encoding steps, Sijens *et al.*^[2] showed the following number of acquisitions and measurement time at TR 1, 5 and 20 s, respectively: 60 (4:08 min), 20 (7:20 min), and 8 acquisitions (13:20 min).

What are the prospects for the clinical application of MRS in diffuse liver disease? For use as a diagnostic tool, not only high sensitivity and specificity at an individual patient levels are essential, but also practicality of application including patient burden and costing. These requests are most likely to be fulfilled in inherited diseases, where marked metabolic alterations are typical, however, for the majority of diseases, other, less invasive tools will remain methods of first choice. However, MRS may be an excellent tool for assessing disease severity and for monitoring disease progress or recuperation, as shown e.g. in diabetes^[45] and patients with primary biliary cirrhosis^[13].

Finally, altered findings in MRS may predict disease progression, weight loss or survival, and thus assist in the estimation of patients' prognosis. For instance, preliminary analyses (Leij-Halfwerk & Dagnelie, unpublished observations) demonstrated that elevated baseline PME levels in WS cancer patients predicted subsequent weight loss and shorter survival.

CONCLUSION

MRS of diffuse liver disease has given important new insight in a number of diseases, including inherited diseases, hepatitis, steatosis and cirrhosis. Importantly, MRS has also allowed new insights in metabolic derangements in non-liver diseases such as diabetes and non-liver cancer. Based on the progress achieved so far by MRS studies in diabetes, it is anticipated that future technical developments such as clinical MRS magnets with higher field strength (3 T) and improved delineation of multi-component signals such as PME and PDE using proton decoupling, especially if combined with price reductions for stable isotope tracers, will lead to intensified research into metabolic syndrome, cardiovascular disease, hepatobiliary diseases, as well as non-metastatic liver metabolism in patients with a distant malignant tumor.

Of note, there are also potential drawbacks: thus, tightening regulations related to preparing and administering compounds by intravenous infusion or orally threaten to make metabolic research extremely costly (or perhaps even impossible) in the near future: a development which could have dramatic negative consequences for scientific and clinical progress in the field.

Emphasis should be placed on the development of standards of the techniques used in order to be able to compare data and to obtain valid estimates of absolute metabolite concentrations. In order to allow MRS to compete with standards of care, efforts should be made to validate results in larger patient cohorts and to minimize bias in distinguishing diseased states from healthy states.

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Liver iron content determination by magnetic resonance imaging

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Abstract

Accurate evaluation of iron overload is necessary to establish the diagnosis of hemochromatosis and guide chelation treatment in transfusion-dependent anemia. The liver is the primary site for iron storage in patients with hemochromatosis or transfusion-dependent anemia, therefore, liver iron concentration (LIC) accurately reflects total body iron stores. In the past 20 years, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) has emerged as a promising method for measuring LIC in a variety of diseases. We review the potential role of MRI in LIC determination in the most important disorders that are characterized by iron overload, that is, thalassemia major, other hemoglobinopathies, acquired anemia, and hemochromatosis. Most studies have been performed in thalassemia major and MRI is currently a widely accepted method for guiding chelation treatment in these patients. However, the lack of correlation between liver and cardiac iron stores suggests that both organs should be evaluated with MRI, since cardiac disease is the leading cause of death in this population. It is also unclear which MRI method is the most accurate since there are no large studies that have directly compared the different available techniques. The role of MRI in

the era of genetic diagnosis of hemochromatosis is also debated, whereas data on the accuracy of the method in other hematological and liver diseases are rather limited. However, MRI is a fast, non-invasive and relatively accurate diagnostic tool for assessing LIC, and its use is expected to increase as the role of iron in the pathogenesis of liver disease becomes clearer.

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Key words: Thalassemia major; Iron overload; Magnetic resonance imaging; Liver; Hemochromatosis; Desferrioxamine; Deferiprone; Deferasirox; Thalassemia intermedia; Myelodysplastic syndromes

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INTRODUCTION

Iron homeostasis in humans depends exclusively on the modulation of iron absorption since iron excretion is passive (by shedding of intestinal and skin cells, and additionally, in women by menstruation), and cannot be actively upregulated^[1]. Therefore, patients with excessive iron absorption (hemochromatosis) or with transfusion-dependent congenital or acquired anemia are at increased risk for developing iron overload^[1]. Excessive iron is toxic because it generates free radicals and induces oxidative stress^[2]. Iron overload can result in the development of diabetes and other endocrinopathies, liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), cardiomyopathy and

premature death in patients with thalassemia major^[3-6] and hemochromatosis^[7-10]. In turn, the management of iron overload with chelation therapy in thalassemia major^[11-14] and with phlebotomy in hemochromatosis reduces the risk of diabetes, liver and cardiac disease and death^[7-9].

The accurate evaluation of iron overload is necessary to establish the diagnosis of hemochromatosis and guide chelation treatment in transfusion-dependent anemia^[3,15-17]. Serum ferritin levels are not an accurate measure of total body iron stores, particularly in patients with high iron burden, because concurrent conditions, particularly inflammation and liver disease, increase these levels independently of iron burden^[16,18,19]. Serum iron, transferrin, transferrin saturation and transferrin receptor levels are also imprecise markers of body iron stores^[18]. The liver is the primary site for iron storage in patients with hemochromatosis or transfusion-dependent anemia, therefore, liver iron concentration (LIC) accurately reflects total body iron stores^[1,19,20]. Liver biopsy with measurement of iron concentration by atomic absorption spectroscopy is considered the gold standard for LIC assessment^[16]. However, hepatic iron distribution appears to be uneven, particularly when cirrhosis is present, but also in the absence of cirrhosis^[21-25]. In addition, liver biopsy is an invasive procedure and complications requiring hospitalization are observed in approximately 0.5% of patients with thalassemia major who undergo liver biopsy, even in experienced centers^[26]. The risks of liver biopsy also preclude repeated biopsies, which are necessary in patients with thalassemia major in order to adjust chelation treatment and avoid iron overload and chelation-associated toxicity^[3,16,17,19].

It is apparent that there is a pressing need for non-invasive methods that can provide accurate LIC measurements. Superconducting quantum interference devices (SQUIDS) has been used for this purpose, but appear to underestimate LIC and are available in only a few centers^[16]. In the past 20 years, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) has emerged as a promising method for measuring LIC in a variety of diseases. We review the potential role of MRI in LIC determination in the most important disorders characterized by iron overload, namely, thalassemia major, other hemoglobinopathies, acquired anemia, and hemochromatosis.

LITERATURE SEARCH

A literature search (using PubMed) was performed using the following key words: “thalassemia major”, “iron overload”, “MRI”, “liver”, “hemochromatosis”, “desferrioxamine”, “deferiprone”, “deferasirox”, “thalassemia intermedia”, “sickle cell disease”, “myelodysplastic syndromes”, “bone marrow transplantation”, “hepatitis C”, “alcoholic liver disease” and “non-alcoholic liver disease” up to 13 January 2010. The authors also manually reviewed the references of retrieved articles for any pertinent material.

MRI METHODS FOR ASSESSING LIC

The measurement of iron overload with MRI is based

on the shortening effect of the interaction of iron-containing molecules (particularly ferritin and hemosiderin) with hydrogen nuclei (mainly in water molecules) on T2 relaxation time^[19,27,28]. Hepatic iron deposition with MRI can be quantified by measuring the ratio of the signal intensity of the liver and of a reference tissue (mainly paraspinous muscle, which does not develop siderosis)^[27,28]. These signal intensity ratios (SIRs) can be derived from either spin-echo (SE) T2-weighted or from gradient recalled-echo (GRE) T2*-weighted sequences^[27,28]. Liver siderosis can also be determined by the direct measurement of relaxation time (relaxometry), either T2 [or 1/T2 (R2)] from SE sequences or T2* [or 1/T2* (R2*)] from GRE sequences; it is also possible to measure both R2 and R2* relaxation times (hybrid method)^[27,28]. SIR-measuring methods are faster than relaxometry but less sensitive, particularly in patients with severe iron overload^[27,28]. In addition, SIR-measuring methods appear to have smaller interscanner reproducibility than do relaxometry methods^[29,30]. Among relaxometry methods, R2 acquisition time is longer than R2* acquisition time^[30].

MRI IN THALASSEMIA MAJOR

LIC determination

Some early studies have assessed the accuracy of LIC quantification by liver/muscle SIR derived from either GRE or SE sequences^[21,31,32]. The correlation between LIC measured in liver biopsy and SIR was stronger when GRE sequences were used^[21,31,32]. However, both methods were inaccurate in patients with severe iron overload or liver fibrosis, who represent a sizable percentage of the thalassemia population^[21,31,33]. In contrast, the presence of viral hepatitis did not affect the correlation between MRI and liver-biopsy-based LIC measurements^[31]. More recent studies also have reported moderate correlations between SIR and LIC ($r = 0.65-0.89$)^[34-36].

Regarding relaxometry methods, two large studies ($n = 80$ and $n = 106$) have reported moderate correlations between liver T2 and T2* measured in 1.5 T scanners with LIC ($r = -0.82$ and $r = -0.81$, respectively)^[37,38]. The correlation coefficient between liver T2* and LIC was stronger in patients without hepatic fibrosis (-0.93 vs -0.68 in patients with liver fibrosis)^[38]. Two smaller studies ($n = 46$ and $n = 52$, respectively) reported relatively stronger correlations between LIC and liver R2 determined in a 1.5 T and 0.5 T imager, respectively ($r = 0.874$ and $r = 0.94$, respectively)^[39,40]. Interestingly, the presence of liver fibrosis reduced the accuracy of the method only in the 1.5 T scanner^[39,40]. Liver inflammation and chronic hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection also had no effect on the correlation between R2 and LIC in the 0.5 T unit^[39,40]. A recent study also has suggested that measuring liver R2* in higher field strength imagers (i.e. 3 T vs 1.5 T) yields less accurate measurements, particularly in patients with more severe iron overload^[41]. However, the latter studies evaluated patients with different characteristics and their results are not directly comparable^[39-41].

Several studies have shown that relaxometry methods are more accurate than SIR-measuring methods for LIC determination^[30,36,42,43]. In an early comparative study, liver R2 correlated more strongly with biopsy-determined LIC than liver/paraspinal muscle SIR measured in SE sequences ($r = 0.97$ and 0.71 , respectively)^[42]. Moreover, the presence of liver fibrosis or inflammation did not affect the correlation between liver R2 and LIC^[42]. Liver/subcutaneous fat SIR did not correlate significantly with LIC^[42]. In another early small study ($n = 10$), liver R2 relaxation time measured with a 0.5 T MRI unit was better correlated with LIC than was R2* relaxation time^[43]. In a large study in patients with thalassemia major ($n = 57$), sickle cell disease (SCD) ($n = 34$), thalassemia intermedia ($n = 6$) and other causes of iron overload (aplastic anemia, hemochromatosis and heme-metabolism defects; $n = 5$), liver R2 and R2* measured with a 1.5 T scanner showed a strong correlation with LIC ($r = 0.98$ and 0.97 , respectively; Figure 1)^[30]. R2 showed less variability between imaging slices and better reproducibility between examinations compared with R2*^[30]. Combined measurement of R2 and R2* did not improve diagnostic accuracy^[30]. We also recently showed in 94 patients with thalassemia major a strong correlation between liver R2, R2* and GRE-derived liver/muscle SIR in a 1.5 T unit^[36]. Liver R2 was more accurate than the other methods in patients with more severe iron overload^[36]. According to current guidelines for the management of patients with thalassemia major, MRI is a feasible alternative to liver biopsy for determining LIC^[16]. The use of R2 sequences and local individual calibration is recommended^[16].

LIC and iron overload in other organs in thalassemia major

Myocardial iron-overload-induced heart failure is the cause of death in approximately 60% of patients with thalassemia major^[4]. Measurement of cardiac T2* is the currently recommended method for assessing cardiac iron overload^[16]. However, several large cross-sectional studies (total, $n = 429$) have not identified a significant correlation between cardiac and liver T2*^[38,44-47]. Only one large study ($n = 180$) has reported a weak, albeit significant, correlation between liver T2* and cardiac T2* ($r = 0.18$, $P < 0.05$)^[48]. In smaller studies ($n = 46$ and 38 , respectively), liver R2 and R2* did not correlate significantly with cardiac R2 and R2*^[39,49,50]. We also found no correlation between myocardial R2* and liver R2, and R2* and GRE-derived liver/muscle SIR in 94 patients^[36]. Only a few studies have reported a significant correlation between liver T2 and heart T2^[37], or between liver R2* and cardiac R2*^[51]; however, the correlation was weak ($r = 0.34$ and 0.23 , respectively)^[37,51]. Cardiac iron overload has also been reported in patients with minimal iron deposition in the liver^[50-52]. Finally, in a recent large study in 652 patients with thalassemia major, liver T2* was very weakly correlated with cardiac T2* ($R^2 = 0.003$, $P = 0.04$)^[53]. More importantly, liver T2* was not associated with the development of heart failure or arrhythmia, whereas cardiac T2* predicted heart failure and arrhythmia^[53].

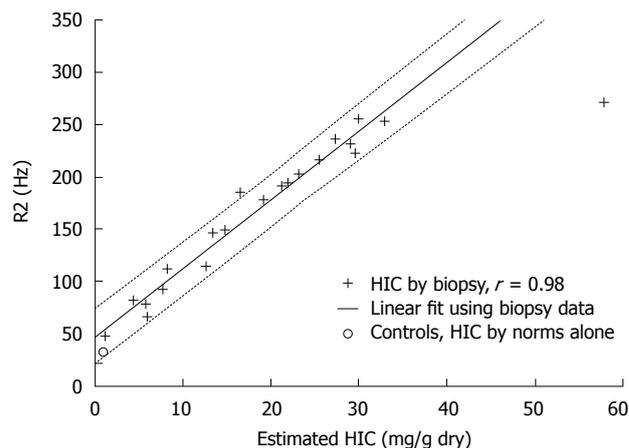


Figure 1 Plot of transverse relaxivity R2 (1/T2) vs biopsy-measured LIC in 20 patients (22 biopsies). R value was 0.98, and dotted lines indicate 95% prediction intervals for the regression. Average R2 value for 13 healthy controls is shown by "o", plotted using an LIC value estimated from normative data (no biopsy) (reproduced with permission from^[30]).

The lack of correlation between liver and cardiac iron load might be explained by different mechanisms of iron uptake in the two organs^[28]. In addition, small studies have suggested that iron deposition and chelation-induced clearance of iron from the heart lag behind liver iron changes^[50,54]. Moreover, patients receiving treatment with different chelators might experience iron clearance from the liver and heart at different rates^[46,55-58]. It appears that desferrioxamine is more or similarly effective than deferiprone in removing iron from the liver, but less effective than the latter in removing iron from the heart^[46,55-58]. Deferasirox, another oral chelator, appears to be similarly effective to desferrioxamine in reducing liver iron (assessed with liver biopsy or SQUID) when appropriately dosed^[59,60]. In uncontrolled studies, deferasirox also has reduced cardiac iron deposition (assessed with cardiac T2*)^[61,62]. These findings suggest that myocardial iron overload should also be monitored closely in patients with thalassemia major^[16]. According to recent guidelines for the management of these patients, myocardial iron deposition should be monitored with T2* MRI every year in patients with a poor chelation history, or in those with LIC, who show a non-optimal response to chelation therapy^[16].

Endocrine disorders, particularly hypogonadism and diabetes, are frequently observed in patients with thalassemia major^[63,64]. However, liver iron load does not appear to predict the extent of iron deposition in the pancreas or the pituitary gland, as assessed by SIR^[65-67], T2^[68], R2^[49] or T2*^[69]. However, in the largest study that has assessed the relationship between hepatic and pancreas/pituitary gland iron stores ($n = 180$), liver T2* correlated weakly, albeit significantly, with pancreas and pituitary gland T2* ($r = 0.35$ and 0.17 , respectively)^[48]. Liver T2* also correlated significantly with pituitary gland T2 and pituitary gland/muscle SIR ($r = 0.21$ and 0.63 , respectively)^[48]. However, liver T2* was not associated with the presence of endocrine disorders (diabetes, hypothyroidism, hypo-

gonadism and hypoparathyroidism)^[48]. No differences in liver iron overload between diabetic and non-diabetic patients were reported in other studies using T2*^[69,70] or SIR obtained from SE or GRE sequences^[34]. There was also no correlation between liver T2* and insulin resistance or pancreatic β -cell reserve^[69]. Only one small study ($n = 31$) has reported more severe liver iron overload (assessed with liver/paraspinous muscle SIR in GRE sequences) in diabetic patients^[66]. Regarding hypogonadotropic hypogonadism, one study of 36 patients has reported no difference in liver/subcutaneous fat SIR between patients with hypogonadotropic hypogonadism and those without pituitary gland dysfunction^[67], whereas another larger study ($n = 50$) has identified low liver T2* as a predictor of the presence of hypogonadism (but not of diabetes)^[70]. The apparent lack of association between the iron burden in liver, pancreas and pituitary gland might be partly due to different mechanisms of iron accumulation in these organs^[49,65-69]. In addition, pancreatic T2 and R2 are also reduced by the development of fatty degeneration, which might also confound the relationship between liver and pancreatic relaxation times in MRI^[49,66,68].

Liver MRI in patients with thalassemia major who have undergone bone marrow transplantation

Allogeneic bone marrow transplantation (BMT) from an HLA-identical donor is a potentially curative treatment for thalassemia major, particularly when pre-transplantation chelation treatment is adequate and there is no portal fibrosis or hepatomegaly^[71-74]. In these patients, liver iron overload progressively decreases without phlebotomy but may persist for 4-6 years after BMT in older patients^[75,76]. In patients who have undergone BMT for thalassemia major, higher LIC independently predicts progression of liver fibrosis^[77]. In these patients, phlebotomy reduces liver iron overload and improves liver and myocardial function^[78-80]. Liver MRI has also been used in these patients to assess iron overload^[81]. Measurement of liver T2 and T2* with a 1.5 T imager revealed iron overload in four out of eight patients, even though a mean time of 11.3 years had elapsed since BMT, and seven patients had received iron chelation treatment with phlebotomy, desferrioxamine or their combination for a mean 39 mo^[81]. In contrast, heart T2 and T2* were normal in all patients^[81].

LIC DETERMINATION WITH MRI IN OTHER HEMOGLOBINOPATHIES

Thalassemia intermedia is a diverse group of hemoglobinopathies that are characterized by less severe transfusion dependency and iron overload than in thalassemia major^[82,83]. Liver iron overload assessed with measurement of the T2* relaxation time is less pronounced in patients with thalassemia intermedia than in those with thalassemia major^[84]. Even though patients with thalassemia intermedia have liver iron overload compared with healthy controls, cardiac T2* does not differ between the former and the latter^[84]. In a study of 26 patients with thalassemia

intermedia, liver T2 strongly correlated with LIC ($r = -0.82$, $P = 0.0003$) but not with heart T2 ($r = -0.17$, $P = 0.41$)^[37]. Iron overload can develop in patients with thalassemia intermedia who have not been regularly transfused^[82,83]. In patients with thalassemia intermedia who received < 10 red blood cell (RBC) units, liver R2 revealed iron overload in two-thirds of the patients, whereas cardiac T2* was normal in all patients^[85]. In a very recent study in 49 patients with thalassemia intermedia, liver T2* revealed the presence of hepatic iron overload in 77.5% of patients, even though 44.9% had never been transfused and only 8.2% were being regularly transfused^[86]. In contrast, no patient had cardiac iron overload and liver T2* did not correlate with cardiac T2*^[86].

Beta thalassemia/hemoglobin E, a frequent hemoglobinopathy in Asia, manifests as thalassemia intermedia in half of the patients and as thalassemia major in the other half^[87,88]. Iron overload can develop even in patients who do not require regular transfusions and is due to increased intestinal absorption of iron^[87,88]. In a pivotal study in patients with beta thalassemia/hemoglobin E ($n = 41$), thalassemia major ($n = 9$) or hereditary hemochromatosis ($n = 23$), liver R2 strongly correlated with LIC measured in biopsy ($r = 0.98$, $P < 0.0001$)^[89]. However, R2 variability increased with increasing LIC^[89].

Hemoglobin H (Hb H) disease is another frequent hemoglobinopathy in Asia, which results from the deletion of three of the four α -globin genes (deletional Hb H disease) or from deletion of two α -globin genes and a non-deletional mutation of a third α -globin gene (non-deletional Hb H disease). In all cases, there is an excess of β -globin chains that form β_4 tetramers (Hb H)^[88,90,91]. The clinical phenotype of Hb H disease is variable and often resembles thalassemia intermedia^[88,90,91]. Regular transfusions are infrequently required but iron overload can develop even in never-transfused patients^[88,91]. Increased intestinal iron absorption due to hemolysis and ineffective erythropoiesis appears to explain the development of iron overload in these patients^[91]. Non-deletional Hb H disease has more severe presentation and more frequently leads to iron overload than does deletional Hb H disease^[91,92]. In an early study in 36 non-transfusion-dependent patients with Hb H disease, liver/paraspinous muscle SIR obtained from GRE sequences was more sensitive in detecting iron overload than SIR determined from SE sequences^[93]. Liver iron overload was observed in 33/36 patients, whereas iron overload in the heart and pancreas were present in only one and six patients, respectively^[93]. In a large study in 114 Chinese patients with Hb H disease, liver/paraspinous muscle SIR measured from GRE sequences revealed liver iron overload in 85% of the patients^[92]. Iron overload was present even though only one patient was transfusion-dependent and only eight had received more than five transfusions (median number of transfusions: 5.5; range: 5-20)^[92]. Patients with deletional Hb H disease had more severe iron overload than those with non-deletional Hb H disease^[92]. In a smaller recent study in 37 patients with Hb H

disease or thalassemia intermedia and serum ferritin levels > 1000 pmol/L, liver T2* was abnormal in most patients (84%)^[94]. Log-liver T2* correlated with serum ferritin levels but not with heart, pancreas or pituitary siderosis, as assessed by MRI, or with abnormalities in pancreatic function or the growth hormone axis^[94].

Chronic RBC transfusion therapy is increasingly being used in patients with SCD, particularly for the primary or secondary prevention of stroke^[95]. However, iron overload frequently develops in patients with SCD who are receiving chronic RBC transfusion therapy^[96]. The development of iron overload in these patients increases the risk for hospitalization^[97] and death^[98], whereas chelation treatment reduces mortality^[97]. In a recent study in patients with SCD, thalassemia major or bone marrow failure, liver R2* was strongly correlated with LIC assessed with liver biopsy ($r = 0.96-0.98$, $P < 0.001$), regardless of the presence of fibrosis^[99]. In another study in 35 patients with SCD, liver T2 was moderately correlated with LIC ($r = -0.80$, $P = 0.00001$) but not with heart T2 ($r = 0.10$, $P = 0.56$)^[37].

LIC DETERMINATION WITH MRI IN OTHER HEMATOLOGICAL DISORDERS

Iron overload frequently develops in patients with myelodysplastic syndromes (MDSs), which can result in abnormal liver function, diabetes and heart failure and increase the risk of death^[100-104]. In these patients, treatment with desferrioxamine improves liver, pancreas and pituitary gland function^[100,102,105]. Several small studies ($n = 10$ or 11) have assessed liver iron deposition by measuring liver T2* and have revealed liver iron overload in almost all patients^[106-109]. Log liver T2* correlates with RBC units transfused^[106,107]. In contrast, myocardial siderosis was present in only 10%-15% of patients and cardiac T2* did not correlate with liver T2*^[106,108,109]. Only one study has assessed pancreas and pituitary gland siderosis with MRI in patients with MDS, and has reported no association between liver T2* and pancreas or pituitary gland siderosis, but a correlation between log liver T2* and indices of insulin resistance and reduced beta cell reserve^[106]. According to recent guidelines, iron overload should be monitored in patients with MDS, using serum ferritin and transferrin levels, whereas liver MRI is considered useful but not essential^[92].

Iron overload is frequently observed in patients who have undergone allogeneic BMT for hematological diseases other than thalassemia major, and results primarily from RBC transfusions^[110-112]. Iron overload in these patients appears to be associated with increased risk for infections, veno-occlusive disease, hepatic dysfunction^[110,113,114] and death^[111,114-118]. Phlebotomy improves liver function in this population^[118]. It is recommended that patients who have undergone BMT and have iron overload should be treated with phlebotomy and/or chelation therapy^[112]. Liver MRI is a useful tool for quantifying body iron stores in this population^[110]. In an early study in 13 children who had

undergone autologous BMT, mostly for non-hematological disorders (neuroblastoma in 8 patients), liver iron overload assessed with liver/paraspinous muscle SIR measured in SE sequences was present in 10 patients (77%)^[119]. Liver iron overload is correlated with RBC units transfused^[119]. Three small studies ($n = 32$, 19 and 20) have revealed liver iron overload in the majority of patients (97%, 95% and 85%, respectively) who had undergone allogeneic BMT for leukemia, MDS, multiple myeloma, lymphoma, aplastic anemia or myelofibrosis, who had serum ferritin levels greater than the upper limit of the normal range, > 1000 ng/mL or > 1600 pmol/L, respectively^[120-122]. Liver iron deposition was assessed by liver/paraspinous muscle SIR measured from GRE sequences^[122], R2^[121] or T2*^[120]. Liver siderosis correlated with RBC units transfused^[122]. Patients with more advanced liver siderosis more frequently exhibited elevated transaminases, which normalized in most of them after phlebotomy^[122]. However, liver iron deposition did not correlate with heart, pancreas or pituitary siderosis as assessed by MRI, or with abnormalities in pancreatic function or the growth hormone axis^[120]. In addition, the duration of post-BMT follow-up, type of graft or conditioning, and the presence of chronic graft-versus-host-disease had no effect on the presence of liver iron overload^[121].

Two small case-series ($n = 11$ and 3, respectively) have evaluated iron overload with MRI in patients with acute leukemia or solid tumors who received multiple RBC transfusions due to chemotherapy-induced anemia^[123,124]. Liver/muscle SIR identified liver iron overload in all patients, whereas cardiac T2* was marginally reduced and pancreas/skeletal muscle SIR was normal in all patients^[123,124].

LIC DETERMINATION WITH MRI IN NON-HEMATOLOGICAL DISEASES

Hemochromatosis is an autosomal recessive disease with variable penetrance. In most patients, it results from a mutation of the *HFE* gene, which leads to iron overload by increasing intestinal iron absorption and by enhancing iron release from macrophages after phagocytosis of erythrocytes^[7,8,15]. In an early study in 20 patients with hemochromatosis and 18 with hematological diseases (mainly MDS), liver/muscle SIR obtained from SE sequences correlated strongly with LIC ($r^2 = 0.98$)^[125]. However, in subsequent studies in patients with suspected hemochromatosis, SIR obtained from GRE sequences has provided a more accurate determination of LIC than from SE sequences^[126,127]. In a more recent and larger study in 174 patients with suspected hemochromatosis or with chronic HCV infection, Gandon *et al.*^[128] have shown that liver/muscle SIR obtained from GRE sequences identifies liver iron overload with high sensitivity and specificity. The severity of hepatic siderosis and the presence of cirrhosis does not affect the accuracy of MRI measurements. The diagnostic accuracy of the technique proposed by Gandon *et al.*^[128] has been replicated in other studies in patients

with suspected hemochromatosis, chronic HCV infection, or persistent elevation of transaminase levels^[129,130]. However, it should be mentioned that this method does not appear to be accurate in assessing LIC in patients with thalassemia major or MDS, who have higher LIC than patients with hemochromatosis^[35]. Two smaller studies ($n = 11$ and 23 , respectively) have reported a strong correlation between liver R2 and biopsy-determined LIC in hemochromatosis^[89,131]. Some experts consider liver MRI to be the method of choice for documenting iron overload in patients with suspected hemochromatosis^[15]. Nevertheless, others argue that MRI has limited sensitivity to detect mild iron overload in patients with suspected hemochromatosis^[7].

Besides hemochromatosis, mild to moderate iron overload is also present in some patients with other liver diseases, including chronic hepatitis B or C, alcoholic liver disease and non-alcoholic fatty liver disease^[1,132-136]. In chronic hepatitis B or C and alcoholic liver disease, low levels of hepcidin, a protein that regulates iron absorption, may play a role in the development of iron overload^[1,132-134,136]. Increased iron uptake from hepatocytes due to upregulation of transferrin receptors might also contribute^[136]. In non-alcoholic fatty liver disease, insulin-induced redistribution of intracellular transferrin receptors to the hepatocyte membrane, and downregulation of the iron exporter protein due to the pro-inflammatory state present in these patients, may contribute to the development of liver iron overload^[132]. MRI is a sensitive method for evaluating liver iron deposition in patients with chronic HCV infection^[128-130]. However, liver biopsy is required in most of these patients to assess the presence of inflammation, fibrosis and cirrhosis.

Increased LIC is frequently observed in patients with non-biliary cirrhosis (not due to hemochromatosis) and can occasionally be severe; in contrast, liver siderosis is rare in biliary cirrhosis^[1,23,134]. Liver/paraspinous muscle SIR obtained from SE or GRE sequences has revealed liver iron overload in 40% of cirrhosis patients^[137]. However, in studies in patients with cirrhosis of various etiologies in whom liver biopsy had been performed, there was only a moderate correlation between liver/muscle SIR in GRE sequences and histological grading of liver siderosis ($r = 0.515$, $P < 0.001$)^[138]. Moreover, others did not find a difference in liver iron load (assessed with SIR obtained from GRE sequences) between patients with viral hepatitis and cirrhosis^[139]. In addition, liver siderosis in either SE or GRE sequences did not increase with the progression of viral hepatitis-induced cirrhosis^[140]. Despite these discrepant findings, MRI might be particularly useful when cirrhosis is present because of the risk of bleeding in these patients during liver biopsy and because of the uneven iron distribution in the cirrhotic liver^[21-25].

Finally, MRI might be useful for the evaluation of iron stores in porphyria cutanea tarda, a familial or sporadic disease that is characterized by decreased activity of hepatic uroporphyrinogen decarboxylase (UROD), which is frequently associated with iron overload^[141]. In these patients, iron inhibits UROD activity, and phlebotomy is

the treatment of choice^[136,141]. A recent study in 20 patients with porphyria cutanea tarda measured liver/paraspinous muscle SIR from GRE sequences and identified liver iron overload in 11 (55%)^[142].

CONCLUSION

MRI is a potentially useful non-invasive method for evaluating liver iron stores in a wide spectrum of hematological and liver diseases. Most studies have been performed in thalassemia major and MRI is currently a widely accepted method for guiding chelation treatment in these patients. However, the lack of correlation between liver and cardiac iron stores suggests that both organs should be evaluated with MRI, since cardiac disease is the leading cause of death in this population. It is also unclear which MRI method is the most accurate because there are no large studies that have directly compared the different techniques. Another issue is the reproducibility of the various methods in different centers. Liver/muscle SIR obtained from GRE sequences^[128-130] and liver and heart T2* have been shown to be reproducible in different scanners^[143-145] but more data are needed. The role of MRI in the era of genetic diagnosis of hemochromatosis is also debated, whereas data on the accuracy of the method in other hematological and liver diseases are rather limited. However, MRI is a fast non-invasive and relatively accurate diagnostic tool for assessing liver iron content, and its use is expected to increase as the role of iron in the pathogenesis of liver disease becomes clearer.

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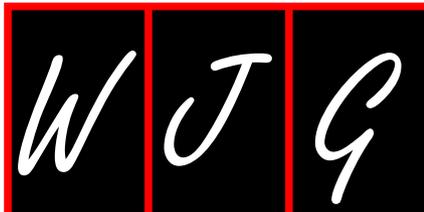
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Perfusion magnetic resonance imaging of the liver

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Abstract

Perfusion magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) studies quantify the microcirculatory status of liver parenchyma and liver lesions, and can be used for the detection of liver metastases, assessing the effectiveness of anti-angiogenic therapy, evaluating tumor viability after anti-cancer therapy or ablation, and diagnosis of liver cirrhosis and its severity. In this review, we discuss the basic concepts of perfusion MRI using tracer kinetic modeling, the common kinetic models applied for analyses, the MR scanning techniques, methods of data processing, and evidence that supports its use from published clinical and research studies. Technical standardization and further studies will help to establish and validate perfusion MRI as a clinical imaging modality.

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Key words: Magnetic resonance imaging; Dynamic contrast-enhanced magnetic resonance imaging; Liver; Tracer kinetic modeling

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INTRODUCTION

Perfusion magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) refers to imaging of tissue blood flow (i.e. tissue microcirculation), which is beyond the resolution of the MR scanner to directly visualize. In the liver, perfusion MRI can be applied to measure microcirculation in the liver parenchyma or in tumors. Whilst there are techniques available for direct measurement of blood flow in macroscopic vessels, such as the portal vein and hepatic artery, such as Doppler ultrasound (US), contrast-enhanced US, xenon computed tomography (CT) or phased contrast MR angiography; these are beyond the scope of the current review. Instead, our discussions are primarily focused on dynamic contrast-enhanced (DCE) MRI techniques with tracer kinetic modeling, which allows for the quantitative characterization of parenchymal and tumor microcirculatory alterations in the liver. Selected DCE liver perfusion studies using other imaging modalities are used to illustrate the value of perfusion imaging.

In the liver, conventional characterization of focal liver lesions is reliant on observing the rate and pattern of contrast enhancement assessed visually on DCE scans. The rate and pattern of contrast enhancement reflects the time evolution of the contrast agent within the liver tissue, which occurs as a result of the microcirculatory

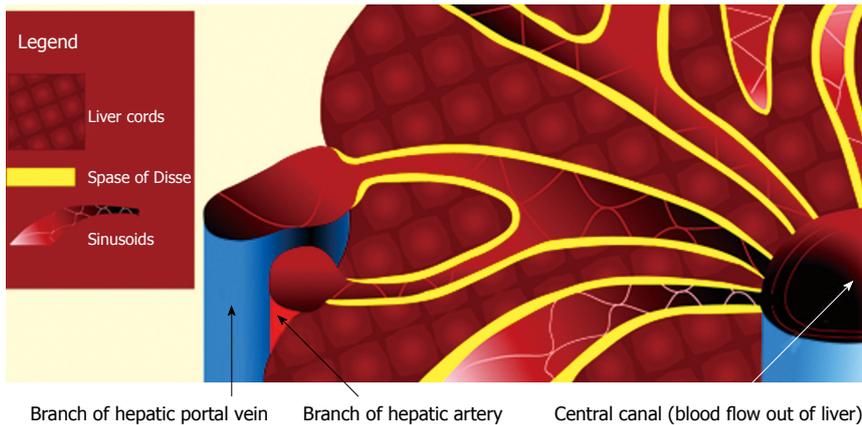


Figure 1 Schematic diagram illustrating the vascular architecture of the liver. Note the dual blood supply into the liver derived from the portal vein and hepatic artery. The vascular inflow is channeled into the hepatic sinusoids, which normally communicate freely with the Space of Disse (yellow). The Space of Disse is an interstitial space that lies between the sinusoids and the liver cords. From the hepatic sinusoids, blood is drained out of the liver via branches of the hepatic vein.

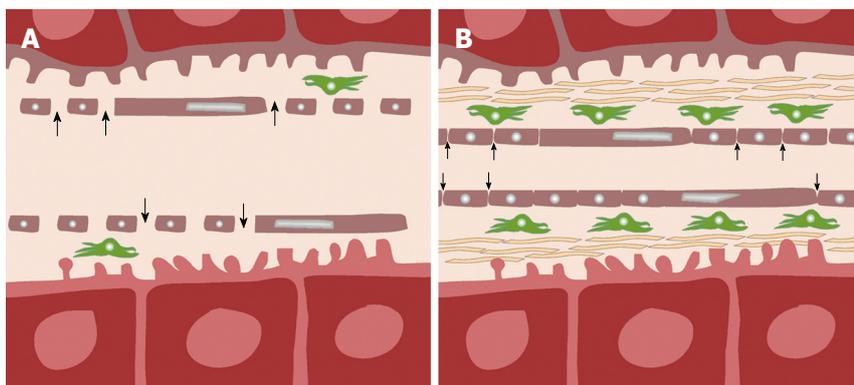


Figure 2 Schematic diagram showing pathophysiological differences between normal (A) and cirrhotic (B) liver. In normal liver (A), normal fenestrae along the hepatic sinusoids allow free passage of blood (arrows) into the Space of Disse, in which, stellate cells (green) are found. In liver cirrhosis (B), there is an increase in the number of stellate cells, associated with deposition of collagenous fibers in the Space of Disse, and loss of fenestrae as the sinusoids become more capillary-like. As a result, transfer of low-molecular-weight compounds (e.g. contrast medium) from the sinusoids into the Space of Disse becomes more impeded (small arrows).

pathophysiological changes. Perfusion MRI could extend the currently used qualitative assessment applied for the differential diagnosis of focal liver lesions, by applying quantitative metrics to describe their vascular behavior.

In the treatment of liver tumors, current therapy for hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) includes novel anti-angiogenic agents such as sorafenib. As these drugs may have significant clinical effects without causing tumor shrinkage, the microcirculatory characteristics, such as blood flow and tumor capillary permeability, have the potential to be response biomarkers, which allow these drug effects to be confidently assessed. Furthermore, it may also be possible to explore whether the quantitative microcirculatory parameters correlate with drug exposure and whether they can predict response. Quantitative vascular measurements could also be applied to assess the efficacy of local tumor ablation such as by trans-arterial chemo-embolization (TACE), radiofrequency ablation (RFA) or yttrium-90 microsphere embolization.

The early detection of liver metastases remains challenging, but changes in the relative hepatic arterial *vs* portal venous blood supply allow earlier detection of microscopic liver metastases^[1]. Likewise, changes in the relative contribution of hepatic arterial and portal blood flow are also observed in patients with liver cirrhosis^[2-8].

Central to the assessment of liver perfusion are model-based or model-free methods that analyze the contrast concentration-time curve in focal liver lesions or liver parenchyma, derived from the DCE-MRI images. Although similar concentration-time curves may be obtained using

CT and nuclear medicine studies, radiation burden is a practical concern, which becomes even more significant on repeated measurements. The ability of MRI to acquire such information without radiation burden and in a potentially more favorable scan plane (e.g. oblique coronal), to demonstrate the vascular input into the liver, are important advantages.

NORMAL AND ABNORMAL LIVER CIRCULATION

The liver is a highly vascular organ that consists of a series of porous vascular channels (sinusoids with fenestrae) that are predominantly supplied by the portal vein (75%) and supplemented by the hepatic artery (25%)^[9]. The two arterial inputs mix in the sinusoids at different time intervals to supply the liver cords. There is a small space (Space of Disse) that separates the sinusoids from the tightly ordered hepatic cords, which comprise two rows of closely apposed hepatocytes. The Space of Disse may be considered as an interstitial space within the liver. However, due to the large size of the fenestrae of the sinusoids, there is usually free exchange of low-molecular-weight compounds (e.g. gadolinium contrast medium) between the vascular space (sinusoids) and the interstitial space (Space of Disse) (Figures 1 and 2)^[10].

In cirrhosis, due to sinusoidal capillarization, there is loss of normal fenestrae, due to deposition of basement membrane and new formation of capillary tight junctions along the sinusoids. There is also deposition of fibers by

activated Ito cells (hepatic stellate or antigen presenting cells), which results in enlargement of the Space of Disse. Consequently, transfer of low-molecular-weight gadolinium contrast medium from the vascular sinusoids into the interstitial space becomes increasingly impeded (Figure 2)^[11].

In liver metastases and HCC, tumor blood supply is initially derived from proliferation of the sinusoidal cells that become capillarized with loss of fenestrae and formation of basement membrane. This also results in a significant barrier to the free passage of low-molecular-weight contrast medium between the sinusoidal space and interstitial space of the tumor. As the tumor continues to grow, there is recruitment of new vessels directly supplied by the hepatic artery (neoarteriogenesis). This is a prominent feature of HCC but can also be seen in the peritumoral area of liver metastases^[12-15]. Such arterialization of the vascular supply is typical of malignant liver tumors.

MRI TECHNIQUE FOR MEASURING HEPATIC PERFUSION

For perfusion MRI of the liver, injection of a low-molecular-weight gadolinium-chelate contrast is necessary, and this is administered through a wide bore (20G or larger) intravenous cannula sited within a large antecubital vein. Contrast medium is injected using a programmable pump injector, which ensures uniform and rapid contrast delivery as a tight bolus. The amount of contrast medium administered is based on body weight. For example, using Gd-DTPA (Magnevist®, Bayer-Schering, Germany), 0.1-0.2 mmol of contrast medium/kg body weight is typically administered. Once the contrast medium is injected, imaging of the liver commences using an MRI sequence that is capable of rapid and repeated measurements, to enable the passage of contrast medium through the liver to be tracked accurately. Liver perfusion imaging is typically performed using T1-weighted MRI sequences. On T1-weighted imaging, liver or tumor perfusion is observed as increasing enhancement as contrast medium passes through the liver or tumor.

With regard to technical details, a T1-weighted 3D spoiled gradient echo technique with variable flip angles is useful. Parallel imaging could be applied to reduce scan time and improve temporal resolution. Compared with 2D imaging sequences, the 3D technique eliminates inaccuracies due to the radiofrequency excitation pulse profile, and also has the advantage of better signal-to-noise ratio. However, the peripheral image sections may still have to be excluded from analysis because they may have unfavorable slice profiles or be degraded by wrap artifacts that result from phase under-sampling. T1 mapping or calibration, a necessary step for quantitative analysis, can be performed using the variable flip angle method described by Wang *et al.*^[16]. As the gadolinium contrast concentration is inversely proportional to change in the reciprocal of T1, a gadolinium contrast concentration-time curve of the liver or tumor can be generated, which is then used to derive quantitative vascular perfusion

Table 1 Illustrative example of a perfusion MRI sequence performed on a 1.5 T MR platform

MRI platform	Avanto (Siemens, Erlangen, Germany)
Type of pulse sequence	3D FLASH
TR	2.72 ms
TE	1 ms
Partition thickness	8 mm
Slices per slab	10
Matrix	256 × 159
Phase encode direction	Anterior to posterior
Number of averages	1
Sensitivity encoding factor	2
Flip angle before contrast	2° and 14°
Flip angle after contrast	14°
Bandwidth	490 Hz
RF spoiling	Yes
Temporal resolution	1.98 s per slab of 10 slices.
Precontrast scans	10 measurements of each flip angle averaged for calculation of native T1
Gadolinium injection	0.2 mmol/kg at 3 mL/s followed by 20 mL flush
Patient respiration	Quiet breathing
Post contrast scans	A total of 180 consecutive measurements. Inject contrast only when the 20th measurement has been completed
Scan sections to use for processing	Center 6 image sections only

MRI: Magnetic resonance imaging; FLASH: Fast low-angle shot; TR: repetition time; TE: Echo time.

indices. Table 1 provides an example of a liver perfusion MRI protocol implemented on a commercial scanner. It is important to note that such an imaging sequence may vary from one imaging platform to another, and it is important to engage the help of an experienced clinical scientist to ensure that the performance of the sequence is optimized. Although some workers have advocated simpler methods of estimating gadolinium concentration by measuring differences in signal intensities before and after contrast arrival in the liver, we would like to caution that the success of this simplified approach might be dependent on the imaging sequence, as well as the range of signal intensity and tracer concentration encountered.

In order to track liver perfusion reliably, MRI of the liver should employ a high temporal resolution technique (i.e. repeated imaging of the same area in the liver about every 4 s), in a scan plane that shows the lesion or area of interest. Ideally, the aorta and the portal vein should be included in the same image sections. Hence, an oblique imaging plane (e.g. oblique coronal) afforded by the MRI technique would be particularly helpful to ensure all these structures are included. The signal intensity changes within these structures, together with the T1 calibration maps, are used to derive the gadolinium contrast concentration-time curves in the liver and tumors. Once the gadolinium contrast concentration-time curve in an area of interest is known, knowledge of the contemporaneous contrast enhancement within the aorta and portal vein allows analytic methods to be applied to extract quantitative or semi-quantitative parameters that describe the vascular

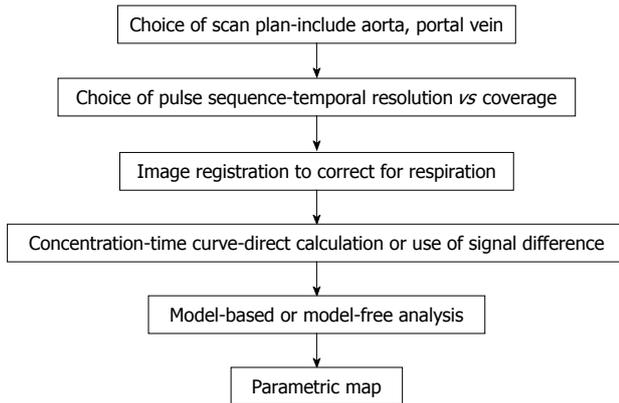


Figure 3 Chart shows workflow involved from data acquisition to obtaining vascular information by perfusion MRI of the liver.

properties. The MR images may also be qualitatively assessed by visual survey for areas of increased enhancement relative to the normal liver parenchyma. However, such comparisons can be subjective. The various approaches to extracting quantitative and/or semi-quantitative liver perfusion data are discussed in the next section.

One of the challenges to acquiring high quality liver perfusion MRI is respiratory motion, which can substantially degrade image quality. It is currently a subject of debate whether to acquire images during breath-hold or quiet respiration. Imaging in quiet respiration is widely performed, which allows rapid uninterrupted image acquisition for high temporal resolution data. However, the images often need to be aligned using image registration techniques, which can be complex, prior to quantitative analysis. Furthermore, respiration can result in through-plane motion and non-linear tissue deformation that cannot be easily overcome. For these reasons, imaging in sequential breath-hold has been advocated as a method to minimize the effects of respiratory motion. Images are acquired during suspended respiration (usually expiration), followed by a short period of normal breathing, after which respiration is again suspended for image acquisition. Imaging during expiration can be monitored by navigator control. Breath-hold imaging minimizes the need for complex image registration, but the main potential disadvantage is decreased temporal sampling because images cannot be acquired continuously. One method which can be used to improve temporal sampling of breath-hold studies is to acquire two datasets (instead of one) during each breath-hold^[17]. Single breath-hold studies have also been reported. In single breath-hold studies, patients are required to breath-hold for 40–60 s during which the first passage of gadolinium contrast is observed^[18].

EXTRACTING LIVER PERFUSION INFORMATION FROM MRI DATA

Once the MRI data have been acquired, they have to be analyzed in a meaningful way to extract information

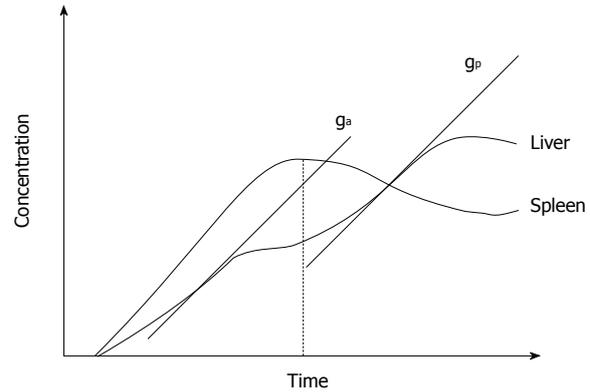


Figure 4 Schematic plot of gadolinium concentration-time curve in liver tissue obtained from a perfusion MRI study. The diagram illustrates how the maximum gradient for arterial perfusion (G_a) and portal perfusion (G_p) are derived (based on Miles *et al.*^[2]). Note that the peak splenic enhancement is used to define the transition between arterial and portal phase of liver parenchyma enhancement. The maximum slope after the peak splenic enhancement is used to define portal perfusion.

that describes tissue vascularity. Dynamic MRI data can be processed using a model-free or a model-based approach, with the former being simpler to implement.

Using model-free approaches, semi-quantitative descriptions of liver perfusion can be derived by observing the rate of liver tissue signal change in the arterial and portovenous phases of contrast enhancement. One semi-quantitative description of liver vascularity is the hepatic perfusion index (HPI), which describes the relative contribution of arterial *vs* portovenous flow to the total liver perfusion. The HPI has been investigated using different imaging techniques, and appears to provide biologically meaningful information despite its relative simplicity.

However, the quantitative model-based approach is appealing because it may provide more sophisticated descriptions of tissue vascular properties, by underpinning the data analysis on mathematical assumptions that reflect alterations in the underlying pathophysiology. Both model-free and model-based approaches are being widely investigated; each has provided unique information that has shown to improve liver disease assessment.

A simplified schema which shows the workflow for performing DCE-MRI is shown in Figure 3.

Model-free approaches for vascular quantification

These methods are based on simply observing the MR signal changes that result from the passage of contrast agent through the liver parenchyma or liver tumor, but may not directly relate these to the contemporaneous change in the aorta or portal vein. Disease characterization is based on the fact that the perfused liver or tumor shows enhancement with the arrival of contrast agent and therefore perfusion can be estimated by the rate of tissue enhancement. Hence, most model-free approaches use parameters derived from the initial slope of the tissue signal intensity-time or contrast concentration-time curve (Figure 4).

HPI

One semi-quantitative index that can be calculated using the model-free approach is the HPI. The HPI was first proposed by Miles *et al.*²¹. HPI refers to the proportion of hepatic perfusion that is derived from the hepatic artery, and it can be calculated using the following formula: arterial perfusion/arterial perfusion + portal venous perfusion). Miles *et al.*²¹ have used the time to peak in the splenic enhancement curve to distinguish between the arterial and portal venous phases of the liver. Liver arterial perfusion is then estimated by the maximum slope in the liver enhancement curve before the splenic peak, divided by the peak aortic enhancement (Figure 4). Correspondingly, liver portal venous perfusion is estimated by dividing the maximum slope in the liver enhancement curve after the splenic peak by the peak aortic enhancement (Figure 4).

Blomley *et al.*³¹ have further refined calculation of portal venous perfusion by removing the contribution of the hepatic artery from the liver contrast concentration-time curve by subtracting from it a scaled splenic contrast concentration-time curve. This is because the spleen is predominantly supplied by the aorta and not by the portal vein. Using the arterially subtracted liver contrast concentration-time curve, the portal venous perfusion is estimated by dividing the maximum slope of the arterially subtracted liver curve by the peak portal enhancement. This more direct method of estimating portal vascular contribution has also been advocated by Tsushima *et al.*¹⁹. However, liver arterial perfusion can be estimated in a similar way as proposed by Miles *et al.*²¹.

The key advantage of using model-free approaches is that they are relatively easy to derive and do not require complex computation.

Understanding tracer kinetic modeling for perfusion MRI

Applying tracer kinetic modeling enables quantitative vascular information to be extracted from temporally sampled MRI data, when the passage of contrast medium through the liver parenchyma or tumor is observed over time. Generally, an assumption is made that the imaged voxel contains a supplying impermeable artery that leads to a permeable capillary that leaks tracer (gadolinium contrast) into the interstitial space (Figure 5). The tracer is cleared from the voxel *via* an impermeable vein. However, the vessels and the interstitial space are beyond the resolution of the MRI scanner to directly image. What is measured by the MRI scanner is the average concentration of the tracer at any one time (reflected by the measured signal intensity) within the image voxel, which changes as contrast medium courses through.

Tracer kinetic modeling uses mathematical curve fitting to describe the tissue contrast concentration-time curves. If the contrast concentration-time curve of the vascular supply is known (arterial input function), subsequent mathematical operations by convolution or deconvolution allow quantitative vascular parameters to be derived that best fit the tumor or tissue contrast

concentration-time curves. Such an approach could be applied to tumor and non-tumor tissues, although the mathematical and pathophysiological assumptions may be different for each. Using one particular kinetic model (e.g. distributed parameter model), quantitative parameters such as hepatic arterial flow, portal venous flow, fraction of total flow contributed by hepatic artery, capillary permeability-surface area product (PS), percentage of intravascular space (v_1), percentage of interstitial space (v_2), and mean transit time (MTT) are derived. However, depending on the mathematical model applied and physiological assumptions made, variants of such quantitative parameters are obtained. Hence, when applying tracer kinetic modeling to clinical studies, it is important to state the choice of kinetic model employed at the outset. Currently, there is no consensus as to which kinetic model is best suited to evaluate the liver, and development of an international consensus in this area would be welcomed.

It has been observed that a hypervascular tumor (usually a tumor with a larger vascular space relative to the interstitial space) shows a pattern of rapid arterial enhancement followed by washout, whereas a hypovascular tumor (usually a tumor with a larger interstitial space relative to the vascular space) shows progressive enhancement. These observations could also be explained by considering tracer kinetic modeling.

A hypervascular tumor is predominantly supplied directly by hepatic arterial neovessels. As the intravascular space is relatively larger than the interstitial space, the average concentration imaged by the voxel predominantly reflects changes in the intravascular space. In such lesions, there is rapid and strong enhancement in the arterial phase. However, in the equilibrium phase, the contrast redistributes to the interstitium and the rest of the body. This reduces the concentration of tracer in the tumor vascular space and is visualized as contrast wash-out within the voxel.

A hypovascular tumor may be supplied by the hepatic artery and the portal vein. As the interstitial space is relatively larger than the intravascular space, the averaged contrast medium concentration within the image voxel predominantly reflects changes in the interstitial space. Hence, there is faint enhancement in the arterial phase as contrast agent diffuses into the relatively large interstitial space. With continued blood flow in the portal venous phase, more contrast medium diffuses outwards and the concentration in the interstitium increases. In the equilibrium phase, although the tracer concentration in the vascular space has reduced due to redistribution to the rest of the body, it is still higher than the concentration in the tumor interstitium. Hence, there may even be a net efflux of contrast medium into the interstitium in the equilibrium phase, and such a tumor may demonstrate a pattern of progressive enhancement.

Clearly, the above explanations could be simplistic, as other measurement factors determine the degree of tumor enhancement. Nevertheless, these descriptions

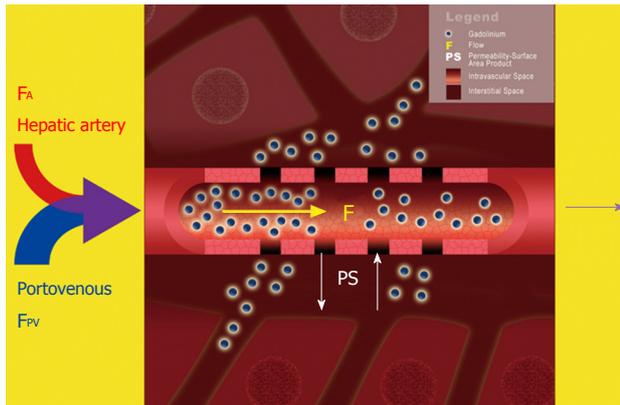


Figure 5 Schematic diagram illustrating a dual-input dual-compartment tracer kinetic model. Dual blood supply carrying gadolinium contrast molecules (blue spheres) from the hepatic artery (F_A) and portal vein (F_{PV}) enters the hepatic sinusoids (intra-vascular space). From here, the contrast molecules can leak outwards into the Space of Disse (interstitial space). Using a dual-input, dual compartment tracer kinetic model allows the estimation of intra-vascular properties (e.g. blood flow, F), as well as characteristics of the interstitial space (e.g. PS).

can help us to appreciate how the pathophysiological differences in different disease processes could account for their imaging behavior.

Model-based vascular quantification

Several kinetic models are currently in use for the assessment of liver perfusion. A detailed mathematical analysis of these is beyond the scope of this review. Kinetic models applied to the liver vary according to the physiological assumptions made, and can broadly differ in the following ways.

Single-input vs dual-input: Single-input models assume that the vascular input is derived from the hepatic artery only, whereas dual-input models assume that the vascular input is derived from both the hepatic artery and the portal vein. Dual-input models are more physiological, although in tumors, where the blood supply is highly arterialized, assumption of a single vascular input may suffice to approximate the vascular behavior.

Single-compartment vs dual-compartment: Single compartment models assume that the contrast is confined to only one compartment (i.e. vascular space), whereas dual compartment models assume that there is dynamic distribution of contrast between two compartments (i.e. the vascular space and the interstitial space). Single-compartment models are computationally simpler and could be applied as an approximation for the normal liver, because the Space of Disse communicates freely with the sinusoids. Dual-compartment models are computationally more demanding but may give a better reflection of the microcirculation of the diseased liver, resulting from tumor or cirrhosis^[4,20] (Figure 6).

Conventional compartment (CC) model vs distributed parameter (DP) model: In several kinetic models,

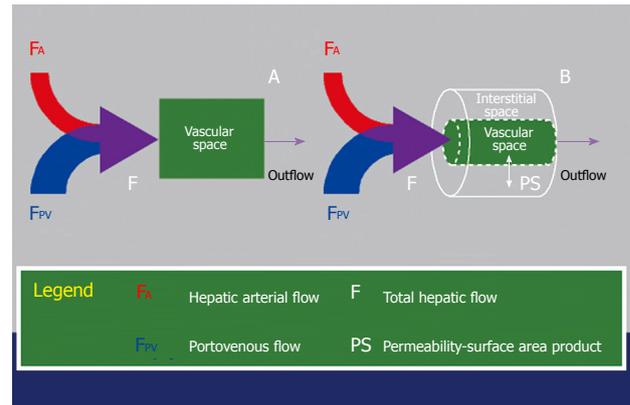


Figure 6 Schematic diagram illustrating the key difference between a single-compartment model (A) and a dual-compartment tracer kinetic model (B). Using a single-compartment model, only the vascular compartment is considered and kinetic properties related to this (e.g. blood flow, F) can be estimated. The behavior of the normal liver can be approximated by a single-compartment model. Using a dual-compartment model, kinetic properties that describe the interstitial space (e.g. PS) can be quantified in addition. In disease states (e.g. liver cirrhosis and tumors), the vascular behavior of these tissues are better described using a dual-compartment model.

the assumption is made that there is instantaneous mixing or equilibrium of the contrast medium along the entire course of a vessel. We term these as CC models. One example of a CC model is Toft's model^[21]. Another approach takes into account a concentration gradient within the vascular space. This approach is called the DP model. CC models are simpler to implement and computationally easier to solve but make more assumptions about the microcirculation. By comparison, DP models are more complex, which attempts to make fewer assumptions about the microcirculation, but are computationally more intensive and require higher temporal resolution data to derive meaningful results.

Derived microcirculatory parameters: Generally, dual compartment models are necessary to extract parameters that describe the interstitial space, e.g. v_2 , PS and extraction fraction (EF) using the DP model; or extracellular extravascular volume using the Toft's model. Such parameters cannot be derived using a single-compartment model. Single compartment models allow for estimates of blood flow, volume of distribution and mean transit time.

Clearly, the choice of the kinetic model depends on many factors including local expertise, available software to perform the perfusion analysis, understanding of the disease pathophysiology, MRI measurement technique applied, and the quality (spatial and temporal resolution) of the MRI data. At the time of writing, only a few commercial softwares are available to undertake such analyses, and many research groups are therefore reliant on self-scripted software for data evaluation. Not surprisingly, this has led to disparate efforts in developing analysis tools, which are often institution-specific and non-standardized. The lack of standardization in the methodologies applied

Table 2 Examples of the types of tracer kinetic models that have been applied for perfusion MRI of the liver

Study	Diseases	Comment
Single-input, single compartment, CC model		
Scharf <i>et al.</i> ^[48]	Preclinical study in pigs	Experimental model of normal liver in pigs. Only arterial input from hepatic artery taken into account. Such a model may lack physiological realism, especially when there is substantial vascular input contribution from the portal vein
Single-input, dual-compartment, DP model		
Sahani <i>et al.</i> ^[30]	HCC	Single input assumed because majority of vascular input to HCC is derived from hepatic artery. Dual-compartment model used to probe interstitial space and PS, which can be substantial in tumors. DP model implemented as standard on General Electric (GE) perfusion software 2.0 used for analysis
Dual-input, single-compartment, CC model		
Materne <i>et al.</i> ^[45-47]	Normal and cirrhotic livers	Assumption of single compartment based on understanding that the fenestra in the sinusoids of liver are extremely porous and allows free exchange of low-molecular-weight contrast tracers between the vascular and the sinusoidal interstitial space. To simplify calculations, assumption was made that there was instantaneous mixing of contrast medium from the dual input ^[6,7,27,45-47,49] within the single compartment. In this way, quantitative parameters such as arterial perfusion, portal venous perfusion, MTT and volume of distribution (Ve) could be derived. Cuenod <i>et al.</i> ^[27,49] applied a deconvolution technique to fit these parameters, and variants of such a model were also used by Funabasam <i>et al.</i> ^[50] and Miyazaki <i>et al.</i> ^[51]
Cuenod <i>et al.</i> ^[27,49]	Metastatic disease	
Dual-input, dual-compartment, DP model		
Koh <i>et al.</i> ^[4,20]	Metastases, HCC and cirrhosis	The DP model applies a concentration gradient within the vascular space. Parameters derived include, arterial flow, portal venous flow, fractional arterial flow, permeability, fractional intravascular space, fractional interstitial space, MTT, contrast arrival time. A dual-input dual-compartment approximation of the DP model is used commercially (CT Perfusion 3.0; General Electric, Milwaukee, USA) and was also adopted by Chen <i>et al.</i> ^[42,52,53] in perfusion studies of the liver

CC: Conventional compartment; HCC: Hepatocellular carcinoma; DP: Distributed parameter; MTT: Mean transit time; CT: Computed tomography.

for data analysis is an acknowledged issue by researchers in the field, and there is fortunately increasing international efforts towards the harmonization and standardization of imaging acquisition and data analysis. Such developments are paramount for the wider clinical adoption of the technique and institution-vendor partnerships are being developed to address such challenges.

Some of the kinetic modeling approaches that have been applied in the published literature are summarized in Table 2.

CLINICAL APPLICATIONS OF PERFUSION MRI IN THE LIVER

Liver metastases

Model-free approach: Several studies have demonstrated the potential of perfusion imaging to detect changes in the liver of patients at risk of liver metastases. Totman *et al.*^[22] have shown that there is a difference in the portal perfusion index (PPI) between patients with and without cancer. Leggett *et al.*^[11] have observed that the HPI is elevated in patients with overt metastases compared with those without metastases. In another study, Tsushima *et al.*^[23] have found that the normal looking liver in a patient with liver metastases shows a reduction in the PPI, which suggests that there is potential for using liver perfusion studies to detect microscopic metastases. These cross-sectional imaging observations have been corroborated by nuclear scintigraphy studies^[24,25]. Despite the reported relationship between high HPI and low PPI with increased likelihood of liver micrometastases in patients with cancer, few studies have had longitudinal follow-up to validate the subsequent development of macroscopic liver metastases. For example, in the study by Leggett

et al.^[11], follow-up data were only available in eight patients, of which three who subsequently developed macroscopic liver metastases showed decreased portal perfusion. Although there is great potential to use liver perfusion studies to detect or predict microscopic liver metastases, more work involving longitudinal studies is required to establish its clinical role (Figure 7).

Meijerink *et al.*^[26] have found functional liver perfusion maps to be helpful supplements to the routine radiological diagnosis of liver metastases. Compared with routine four-phase CT, total-liver-volume CT perfusion studies with calculation of the HPI increased the sensitivity of metastases detection to 89.2% from 78.4% and specificity to 82.6% from 78.3%. Four out of a total of 37 metastases were detected with the help of perfusion maps. Perfusion CT maps increase the conspicuity of metastatic disease because of the increased perfusion at the tumor rims, which makes liver metastases appear larger, thus facilitating the detection of smaller lesions.

Model-based approach: There have been few studies using a model-based approach for evaluating liver metastases. Cuenod *et al.*^[27] have applied a dual-input single-compartment model in rats and have observed that the presence of micrometastases in an apparently macroscopically normal liver resulted in a 34% decrease in portal blood flow and a 25% increase in the MTT for blood to pass through the liver. The changes were similar for macrometastases but more marked.

Koh *et al.*^[20] have employed a dual-input dual-compartment DP model in three patients with liver metastases for a technical validation study. Using the particular model, they found that the normal liver had near zero interstitial space volume and PS (which may be explained by the

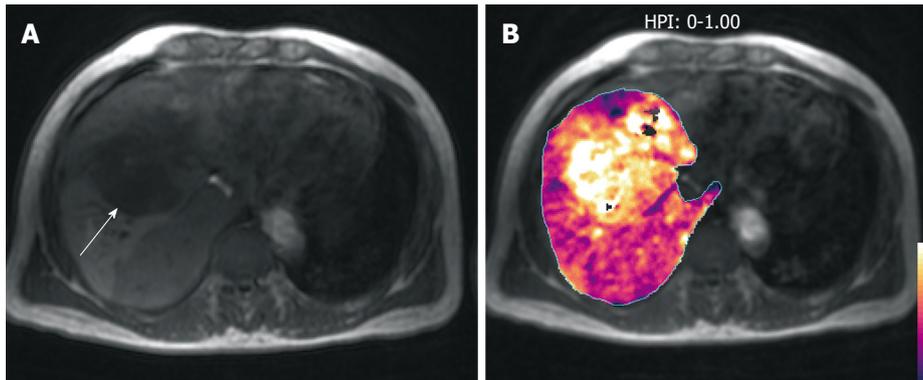


Figure 7 A middle-aged man with colorectal liver metastases to the liver. A: T1-weighted axial MR image demonstrates a hypointense liver metastasis in the right liver lobe (arrow); B: HPI map (calculated by the method described by Miles *et al.*^[2]) overlaid on the T1-weighted image shows increased HPI within the metastasis, typical of malignant disease.

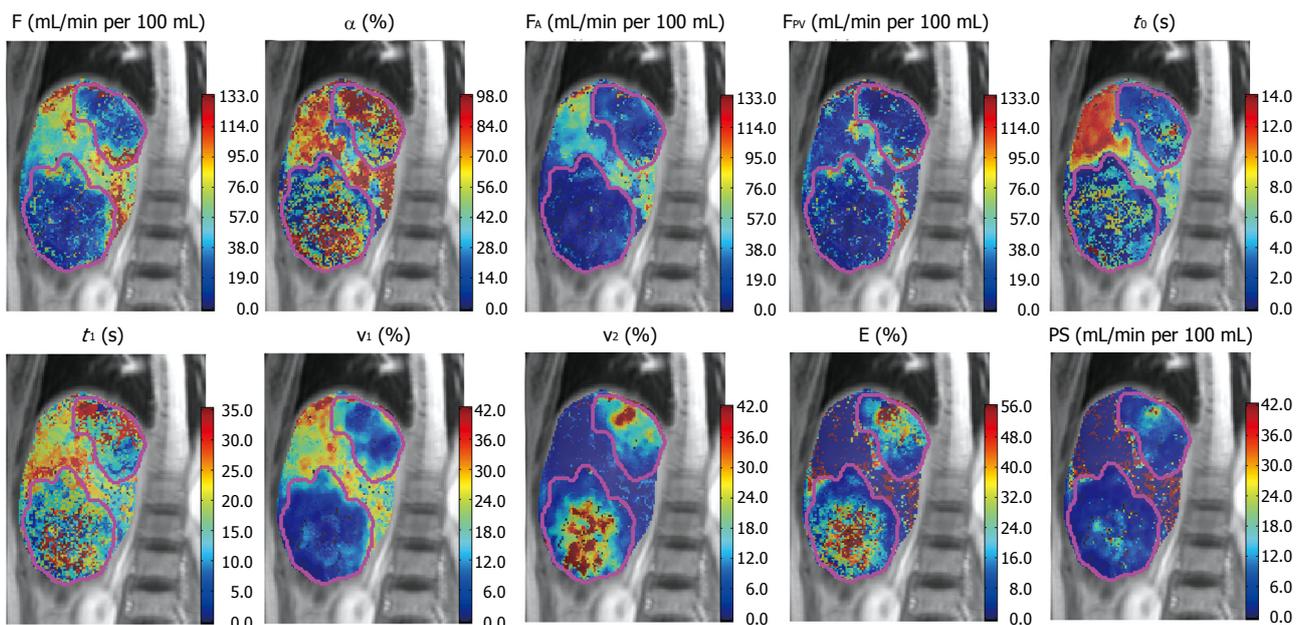


Figure 8 Parametric maps of a patient with colorectal metastases derived from a dual-input, dual-compartment, DP tracer kinetic model. F (blood flow), α (arterial fraction, or % hepatic arterial flow from total hepatic blood flow), F_A (hepatic arterial blood flow), F_{PV} (hepatic portal venous blood flow), t_0 (contrast arrival time), t_1 (MTT), v_1 (fractional intravascular volume), v_2 (fractional interstitial volume), E (extraction fraction), PS (permeability-surface area product). Note that in the two liver metastases demonstrated (outlined in pink), the lesions were characterized by lower total blood flow, but higher arterial fraction and fractional interstitial volume.

large fenestrae allowing free contrast medium exchange between the Space of Disse and the liver sinusoids), and that liver metastases have a non-zero and finite interstitial space volume and PS. Using this quantitative technique, there is an increase in the arterial fraction (arterial flow/sum of arterial and portal flow) to the metastases, although the portal flow remains significant (Figure 8). These observations of the difference in kinetic modeling behavior between the normal liver and liver metastases are supported by histopathological observations reported by Liu and Matsui^[12]. Thus, the dual-input dual-compartment DP model appears to have the potential to characterize microcirculatory pathophysiology but larger studies are required to confirm the initial findings.

HCC

Model-free approach: Abdullah *et al.*^[28] have studied the differences between colorectal metastases and HCC and have found no significant difference in HPI between the two malignant entities. However, there is an increase in

arterial flow, portal flow, and total blood flow in HCC compared to colorectal metastases. The distribution volume is also observed to be higher in HCC.

Model-based approach: Fournier *et al.*^[29] have applied the dual-input single-compartment model in a rat HCC model and have found that HCC is characterized by higher arterial flow and lower portal flow.

Sahani *et al.*^[30] have employed a single-input dual-compartment DP model in patients with HCC and have found that blood flow, blood volume and PS are higher in well-differentiated HCC compared with moderately or poorly differentiated HCC, which suggests that such vascular quantification could yield information on tumor grade.

Koh *et al.*^[4] have used the dual-input dual-compartment DP model in four patients with HCC and have measured the fractional interstitial space and associated extravasation parameters (PS and extraction ratio). HCC is characterized by increased arterial flow, increased total blood flow,

as well as early contrast agent arrival time. The early arrival of contrast agent is postulated to be related to arteriogenesis and direct tumor supply by branches of the hepatic artery. Tumor vascularity (fractional intravascular volume) was higher for two out of four patients. Portal venous flow decreased but remained significant. The derived microcirculatory parameters were supported by histopathological findings of arteriogenesis in HCC^[15,31]. Together with other imaging modalities such as diffusion-weighted MRI, MR perfusion imaging has the potential to contribute significantly to the multi-parameteric functional assessment of the liver to improve the diagnosis and characterization of HCC^[32].

Assessment of treatment response

Anti-angiogenic agents have emerged as a class of anti-tumor agents that target tumor vasculature. The rationale of anti-angiogenic therapy is based on the observation that tumors require new blood vessels for growth and survival. Based on the diffusion distances of oxygen and nutrients, tumor cells cannot survive if they are further than 2 mm from a blood vessel. Thus, effective anti-angiogenic therapy acts by depriving a growing tumor of its nutrients, and can thus curb the growth of the primary tumor as well as its metastasis.

However, current methods of assessing efficacy of chemotherapy, such as the Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumors (RECIST), are based on observing a decrease in tumor size^[33]. Effective anti-angiogenic therapy often manifests as lack of tumor growth rather than decrease in tumor size because the therapy is not cytotoxic. Hence, there is a need for a reliable response biomarker to assess the efficacy of such therapy.

The challenge for a reliable response biomarker holds true for HCC that is treated by local tumor ablation. Ablated tumor differs from viable tumor in its blood supply. Previous international consensus conferences have recommended that the RECIST criteria be modified for HCC to assess only the viable tumor^[34-36]. Viable tumor is defined as tumor that shows enhancement in the arterial phase. Thus, MR perfusion imaging also has the potential to provide valuable functional information that can be used to distinguish viable tumor from necrosis in HCC^[37].

Model-free approach: Wang *et al.*^[38] have analyzed the arterial uptake slope in MR liver perfusion studies of patients with HCC treated with thalidomide. They have found that there was a greater decrease in the peak enhancement, maximum enhancement, and slope of enhancement in patients without disease progression compared to those who progressed on treatment. Miyazaki *et al.*^[39] have applied HPI to assess the efficacy of anti-angiogenic therapy in patients with liver metastases and have found a median 15% decrease in HPI at 28 d after anti-angiogenic treatment in patients who responded to treatment. In another study, Meijerink *et al.*^[40] have evaluated liver HPI and have found that HPI decreased in liver tumor treated with combination anti-angiogenic therapy with AZD2171 and gefitinib. However, most of these

studies involved relatively small numbers of patients, and more studies are therefore required to establish whether MR liver perfusion indices can serve as a reliable response biomarker for anti-angiogenic drug therapy.

Meijerink *et al.*^[41] also have evaluated HPI for assessing local recurrence in liver metastases treated with RFA. The authors have found that an increase in HPI parallels disease recurrence detection by ¹⁸F-fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography.

Model-based approach: There are few published studies that have applied a model-based approach for the evaluation of treatment response in hepatic malignancy. Chen *et al.*^[42] have studied the effects of transarterial chemo-embolization using a dual-input dual-compartment DP model and have found that the hepatic arterial fraction, hepatic arterial perfusion, and hepatic blood volume are significantly reduced by effective embolization. These indices could also help to indicate the presence of viable tumor. The potential of using model-based approaches for assessing the effects of anti-angiogenic or antivascular treatment is currently being investigated (Figure 9).

Cirrhosis

Model-free approach: Increase in hepatic arterial perfusion and decrease in portal venous perfusion have been reported in perfusion scintigraphy studies in patients with liver cirrhosis^[43]. Miles *et al.*^[2] and Blomley *et al.*^[3] also have found an increase in HPI and decreased PPI respectively in cirrhotic liver.

Model-based approach: Guan *et al.*^[44] have applied a dual-input dual-compartment DP model in rats treated with diethylnitrosamine. As diethylnitrosamine induces a continuum of hepatitis, hepatic fibrosis and eventually cirrhosis, a gradual increase in hepatic arterial flow and MTT are observed across these groups, accompanied by a corresponding gradual decrease in blood volume and blood flow.

Koh *et al.*^[4] have utilized a dual-input dual-compartment DP model and have found that cirrhotic livers return a measurable fractional interstitial space, whereas normal liver shows a near-zero fractional interstitial space. In another study, Hashimoto *et al.*^[5] have applied a dual-input dual-compartment DP model and have found that the hepatic arterial fraction increases with the extent of fibrosis and cirrhosis.

The use of a single-compartment kinetic model has also been found to be useful for the assessment of liver cirrhosis.

Annet *et al.*^[6] have investigated a dual-input single-compartment CC model and have found that the microcirculatory parameters derived from such a technique correlate with the severity of cirrhosis and portal pressure. The measured portal pressure, a reflection of the degree of portal hypertension, is correlated with the calculated portal fraction, portal perfusion and MTT. Furthermore, the severity of cirrhosis as assessed by Child-Pugh class has been found to correlate with portal fraction, portal

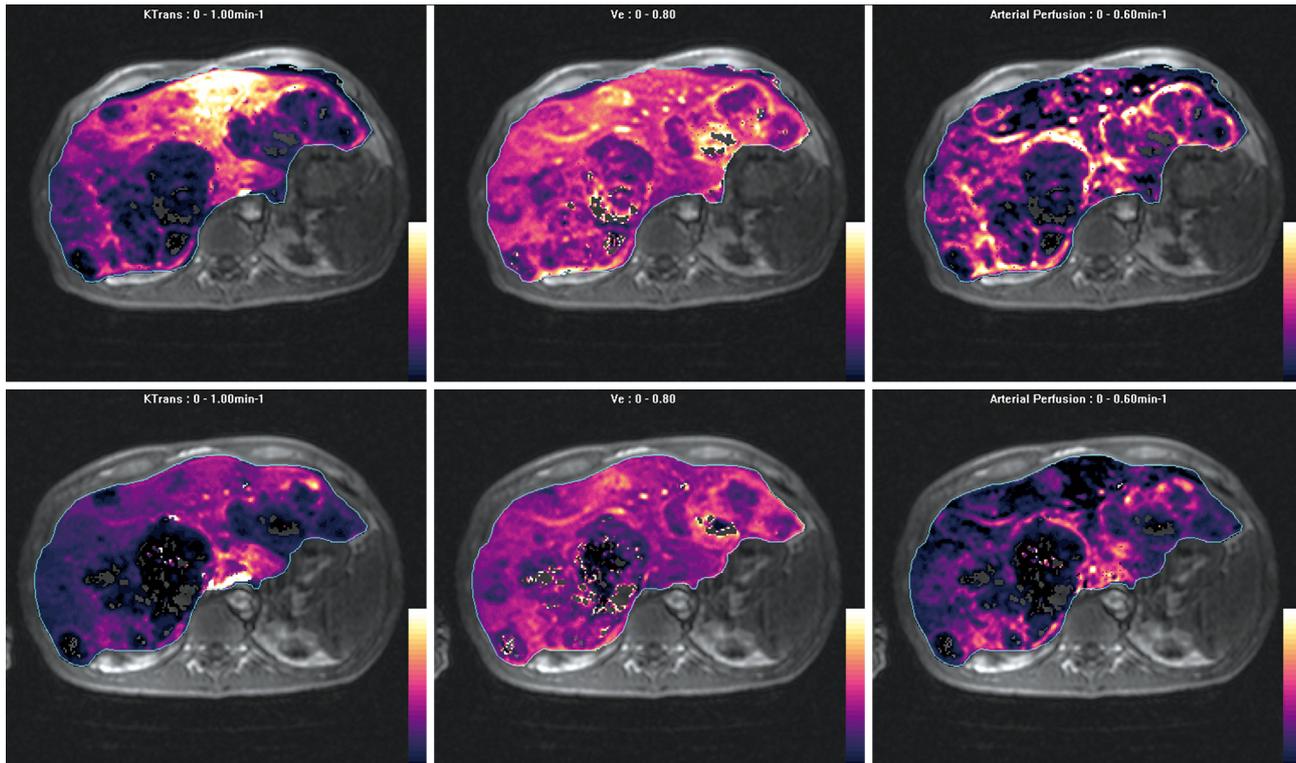


Figure 9 Parametric maps of efflux constant (Ktrans), extravascular extracellular space (Ve) and arterial perfusion fraction before (top row) and after (bottom row) anti-angiogenic therapy obtained using a dual-input, single-compartment, conventional compartment model (after Materne *et al*^[46]). Note multiple metastases in the liver, which are largely hypovascular but show increased arterial perfusion at the edge of the lesions. The metastases also show moderate Ve. After treatment with anti-angiogenic drug, arterial perfusion is reduced at the tumor rims, also with a decrease in tumor Ve. The Ktrans in the left lobe of the liver is also decreased, which may reflect drug effects on microscopic disease.

perfusion, arterial perfusion and MTT. Cirrhotic livers have shown an increase in arterial perfusion, decrease in portal perfusion, decrease in total blood flow, and an increase in MTT.

These findings can be corroborated with other published studies. In an earlier study by Van Beers *et al*^[71], a cutoff threshold of 22.6 s for the MTT in the liver enabled the diagnosis of liver cirrhosis to be made with a sensitivity and specificity of 81%. In another study, Hagiwara *et al*^[81] have used a dual-input single-compartment CC model and have found that there was an increase in the arterial blood flow, arterial fraction, distribution volume, and MTT in patients with advanced hepatic fibrosis. Receiver operating curve analysis has shown that the MTT, distribution volume and arterial flow are good predictive parameters with an area under the receiver operating characteristic curves that ranges from 0.791 to 0.824, and reported sensitivity of 76.9%-84.6% and specificity of 71.4%-78.5%. Thus, MR liver perfusion appears to be a promising method for the non-invasive diagnosis of liver cirrhosis and for assessing the severity of the condition.

CONCLUSION

MR liver perfusion imaging provides functional information about the microcirculation of liver parenchyma and focal liver lesions and appears to be a promising technique for evaluating liver metastases and HCC;

for assessing the efficacy of anti-angiogenic or local tumor ablation therapy; and for diagnosing cirrhosis and assessing its severity. However, standardization of imaging acquisition and analysis techniques need to be actively addressed for the technique to be widely adopted.

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Techniques for colorectal anastomosis

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Abstract

Colorectal anastomotic leak remains one of the most feared post-operative complications, particularly after anterior resection of the rectum with, the shift from abdomino-peritoneal resections to total mesorectal excision and primary anastomosis. The literature fails to demonstrate superiority of stapled over hand-sewn techniques in colorectal anastomosis, regardless of the level of anastomosis, although a high stricture rate was noted in the former technique. Thus, improvements in safety aspects of anastomosis and alternatives to hand-sewn and stapled techniques are being sought. Here, we review alternative anastomotic techniques used to fashion bowel anastomosis. Compression anastomosis using compression anastomotic clips, endoluminal compression anastomotic rings, AKA-2, biofragmental anastomotic rings, or Magnamosis all involve the concept of creating a sutureless end-to-end anastomosis by compressing two bowel ends together, leading to a simultaneous necrosis and healing process that joins the two lumens. Staple line reinforcement is a new approach that reduce the drawbacks of staplers used in colorectal practice, i.e. leakage, bleeding, misfiring, and inadequate tissue approximation. Various non-absorbable, semi or fully absorbable materials are now available. Two other techniques can provide alternative anastomotic support to the suture line: a colorectal

drain and a polyester stent, which can be utilized in ultra-low rectal excision and can negate the formation of a defunctioning stoma. Doxycycline coated sutures have been used to overcome the post-operative weakness in anastomosis secondary to rapid matrix degradation mediated by matrix metalloproteinase. Another novel technique, the electric welding system, showed promising results in construction of a safe, neat, smooth sutureless bowel anastomosis. Various anastomotic techniques have been shown to be comparable to the standard techniques of suturing and stapling. However, most of these alternatives need to be accepted and optimized for future use.

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Key words: Alternative anastomosis; Compression anastomotic clip; Compression anastomotic ring; Bio-fragmental anastomotic ring; AKA-2; Magnamosis (magnetic anastomosis); Matrix metallo-proteinase; Sutureless

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INTRODUCTION

Since the first reports of laparoscopic colectomy in the 1990's, this technique has matured into a well-developed mode of therapy. It has introduced the colorectal surgical world to the advantages, and the unique perspectives and concerns of minimal access surgery. Colorectal anastomotic leakage remains one of the most feared post-operative complications, particularly after anterior resection of the rectum, with the shift from abdomino-peritoneal resections to total mesorectal excision and primary

anastomosis. It is also associated with a higher local recurrence rate and lower long-term survival. Moreover, long-term functional outcome might be adversely affected by anastomotic leakage^[1-4]. The importance of surgical technique is underscored by the wide variations of anastomotic leakage rates among surgeons. The frequency of anastomotic leakage ranges from 1% to 24%^[5-7]. The rate of leakage is generally considered to be higher for elective rectal anastomosis (12% to 19%) than for colonic anastomosis (11%)^[8-10].

PHYSIOLOGY OF GASTROINTESTINAL HEALING

Better appreciation of the principles of intestinal healing will lead to a better adoption of techniques to overcome the risk factors inherent to the laparoscopic approach and hence anastomotic dehiscence. The environment for wound healing is substantially different in an anastomosis, due to the presence of shear stress (secondary to intraluminal bulk transit and peristalsis), as well as the presence of aerobic and anaerobic bacteria.

The process of intestinal anastomotic healing can be arbitrarily divided into an acute inflammatory (lag) phase, a proliferative phase, and, finally, a remodeling or maturation phase. Collagen is the single most important molecule for determining intestinal wall strength, which makes its metabolism of particular interest for understanding anastomotic healing. After surgery, degradation of mature collagen begins in the first 24 h and predominates for the first four days. This is caused by the upregulation of matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), which are an important class of enzymes involved in collagen metabolism. *In vivo* use of MMP inhibitors has been found to increase the strength of intestinal anastomoses by up to 48% at postoperative day three, which suggests that these enzymes are important in determining the risk of leakage. By postoperative day seven, collagen synthesis takes over, especially proximal to the anastomosis. After five to six weeks, there is no significant increase in the amount of collagen in a healing wound or anastomosis, though turnover and, thus synthesis, are extensive. The strength of the scar continues to increase progressively with time. The orientation and the cross-linking between collagen fibers maintain the tensile strength of the tissues^[11,12].

Bursting pressure is used as a quantitative measure to grade the strength of an anastomosis *in vivo*. This pressure has been found to increase rapidly in the early postoperative period, reaching 60% of the strength of the surrounding bowel by three to four days and 100% by 1 wk^[11]. In 1887, Halsted^[13] discovered that the submucosa provides the GI tract with the majority of its tensile strength. The bulk of collagen is contained within this layer, along with blood vessels, lymphatics, and nerve fibers. Type I collagen predominates (68%), followed by type III collagen (20%), and type V collagen (12%). The serosa is a thin layer of connective tissue that covers the muscularis propria. When creating an anastomosis, direct

apposition of this layer minimizes the risk of leakage^[14,15]. During the first postoperative days, anastomotic strength is limited, and hence the risk of wound failure is greatest, as collagen breakdown increases. Early anastomotic strength is therefore dependent on the suture- or staple-holding capacity of existing collagen, until a large amount of new collagen can be synthesized by both fibroblasts and smooth muscle cells. Postoperatively, anastomosis will be weak for one or two days until this occurs^[16-19].

FASHIONING ANASTOMOSES

Over the past two decades, numerous different materials have been used to join one bowel end to another, including catgut, stainless steel, and newer monofilamentous and absorbable sutures. In the past 30 years, stapling devices have been embraced enthusiastically by the surgical community^[11]. However, the choice of either technique in fashioning anastomoses is a matter of controversy among various schools^[18].

Apart from inert substances, most foreign materials will evoke an inflammatory reaction in the human body and surgical sutures are no exception. It is now known that silk has the ability to evoke an inflammatory reaction that can persist for weeks after implantation. Substances such as polypropylene (Prolene), catgut, and polyglycolic acid (Dexon) evoke a milder response. There is little difference between absorbable and nonabsorbable sutures with respect to the strength of the anastomosis^[11].

STAPLING

Surgical stapling devices were first introduced by Hülth, Humer (Budapest) in 1908; but their use has grown since the introduction of new and reliable disposable instruments in the past 30 years^[11]. However despite comparable results in terms of mortality, anastomotic dehiscence, and wound infection, the rate of stricture at the anastomotic site is considerably higher with staples than with sutures: 8% *vs* 2%, respectively, for colorectal anastomosis^[20].

Lim *et al*^[21] confirmed the presence of foreign body reaction in stapled human GI anastomoses. The source of the foreign materials eliciting this reaction was the stapler cartridges.

The literature fails to demonstrate superiority of stapled over hand-sewn techniques in colorectal anastomosis, regardless of the level of anastomosis, although a high stricture rate was noted with the former technique.

The use of staplers for intraperitoneal anastomosis has been questioned^[20]; Matos systematically reviewed (Cochrane Database) nine studies involving 1233 patients (622 stapled and 611 hand-sewn) and found that overall leaks were 13% *vs* 13.4%, clinical 6.3% *vs* 7.1%, radiological 7.8% *vs* 7.2%. There was insufficient evidence to demonstrate superiority of either technique^[20]. The decision over which technique to use must be judged on the basis of previous experience, clinical circumstances, and available resources. Another systematic review showed that both techniques (stapler *vs* Hand-sewn) are effective,

and the choice may be based on personal preference^[22]. Other prospective and randomized trials have shown different results. No significance intergroup difference was found in regard to time for anastomosis construction or occurrence of complications in colorectal anastomosis^[23]. In addition, the routine use of stapling instruments for infraperitoneal colorectal anastomosis could not be recommended because of a higher incidence of mishaps and strictures, even though the operation took less time to perform and anastomotic leakage occurred less often^[24].

Therefore, there is an ongoing search for an ideal method of anastomosis that would not only lower the incidence of dangerous complications, but also avoid the need for a defunctioning colostomy or ileostomy. Based on the aforementioned data, there is still controversy between surgeons.

It is therefore necessary to review all relevant studies and trials to resolve this issue. Multi-center, well-designed, randomized controlled trials are required to build a link between new technology and practice. As technology advances, the use of newer techniques should allow improvements in the quality of patient care.

COMPRESSION ANASTOMOSIS

Connecting sections of the intestine after the surgical removal of a diseased portion has been the subject of research and invention since the 19th century. The goal has been to find a method to eliminate the leakage associated with anastomosis. The principle of compression anastomosis consists of two opposing rings trapping the cut ends of the transected bowel with subsequent ischemia and eventual sloughing of the trapped bowel, thus releasing the rings into the fecal stream^[25]. Despite its technical safety, it was not accepted^[26].

The idea of compression anastomosis was first reported in 1826 by Denan, who conceived a sutureless bowel anastomosis that encompassed the inverting technique proposed by Lembert. The idea was to compress two bowel walls together and cause a simultaneous necrosis and healing process leading to the joining of the two lumens. In 1892, Murphy introduced a mechanical device known as “Murphy’s button” that was used for years^[27].

It comprises a pair of metal rings that hold circular segments of intestine together under continuous pressure; the rings are expelled several days after surgery. However, its clinical success was limited and the results were mediocre. Moreover, it was a metallic foreign body that remained in the lumen of the bowel for several days until it was spontaneously discharged from the body with the necrotic tissues^[28].

In the 1980s a device comprising two magnetic rings was used for intestinal anastomosis, but this concept was not further pursued^[29].

In 1984, Kanshin *et al*^[30] developed the AKA-2 device (Seidel Medipool, Munich, Germany) for colorectal surgery. In 1985, Hardy *et al*^[31] introduced the Valtrac biofragmentable anastomotic ring (BAR) (Davis and

Geck/Cyanamid, Danbury, CT). Numerous publications, including prospective randomized controlled trials (RCTs), reported that the BAR was safe and efficacious in both emergency and elective surgery^[31-39]. Both devices adopted the concept of compression anastomosis, and incorporated some of the basic features of Murphy’s button. However, in contrast to the BAR, the AKA-2 ring is not absorbable and it is usually disconnected from the anastomosis after four to six days. In addition, it was made exclusively for transanal application^[40].

Years later a novel device for performing compression anastomosis using the shape memory alloy (SMA) of nickel-titanium was introduced. The device is available both as a clip (Compression Anastomosis Clip or CAC, NiTi Medical Technologies, Netanya, Israel), and as a ring (Compression Anastomosis Ring or CAR, NiTi Medical Technologies). After approximately one week, the entire device, together with the necrosed tissue, detaches and is naturally expelled from the body^[41-44]. A summary of the four main types of compression devices is presented in Table 1.

CLASSIFICATION OF DIFFERENT COMPRESSION DEVICES

Valtrac™ BAR

Valtrac™ BAR is composed of two segments containing absorbable polyglycolic acid (87.5%) and barium sulfate (12.5%). It comes in a size range (25, 28, 31, and 34 mm). The two components interdigitate on a central frame; a 6-mm gap is seen between the scalloped edges of the BAR in the open position, and a 1.5-mm, 2-mm, or 2.5-mm gap is made in the fully closed position to accommodate different thicknesses of bowel wall. This also limits the amount of tissue necrosis^[45].

Each ring is securely placed into the cut bowel ends with the aid of a purse-string suture, and the device snapped shut. Between two and three weeks after the operation, the BAR rings fragment and are passed into the stool. This results in the production of a sutureless, inverted, serosa-to-serosa intestinal anastomosis^[46]. The BAR has been used for construction of various types of anastomosis, including procedures involving the upper and lower GI tract. Prior to the development of the transanal applicator, early studies often excluded patients with low rectal anastomosis^[47].

In a randomized control trial comparing BAR with stapling devices in extra-peritoneal mid-rectal anastomosis, surgeons did not consider the use of BAR to be more difficult than a stapled anastomosis. The time required to create a BAR anastomosis was slightly shorter than the time needed for a stapled anastomosis, although this was not statistically significant. The overall operating time, intraoperative blood loss, and postoperative complication rates were similar with both anastomotic techniques^[48]. Correspondingly, there were no statistical differences in the complication rates between the BAR and a sutured anastomosis in elective and emergency procedures^[48].

Table 1 Characteristics of the four main compression devices

	BAR	AKA-2	CAC	EndoCAR ²⁷
Absorbable	Yes	No	No	No
Application	Laparoscopy, laparoscopy, transanal	Transanal	Laparotomy, laparoscopy, hand-assisted lap	Laparotomy, laparoscopy, hand-assisted lap
Internal Lumen	11-20	25, 28, 31	8	One ring size (27 mm) replaces a number of competitive sizes (25-34 mm)
Average time to expulsion (d)	14-21	4-6	7	7-10
Type of surgery				
Elective/emergency	Yes/yes	Yes/yes	Yes/no	Yes/no
Foreign body reaction	No	Possible to metal pins	No	No
Tissue healing	Extensive fibrosis/may cause stricture	Extensive fibrosis/may cause stricture	Primary intention/no strictures reported	Primary intention/no strictures reported (recovery of multi-layer lumen structure)
Anastomotic index	Lumen capacity depends upon standardized ring size		Full lumen capacity within 8-12 wk	
Efficacy	Safe and secure and can be applied to achieve multiple anastomosis (in case requiring rapidity and security)			
Learning curve ¹	Technically difficult than the other three devices		Technically simple after education	
Cost ²	About \$600	NA	About \$3	NA (however higher than conventional staples)
Tissue thickness accommodation	Selecting ring size to be compatible with diameter and thickness of bowel wall	Same as BAR	Only one size, shape memory alloy that accommodates varies tissue thickness. Unique thermo-mechanical properties and super elasticity	
Type of anastomosis	End-to-end, end-to-side, side-to-side		Side-to-side	End-to-end
Site of anastomosis	Suitable for intestinal, colonic and rectal anastomosis	Distal colon and rectal only	Intestinal, colonic and rectal anastomosis	

¹Galizia *et al*⁴⁷ described a learning curve of nine patients for BAR anastomosis. A meta-analysis of over 500 cases in North America, Europe and Israel, 75% of surgeons rated the CAR²⁷ device to be very easy or easy to use⁴⁸; ²Cost-effectiveness depend upon a number of factors namely learning curve and post operative morbidity. However, as multiple staplers are used for construction of most colonic/rectal anastomosis, there might be a cost advantage for compression devices. BAR: Biofragmentable anastomotic ring; CAC: Compression anastomotic clip.

An initial study with large animal models (300 dogs and 31 pigs) presented a randomized analysis of 28 pigs, comparing sutured, stapled and BAR anastomosis. They found the “Burst” pressure at day 0 was highest with the BAR and equal at days seven and 16 in all three types of anastomosis. The authors stated that the BAR anastomoses were performed more easily and quickly than the other two anastomoses. Microscopic examination also revealed the least amount of tissue necrosis for the BAR anastomosis⁴⁶.

In 1987, Hardy *et al*⁴⁹ published results of the first 27 patients who had colorectal anastomoses using the BAR device. They reported no difficulties and all patients tolerated a regular diet before fragmentation of the rings.

In the 1990s, the device gained popularity and a number of prospective studies confirmed that the results with the device were satisfactory, although there were reports of intraoperative problems, such as failure of the purse-string suture, incorrect estimation of the diameter of the colon lumen, subsequent mucosal tears, and failure of the device to lock. Many of these might simply have been because of the operator’s learning curve^[33,50-53].

Based on the previously mentioned studies, possible limitations of the device include: (1) Failure of purse string sutures; (2) Incorrect estimation of colon lumen diameter; (3) Subsequent mucosal tears; (4) Failure of the device to lock (the bowel might be contused by closing maneuver from outside the gut); (5) Excessive snapping

pressure could shatter the friable device; (6) fragmentation delay; (7) possibility of postoperative tenesmus and frequent stool passage before excretion of fragments; (8) bulky and uncomfortable device to deploy; and (9) potential risk of relative obstruction due to smaller inner diameter of the ring.

AKA-2

In 1984, Kanshin *et al*³⁰ developed the AKA-2 device (Seidel, Medipool) to address the transanal approach for compression anastomosis. The AKA-2 is composed of two rings: a base ring, which includes metal pins and metal springs, attached on a plastic ring (the “distal ring”), and a proximal plastic ring (the “proximal ring”). The rings are applied with a transanal applicator. The AKA-2 works on a similar principle to that of endoanal stapling devices, though the bowel edges are pressed together with intraluminal rings and held in place by metal pins. Circular blades cut the central cuff of bowel, and the metal pins ensure constant compression on the inverted bowel edges. The two plastic rings and the compressed resection margins separate from the anastomosis after four to six days and are expelled with the feces⁴⁶. The technique had an advantage in that it created a good lumen size for stool passage.

There is only one report in English of the use of this device⁴⁰; the majority of the literature being in Russian or German. A prospective audit presented the results of

442 patients undergoing colorectal surgery for benign and cancerous disease. There was a 5.4% overall complication rate, with 11 patients (2.5%) developing clinical features of an anastomotic leak, which is relatively low compared to other series using various anastomotic techniques^[48,49,54,55]. Fourteen of the 442 patients died (3.2%), of which three cases were related to anastomotic leak (0.7%). Among 442 patients who underwent AKA-2 anastomosis only two patients developed a stricture^[40].

The authors maintain that the advantage of this device is that it produces a good size lumen for the passage of feces. The plastic ring sizes are 25, 28, and 31 mm, respectively. In addition, necrosis of inverted resection margins is the only biological factor leading to the rejection of the plastic rings, which is an advantage in cases with delayed healing. However, early device exclusion raised the possibility of higher leak rate, as it is concurrent with the maximal breaking strength of anastomosis^[46].

Compression anastomotic clip

Nitinol^[60] (Nickel Titanium Naval Ordnance Laboratory), an alloy of nickel and titanium, is a temperature-dependent, shape-memory alloy (SMA) that has been used in the formation of compression anastomoses^[56]. The metal is shaped under high temperatures, and when it is ice cooled (to less than 0°C), it loses its rigidity and becomes flexible. At or above room temperature, it resumes its preset configuration. It has been used mostly for vascular prostheses, orthodontic braces, and for internal fixation of bone fractures for its inherent advantage of controlled compression with a constant force^[46].

The Nitinol CAC device (Niti Medical Technologies) has been approved by the food and drug administration (FDA) for use in GI surgery^[41]. The device consists of a double-ring that, in the open and flexible state (at 0°C), has a diameter of 30 mm and an opening angle of 30 degrees. At body temperature, the rings return to their closed configuration and hold bowel tissue under a constant compressive force, regardless of the thickness of intervening tissue. This leads to ischemia of the entrapped bowel wall and the formation of a compression anastomosis. The internal diameter of the rings is 8 mm, and is pierced by a 5-mm blade built into the applicator to restore bowel continuity in the early period. The device is elastic, pliable, and easy to manipulate^[46].

Initial reports on both animal and human studies using the CAC device to create a side-to-side anastomosis in upper and lower GI tracts revealed no signs of anastomotic stricture or leakage, with formation of a uniform, completely re-epithelialized anastomotic line^[41]. There were no reported postoperative complications, and colonoscopic examination at six months demonstrated a satisfactory anastomosis^[43].

The safety of this device has been documented in numerous animal studies^[41,57], and the safety of the alloy has been demonstrated by its extensive uses in other medical procedures. The CAC was considered to be

safe, simple, and effective in colon surgery in a study that evaluated the thermo-mechanical properties of the device^[58].

In line with this conclusion, a randomized control trial studied the clinical effects of using the CAC device in small intestinal anastomosis proximal to the ileocecal valve. CAC anastomosis was performed in 33 out of 66 patients, with the other 33 patients being used as a control group for whom a stapled anastomosis was constructed. The main indication was gastric cancer in both groups. Anastomosis was fashioned to reconstruct a Roux-en-Y loop, entero-entrostomy, Billroth II gastro-jejunostomy, and gastro-jejunostomy. The authors found no post-operative complications whatsoever in terms of leakage, obstruction, bleeding, or stenosis after six months of follow-up^[59].

Clinical trials for SMA of nickel-titanium in intestinal anastomosis are scarce, and all of the clinical reports are of CAC from a single center that included only elective cases performed both by laparotomy and laparoscopically^[42-44]. None of the patients who underwent surgery with CAC had a protective stoma. None of the patients reported so far in published clinical studies experienced a clinical leak and initial experience with a laparoscopic technique had similar results, thus precluding the learning curve among surgeons.

The consensus among the published studies was that microscopic examination of the CAC anastomosis showed minimal inflammation and no foreign body reaction, with very little scar tissue at the anastomotic line.

The specific advantages of the CAC include a one sized clip with a wide external diameter, preprogrammed round shape negating the need to forcefully close the rings and therefore diminish the risk of shattering the device. It exerts constant compression of the bowel ends, regardless of the intervening tissue thickness; coils exert a constant stress plateau at about 400 Mpa. The result is a smooth homogenous anastomosis formed by the gradual controlled necrosis of the tissue, limited by the coil perimeter while the external edges become sealed^[46]. A drawback of this device is the need for suture closure of the insertion incisions made in the bowel wall.

Endoluminal compression anastomotic ring, EndoCAR²⁷

The endoluminal compression anastomotic ring, EndoCAR²⁷ (spectrum of the shape memory alloy of nickel-titanium), utilizes two separate synthetic rings that are mounted on an instrument very similar to a circular stapler. An anvil containing one ring is fixed to the proximal bowel end, and the instrument with the other ring is inserted trans-anally for a rectal anastomosis. When engaged, the rings are locked together by Nitinol springs that exert the desired constant controlled pressure force (7.7 Newtons or 1.65 Pounds), and a circular knife resects the access tissue. As in the side-to-side device, a simultaneous necrosis-healing process takes place, and at the completion of this process (seven to ten days), the

Table 2 Compression anastomosis: clinical experience and complications

Study	Device	Emergency/elective	Anastomotic leakage	Obstruction	Stricture
Bubrick <i>et al</i> ^[34]	BAR	0/395	12 (3.2%)	18 (5%)	-
Cahill <i>et al</i> ^[35]	BAR	0/101	2 (2%)	4 (4%)	-
Corman <i>et al</i> ^[36]	BAR	0/222	6 (2.7%)	9 (4%)	2 (0.9%)
Gullichsen <i>et al</i> ^[37]	BAR	-	-	13 (16%)	-
Seow-Choen <i>et al</i> ^[39]	BAR	-	0	0	2 (10%)
Di Castro <i>et al</i> ^[49]	BAR	90/424	17	0	4 (1%)
Thiede <i>et al</i> ^[33]	BAR	0/1360	34 (2.5%)	-	-
Pahlman <i>et al</i> ^[38]	BAR	24/26	2 (4%)	3 (6%)	-
Ghitulescu <i>et al</i> ^[53]	BAR	23/136	7 (4.2%)	13 (7.9%)	3 (1.8%)
Kim <i>et al</i> ^[45]	BAR	101/515	5 (0.8%)	13 (2.1%)	1 (0.5%)
Wullstein <i>et al</i> ^[40]	AKA-2	70/372	11 (2.5%)	-	2 (0.5%)
Nudelman <i>et al</i> ^[43]	CAC	0/5	0	0	0
Nudelman <i>et al</i> ^[42]	CAC	0/30	0	0	0
Nudelamm <i>et al</i> ^[44]	CAC	0/10	0	0	0
Liu <i>et al</i> ^[59]	CAC	0/33	0	0	0

device is detached and expelled naturally. Furthermore, the longitudinally orientated metal prongs further fixate both bowel ends and prevent tissue slippage from axial movements. An advantage of this contemporary device is that there is no anastomotic-scarred lip inside lumen and a safe applier removal without fishtailing^[60].

Two separate studies looked at bursting strength in a porcine model. Kopelman *et al*^[57] measured a mean bursting strength of 247.7 mmHg (range 100-300 mmHg) in nine animals at time zero (immediately after the excision of the fashioned anastomosis). Furthermore Stewart *et al*^[61] revealed a significantly higher bursting pressure after compression anastomosis in comparison with a conventional double stapling technique (103, 75.3 mmHg *vs* 3, 23 mmHg, respectively). Four of the nine compression anastomoses failed at the anastomotic line whereas nine of nine stapled anastomoses failed at the staple line (Fishers' exact test, $P < 0.01$). Bursting pressures measured at two weeks after the anastomosis revealed equal pressures (266, 32.2 mmHg and 230, 87.5 mmHg, respectively). Compression therefore seems to be capable of overcoming anastomotic weakness during the 'classical' lag-phase and to result in equal strength after detachment of the ring^[62].

Kopelman *et al*^[57] looked at the anastomotic index (ratio of the mean bowel diameter 5 cm proximal and distal to the anastomosis and on antero-lateral and posterior view), which was 0.81 (0.60-0.92) at two months.

An early clinical trial was performed in Israel using the EndoCAR²⁷ device to construct a left-side anastomosis. Four patients were enrolled. No device related complications were noted in these patients and no anastomotic leak reported (unpublished data). Based upon that experience, a pilot study was started in May 2007 in Uppsala (Sweden) and in Leuven (Belgium) to obtain clinical data in a consecutive group of 40 patients^[62]. The recruited patients had either malignant or benign (diverticular) disease requiring resection with a high colorectal anastomosis (between 10 and 15 cm from the anal verge). Preliminary results from that pilot study showed that of the first ten patients, nine underwent high

anterior resection, and left colectomy was performed on one patient. No leak age occurred in this first group of patients. No other data is available yet.

These promising results demonstrate that this device could be a revolutionary invention in colorectal practice; however, there are still doubts regarding its efficacy in low/ultralow rectal anastomoses. The location of the ring above the pelvic floor could induce persistent anal sensation (urge) and it is still unknown whether a spontaneous evacuation will occur in diverted patients.

Magnamosis

Controlled magnetic approaches have shown promise in biliary and vascular anastomoses (although the latter involves permanent implantation). A specially designed self-orienting device has been put into a trial to test the hypothesis of creating a magnetically mediated intestinal anastomosis using a temporary device that is expelled some time after creating the desired compression-necrosis effect (Department of Surgery, University of California, San Francisco)^[63].

Two topologies were evaluated; namely the uniform and the gradient compression device. The study was conducted on 16 pigs with the creation of a side-to-side anastomosis. Half of these were created with the uniform device and the rest with the gradient. They also created hand-sewn and stapled side-to-side anastomosis for comparison. Devices were designed with surface fields of approximately 3000 Gauss (G). Preliminary experimentation had revealed that combinations of 3000/6000 G and 6000/6000 G uniformly caused necrosis and perforation within 48 h independent of device geometry. The results were promising, with the creation of successful patent anastomosis using the magnetic devices and no leaks reported^[63].

The mechanical integrity of the magnetic anastomoses was not statistically significantly different from stapled or hand-sewn; however, there was a trend toward greater strength with the gradient type device and earlier patency. No evidence of stenosis was reported^[63].

Table 2 presents the past clinical experience with

Table 3 List of reinforcement materials^[64]

	Material	Stapler type	Company
Non-absorbable	ePTFE	Linear	W.L. Gore, Elkton, MD, USA
Semi-absorbable	Bovine pericardium (peristrips dry)	Circular linear	Synovis Life Technologies, Inc.
	Porcine small bowel (surgisis)	Linear	Cook Biotech Inc.
Absorbable	Polyglycolic acid:trimethylene carbonate (seamguard bioabsorbable)	Linear circular	W.L. Gore & Associates, Inc.
	Cellulose (Xcell)	Linear	Xylos Corp.
	Knitted calcium alginate (foreseal)	Linear	Laboratoires Brothier, Nanterre, France

compression anastomosis devices and their related complications.

BUTRESSING OF INTESTINAL ANASTOMOSIS

Many staple devices are commercially available, however all the different types and models have inherent drawbacks that contribute to post-operative complications. Complications such as enteric leakage, bleeding, inadequate tissue approximation, and misfiring (technical failures) have been reported. However, complications related to colorectal anastomosis are the most devastating in terms of morbidity and mortality^[64].

A new approach to reduce this is to use staple line reinforcement materials. Gastrointestinal reinforcement is well known, but its application in colorectal surgery is relatively new^[65]. The application of buttressing materials is thought to moderate the tension of the stapler line because it acts as a neutralization plate. It reinforces the stapler line by sealing the gaps between staples and narrowing the spaces, thus reducing tearing of tissues, bleeding, and leakage^[64]. Reinforcement materials can be applied exogenously to the staple line or incorporated into it. The material is composed of two regions, one that secures it to the stapler prior to activation, and is later discarded, and the other forms the seal. It has an adhesive surface and is readily packed in a sterile manner^[65].

Reinforcement material can be non-absorbable, semi- or fully-absorbable. Studies have shown diminished incidence of leakage and stapler line failure in gastrointestinal and pulmonary surgery. Although all types of materials seem equally adequate in reducing staple line complications, the material itself can cause problems^[65]. Therefore, the choice of material must be considered from a safety point of view, although there seems to be advantages of absorbable material over the other two types.

The effects of the materials in colorectal anastomosis have been tested in a small clinical pilot study by Franklin *et al.*^[66,67] using bio-absorbable seamguard (BSG) with a linear stapler. Published data revealed no bleeding, or apparent bleeding, at the staple line.

Several reports support the theoretical benefits of reinforcement materials in increasing the burst pressure^[68-71]. It

was also hypothesized that buttressing of stapler line can have a positive effect on tumor recurrence^[66]. Although published studies showed a decrease in complications with these materials, no previous studies have shown significant results for reducing bleeding or leak rates at the stapler line. Thus, further research and investigations are required. Table 3 refers to the list of materials used as staple line adjuncts.

Non-absorbable materials

ePTFE: ePTFE is a very easy and quickly employed material composed of non-absorbable expanded polytetrafluoroethylene. It is constructed like a sleeve that can be slid over both arms of the stapling device negating the need for additional fixing to the stapler before firing. After firing, the material is released from the arms by pulling a ripcord. The potential benefits of this material include a low host response and biocompatibility. There are no reports of strip erosion or migration with this material, which evokes a minimal tissue inflammatory reaction. It provides thick tissue coverage for an extended period of time with no extra handling time required for its preparation and use. Its application suits open and laparoscopic procedures^[72,73].

Semiabsorbable material

Bovine pericardium: This material is composed of bovine pericardium (peristrips dry). It is temporarily attached to the stapler with gel (which is applied to inner surface of both stapler arms), after which the stapler is positioned and locked over the strips. It can be applied on linear, as well as circular, staplers. The material is then incorporated by the host tissue after firing the stapler. Apart from increasing the burst pressure, this material demands relatively more handling time than other materials. However, it has the potential of to reduce the time required to stop staple line bleeding. Possible limitations include a high risk of animal source contamination, resulting in an inflammatory reaction to the xenomaterial (non-biocompatible). This makes it prone to erosion and migration^[64]. Recently, its combination with Veritas technology results in remodeling of the material into indistinguishable host tissue.

Porcine small intestinal submucosa: This is a completely resorbable, acellular xenograft composed of

porcine small animal submucosa. It is suitable for anastomotic and non-anastomotic staplers. A potential advantage is that it provides a bioscaffold for tissue growth, inducing submucosal regeneration and also achieving an increase in burst pressure^[74,75]. However, its efficacy in human staple-line reinforcement is undocumented.

Absorbable material

Polyglycolic acid:trimethylene carbonate: This is a synthetic fiber web that is composed of polyglycolic acid: trimethylene carbonate Maxon polymer. It is formed like a sleeve to be fitted over the stapler arms and released by pulling the suture that holds the sleeve in place. It can also be affixed as discs onto circular-type staplers. The material is strongly biocompatible, simple and easy to apply on the stapler and is non antigenic. It maintains its strength for four to six weeks and is fully resorbed after six months (hydrolytic and enzymatic reactions lead to the breakdown of the material)^[76,77]. Overall, it minimizes staple-line bleeding, leakage, and operative time^[78-80].

Cellulose: Cellulose (XylosT M Surgical Reinforcing Material. Xcell SDMC surgical film) was originally developed as a wound dressing. This dry sterile material is composed of a microbially-derived cellulose matrix having multilayered, three-dimensional structures. The cellulose is produced by *Acetobacter xylinum* bacteria and is processed into a resorbable form. Research is in progress to evaluate and construct it as a possible staple line reinforcing material in GI surgery^[81].

Knitted calcium alginate: This material is composed of polysaccharidic polyglycuronates biopolymers (highly purified fractions from calcium alginates), originating from seaweeds. The device consists of preformed coated knitted bio-absorbable sheets held into the form of sleeves (one cartridge device, one anvil device) sized to fit snugly onto the forks of the surgical stapler. When applied to wet surfaces, the material becomes highly conformable and acquires bio-adhesive and sealant properties. It contains no additives or preservatives, and therefore no presoaking or rinsing is required as a preparatory step. The device is easy to handle and simple to apply, eliciting minimal foreign body response^[82]. However, clinical trials are scarce.

OTHER FORMS OF ANASTOMOTIC SUPPORT

C-seal (polyganics)

The colorectal drain (C-seal) is applied with a circular stapler. It is a single use tubular device, closed at one end and composed of biodegradable synthetic material. It is a thin walled tube with an approximate diameter of 3 cm and an approximate length of 20 cm. This drain works as a shield covering the newly formed anastomosis, preventing contact between the bowel contents and the

anastomosis. Degradation process starts gradually, and the material is expelled from the bowel after approximately 10-15 d. Its theoretical benefits lie in the ability to protect a low rectal anastomosis, preventing leakage. It can also be used as a staple line adjunct. It is microbiologically safe and is completely expelled after two weeks, negating the use of a protective defunctioning stoma in low rectal excision^[83].

Polyester stent

Most recently, covered intraluminal stents have been successfully introduced to manage anastomotic leaks after esophagectomy and gastric bypass operations.

A randomized control trial in a large animal model addressed this issue in stapled colorectal anastomosis. The study found that placement of a covered polyester stent across a colorectal anastomosis prevents leak-related complications and supports healing of an anastomotic leak^[84].

It consists of a polyflex self-expandable covered plastic stent (25 mm proximal flare and 12 cm long) and a delivery system. The outer layer is composed of braided polyester and the inner layer is silicone (no gaps in this layer). It is applied through a standard flexible colonoscope using a guide wire and a delivery system, and is deployed under fluoroscopic control after reconstruction of the end-to-end anastomosis. The components of the material allow it to adapt elastically to the lumen wall, exerting a well-balanced radial force. The silicone membrane provides a reliable leak occlusion, preventing ingrowth of granulation tissue; hence allowing stent repositioning or removal. Similarly to C-Seal, it negates the need for a diverting stoma in low rectal excision. However, the main disadvantage for the future of these types of stents is migration^[84].

NOVEL TECHNIQUES

Doxycycline coated sutures

Experimental studies revealed that the strength of an intestinal anastomosis diminishes postoperatively reaching a nadir on the third postoperative day. This is mediated by the increased activity of MMP, causing local matrix degradation in the tissue surrounding the sutures. This activity is higher still in concurrent bacterial peritonitis, with subsequently greater deterioration of anastomotic strength. Several experimental studies showed that MMP inhibitors administered systemically alleviate postoperative weakening of intestinal anastomoses. Other studies have shown the beneficial effects of treatment with systemic MMP inhibitors, e.g. doxycycline, most notably on the critical third postoperative day^[85-87].

Potent MMP inhibitors administered systemically can cause joint stiffness, swelling^[88], and other toxic reactions^[89]. Additionally, there are concerns about detrimental effects of broad-spectrum hydroxamate MMP inhibitors on secondary healing of cutaneous wounds^[90], although these types of MMP inhibitors can increase tensile strength of primary skin wounds^[91]. The less

potent MMP inhibitor doxycycline does not appear to delay wound closure^[92]. Due to adverse systemic effects, local delivery of an MMP inhibitor in humans would be advantageous over systemic administration^[93].

This hypothesis was studied by Pasternak *et al*^[93] in 2008. They implemented a novel method for coating sutures with a cross-linked fibrinogen film and then bound the MMP inhibitor (doxycycline) into this film. The sutures were then used in a standard rat model for evaluating mechanical properties of colonic anastomosis three days after surgery. The breaking strength of the anastomosis was higher with the doxycycline-coated sutures than with the controls. This might inspire further studies involving pharmacological manipulation of intestinal healing by local drug delivery^[93].

Electric “Welding” of soft tissues

Experience of the application of electric surgery for cutting tissues and hemostasis is about one hundred years long. It has been established that under certain conditions, it is possible to join incisions in different organs and soft tissues by a method based on heating the joint zone by a high-frequency current. Electric welding to join incisions of live tissues and organs during surgery was applied for the first time by the team of researchers of the E.O. Paton Electric Welding Institute of NASU in cooperation with the scientists and specialists of the experimental department of the Institute of Surgery and Transplantology (IS&T) of AMSU with participation of International Association (Welding) and financial support of CSMG Company, USA^[94].

They developed a novel welding system that includes a power unit comprising a power source (High frequency coagulator) with an adaptive automatic control system and special software, bipolar welding tools (forceps, clamps and laparoscopes) connected to a power source, and special assembly devices. The control system is based on feedbacks. The tissue layers being joined are brought into contact over their surface layers by means of the welding tool. The surgeon clamps the tissue to be welded by the electrodes of the tool and switches on the welding current source. Upon completion of the process (i.e. thermal denaturation of albumin molecules), control program power is turned off. Clamped tissue is then released and process repeated until complete wound closure^[94].

The device has been tested in multiple experimental trials and on more than 2000 patients in the clinics and hospitals of Kiev, Ukraine. The author maintains that the advantage of the device is in the formation of an attractive, neat, smooth thin welded anastomosis. In addition, it is a fumeless and odorless technology, causing no burns to surrounding tissues. The report demonstrates a reduction of blood loss and no organ deformation or stenosis. It also shortens the average operative time (20-40 min)^[94].

CONCLUSION

Although alternatives to the conventional methods have

been sought, many have been abandoned by the surgical community.

Compression anastomosis, although existing for decades, has not gained worldwide popularity. This concept seems to be difficult for surgeons to accept, as it includes relying on a device to create an anastomosis and letting it be spontaneously discharged from the body. Re-institution of this concept using new technology, such as Nitinol, could be a potential replacement for the current available techniques. Controlled magnetic anastomosis is no exception to this. It is a promising novel technique for creation of a side-to-side anastomosis but requires to be optimized for future use.

The theoretical benefits of colorectal seals and the polyester stents as adjuncts to creating an end-to-end anastomosis could alleviate the need for a defunctioning stoma for lower rectal tumor resections. This is another concept that needs to be accepted and subjected to further research to optimize its use. In line with this, staple line reinforcement is an effective technique for reducing perioperative complications in stapled resection and anastomoses, with absorbable materials having a considerable advantage over semi or non-absorbable material(s). However, there has been little experience with absorbable staple line reinforcement materials.

A contemporary and sophisticated technique, such as electric tissue welding shows a promising future in modern surgical techniques. It is a revolutionary technique that still needs acceptance and research, utilizing greater patient samples in colorectal surgical practice.

Finally, overcoming the postoperative anastomotic weakness due to over activity of matrix metalloproteinases, and hence the risk of dehiscence, using doxycycline coated sutures should also be explored.

In summary, these various techniques fulfill the requirements of creating a safe anastomosis (overcoming the lag-phase, increasing the bursting pressure, and decreasing the rate of leakage, bleeding and stricture). They revealed great differences in avoiding dramatic complications that can occur with the conventional methods; an outcome that every colorectal surgeon would advocate. Surgeons need to widen their scope of practice, and further trials and research are required to overcome “dogmas” in traditional colorectal practice. Keeping abreast of technological advances is considered vital in every surgeons training and daily practice; failure to do so could lead to reduced quality of patient care.

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Therapeutic effect of *Streptococcus thermophilus* CRL 1190-fermented milk on chronic gastritis

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Abstract

AIM: To investigate the potential therapeutic effect of exopolysaccharide (EPS)-producing *Streptococcus thermophilus* (*S. thermophilus*) CRL 1190 fermented milk on chronic gastritis in Balb/c mice.

METHODS: Balb/c mice were fed with the fermented milk for 7 d after inducing gastritis with acetyl-salicylic acid (ASA, 400 mg/kg body weight per day for 10 d). Omeprazole was included in this study as a positive therapeutic control. The gastric inflammatory activity was evaluated from gastric histology and inflammation score, number of interleukin-10 (IL-10), interferon- γ (INF γ) and tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α) cytokine-producing cells in the gastric mucosa, and thickness of the mucus layer.

RESULTS: Animals receiving treatment with the EPS-

producing *S. thermophilus* CRL 1190 fermented milk showed a conserved gastric mucosa structure similar to that of healthy animals. Inflammation scores of the fermented milk-treated mice were lower than those of mice in the gastritis group (0.2 ± 0.03 vs 2.0 ± 0.6 , $P < 0.05$). A marked decrease in INF γ^+ (15 ± 1.0 vs 28 ± 1.2 , $P < 0.05$) and TNF- α^+ (16 ± 3.0 vs 33 ± 3.0 , $P < 0.05$) cells and an increase in IL-10 $^+$ (28 ± 1.5 vs 14 ± 1.3 , $P < 0.05$) cells compared to the gastritis group, was observed. Also, an increase in the thickness of the mucus gel layer (2.2 ± 0.6 vs 1.0 ± 0.3 ; 5.1 ± 0.8 vs 1.5 ± 0.4 in the corpus and antrum mucosa, respectively, $P < 0.05$) compared with the gastritis group was noted. A milk suspension of the purified EPS from *S. thermophilus* CRL1190 was also effective as therapy for gastritis.

CONCLUSION: This study suggests that fermented milk with *S. thermophilus* CRL 1190 and/or its EPS could be used in novel functional foods as an alternative natural therapy for chronic gastritis induced by ASA.

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Key words: Lactic acid bacteria; Probiotics; Gastritis; *Streptococcus thermophilus*; Exopolysaccharides

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INTRODUCTION

Gastritis is a common disorder where discontinuity of the gastric mucosa is observed. It is caused by several factors,

such as alcohol, stress, infection with *Helicobacter pylori* (*H. pylori*)^[1-3], resulting in an imbalance between offensive acid-pepsin secretion and defensive mucosal factors like mucin secretion and cell shedding^[4]. Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) such as acetyl-salicylic acid (ASA) are used worldwide as anti-inflammatory and analgesic agents in the treatment of chronic diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis and osteoarthritis^[5] as well as for the prevention of cardiovascular diseases. However, gastrointestinal injury is a serious adverse effect of NSAIDs producing a broad range of toxic effects mainly in the stomach^[6], the toxicity of ASA being attributed to direct damage of mucosal cells^[7]. Furthermore, ASA affects various mucosal defense lines such as bicarbonate secretion, mucus synthesis, decrease of mucosal blood flow^[8,9] with amplification of the inflammatory process by expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines^[10].

Among the most conventional drugs employed for the treatment of gastritis are proton-pump inhibitors such as omeprazole (OM)^[11]; however, most of these drugs also produce undesirable side effects and drug interactions^[12].

Probiotics are “live microorganisms which when consumed in adequate numbers confer a health benefit on the host^[13]”. Probiotic foods containing lactic acid bacteria (LAB) have been used in the treatment of various gastrointestinal disorders, such as gastric ulcers and inflammation related to *H. pylori* infection, gastrointestinal infections or antibiotic-associated diarrhea^[14-16], providing beneficial effects to the host by modulating immune functions, e.g. systemic cytokine production^[17]. The mucosal immune system is functionally divided into sites where foreign antigens are taken up and meet immune cells to initiate the immune response through a network of signals among different cell populations. This cell network is highly integrated by cytokine production, and finely regulated by the selective expression of cytokine receptors. The T-helper (Th) cell subsets and cytokine patterns determine the nature of the immune response^[18].

Some LAB strains secrete exocellular carbohydrate polymers named exopolysaccharides (EPS). A large diversity of EPS from LAB strains exists regarding their chemical characteristics, yield, technological and functional properties^[19-21]. EPS play an important role in the dairy industry mainly in yogurt production and certain kinds of cheeses such as reduced-fat cheddar and mozzarella^[22], improving the textural, melting and sensory characteristics of the products. The health-promoting effects ascribed to probiotic strains or foods arise not only from the bacteria themselves but also from the metabolites produced during fermentation.

EPS from LAB have been claimed to participate in various regulatory processes such as immunomodulatory, cholesterol-lowering and anti-ulcer activities^[23,24]. In previous work^[25], we demonstrated that Balb/c mice fed a fermented milk with the EPS-producing *S. thermophilus* CRL 1190 was efficient in gastritis prevention through the modulation of the immune response and maintenance of the mucus layer. The present study addressed the potential

therapeutic application of fermented milk prepared using the EPS-producing *S. thermophilus* CRL 1190 strain for the treatment of ASA-associated chronic gastritis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strain, culture conditions and preparation of the fermented milk

S. thermophilus CRL 1190 {EPS⁺ and producing also capsular EPS, CPS⁺; [Centro de Referencia para Lactobacilos (CERELA) culture collection, Tucumán, Argentina]} was used in this study. This strain was previously selected for the physicochemical properties of its polysaccharide^[20], for displaying no secondary effects such as bacterial translocation (liver and spleen), and for its effectiveness in preventing gastritis induced by ASA^[25]. The strain was cultured (10 mL/L inoculum) in LAPTg broth (peptone, 15 g/L; tryptone, 10 g/L; yeast extract, 10 g/L; glucose, 10 g/L; and tween 80, 1 mL/L) and sub-cultured at least twice in reconstituted skim milk (RSM, 100 g/L) just prior to experimental use. The strain was maintained at -20°C in RSM containing 100 mL/L glycerol, 10 g/L glucose, and 5 g/L yeast extract.

Fermented milk was prepared in sterile RSM (sterilized at 115°C for 20 min and cooled down to 37°C) using a 10 mL/L inoculum of an active culture of the EPS⁺ strain *S. thermophilus* CRL 1190 (named FM 1190), incubated at 37°C for 16 h and maintained at 4°C prior to experimental use. Non-fermented milk was used as a control.

Animals

Six week-old Balb/c male mice (25-30 g) were obtained from a closed colony kept at the animal facilities of CERELA and maintained in a room with a 12-h light/dark cycle at 20 ± 2°C. Animals were individually housed in cages (20 cm × 30 cm × 15 cm) with litter tray (20 cm × 30 cm × 6 cm) and allowed to have free access to conventional balanced diet and water *ad libitum*. All mice received no food for 24 h before the assays but had free access to water. Animal protocols were approved by the Ethical Committee for animal care of CERELA.

Experimental protocol

Chronic gastritis was induced following the protocol previously standardized in our laboratory^[25]. Oral administration of ASA (BAYER[®]) supplied in the drinking water given at an approximate daily dose of 400 mg/kg per day for 10 d induced chronic gastritis in Balb/c mice (gastritis group, G). The administered dose was twice the analgesic dose for mice and was applied to induce gastritis in a short experimental time period. Healthy mice (H) received drinking water without ASA during the same experimental period (negative control group).

To evaluate the therapeutic effect of FM 1190 on the chronic gastritis model, animals were randomly divided into 6 groups ($n = 5$ each): (1) H group: received drinking water without ASA for 10 d; (2) G group: received ASA for 10 d as described above; (3) FM 1190 group: received

FM with the EPS-producing strain CRL 1190 for 7 d after gastritis induction. FM 1190 was administered *ad libitum* at an approximate dose of 10^8 cfu/mL; daily fermented milk consumption was monitored and intake was set at 5 mL/d; (4) Omeprazole (OM) group: received OM (used as positive control in ASA-induced gastric lesions) at a daily dose of 30 mg/kg per day^[26] for 7 d after gastritis induction; (5) Milk group (M): received non-fermented milk for 7 d after gastritis induction; and (6) Water group (W): received water for 7 d after gastritis induction (used as negative control).

To determine whether the EPS produced by *S. thermophilus* CRL 1190 (EPS 1190) had an anti-gastritis effect, the polymer was isolated from 16-h milk cultures grown at 37°C by using a deproteinization/precipitation technique with 200 g/L (final concentration) trichloroacetic acid, and ethanol (ratio 1:3)^[20], was further purified as described previously^[19], and freeze-dried and stored at 4°C until use. The EPS 1190 was resuspended in RSM (M-EPS 1190) or in water (W-EPS 1190) and administered to mice intragastrically at a dose of 4 mg/kg per day for 7 d after gastritis induction. The administered EPS amount was calculated based on the EPS quantity received by the animals when they were fed with FM 1190.

After the experimental period (day 11 for groups 1 and 2, and day 18 for the remaining groups), mice were sacrificed by cervical dislocation and weighed. Stomachs were aseptically removed, weighed and rinsed several times with saline solution and used for the assays described below.

Histopathological evaluation of gastric samples

Stomachs were fixed in 10% paraformaldehyde in 0.1 mol/L phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) pH 7.0 and embedded in paraffin following the Sainte-Marie technique^[27]. Three serial paraffin sections (4 µm) of each sample were cut from each specimen and stained with hematoxylin-eosin followed by light microscopy examination (Leica DM LS2, Wetzlar, Germany). The pathologic characteristics and degree of inflammation of the gastric mucosa were assessed according to the updated Sydney system^[28] by microscopic observation without knowledge of the experimental groups and expressed as follows: normal appearance of scattered mononuclear cells in the lamina propria (same degree as healthy control mice): none = score 0; mild infiltration of mononuclear cells in the lamina propria and the submucosa, and no erosion in the epithelium: mild = score 1; moderate infiltration of mononuclear cells in the lamina propria and the submucosa, and no erosion in the epithelium: moderate = score 2; and severe infiltration of mononuclear cells in the lamina propria and the submucosa, and erosion in some parts of the epithelium: severe = score 3.

Determination of the number of IL-10, INF-γ, and TNF-α-producing cells in gastric mucosa by indirect immunofluorescence assay

Histological slices of the antral and corpus regions of the stomach, processed as described earlier, were depar-

affinized and rehydrated in a graded series of ethanol. After incubation at room temperature for 30 min in 10 g/L blocking solution of bovine serum albumin (Sigma Chemical Co.), histological slices were incubated at 37°C for 60 min with rabbit anti-mouse IL-10 or INF-γ (Peprotech Inc., NJ, USA) or TNF-α (eBioscience, San Diego, CA, USA) polyclonal antibodies. Then, sections were washed twice with saline solution and treated with a 1/10 dilution of a goat anti-rabbit antibody conjugated with fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC) (Jackson Immuno Research Inc., PA, USA) at 37°C for 45 min; washed again with saline solution and examined with a fluorescent light microscope (Leica DM LS2). Results were expressed as the number of IL-10, INF-γ and TNF-α-producing cells (fluorescent cells) per 10 fields (magnification × 1000)^[29]. Data were obtained by counting 30 fields from 3 histological slices for each animal group.

Mucus layer determined by periodic acid-Schiff staining

The mucus layer was identified by periodic acid-Schiff (PAS) staining^[30]. Briefly, after deparaffinization and rehydration, tissue sections were oxidized in 10 mL/L periodic acid for 5 min. Then they were rinsed in distilled water and stained with Schiff's reagent for 10 min. After a second washing with distilled water, tissue sections were counterstained with hematoxylin and rinsed in running tap water. Finally, they were dehydrated, cleared and mounted. Sections were viewed under a microscope (Leica M LS2) and the thickness of the mucus-secreting layer in the corpus and antrum mucosa was assessed with an image analyzer (× 1000) and the ratio of the mucus gel layer thickness to that of the lamina propria mucosa was calculated as a percentage.

Statistical analysis

Experimental data were expressed as mean ± SD and statistically evaluated by analysis of variance (ANOVA) with the SPSS software. Multiple group data were analyzed using one-way ANOVA and the Tukey multiple comparison test. Differences were considered statistically significant at $P < 0.05$.

RESULTS

Body weight and stomach weight

No significant changes in body weight or stomach weight were found during the entire experimental period in animals of any group other than those of the FM 1190 and M-EPS 1190 groups, which showed an increase (between 30%-40% with respect to H and G, respectively) in the stomach weight at the end of the experimental period (data not shown). No correlation between stomach weight and induced gastritis was found.

Histopathological evaluation of gastric samples

Mice subjected to oral administration of ASA at doses of 400 mg/kg per day for 10 d (gastritis group, G) showed moderate infiltration with scattered lymphocytes and

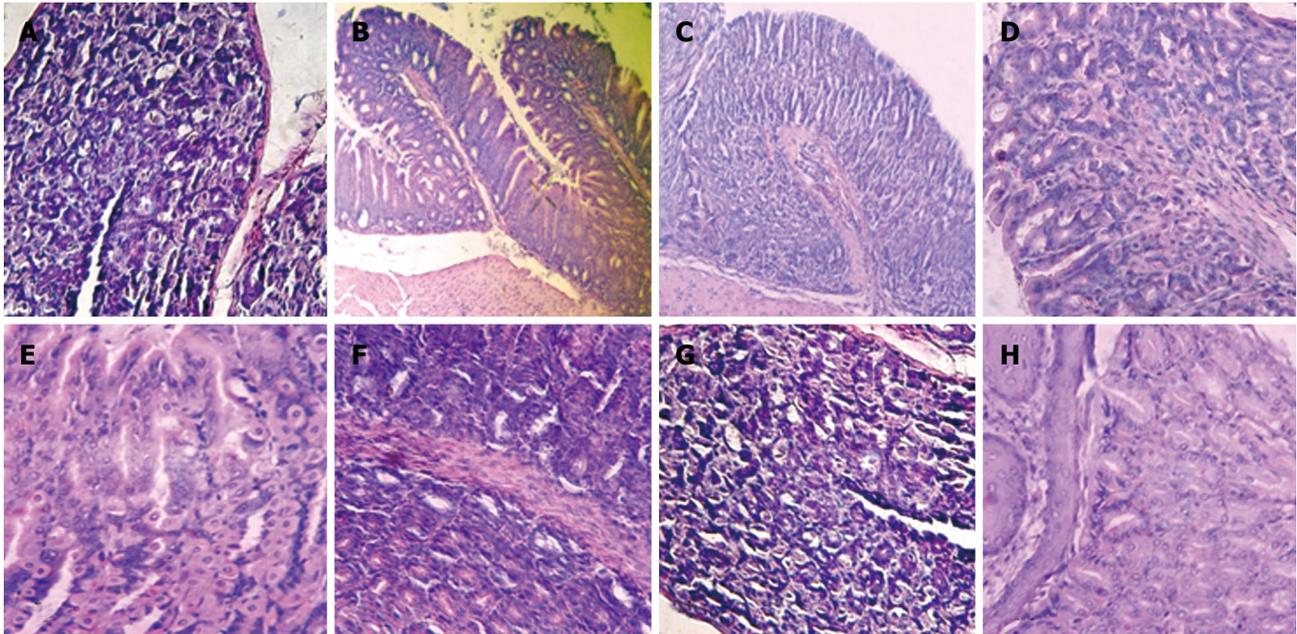


Figure 1 Histological micrographs of mice stomachs. A: H (Healthy) group; B: G (Gastritis) group; C: FM 1190 group (fermented milk with *Streptococcus thermophilus* CRL 1190); D: OM (omeprazole) group; E: M (Milk) group; F: W (Water) group; G: M-EPS 1190 group (EPS produced by *S. thermophilus* CRL 1190 resuspended in milk) showed conserved histological structures; and H: W-EPS 1190 group (EPS produced by *Strep. thermophilus* CRL 1190 resuspended in water) displayed chronic inflammatory infiltrations in the mucosa surface (Hematoxylin & eosin, light microscope, $\times 100$).

macrophages in the surface of the mucosa and folds of mucosa, in the direction of the submucosa, without formation of lymphoid follicles, and predominance in the gastric corpus region (Figure 1B). The induced lesions were classified as superficial chronic gastritis with inflammation score = 2 (Figure 2). No significant increase in polymorphonuclear infiltration in the normal gastric mucosa was observed. Healthy animals (group H) showed an absence of gastritis (Figure 1A). Interestingly, the stomachs from animals treated with FM 1190 and M-EPS 1190 displayed no leukocyte infiltration in the gastric mucosa immediately after treatment (day 18) (Figure 1C and G). Similar stomach structures of mice therapeutically treated with OM (Figure 1D) were observed, showing lower inflammatory scores than the gastritis group (0.2 ± 0.02 vs 2.2 ± 0.4 , $P < 0.05$, Figure 2). In contrast, the animals treated with milk, water and W-EPS 1190 showed high inflammation scores (1.8 ± 0.5 , 2.0 ± 0.5 , 1.7 ± 0.4 , respectively, $P < 0.05$), compared to those of the gastritis group.

Determination of the number of regulatory and pro-inflammatory cytokine-producing cells in the gastric mucosa

The stomachs from group G mice showed a significant decrease in the regulatory cytokine-producing cells ($IL-10^+$: 14 ± 1.3 vs 22 ± 1.7 , $P < 0.05$) and an increase in the pro-inflammatory cytokine-producing cells ($INF\gamma^+$: 28 ± 1.2 vs 14 ± 1.0 and $TNF-\alpha^+$: 33 ± 3.0 vs 15 ± 2.0 , $P < 0.05$) with respect to healthy animals (Figure 3A-C).

The therapeutic administration of FM 1190 to mice regulated the gastric inflammatory process, significantly

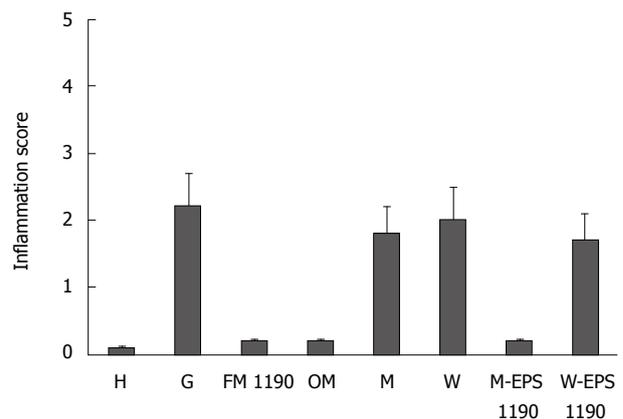


Figure 2 Inflammation score of stomachs in different groups (mean \pm SD).

decreasing the number of pro-inflammatory cytokine-producing cells ($INF\gamma^+$: 15 ± 1.0 vs 28 ± 1.2 , $P < 0.05$ and $TNF-\alpha^+$: 16 ± 3.0 vs 33 ± 3.0 , $P < 0.05$) and increasing the regulatory cytokine-producing cells ($IL-10^+$: 28 ± 1.5 vs 14 ± 1.3 , $P < 0.05$), as compared to the G group. Furthermore, the number of cytokine-producing cells were similar to those of OM and H groups showing $IL-10^+$ values slightly higher than these 2 groups (28 ± 1.5 vs 20 ± 2.9 ; 28 ± 1.5 vs 22 ± 1.7 , respectively, $P < 0.05$). In contrast, a significant decrease in the number of $IL-10^+$ cells and an increase in the number of both pro-inflammatory cytokine-producing cells ($INF\gamma^+$ - and $TNF-\alpha^+$) similar to those of the G group (Figure 3) were found in the M and W groups, used as controls.

M-EPS 1190 but not W-EPS 1190 was able to modulate the induced gastritis in a similar way to FM

1190, showing a decrease in the number of pro-inflammatory cytokine-producing cells (INF γ^+ : 15 ± 2.0 vs 28 ± 1.2 , $P < 0.05$ and TNF- α^+ : 20 ± 2.6 vs 33 ± 3.0 , $P < 0.05$) and an increase in the regulatory cytokine-producing cells (IL-10 $^+$: 21 ± 2.1 vs 14 ± 1.3 , $P < 0.05$), as compared to the G group (Figure 3).

A correlation between the histopathological structure and the number of regulatory and pro-inflammatory cytokine producing-cells was observed for all groups.

Mucus layer determined by PAS staining

The thickness ratio in the corpus and antrum mucosa, and representative photomicrographs of PAS-stained corpus mucosa from control (H), gastritis (G) and different therapeutic groups (FM 1190, OM, M and W) are shown in Figure 4A and B. The animals treated with ASA (G group) displayed a disruption in the protective mucus layer and exhibited a significant decrease of 80%-85% in the thickness of the mucus gel layer in both the corpus and antrum gastric regions as compared to healthy animals (corpus: 1.07 ± 0.3 vs 5.4 ± 1.0 ; antrum: 1.47 ± 0.4 vs 10.0 ± 1.3 , $P < 0.05$).

In general, the different treatments for gastritis revealed a marked depletion (approximately 80%) in the mucus layer with concomitant reduction in the volume of PAS-positive intramucosal mucus in either the corpus or antrum mucosa of animals of most groups compared to the H group. A different behavior was observed in animals of group FM 1190, which showed a decrease of 49%-59% in the mucus layer of the antrum and corpus mucosa, compared with healthy animals (2.2 ± 0.6 vs 5.4 ± 1.0 ; 5.1 ± 0.8 vs 10.0 ± 1.3 , respectively, $P < 0.05$). However, an increase in the thickness of the mucus gel layer as compared to animals displaying gastritis (G group) was observed (2.2 ± 0.6 vs 1.0 ± 0.3 ; 5.1 ± 0.8 vs 1.5 ± 0.4 , in corpus and antrum mucosa respectively, $P < 0.05$). The volume of intramucosal mucus was maintained compared to the G group, suggesting that FM 1190 was able to protect the stomach mucosal barrier.

Mice treated with M-EPS 1190 showed an increase in the thickness of the mucus gel layer compared to animals with gastritis (2.1 ± 0.5 vs 1.0 ± 0.3 ; 5.0 ± 0.75 vs 1.5 ± 0.4 , in corpus and antrum mucosa, respectively, $P < 0.05$) and was similar to the FM 1190 group.

DISCUSSION

It has been demonstrated previously that ASA administration to mice caused chronic inflammation of the gastric mucosa^[25]. Mononuclear cell infiltration, an increase in the number of pro-inflammatory cytokine-producing cells, a decrease in the regulatory cytokine-producing cells, and depletion of both the mucus gel layer and volume of intramucosal mucus were observed. The use of probiotics has been proposed to ameliorate different gastrointestinal tract disorders including inflammatory bowel diseases, diarrhea, pancreatitis, irritable bowel syndrome and colorectal cancer^[31,32]; however, little attention has been paid to gastric disease. Uchida and Kurakazu^[33] reported

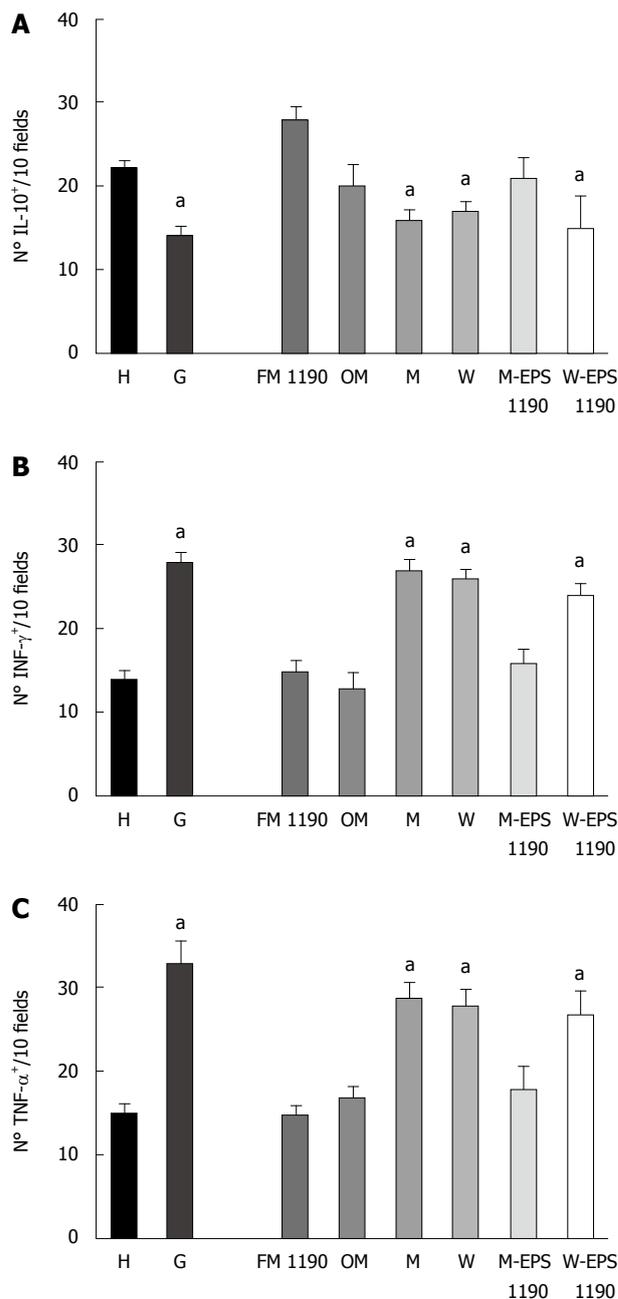


Figure 3 Number of (A) IL-10-, (B) INF- γ - and (C) TNF- α -producing cells on histological slices of stomachs of mice of different groups. Results are presented as means of 3 determinations and are expressed as the number of IL-10-, INF- γ - and TNF- α -producing cells per 10 fields (magnification $\times 100$). ^a $P < 0.05$ compared to the controls.

that yogurt LG21 significantly inhibited the formation of acute gastric lesions caused by HCl in rats; the beneficial effect being dose-dependent. Recently, Liu *et al.*^[34] reported that continuously feeding LAB-fermented soy-skim milk to rats for 28 d inhibited acute gastric lesions induced by ethanol and pylorus ligation in a dose-dependent manner, and improved prostaglandin E2 and superoxide dismutase activities. In addition, some authors have demonstrated the anti-ulcer properties of LAB-fermented milks on *H. pylori*-induced gastric lesions^[14,35]. Based on the multiple functional effects of probiotics on the gastrointestinal

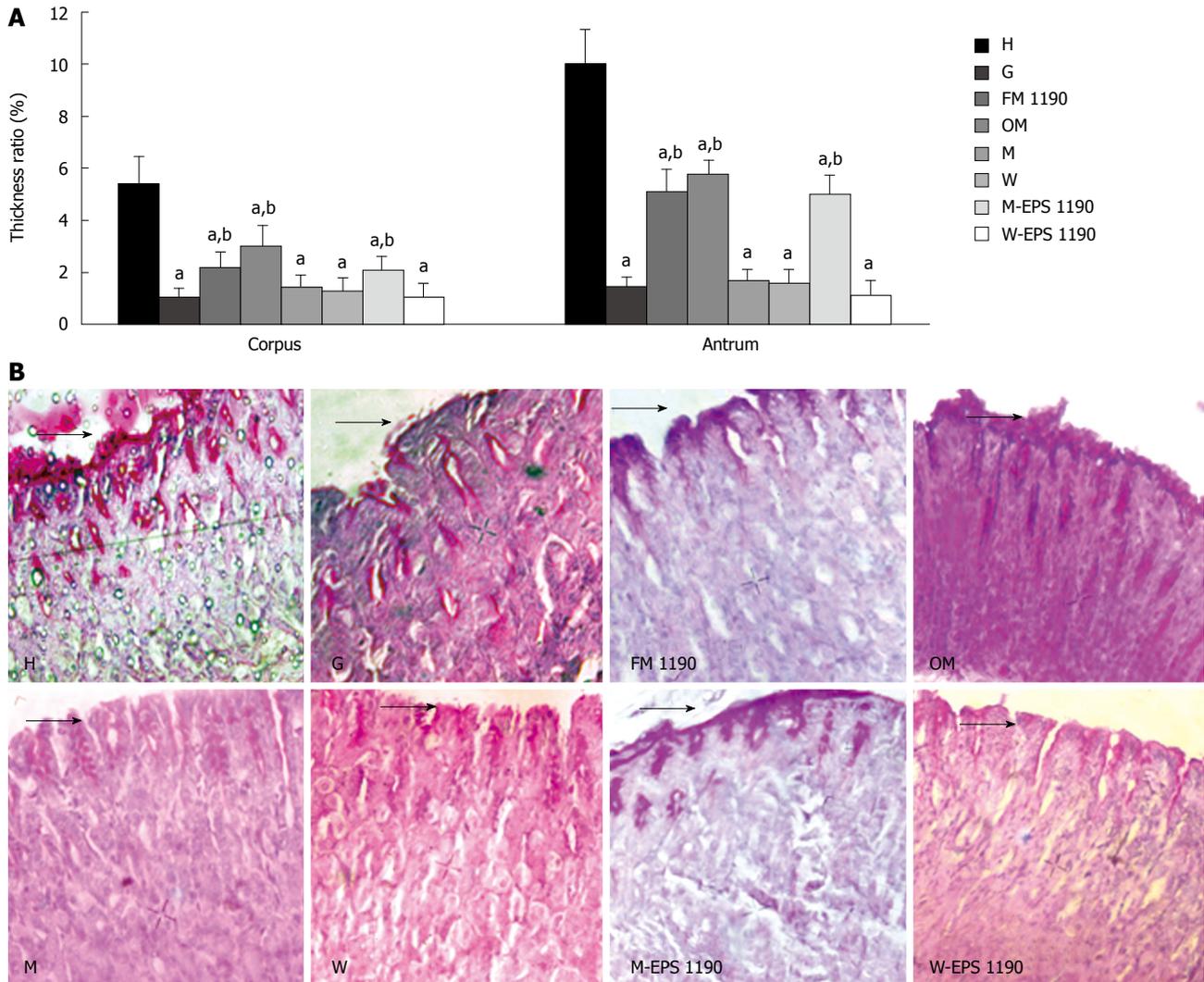


Figure 4 Periodic acid-Schiff (PAS)-positive mucus on the mice gastric mucosa. A: Thickness ratio of the mucus gel layer to the lamina propria mucosa in corpus and antrum mucosa. B: Representative photomicrographs of corpus mucosa from the various groups. Sections were stained using PAS reagent. Values represent mean \pm SE of the mean for 5 mice. ^a $P < 0.05$ compared to the healthy group (H), ^b $P < 0.05$ compared to the gastritis group (G). Original magnification: $\times 400$. Arrows indicate thickness of mucus layer.

tract, we have previously studied the capability of 2 EPS-producing LAB strains to protect the gastric mucosa from challenges produced by ASA; only the strain *S. thermophilus* CRL 1190 successfully prevented gastric damage by modulation of inflammation with significant preservation of the mucus gel layer^[25]. *S. thermophilus* CRL 1190 produces a slime heteropolysaccharide of high molecular mass (MM) composed of D-glucose and D-galactose (molar ratio 1.0:1.5) as well as CPS in milk cultures^[20]. In this work, we evaluated the therapeutic effect of milk fermented with *S. thermophilus* CRL 1190 on ASA-induced chronic gastritis. The therapeutic administration of FM 1190 showed a marked ($P < 0.05$) immunomodulatory effect when comparing the pro-inflammatory cytokine-producing cells (TNF- α ⁺ and INF- γ ⁺) of healthy animals, as a result of inhibition of IL-10 on Th1^[36]. Similar immunological modulation of the preventive effect of *S. thermophilus* CRL 1190 on chronic gastritis was observed in our previous work. Bibiloni *et al.*^[37] demonstrated that the Th1 cell response could be modulated by probiotic bacteria

in pathological processes such as inflammatory bowel disease or colon cancer^[38]. Th1 cytokines such as INF- γ and TNF- α , released by lymphocytes and macrophages that infiltrate the gastric mucosa are associated with immune activation and tissue injury. TNF- α has been shown to be a crucial mediator of NSAID-induced gastric mucosal damage^[39]. In contrast, IL-10 (Th2 type cytokine) suppresses the differentiation and effector functions of Th1 cells and the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines by dendritic cells and macrophages, thus maintaining immune homeostasis^[40]. The proton pump inhibitor drugs used clinically, such as omeprazole, exert an anti-inflammatory action beyond strong acid suppression^[41]. It has been reported that omeprazole regulates the cytokine profile in *H. pylori*-infected patients with duodenal ulcer disease by suppressing cytokine synthesis of the Th1 cells^[42]. In our study, this drug was used as a positive control in the treatment of ASA-induced gastritis, and it displayed similar therapeutic effectiveness to FM 1190, though the fermented milk displayed slightly higher

numbers of regulatory cytokine-producing cells (IL-10⁺) than did omeprazole. On the other hand, this drug has diverse adverse effects such as diarrhea, abdominal pain, cutaneous reactions, decreased bone density and microscopic colitis^[43,44] as well as drug interactions^[45]. Thus, the use of FM 1190 as a therapeutic agent constitutes a safe and nutritional alternative for gastritis treatment.

Myeloperoxidase activity as a neutrophil infiltration marker in gastric tissue was assayed but it could not be used as an inflammatory parameter in the chronic gastritis model as the values obtained were similar to that of the healthy groups (data not shown).

Milk alone, water, omeprazole or the prepared fermented milk did not cause any damage *per se* on the gastric mucosa of healthy animals.

To determine if the therapeutic effect obtained after administration of FM 1190 resulted from the presence of its EPS, the produced biopolymer was isolated, purified and resuspended in milk or water, and assayed for its potential therapeutic effect. As previously observed^[25], only the EPS dissolved in milk (M-EPS 1190) displayed a similar behavior to the fermented milk with respect to the cytokine profile and the histological structures, suggesting that EPS-milk protein interactions play a major role in the immune response modulation and consequently, in the therapeutic effect observed. Whey proteins have been reported to possess biological functions including immunomodulatory activities^[46] in addition to their nutritional value. Rosaneli *et al.*^[47] reported the protective effect of bovine milk whey protein concentrate on the ulcerative lesions caused by administration of indomethacin. Moreover, the gastro-protective effect of α -lactalbumin, one of the major whey proteins, against gastric injury induced by ethanol was demonstrated by enhancing the gastric defense mechanisms such as mucin synthesis and secretion in mucus-producing cells^[48-50].

The mucus gel layer is an important defense barrier, covering gastric epithelial cells and holding bicarbonate ions to neutralize hydrogen ions that diffuse back into the gastric mucosa. However, this layer is frequently disrupted by acid, pepsin, alcohol, and other injurious agents in the gastric lumen resulting in damage to gastric epithelial cells^[51]. The mucus gel layer thickness in the mouse gastric mucosa as well as the volume of intramucosal PAS-positive mucus were evaluated, as a continuous supply of mucus from the intramucosa is important to preserve the surface gel layer. Therapeutic administration of FM 1190 and M-EPS 1190 increased the thickness of the mucus gel layer in both corpus and antrum mucosa without reducing intramucosal mucus. Thus, the activation of mucin synthesis by FM 1190 and M-EPS 1190 led to the increase in the mucus gel layer and a stable mucus supply from the intramucosa. The stimulation of mucus metabolism contributes to the gastroprotective action. *L. rhamnosus* GG, a probiotic EPS-producing strain widely used in dairy products, is able to increase the mucus layer thickness in the gastric glandular mucosa^[29]. Also, it has been observed that the

fungal polysaccharide from *Ganoderma lucidum* reinstated the gastric mucus levels^[52].

Nagaoka *et al.*^[53] reported anti-ulcer effects of EPS produced by bifidobacteria, *Lactobacilli* and *Streptococci* strains, which were attributed to the high rhamnose content (> 60%) of the polysaccharides. Conversely, the fermented milk with the EPS-producing strain *S. thermophilus* CRL 804, which produced an EPS with rhamnose and galactose in its monomer composition^[20], did not show any anti-gastritis effect in contrast to the EPS 1190 that contained galactose and glucose and displayed a gastroprotective effect. Sengül *et al.*^[54] showed that a high MM EPS produced by the probiotic strain *L. delbrueckii* subsp. *bulgaricus* B3 significantly ameliorated experimental colitis in rats. Gao *et al.*^[52,55] found that treatment of acetic acid-induced ulcers in rats with high MM polysaccharide from *Ganoderma lucidum* suppressed or restored the decreased gastric mucus levels, increased gastric prostaglandin concentrations and partly suppressed the TNF- α gene. In addition, a high MM pectin polysaccharide from Chinese herbs has shown to be a potent anti-ulcer compound in experimental HCl-ethanol induced ulcers^[56]. Moreover, a high MM-homopolysaccharide from marine microalga *Gyrodinium impudicum* strain KG03 presented immunostimulatory effects, enhancing the tumoricidal activities of macrophages and natural killer cells *in vivo*^[57]. In this case, the beneficial effect was attributed to the sulfate groups present in the polymer, which also contained galactose and uronic acids. In our work, the anti-gastritis effect observed for FM 1190 may be ascribed to the large polymer size of EPS 1190, independently of its monomer composition. In addition, it was recently demonstrated^[58] that EPS 1190 was partially degraded when the polymer was submitted to the harsh conditions of an *in vitro* gastric system, indicating that this polymer may still exert its beneficial properties *in vivo*.

The present findings indicate that the milk fermented with *S. thermophilus* CRL 1190 and/or its EPS was effective in the therapeutic treatment of chronic gastritis by modulating the immune response of the mice and by increasing the thickness of the gastric mucus gel layer. Thus, the application of this fermented milk and/or its EPS constitutes a potential natural alternative for the prevention and treatment of ASA-associated gastric damage.

COMMENTS

Background

Gastritis is a common disorder where there is discontinuity in the gastric mucosa. It is caused by several factors including the intensive consumption of anti-inflammatory drugs such as acetyl-salicylic acid (ASA), commonly used in the treatment of chronic diseases and prevention of cardiovascular pathologies. The conventional drugs employed as therapies against gastritis often produce undesirable side effects. The administration of specific probiotics provides a new therapy against gastric disease.

Research frontiers

Gastritis affects 80% of the worldwide population according to data of the Worldwide Health Organization. The use of probiotics has been proposed to ameliorate different gastrointestinal tract disorders such as inflammatory bowel disease, diarrhea, irritable bowel syndrome, etc.; however, little attention has been

paid to gastric disease. Thus, the authors decided to investigate the therapeutic effect of milk fermented with exopolysaccharide (EPS)-producing *S. thermophilus* CRL 1190 and its polymer on chronic gastritis induced by aspirin in mice.

Innovations and breakthroughs

This research demonstrates for the first time the therapeutic effect of the fermented milk with the polymer-producing strain *S. thermophilus* CRL 1190 and/or its EPS on chronic gastritis induced by ASA in mice. Both the fermented milk and the EPS were able to modulate the immune response in mice and increased the thickness of the gastric mucus gel layer. Furthermore, the therapeutic effectiveness observed was similar to omeprazole[®], a commercial drug commonly employed in the treatment of gastritis.

Applications

The fermented milk with the EPS-producing strain *S. thermophilus* CRL 1190 and/or its EPS constitutes a potential natural alternative for the prevention and treatment of ASA-associated gastric damage.

Terminology

EPS are carbohydrate polymers naturally produced by certain bacteria, alga, yeasts and fungi. These polymers are extensively used in several industries mainly due to their thickening, texturizing, and gelifying properties.

Peer review

The research is a well carried out study.

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Effects of thymidine phosphorylase on tumor aggressiveness and 5-fluorouracil sensitivity in cholangiocarcinoma

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Abstract

AIM: To evaluate the role of thymidine phosphorylase (TP) in cholangiocarcinoma using small interfering RNA (siRNA).

METHODS: A human cholangiocarcinoma-derived cell line KKU-M139, which has a naturally high level of endogenous TP, had TP expression transiently knocked down using siRNA. Cell growth, migration, *in vitro* angiogenesis, apoptosis, and cytotoxicity were assayed in TP knockdown and wild-type cell lines.

RESULTS: TP mRNA and protein expression were decreased by $87.1\% \pm 0.49\%$ and $72.5\% \pm 3.2\%$, respectively, compared with control cells. Inhibition of TP significantly decreased migration of KKU-M139, and suppressed migration and tube formation of human umbilical vein endothelial cells. siRNA also reduced the ability of TP to resist hypoxia-induced apoptosis, while suppression of TP reduced the sensitivity of KKU-M139 to 5-fluorouracil.

CONCLUSION: Inhibition of TP may be beneficial in decreasing angiogenesis-dependent growth and migration of cholangiocarcinoma but may diminish the response to 5-fluorouracil chemotherapy.

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Key words: Liver fluke; Cholangiocarcinoma; Thymidine phosphorylase; 5-fluorouracil; siRNA; Tumor aggressiveness; Cell migration

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INTRODUCTION

Cholangiocarcinoma is a common hepatobiliary malignancy among the Northeastern Thai population and it is an important public health problem because the incidence and fatality rates are high^[1,2]. Liver fluke (*Opisthorchis viverrini*) infection is a risk factor for cholangiocarcinoma, which accounts for about 89% of all liver cancer cases in Khon Kaen province, where the liver fluke is highly endemic and the incidence of cholangiocarcinoma is the highest in the world (97.4 per 100000 males and 39 per 100000 females)^[1]. A number of different genes have been implicated in carcinogenesis of cholangiocarcinoma, e.g. *p53*^[3], *MDM2*^[3], *bMLH1* and *bMSH2*^[4,5], and *TFE1*^[6]. We previously demonstrated the high prevalence of thymidine phosphorylase (TP) gene amplification (53.8%; 35 of 65 cases) in cholangiocarcinoma tumor tissues, suggesting that TP may play an important role in carcinogenesis of liver fluke-related cholangiocarcinoma^[7].

TP (EC 2.4.2.4) is located in chromosomal region 22q13.33 and encodes a protein that catalyzes the reversible phosphorolysis of thymidine, deoxyuridine, and their analogs to their respective bases and 2-deoxyribose-1-phosphate, which is then dephosphorylated to 2-deoxy-D-ribose^[8]. TP has been proposed to function in DNA synthesis, cell growth, chemotaxis stimulation in endothelial cells *in vitro*, and to enhance angiogenesis *in vivo*^[9,10]. TP is abnormally expressed in certain cancers of the gastrointestinal tract e.g. pancreatic cancers^[11], colon carcinomas^[12], gallbladder adenocarcinomas^[13], and intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma^[14]. Interestingly, TP expression was found to be elevated from 10- to 260-fold in nearly all biopsies examined from carcinomas of the stomach, colon, ovary, and bladder when compared to non-neoplastic regions of these organs^[15,16]. Nevertheless, how TP expression is up-regulated in human tumors remains unclear.

During the past few years the utility of RNA interference (RNAi) and post-transcriptional gene silencing has significantly advanced the study of the effects of loss of individual gene functions. Therefore, we investigated the functions and roles of TP in carcinogenesis of liver fluke-related cholangiocarcinoma using small interfering RNA (siRNA) to suppress TP expression. Understanding the functions of TP involved in cholangiocarcinoma will help us elucidate the molecular mechanisms of chol-

angiogenesis and thus could potentially provide important strategies for prevention, early diagnosis, and early treatment to reduce the cancer incidence and increase cholangiocarcinoma patient survival.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell lines and culture condition

The KKKU-M139 cell line was established from the primary tumor of a 53-year-old Thai woman with squamous cell type cholangiocarcinoma. It was selected for this work after prior screening of TP expression in 5 cholangiocarcinoma-derived cell lines (data not shown). KKKU-M139 was maintained in RPMI-1640 medium containing 100 IU/mL penicillin, 100 µg/mL streptomycin, and 100 mL/L heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS) as a complete medium. The human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs) isolation procedure followed the protocol of Jaffe *et al.*^[17]. HUVECs were maintained in M199 medium containing 100 U/mL penicillin, 100 µg/mL streptomycin, 50 mL/L pooled human serum, and 300 mL/L heat-inactivated FBS. Culturing was carried out at 37°C in a humidified 50 mL/L CO₂ incubator. Confluent HUVEC monolayers (passages 2-4) were used in the assays.

Transient knockdown of TP using siRNA

siRNA sequences against human TP were designed and synthesized by Stealth RNAi (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). The siRNA sequences were 5'-AUAGACUCCA GCUUAUCCAAGGUGC-3' (sense) and 5'-GCACCU UGGUAUAGCUGGAGUCUAU-3' (antisense). A non-related control siRNA that lacked identity with known gene targets was used as a control for non sequence-specific effects. TP siRNA or control siRNA (20 pmol) was transiently transfected into 1 × 10⁵ KKKU-M139 using OligofectAMINE (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, siRNA:OligofectAMINE complexes were mixed gently in Opti-MEM I reduced-serum medium and incubated for 20 min at room temperature. Then 200 µL of the complex mixture was added to cells growing in a 35-mm Petri dish containing 800 µL Opti-MEM I and mixed gently. After 24 h incubation at 37°C in a 50 mL/L CO₂ incubator, the complexes were replaced by complete medium. Cells were incubated further for 24 h and gene function assays performed within 72 h post-transfection. The intensity of TP expression, either mRNA or protein, was analyzed using ImageJ software version 1.32j (NIH, Bethesda, MD, USA). To determine the knockdown efficiency, the density of TP expression was normalized with its corresponding β-actin for mRNA or α-tubulin for protein. The normalized intensity was compared between TP siRNA-transfected cells (TP-deficient cells) and control siRNA-transfected cells (control cells).

Reverse transcription and semi-quantitative polymerase chain reaction

Total RNA from the KKKU-M139 cell line was reverse transcribed using Omniscript reverse transcriptase (QIA-

gen, Hilden, Germany). The forward and reverse primer sequences of TP were 5'-GGCATGGATCTGGAG-GAGAC-3' and 5'-CTCTGACCCACGATACAGCA-3', respectively. The forward and reverse primer sequences for β -actin as control were 5'-ACTGGGACGACATG-GAGAAA-3' and 5'-ATAGCACAGCCTGGATAGCA-3', respectively. Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification was carried out in a final volume of 20 μ L containing first-strand cDNA, 10 pmol of each primer, 5 U Taq polymerase in 1 \times Taq buffer (67 mmol/L Tris-HCl, 16.6 mmol/L ammonium sulfate, and 10 mL/L Tween 20), 2.5 mmol/L MgCl₂, and 0.2 mmol/L dNTPs. The amplification was initiated by incubation at 94°C for 5 min followed by 40 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 30 s, annealing at 59°C (for TP) or 60°C (for β -actin) for 30 s, and extension at 72°C for 30 s, with a final 10-min extension at 72°C. PCR products were separated on a 20 g/L agarose gel containing 100 ng/mL ethidium bromide. Gels were visualized and photographed on a UV Transilluminator.

Western blot analysis

Total protein was separated on 10% SDS-PAGE then transferred onto a nitrocellulose membrane and blocked with TBST buffer (20 mmol/L Tris-HCl, 150 mmol/L NaCl, 0.5 mL/L Tween 20) plus 50 g/L skim milk. The membrane was probed with anti-TP (Taiho Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd. Japan) or anti- α -tubulin (Zymed Laboratories Inc., San Francisco, CA, USA) as a control at a dilution of 1:1000 in TBST followed by a dilution of 1:2000 of a horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibody. Immunopositive bands were detected with freshly prepared ECL chemiluminescent solution (Amersham Biosciences, Buckinghamshire, England) and visualized by exposure to X-ray film.

Cell growth assay

To evaluate the cellular growth rates, 1×10^4 wild-type, TP-deficient, or control cells were seeded in 6-well cell culture plates and grown in complete medium at 37°C in a 50 mL/L CO₂ incubator. The cells were counted in triplicate every day for up to 6 d following a trypan blue dye exclusion assay. The population doubling time was calculated from the exponential growth phase.

Migration assays

The migration of HUVECs stimulated by TP-expressing KKU-M139 cells was evaluated by a 2-chamber assay using a 96-well modified Chemotaxicell chamber (Kurabo, Japan) with an 8- μ m pore size membrane. In brief, 100 μ L total protein of wild-type, TP-deficient or control cells (PBS alone as a negative control) was added to the lower chamber. HUVECs (1×10^5 resuspended in 60 μ L PBS) were placed in the upper chamber then incubated at 37°C in a 50 mL/L CO₂ incubator for 4 h. The number of cells that moved through the pores toward the attractant—that is, TP protein produced by KKU-M139 cells—and settled on the bottom chamber was counted using trypan blue staining. The assays were performed in triplicate. The

migration assay for KKU-M139 cells was carried out using the same protocol, but the lower chamber contained 100 μ L of a complete medium as a chemoattractant. RPMI-1640 medium containing 10 mL/L FBS served as a negative control. Wild-type, TP-deficient or control cells (1×10^5 in suspension in 60 μ L fresh RPMI-1640) were placed in the upper chamber.

In vitro angiogenesis assay

The HUVEC tube-like structure was determined using the Endothelial Tube Formation Assay (Cell Biolabs Inc., San Diego, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. In brief, HUVECs were harvested and resuspended in M199 culture medium containing 100 mL/L FBS and angiogenesis mediators, i.e. serum of endometriosis patients as a positive control, total protein from KKU-M139 cells before and after treatment with TP-siRNA. Cell suspension (150 μ L, 1.5×10^4 cells) was layered on the 50 μ L of solidified extracellular matrix (ECM) gel in each 96-well plate, and the plate was incubated at 37°C for 18 h to allow the HUVECs to reorganize into a 3-dimensional tubular structure. The tube-like structures were stained with Calcein AM fluorescent dye, and examined and captured under a fluorescence microscope (Olympus CKX41, Tokyo, Japan). The tube length was quantified using ImageJ (NIH, Bethesda, MD, USA) and represented as total tube length (μ m) for 3 photographic fields per experimental condition. Each treatment was performed in duplicate, and the set of experiments was repeated twice independently.

TUNEL apoptosis assay

The DeadEnd™ Colorimetric TUNEL System (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) was used to detect apoptosis in cultured cell lines. In brief, cells grown in a 35-mm petri-dish were exposed to hypoxic conditions for 48 h. Cells were allowed to undergo apoptosis at 37°C in a humidified 50 mL/L CO₂ incubator for 12 h. Treated cells were fixed with 40 g/L buffered formaldehyde, permeabilized by 2 mL/L Triton X-100, and equilibrated with Equilibration buffer (Promega). The cells were incubated with recombinant terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase (rTdT) reaction mix, containing biotinylated nucleotides, inside a humidified chamber at 37°C for 1 h to allow end-labeling of the fragmented DNA of apoptotic cells to occur. The reactions were terminated by addition of 2 \times SSC buffer, and endogenous peroxidases were blocked with 3 mL/L H₂O₂. To detect the incorporated biotinylated nucleotides, streptavidin-horseradish peroxidase solution (Promega) in PBS was used. A total of 100 μ L diaminobenzidine chromogen was added to each plate and developed until a light brown background occurred. Cells stained brown was counted per total number of cells in the 100 \times power field of inverted microscope. The assays were performed in duplicate, and the experiment was repeated at least 3 times.

MTS cytotoxicity assay

To determine the concentration of 5-fluorouracil that

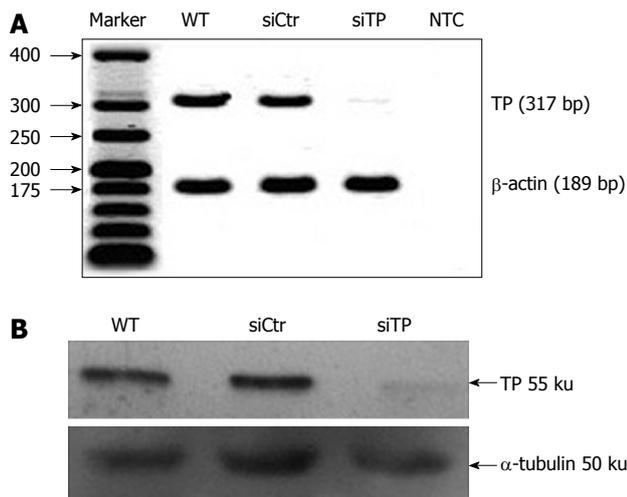


Figure 1 Small interfering RNA (siRNA) significantly reduced thymidine phosphorylase (TP) mRNA analyzed by semi-quantitative polymerase chain reaction (A) and protein (B) analyzed by Western blot of TP-deficient (siTP) cells compared with wild-type (WT) and control (siCtr) cells. For negative control (NTC), no cDNA was present in the reaction.

inhibited cell proliferation by 50% (IC₅₀), the MTS assay (Promega) was used according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, at one day post-transfection, 100 μL of cell suspension (1 × 10⁵ cells/mL) was added to each well of a 96-well flat-bottom culture plate then incubated at 37°C in a humidified 50 mL/L CO₂ incubator. After 24 h incubation, 100 μL medium containing various concentrations of 5-fluorouracil or fresh medium for untreated controls was added to each well for 48 h. The culture medium containing dead cells was then removed, and 100 μL of medium containing 20 μL MTS solution (317 μg/mL) was added to each well for 2 h to allow living cells to catalyze the MTS to a colored formazan product which was measured at 490 nm using a microplate reader (Tecan Austria GmbH, Salzburg, Austria). The assays were performed in duplicate, and the experiment was repeated twice.

Statistical analysis

Values are presented as mean ± SD. The statistical significance of the data was analyzed by one-way ANOVA using SPSS statistical software version 10.0 for Windows (SPSS Inc, Chicago, IL, USA). *P* < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

TP is not a pivotal factor for tumor cell proliferation in cholangiocarcinoma

After TP-siRNA transfection, expression of TP mRNA (Figure 1A) and protein (Figure 1B) was suppressed by 87.1% ± 0.49% and 72.5% ± 3.2%, respectively, compared with control cells. To evaluate TP function on the proliferation of KKU-M139, the cell growth assay was performed. The population doubling time calculated from exponential growth phase (day 1-day 4) of wild-

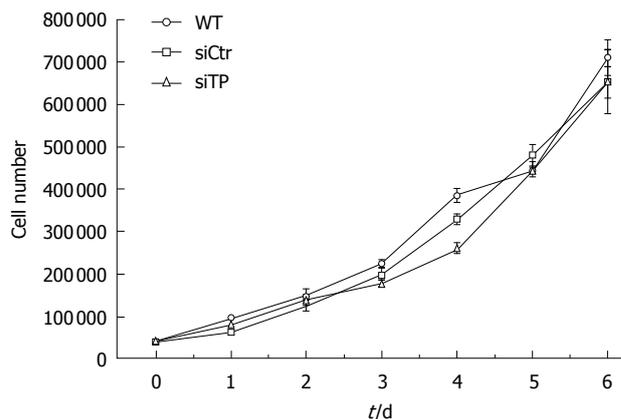


Figure 2 Kinetic growth curves of KKU-M139 WT, control (siCtr), and TP-deficient (siTP) cells. The doubling time of TP-deficient cells was not significantly different from that of WT or control cells.

type, TP-deficient, and control cells was 25.7 ± 4.7, 29.7 ± 2.4, and 29.6 ± 6 h (*n* = 4), respectively (Figure 2). Doubling time of TP-deficient cells was not significantly different from that of wild-type or control cells.

TP-siRNA decreases TP-induced migration of HUVECs and KKU-M139

Angiogenesis, which is crucial for the development and progression of various cancers, requires migration and proliferation of endothelial cells in order to form the vasculature. Therefore, we tested the ability of TP to activate migration of endothelial cells using a 2-chamber assay. Migration of HUVECs toward total protein of TP-deficient cells was similar to that of PBS (Figure 3A). Use of total protein of TP-expressing KKU-M139 cells as a chemoattractant induced the migration of HUVECs by more than 2-fold relative to PBS (*P* < 0.05). Migration of cancer cells is important for invasion and metastasis. We investigated the migration of wild-type, TP-deficient, and control cells directed to 100 mL/L FBS as a chemoattractant. Migration towards 100 mL/L FBS of TP-deficient cells was significantly reduced by 2.4-fold compared with wild-type (*P* < 0.001) and 1.8-fold compared with control cells (*P* < 0.01) (Figure 3B).

TP-siRNA attenuates TP-induced tube formation of HUVECs

To assess the effect of TP on the formation of blood vessels, we analyzed the ability of TP produced from KKU-M139 to induce HUVECs to form tube structures using an ECM gel angiogenesis assay. Tube-like structures were formed by HUVECs activated by serum of endometriosis patients as a positive control (Figure 4A) but not by the PBS as a negative control (Figure 4B). HUVECs exhibited significant tube formation when total protein from wild-type KKU-M139 cells (Figure 4E and F), which endogenously express TP, was added (*P* < 0.001 *vs* PBS). Pre-treatment of KKU-M139 cells with TP-siRNA (Figure 4D) to suppress TP expression reduced tube formation of HUVECs compared with control cells (Figure 4C) (*P*

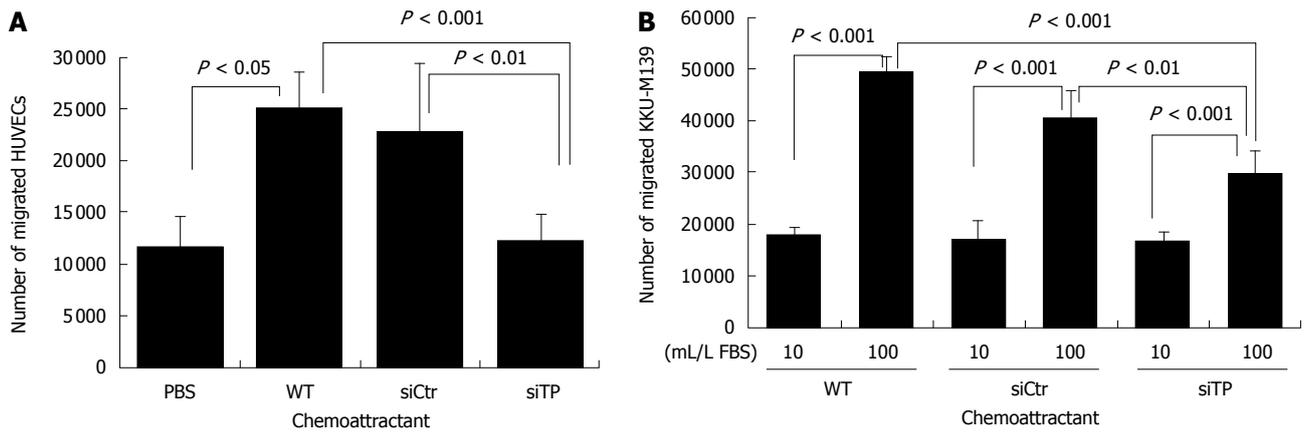


Figure 3 Knockdown of TP reduces migration of HUVECs and KKU-M139. **A:** Migration of HUVECs toward protein produced from TP-deficient cells (siTP) was similar to that of PBS, and 2-fold less than that of wild-type (WT); **B:** TP-deficient KKU-M139 cells are less migratory in response to FBS compared with wild-type, and control.

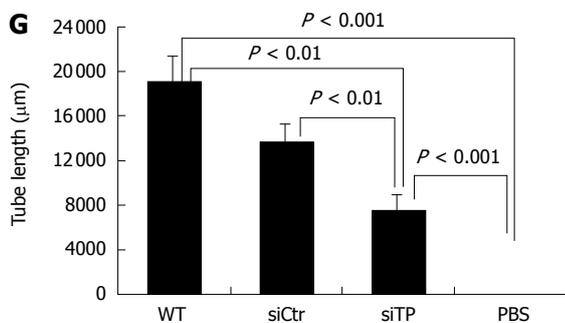
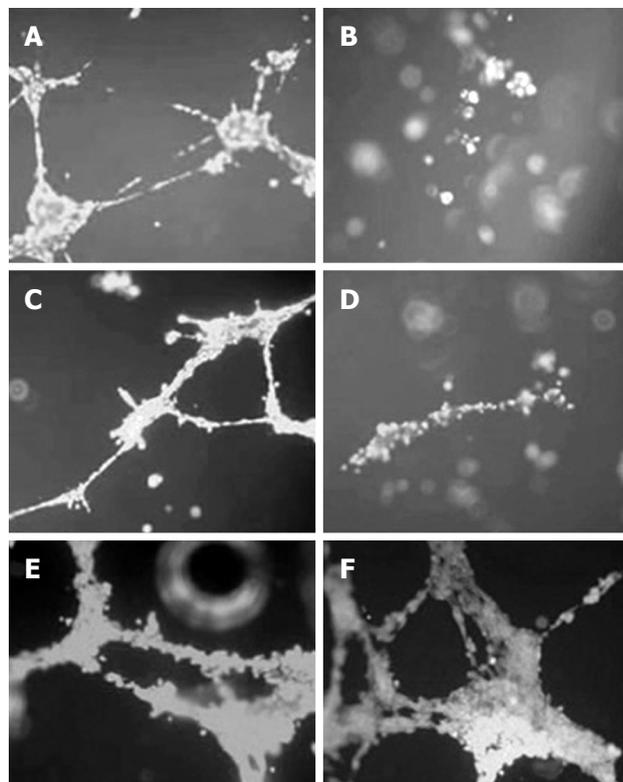


Figure 4 Knockdown of TP decreases the formation of tube-like structures in an ECM gel angiogenesis assay. Serum of endometriosis patients was used as a positive control (A), and PBS as a negative control (B). Total protein of control (siCtr) (C), TP-deficient (siTP) (D), or WT cells (E and F) were assayed. The tube length was quantified (G).

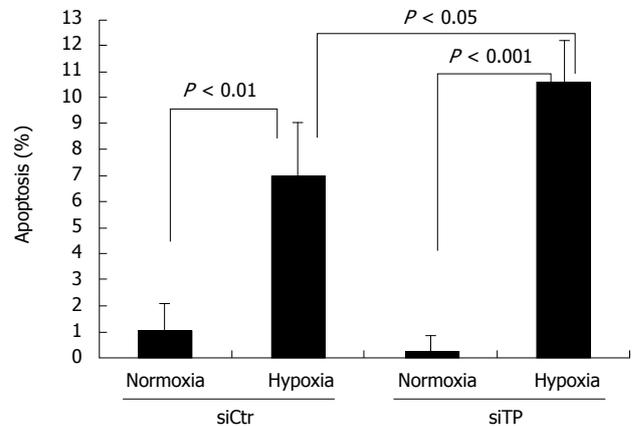


Figure 5 Knockdown of TP leads to increased cell death under hypoxic conditions. TP-deficient (siTP) or control (siCtr) cells were exposed to normoxic or hypoxic conditions for 48 h. Apoptosis was measured with the TUNEL assay.

< 0.01) or wild-type cells ($P < 0.01$) as shown in Figure 4G.

Reduced TP expression decreases resistance to hypoxia-induced apoptosis of KKU-M139

TP was reported to confer resistance to apoptosis induced by hypoxia. Under hypoxic conditions, the TP-deficient cells exhibited significantly more cell death than did the control cells ($P < 0.05$). Thus, TP seems to confer resistance to hypoxia-induced apoptosis in control cells. For both control and TP-deficient cells, the percent apoptosis under normoxic conditions was less than that under hypoxic conditions ($P < 0.01$ and $P < 0.001$, respectively). Anti-apoptotic activity of KKU-M139 under 48 h hypoxic conditions was suppressed by TP knockdown (Figure 5).

TP-siRNA decreases the sensitivity of KKU-M139 cells to 5-fluorouracil

5-fluorouracil is a commonly used chemotherapeutic drug for cholangiocarcinoma, and TP is needed for 5-fluorouracil activation. To determine to what extent TP contributes to the cytotoxic effect of 5-fluorouracil, cells were

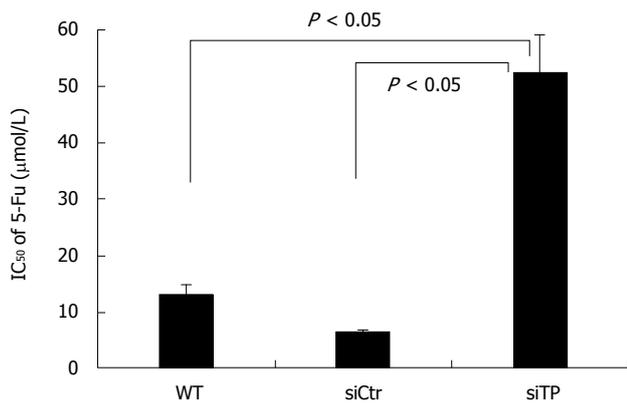


Figure 6 Effects of TP-siRNA on 5-fluorouracil (5-Fu) cytotoxicity of KKKU-M139. KKKU-M139 WT, control (siCtr), and TP-deficient (siTP) cells were incubated with various concentrations of 5-fluorouracil for 48 h. Sensitivity of the cells to 5-fluorouracil was then determined with a MTS cytotoxicity assay.

exposed to a range of concentrations of 5-fluorouracil in the presence or absence of siRNA against TP. The IC₅₀ of control and wild-type cells were 6.4 ± 0.36 and 13 ± 1.70 µmol/L 5-fluorouracil, respectively. As expected, TP-deficient cells required 52.3 ± 6.8 µmol/L 5-fluorouracil, an 8.2-fold increase over that in control cells (*P* < 0.05), to inhibit cell proliferation by 50% (Figure 6).

DISCUSSION

We previously reported that 35 of 65 (53.8%) liver fluke-related cholangiocarcinoma cases exhibited TP amplification, suggesting that TP may contribute to the pathogenesis of cholangiocarcinoma^[7]. Here, we report that TP confers resistance to apoptosis, induces migration of a cholangiocarcinoma-derived cell line, and mediates migration and tube formation of HUVECs. However, TP is essential for activation of 5-fluorouracil, a commonly used anti-cancer drug for treatment of cholangiocarcinoma. In fact, TP amplification and overexpression have been reported for various solid tumors that exhibited invasion, metastasis, angiogenesis, and poor prognosis, including cholangiocarcinoma^[15-16,18,19]. In this study, transfection with TP-siRNA suppressed TP mRNA expression by approximately 87% and protein expression by 72% (Figure 1), indicating effective gene silencing. The population doubling time of TP-deficient cells was not significantly different from that of wild-type or control cells (Figure 2), suggesting that TP is not a pivotal factor for tumor cell proliferation in cholangiocarcinoma.

Increased TP expression has been shown to increase invasiveness of KB epidermoid carcinoma cells compared with control cells^[20]. Migration is an important characteristic of metastatic cancer cells. TP-expressing KKKU-M139 also exhibited greater migration than TP knockdown cells (Figure 3B). Nakajima *et al.*^[21] determined the molecular basis for induction of invasive activity by TP. They suggested that TP and 2-deoxy-D-ribose induces the expression, secretion, and activity of matrix metalloproteinase-9 (MMP-9) that subsequently confers

invasiveness on cancer cells, but the exact mechanism by which TP and one of its degradation products, 2-deoxy-D-ribose, enhance MMP-9-mediated invasive activity is not known. The expression level of TP was reported to significantly correlate with that of the invasion-related genes MMP-1, MMP-7, and MMP-9^[22]. Taken together, these data indicate that TP enhances the invasion of tumor cells through the induction of invasion-related genes in cholangiocarcinoma.

The study by Hotchkiss *et al.*^[23] demonstrated that TP-expressing cells mediated HUVEC migration via the intracellular metabolism of thymidine by TP and the subsequent extracellular release of 2-deoxy-D-ribose, which formed a chemotactic gradient. Later, they proved that both TP and 2-deoxy-D-ribose stimulated HUVEC migration by increasing cell surface expression of the integrins α_vβ₁ and α_vβ₃ to form focal adhesions. Integrins bind to the ECM and directly activate focal adhesion kinase signaling pathways, mediating cell attachment and migration^[24]. KKKU-M139, which endogenously expresses TP, also strongly induced HUVEC migration, an early step in angiogenesis. Our study showed that TP-expressing KKKU-M139 could stimulate the migration and formation of tube-like structures of HUVECs to a much greater degree than TP-silenced KKKU-M139 (Figure 3A and 4). In addition, 2-deoxy-D-ribose can mediate an oxidative stress mechanism and upregulate other angiogenic factors^[25]. Attracted endothelial cells proliferate upon stimulation by growth factors released from cancer cells and subsequently form new blood vessels. Suppression of TP-mediated migration and angiogenesis of HUVECs by TP-siRNA thus can be explained by the fact that TP and its product, 2-deoxy-D-ribose, could not exert their effect on cell migration and tube formation. Chemically synthesized TP inhibitor (TPI) has been demonstrated to suppress tumor growth by increasing the proportion of apoptotic cells and probably by inhibiting angiogenesis; TPI completely suppressed angiogenesis by TP-cDNA transfected KB cells^[26]. 2-deoxy-L-ribose, the stereoisomer of 2-deoxy-D-ribose, is also a TPI, as shown by the ability of 2-deoxy-L-ribose to inhibit 2-deoxy-D-ribose-mediated angiogenesis and metastasis of tumor cells expressing TP^[20,27]. Our study also demonstrated that TP-siRNA was able to act as TP suppressor or inhibitor.

Resistance to apoptosis is a key process in tumor formation. 2-deoxy-D-ribose was found to be involved in a hypoxia-induced apoptotic pathway. 2-deoxy-D-ribose inhibited hypoxia-induced phosphorylation of p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase but not c-jun NH₂-terminal kinase/stress-activated protein kinase in human leukemia HL-60 cells^[28]. In addition, 2-deoxy-D-ribose and thymine partially prevented hypoxia-induced apoptosis^[29]. 2-deoxy-D-ribose may be an important energy source under hypoxic conditions^[30]. The ability of TP-siRNA to increase the proportion of apoptotic KKKU-M139 cells (Figure 5) was most likely attributable to an inhibition of TP pathways, however, further studies are needed to de-

termine the exact role of TP in these tumor phenotypes.

The enzymatic activity of TP is also indispensable for the activation of prodrug 5'-deoxy-5-fluorouridine (5'-DFUR) to active 5-fluorouracil and fluorodeoxyuridine in tumors. The sensitivity of TP cDNA-transfected MCF-7 breast cancer cells to 5'-DFUR was increased approximately 20-fold compared to the parent cells or cells with control vector alone, and sensitivity to 5-fluorouracil was also somewhat increased^[31]. The sensitivity of a TP-transfected SMMC-7721 hepatocellular carcinoma cell line to 5'-DFUR was also significantly enhanced; however, endothelial cell migration was also promoted at the same time^[32]. We demonstrated that TP-siRNA was able to suppress TP expression *in vitro* and that this treatment impaired the therapeutic efficacy of 5-fluorouracil in KKU-M139 (Figure 6), indicating that TP enzyme activity is needed for 5-fluorouracil activation.

In conclusion, we found that TP plays a dual role in development and therapy of cholangiocarcinoma. TP confers apoptotic resistance and migration of a cholangiocarcinoma-derived cell line, and also induces migration and tube formation of HUVECs. On the other hand, TP is essential for the therapeutic efficacy of 5-fluorouracil chemotherapy. It may be useful to examine the expression level of TP in tumors of early stage cholangiocarcinoma patients to select those likely to respond well to 5-fluorouracil. However, most cholangiocarcinoma patients are diagnosed at a late stage, and there are several chemotherapeutic drugs of choice in addition to 5-fluorouracil for cholangiocarcinoma. Inhibition of TP activity may be helpful in decreasing tumor aggressiveness i.e. migration, angiogenesis and anti-apoptosis, and improving the poor prognosis of cancer patients who show high TP expression.

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COMMENTS

Background

Liver fluke-related cholangiocarcinoma is the most common hepatobiliary malignancy found in Northeast Thailand. Amplification of thymidine phosphorylase (TP) copy number was found in most cholangiocarcinoma patients suggesting that it has a significant role in tumor progression.

Research frontiers

TP catalyzes the reversible phosphorolysis of thymidine, deoxyuridine, and their analogs to their respective bases and 2-deoxyribose-1-phosphate which is then dephosphorylated to 2-deoxy-D-ribose. TP is abnormally expressed in certain cancers of the gastrointestinal tract including cholangiocarcinoma. However, how TP expression is upregulated in human tumors remains unclear. In this study, the authors investigated the roles of TP in liver fluke-related cholangiocarcinoma using RNA interference to suppress TP expression.

Innovations and breakthroughs

Suppression of TP not only reduces angiogenesis, resistance to apoptosis, and

tumor migration but also diminishes chemosensitivity to 5-fluorouracil in cholangiocarcinoma.

Applications

Because of its significance in tumor aggressiveness and 5-fluorouracil sensitivity, TP expression may be used as a prognostic and predictive marker as well as targeted therapy in cholangiocarcinoma.

Peer review

The TP gene is aberrantly expressed in different human malignancies including cholangiocarcinoma. In the current manuscript submitted by Thanasai *et al.*, the authors made several interesting observations. This article reports the effects of TP expression on tumor migration and 5-fluorouracil sensitivity in cholangiocarcinoma cells, as well as tumor cell-induced angiogenesis of endothelial cells *in vitro*.

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Hepatic osteodystrophy and liver cirrhosis

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Abstract

AIM: To investigate the correlation between hepatic osteodystrophy and osteoporosis in patients with liver cirrhosis.

METHODS: Bone mineral density of the patients ($n = 55$) and that of the control group ($n = 30$) were measured by dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry. All the women in the study were premenopausal. Deoxypyridinoline, pyridinoline and urinary Ca^{2+} were measured as bone destruction markers, while alkaline phosphatase (ALP), osteocalcin and insulin-like growth factor-1 (IGF-1) were measured as bone formation markers. Furthermore, interleukin-1 (IL-1), IL-6, tumor necrosis factor α (TNF- α), vitamin D3, direct bilirubin, albumin, cortisol and parathyroid hormone (PTH) levels were measured. The independent Student t test and χ^2 test were employed in comparing both groups, and the Pearson correlation test was used to determine associations.

RESULTS: Comparing cirrhosis and control groups, lumbar total T-score ($-1.6 \pm 1.2 \text{ g/cm}^2$ vs $-0.25 \pm 1.3 \text{ g/cm}^2$, $P < 0.001$), lumbar total Z-score ($-1.2 \pm 1.23 \text{ g/cm}^2$ vs $-0.6 \pm 1.3 \text{ g/cm}^2$, $P < 0.001$), total femur T-score ($-0.05 \pm 1 \text{ g/cm}^2$ vs $-0.6 \pm 0.9 \text{ g/cm}^2$, $P = 0.003$) and total femur Z-score ($-0.08 \pm 1.5 \text{ g/cm}^2$ vs $0.7 \pm 0.9 \text{ g/cm}^2$, $P =$

0.003) showed significantly lower values in the cirrhosis group. Blood ALP level ($109.2 \pm 57 \text{ U/L}$ vs $62.6 \pm 32.5 \text{ U/L}$, $P < 0.001$), IL-6 level ($27.9 \pm 51.6 \text{ pg/mL}$ vs $3.3 \pm 3.1 \text{ pg/mL}$, $P = 0.01$), TNF- α level ($42.6 \pm 33.2 \text{ pg/mL}$ vs $25.3 \pm 12.3 \text{ pg/mL}$, $P = 0.007$) and direct bilirubin level ($0.9 \pm 0.7 \text{ mg/dL}$ vs $0.3 \pm 0.2 \text{ mg/dL}$, $P < 0.001$) were significantly higher in the cirrhosis group. IGF-1 level ($47.7 \pm 26.2 \text{ ng/mL}$ vs $143.4 \pm 53.2 \text{ ng/mL}$, $P < 0.001$), osteocalcin level ($1.05 \pm 2.5 \text{ ng/mL}$ vs $7.0 \pm 13 \text{ ng/mL}$, $P = 0.002$) and 24 h urinary Ca^{2+} ($169.6 \pm 227.2 \text{ mg/dL}$ vs $287 \pm 168.6 \text{ mg/dL}$, $P = 0.003$) were significantly lower in the cirrhosis group. Urinary deoxypyridinoline/creatinine ($9.4 \pm 9.9 \text{ pmol}/\mu\text{mol}$ vs $8.1 \pm 5.3 \text{ pmol}/\mu\text{mol}$, $P = 0.51$), urinary pyridinoline/creatinine ($51.3 \pm 66.6 \text{ pmol}/\mu\text{mol}$ vs $29 \pm 25.8 \text{ pmol}/\mu\text{mol}$, $P = 0.08$), blood IL-1 level ($3.4 \pm 8.8 \text{ pg/mL}$ vs $1.6 \pm 3.5 \text{ pg/mL}$, $P = 0.29$), vitamin D3 level ($18.6 \pm 13.3 \mu\text{g/L}$ vs $18.4 \pm 8.9 \mu\text{g/L}$, $P = 0.95$), cortisol level ($11.1 \pm 4.8 \mu\text{g/dL}$ vs $12.6 \pm 4.3 \mu\text{g/dL}$, $P = 0.15$) and PTH level ($42.7 \pm 38 \mu\text{g/dL}$ vs $34.8 \pm 10.9 \mu\text{g/dL}$, $P = 0.27$) were not significantly different.

CONCLUSION: Hepatic osteodystrophy is an important complication encountered in patients with liver cirrhosis and all patients should be monitored for hepatic osteodystrophy.

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Key words: Liver cirrhosis; Osteoporosis; Hepatic osteodystrophy

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INTRODUCTION

Liver cirrhosis develops when the liver parenchyma takes a nodular form as a result of fibrosis arising from delayed wound-healing in chronic liver damage. Osteoporosis, characterized by a reduced bone mass and an increase in bone fragility due to distortion of bone tissue microstructure, is a multifactorial disease and the most common bone disease. Dual energy X-ray absorptiometry is a method of measuring bone mineral density which has become the standard in many centers and is a highly accurate X-ray method.

It is known that liver diseases may lead to bone disease^[1]. Although chronic liver disease is associated with a broad spectrum of bone diseases, the most common type of hepatic osteodystrophy is osteoporosis. If an increase in bone resorption exceeds bone formation, or decreased bone formation is present together with normal bone destruction, then in advanced cases, bone mass will decrease and the risk of fracture will increase^[2]. Increased cytokine levels in chronic liver disease and liver cirrhosis contribute to the development of hepatic osteodystrophy. Levels of interleukin-1 (IL-1), IL-6 and tumor necrosis factor α (TNF- α) are higher in patients with alcoholic hepatitis and liver cirrhosis than gender- and age-matched controls^[3]. It is thought that a reduction in growth factors, such as insulin, or an excess of growth inhibitors such, as bilirubin, in patients with cirrhosis causes osteoblastic function disorder^[4]. Low bone formation and a high resorption rate in chronic liver disease patients results in osteoporosis. It has been shown that serum osteocalcin decreases depending on reduction of osteoblast function. A decrease in serum osteocalcin levels and an increase in deoxypyridinoline (DPD) level can be explained by lower bone turnover^[4-7].

Osteopenia is more frequent than osteomalacia in the primary biliary cirrhosis (PBC)-associated metabolic bone diseases in patients in North America^[8]. Osteoclastic activity may be increased in premenopausal PBC women. In these people there is a disorder in the formation of new bone. Calcium and vitamin D metabolism is often normal in anicteric PBC patients^[8]. Osteoporosis is a common complication of cholestatic liver disease. In primary sclerosing cholangitis (PSC), the cause of osteoporosis is multifactorial. The pathophysiological mechanism of osteoporosis has not been identified clearly yet^[9,10].

The aim of this study was to establish the osteoporosis risk in liver cirrhosis, and to investigate the role of IL-1, IL-6, TNF- α , osteocalcin, insulin-like growth factor-1 (IGF-1), alkaline phosphatase (ALP), parathyroid hormone (PTH), cortisol and 25(OH)D3 in bone metabolism, and to investigate urinary DPD, pyridinoline and Ca²⁺ levels, which are biochemical markers of bone cycling.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Our study comprised a cohort of 85 patients, 55 men and 30 premenopausal women (older than 18 years) with liver cirrhosis, and a control group (15 men and 15 women).

The etiology was 37 hepatitis B, 10 cryptogenic, 2 PBC, 2 cardiac, 2 hepatitis C and 2 Wilson diseases in the patients with liver cirrhosis. The diagnosis of liver cirrhosis was done by biochemical and serological tests, abdominal ultrasonography, upper gastrointestinal endoscopy. Liver biopsy could not be performed because of ascites. Twenty-four patients had Child-Pugh stage C (score 11.2), 17 patients had Child-Pugh stage B (score 7.9), 14 patients had Child-Pugh stage A (score 5.6) cirrhosis. Previous diseases, fracture anamnesis, smoking, using of alcohol or coffee were investigated in all cases included in the study. There was no history of diabetes mellitus, hypertension, goitre, early menopause, surgical menopause, hyperparathyroidism or Cushing's syndrome in any of the study subjects, and none took any drug associated with increased risk of osteoporosis (anticoagulant, oral contraceptive, steroid, thiazide, diuretics, *etc.*).

Height, weight and body mass indexes (BMI) of all cases were calculated. Blood samples were analyzed in the laboratory department. Urea, creatinine, aspartate aminotransferase (AST), alanine aminotransferase (ALT), ALP, gamma glutamyl transpeptidase, Ca²⁺, P⁺, bilirubin and albumin levels were measured on an Abbott Aeroset device. Plasma cortisol, thyroid stimulating hormone, free T4, parathyroid hormone (PTH) and alpha-fetoprotein (AFP) levels were determined on a Modulator E 170 autoanalyser by electrochemiluminescence method. IGF-1 was measured on an Immulite 2000 autoanalyser, cytokines (IL-1, IL-6 and TNF- α) on an Immulite 1000 autoanalyser and vitamin D3 on an Agilent 1100 autoanalyser by HPLC.

Hydrochloric acid was added to 24 h urine for determination of pyridinoline and DPD, markers of bone destruction, by HPLC. Calcium was also determined in 24 h urine. Clearance of creatinine was calculated as (24 h urine volume \times urine creatinine)/(plasma creatinine \times 1440). Bone mineral density measurements were conducted in the triangle of L1-L4 vertebrae and femoral neck, trochanteric major, intertrochanteric region. The results were calculated as g/cm². T and Z scores for all subjects were analyzed.

Statistical analysis

Statistical assessment was carried out by SPSS 13.0. The independent Student *t* test and χ^2 test were used for comparing the groups. The Pearson correlation test was used to determine associations.

RESULTS

Seventeen female and 38 male patients with liver cirrhosis and 15 female and 15 male controls were included in the study. There were no significant differences in BMI and gender between the patients and the controls. The mean age of the patients was significantly higher than in the control group (mean, 44.8 years *vs* 34.8 years, Table 1). All the women included in the study were premenopausal, and none took alcohol or coffee. There was no fracture anamnesis. T- and Z-scores were significantly lower in

the cirrhosis group than in controls when bone mineral densities were compared (Table 1). IL-6 and TNF- α were significantly higher in the liver cirrhosis group, but there was no significant difference in IL-1 (Table 1). ALP levels were significantly higher in the cirrhosis group, but IGF-1 and osteocalcin were significantly lower compared to the control group (Table 1). There were no significant differences in DPD/creatinine and pyridinoline/creatinine levels, nor in blood cortisol, PTH and vitamin D levels (Table 1). There were no significant differences in sedimentation rate, AFP and C-reactive protein levels. Prothrombin time and direct bilirubin were significantly higher and albumin level significantly lower in the cirrhosis group (Table 1).

DISCUSSION

Hepatic osteodystrophy is an important health problem encountered in patients with liver cirrhosis^[1,2]. The reported prevalence of osteoporosis among patients with liver cirrhosis ranges from 20% to 50% depending on patient selection and diagnostic criteria, and the prevalence of fracture ranges from 5% to 20%^[9]. In the present study, osteoporosis was found in 37% of patients in accordance with the literature. The fact that all the female patients were premenopausal allowed reliable examination of the effect of liver cirrhosis on osteoporosis. Diamond *et al*^[5] found in their 2 separate studies that the prevalence of osteoporosis was 30%-48% in patients with chronic liver disease of different etiologies.

Hepatic osteodystrophy is defined as bone disease associated with chronic liver disease^[5,6,11,12]. The mechanism of hepatic osteodystrophy encountered in liver cirrhosis patients has not been clearly determined. Osteoporosis has been reported in patients with cholestatic liver, chronic viral hepatitis, alcoholic liver, hemochromatosis and benign and malignant tumors of the liver^[13]. In our study, the prevalence of osteoporosis was determined as 37% from the T-scores in lumbar vertebrae. Lumbar total BMD T-score and Z-score in patients with cirrhosis were significantly lower than those of the control group ($P = 0.003$).

IL-1, IL-6 and TNF- α cytokines are the cytokines most associated with postmenopausal osteoporosis^[14]. These cytokines can affect bone metabolism through either increasing osteoclast formation or increasing osteoclast activity. In addition, the cytokines can block osteoblast function directly and increase formation of other cytokines^[9]. IL-1, IL-6 and TNF- α levels were higher in patients with alcoholic hepatitis or liver cirrhosis compared to gender- and age-matched controls^[13]. The incidence and severity of osteoporosis is increased in patients with chronic hepatitis or intestinal diseases. Inadequate nutrition, use of steroids, and cytokines have roles in this outcome. Pfeilschifter *et al*^[15] concluded that these cytokines were strong resorptive agents. In the present study, IL-1, IL-6 and TNF- α levels were higher than those of the control group. It is thought that increased IL-6 and TNF- α levels were effective in promoting hepatic osteodystrophy in our patients with liver cirrhosis.

Table 1 Clinical features and laboratory test results of the liver cirrhosis and control groups

	Cirrhosis (n = 55)	Control (n = 30)	P-value
Lumbar total T-score (g/cm ²)	-1.6 ± 1.2	-0.25 ± 1.3	< 0.001
Lumbar total Z-score (g/cm ²)	-1.2 ± 1.2	-0.6 ± 1.3	< 0.001
Total femur T-score (g/cm ²)	-0.05 ± 1	0.6 ± 0.9	0.003
Total femur Z-score (g/cm ²)	-0.08 ± 1.5	0.7 ± 0.9	0.003
Age (yr)	44.8 ± 12.9	34.8 ± 8.2	< 0.001
BMI (kg/m ²)	25.5 ± 4.3	25.5 ± 3.7	0.970
IL-1 pg/mL	3.4 ± 8.8	1.6 ± 3.5	0.290
IL-6 pg/mL	27.9 ± 51.6	3.3 ± 3.1	0.010
TNF- α pg/mL	42.6 ± 33.2	25.3 ± 12.3	0.007
AFP (ng/mL)	2.6 ± 16.9	2.6 ± 1.1	0.100
Direct bilirubin (mg/dL)	0.3 ± 0.2	0.9 ± 0.7	< 0.001
CRP (mg/L)	5.8 ± 5.9	5.4 ± 11.3	0.800
Osteocalcin (ng/mL)	1.05 ± 2.5	7.0 ± 13	0.002
IGF-1 (ng/mL)	47.7 ± 26.2	143.4 ± 53.2	< 0.001
ALP (IU/L)	109.2 ± 57	62.6 ± 32.5	< 0.001
24 h urinary Ca ²⁺ (mg/dL)	169.6 ± 227.2	287 ± 168.6	0.003
Deoxypyridinoline/creatinine (pmol/ μ mol)	9.4 ± 9.9	8.1 ± 5.3	0.510
pyridinoline/creatinine (pmol/ μ mol)	51.3 ± 66.6	29 ± 25.8	0.080
Cortisol level μ g/dL	11.1 ± 4.8	12.6 ± 4.3	0.150
PTH level μ g/dL	42.7 ± 38	34.8 ± 10.9	0.270
Vit D3 level μ g/L	18.6 ± 13.3	18.4 ± 8.9	0.950
Albumin (g/dL)	2.5 ± 0.5	4 ± 0.4	0.001
Prothrombin time (s)	17.1 ± 5.2	11.7 ± 1.7	< 0.001
Sedimentation rate (h)	18.8 ± 10.6	11.6 ± 9.6	0.030

BMI: Body mass index; IL: Interleukin; TNF: Tumor necrosis factor; AFP: α -fetoprotein; CRP: C-reactive protein; ALP: Alkaline phosphatase; IGF: Insulin-like growth factor.

Menon *et al*^[16] have shown that there is a positive correlation between serum bilirubin level and bone destruction ratio. In the present study, increased serum bilirubin levels in patients with osteoporosis concur with studies in the literature. Gillberg *et al*^[17] have established that idiopathic osteoporosis exists together with a reduced IGF-1 level. It was thought that reducing growth factors, such as insulin, or increasing bilirubin in cirrhosis patients induces an osteoblastic function disorder^[4]. In our study, we found significantly lower IGF-1 levels in the liver cirrhosis group ($P < 0.001$), and direct bilirubin levels were significantly higher ($P < 0.001$).

In recent studies it has been reported that there is no abnormality in Ca²⁺, phosphorus and vitamin D metabolism in patients with PBS, which was unexpected^[18]. However in some studies vitamin D was lower. In our study, in accordance with the literature, vitamin D levels were not higher than the healthy group suggesting that vitamin D metabolism was normal in the liver cirrhosis group.

In another study conducted by Karan *et al*^[19], 24 patients with liver cirrhosis developing after hepatitis were compared with 22 healthy controls, and osteocalcin levels were non-significantly lower in the patient group. In the study of Capra *et al*^[20], comprising 20 people with cirrhosis and 22 healthy controls, osteocalcin levels in the cirrhosis group were lower than in the control group,

whereas plasma calcitonin levels in the cirrhosis group were higher than in the control group^[20].

In most studies, ALP levels in chronic liver patients were elevated, including the study of Karan *et al.*^[19]. It is necessary to measure enzyme function of osteoblasts (bone ALP) for diagnosis of osteoporosis. If liver-gallbladder disorders can be excluded, serum total ALP levels only can be used as an index of bone formation. In contrast, bone specific isoenzyme of ALP (BAP) is inside the osteoblast membrane and if osteoblast activation exists it is excreted into the circulation. Thus, measurement of BAP is more accurate and is affected less by non-bone pathologies.

Low bone formation and a high resorption ratio in chronic liver patients results in osteoporosis. It has been shown that serum osteocalcin decreases with reduction in osteoblast function. A reduction in serum osteocalcin and an increase in urine DPD can be explained by lower bone turnover^[4-7]. Monegal *et al.*^[21] have established that serum osteocalcin in patients with PBC is low. They emphasized that this was associated with a reduction in bone formation. Guañabens *et al.*^[22] have found that the volume of bone decreases because of a reduction in bone formation in PBC.

Osteoclastic activity may be increased in premenopausal women with PBC. In these patients there is a disorder in formation of new bone. Calcium and vitamin D metabolism in anicteric patients with PBC is often normal^[9]. Osteoporosis is a common complication of cholestatic liver disease. The causes of osteoporosis in PSC are multifactorial. The pathophysiological mechanism of osteoporosis has not been identified clearly yet^[10].

In the present study, we investigated osteocalcin and ALP as measures of bone formation. Osteocalcin levels were lower than those of the control group ($P = 0.002$), whereas ALP levels were higher ($P < 0.001$). Lower osteocalcin levels exhibit lower osteoblastic activity. A higher ALP level, which is a bone formation marker, can be associated with cholestasis, while lower serum osteocalcin levels may be associated with a reduction in bone formation. Urine 24 h calcium levels in the liver cirrhosis patients were significantly reduced, and could be associated with inadequate nutrition in these patients, or might indicate that osteoclastic activity did not increase, or even decrease, to reduce bone formation.

PTH stimulates both bone resorption and bone formation, but it is known that if it remains at a high level, osteoclasts are stimulated, whereas osteoblasts are inhibited. Some authors have been reported that hepatocellular dysfunction increases serum PTH levels, while some authors reported no change or even a reduction^[23]. In addition to the studies reporting that serum PTH levels in liver cirrhosis patients are higher than that of controls, there exists some studies indicating that the PTH level is lower^[23]. In the present study, although there was an increase in PTH levels in the liver cirrhosis group, it was not statistically significant.

Urinary DPD/creatinine and pyridinoline/creatinine level were non-significantly increased in the cirrhosis

patients. This finding suggests there may be more bone resorption than normal. Both insulin and IGF-1 have an influence on osteoblast function and contribute to bone formation. IGF-1 levels in the cirrhosis group were significantly lower in the study. This implied that IGF-1 reduction is an important factor in progression to hepatic osteodystrophy. There is an increase in the urinary hydroxyproline/creatinine ratio especially in advanced stages of liver cirrhosis^[20]. The urinary deoxypyridine/creatinine ratio and serum bone ALP levels increase in osteoporosis developing from hepatitis C virus-associated liver cirrhosis^[4]. Increased activity of the osteoprotegerin system can be associated with increased TNF- α and IL-6 levels^[24,25].

In conclusion, metabolic bone diseases are important complications of chronic liver diseases. The bone mineral density of patients with liver cirrhosis is reduced. A decreased osteocalcin level in patients with liver cirrhosis means reduced bone formation, which, in turn, may contribute to development of osteoporosis. Increased TNF- α and IL-6 levels in patients with cirrhosis may contribute to the development of hepatic osteodystrophy. Decreased IGF-1 levels in patients with liver cirrhosis may contribute to the development of osteoporosis. Early scanning for osteoporosis in patients with liver cirrhosis will reduce the risk of morbidity and mortality. As advanced hepatic osteodystrophy is difficult to treat and adversely affects both the quality of life and the long-term prognosis of patients with chronic liver disease, special care is required in order to prevent the development of clinical bone disease in individuals with advanced hepatic disease.

COMMENTS

Background

Liver cirrhosis develops when the liver parenchyma takes a nodular form as a result of fibrosis arising from delayed wound-healing in chronic liver damage. Osteoporosis, characterized by a reduced bone mass and an increase in bone fragility due to distortion of bone tissue microstructure, is a multifactorial disease and the most common bone disease. In North America, osteopenia is more frequent than osteomalacia in patients with metabolic bone diseases associated with primary biliary cirrhosis. In primary sclerosing cholangitis, the causes of osteoporosis are multifactorial. The pathophysiological mechanism of osteoporosis has not been identified clearly yet.

Research frontiers

Metabolic bone diseases are important complications of chronic liver diseases. Increased cytokine levels in chronic liver disease and in cirrhosis contributes to the development of hepatic osteodystrophy. This study compared bone mineral density and cytokines in patients with liver cirrhosis and controls.

Innovations and breakthroughs

Cytokines have a role in hepatic osteodystrophy. Screening and treatment of symptoms are very useful for patients with liver cirrhosis.

Applications

Early diagnosis of osteoporosis by scanning in patients with liver cirrhosis will reduce the risk of morbidity and mortality. Therefore life quality will be better in patients with liver cirrhosis.

Peer review

The manuscript investigated the correlation between hepatic osteodystrophy and osteoporosis by comparing 55 patients with liver cirrhosis and 30 healthy controls and there are several comments and suggestions. This is an interesting study as the pathogenesis of hepatic osteodystrophy has not been studied extensively.

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Clinicopathological significance and prognostic value of LRP16 expression in colorectal carcinoma

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Abstract

AIM: To explore the expression of leukemia related protein 16 (LRP16) in colorectal carcinoma, and analyze its correlation with clinicopathologic features and prognosis.

METHODS: Immunohistochemistry for LRP16 was performed in 201 cases of colorectal carcinoma and 60 cases of distal normal mucosa. Medical records were reviewed and clinicopathological analysis was performed.

RESULTS: LRP16 expression was detected in 117 of 201 cases of the colorectal carcinoma and in 21 cases of 60 distal normal mucosa. The expression of LRP16 in carcinoma was significantly higher than that in normal mucosa ($\chi^2 = 9.999$, $P = 0.002$). LRP16 protein expression was found in 43.3% (52/120) of carcinoma at stage I and II, and 80.2% (65/81) of carcinoma at stage III and IV ($\chi^2 = 27.088$, $P = 0.001$). Correlation

between LRP16 expression and clinicopathological factors was significant in differentiation ($P = 0.010$), tumor size ($P = 0.001$), infiltrative depth ($P = 0.000$) and distant metastasis ($P = 0.027$). The difference of median survival time between cancer patients with LRP16 expression (38.0 mo) and those without was statistically significant (105.0 mo, Log rank = 41.455, $P = 0.001$). The multivariate survival analysis revealed that LRP16 expression was correlated significantly (Cox's regression: $P = 0.001$, relative risk = 2.082) with shortened survival in the patients with colorectal cancer.

CONCLUSION: The expression of LRP16 is related to the degree of differentiation, invasiveness, metastasis and prognosis of colorectal carcinoma.

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Key words: Colorectal neoplasms; Immunohistochemistry; Leukemia related protein 16; Prognosis; Clinicopathology

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INTRODUCTION

Leukemia related protein 16 (LRP16), which was originally recognized and isolated from human lymphocytes in 1999, was identified as an estrogen-responsive gene. It

localizes on chromosome 11q12.1 and encodes nuclear factor^[1-5]. It expresses in testicle, ovaries, mucosa of colon, prostate, small intestine, spleen, thymus^[2,3] and gastric carcinoma^[6]. LRP16 is also an estrogen receptor α (ER α) coactivator. Its expression level is strongly dependent on the estrogen activities. It is involved in estrogen signaling pathway and can strengthen the ER α responsive gene activation.

Colorectal carcinoma is a major cause of cancer-related morbidity and mortality. In the Western countries, it is the second leading cause of death from cancer^[7]. The incidence of colorectal cancer has increased in China recently, therefore, some new molecular markers are necessary to raise the efficiency of tumor diagnosis and to predict prognosis of the patients or even for therapeutic application. It has been reported that ER is identified in colorectal cancer^[8-10]. However, no immunohistochemical and clinicopathological studies of LRP16 have been performed in colorectal carcinoma. Here, we investigated the expression of LRP16 in colorectal cancer specimens and normal mucosa by an immunohistochemistry (IHC)-based technique and analyzed the relationship between LRP16 expression and the clinicopathological features of Chinese patients with colorectal cancer.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients and specimens

A series of 201 consecutive colorectal carcinoma patients who were treated surgically in Chinese People's Liberation Army General Hospital (Beijing, China) between August 1999 and September 2003 and 60 cases with distal normal mucosa were recruited in this study. There were 127 men and 74 women with ages ranging from 20 to 81 years (median, 62 years; mean, 57.8 years). The carcinomas were located in the cecum ($n = 9$), ascending colon ($n = 29$), transverse colon ($n = 14$), descending colon ($n = 9$), sigmoid colon ($n = 48$) and rectum ($n = 92$). Of these patients, 24 were grade I, 110 grade II and 67 grade III, according to histological grading; and 48 were stage I, 72 were stage II, 70 were stage III and 11 were stage IV, according to clinical TNM stage revised by International Union Against Cancer in 2003. All the patients were followed up for survival. During the follow-up period from the date of surgery until April 30, 2009, 126 patients died and 75 were alive (median survival time, 51 mo, range, 0.10-115 mo).

Histological examination

The resected specimens were fixed in 10% formalin. The gross appearance and the size of tumor were recorded. Patients' medical records and histopathology of each specimen were reviewed. The tissues (cancer and normal) were cut into 5-mm slices, embedded in paraffin for histological and immunohistochemical examinations. Each paraffin block was cut at 4 μ mol/L in thickness, and sections were mounted onto adhesive-coated slides. Slides were deparaffinized in xylene twice for 10 min and

rehydrated through descending concentration of ethanol. Antigen retrieval was performed in 0.01 mol/L citrate buffer (pH 6.0) by microwave oven for 2 min and 30 s at 100°C. Endogenous peroxidase activity was blocked with 0.3% hydrogen peroxidase for 15 min. After washing with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), the sections with primary polyclonal rabbit antibody to human LRP16 (recognized and isolated in 1999 by Department of Molecular Biology of our hospital) that was diluted 1:1000 in blocking solution were incubated at 4°C overnight, in a humidified chamber. After washing three times with PBS, the sections incubated for 30 min with biotinylated secondary antibody (polyperoxidase-anti-mouse/rabbit IgG, Zymed) then washed again with PBS. 3,3'-Diaminobenzidine was used as the chromogen. Sections were then counterstained with hematoxylin for 1 min, raised in water, dehydrated in ascending concentrations of ethanol followed by clearance with xylene, and cover slipped permanently for light microscopy. Normal ovary tissue was used as a positive control, whereas the primary antibody was replaced by PBS as a negative control.

Evaluation of score

Immunohistochemically stained slides were reviewed by two investigators independently who were blinded to all clinical data. Slides were analyzed under light microscopy using manual methods. Staining was graded for intensity of staining (0, negative; 1, weak; 2, moderate; 3, strong) and percentage of cells stained (0, < 5%; 1, 6%-25%; 2, 26%-50%; 3, > 50%). The final score was determined by the combined staining score (extent + intensity). Score 0 was defined as negative expression (-), scores 1-3 as weak staining pattern (+), and 4-6 as strong expression (++)

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS 13.0 software (SPSS Inc., Chicago, Illinois). The χ^2 test was used to examine the various clinicopathological characteristics and LRP16 expression. Cumulative survival curves were drawn by the Kaplan-Meier method. The difference between the curves was analyzed by the Log-rank test. Multivariate survival analysis was based on Cox proportional hazard model. $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Pattern of LRP16 expression in colorectal carcinoma and normal mucosa

LRP16 staining was performed in 201 colorectal cancer patients and 60 cases of normal tissues by IHC. The result showed that in cancer tissues, LRP16 staining was negative (-) in 41.8% (84/201) cases, weak positive (+) in 21.4% (43/201) cases and strong positive (++) in 36.8% (74/201) cases; whereas in normal mucosae, LRP16 was negative in 65% (39/60) cases, weak positive in 13.3% (8/60) and strong positive in 21.7% (13/60) cases. As a whole, LRP16 expression was detected in 58.2%

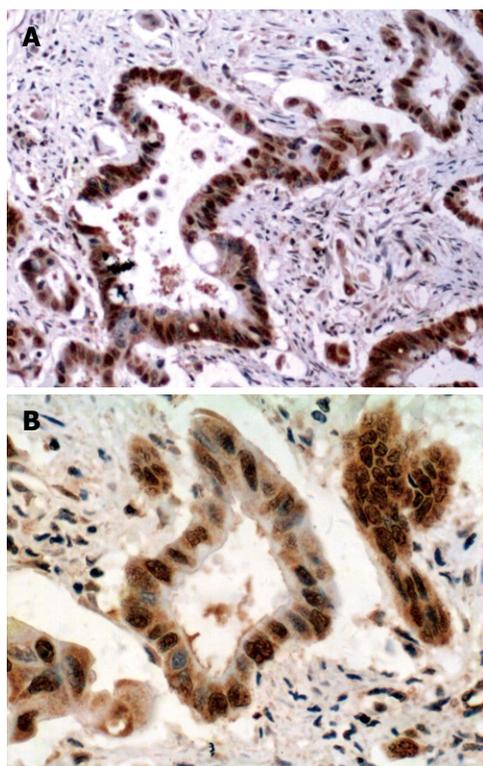


Figure 1 Positive leukemia related protein 16 (LRP16) expression in colorectal adenocarcinoma. The final score was 6, including 3 scores (strong) related to intensity of staining and 3 scores (> 50%) related to extent of staining. Thus it was defined as strong staining pattern (++). A: Immunohistochemistry (IHC), × 100; B: IHC, × 400.

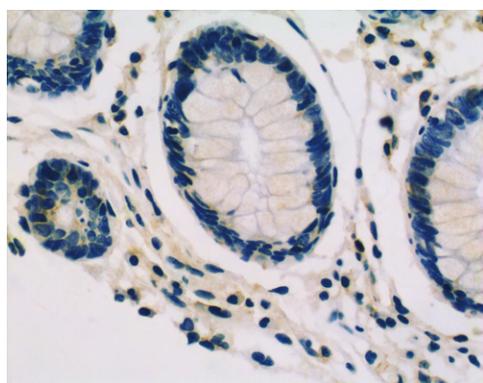


Figure 2 Negative LRP16 expression in normal colorectal mucosa (IHC, × 400). The final score was 0, including 0 score (negative) related to intensity of staining, and 0 scores (< 5%) related to extent of staining. Thus it was defined as negative expression (-).

(117/201) colorectal carcinoma, and in 35% (21/60) distal normal mucosa (Figures 1 and 2). The expression of LRP16 protein was found in cell nucleus or both cell nucleus and cytoplasm. The difference of LRP16 expression between colorectal cancer and normal mucosa was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 9.998, P = 0.002$).

Correlation of LRP16 expression and clinicopathological features in colorectal cancer

Upon clinicopathological analysis, more LRP16 expres-

Variables	LRP16		Statistical value
	Positive group (n = 197)	Negative group (n = 139)	
Gender			
Male	78 (61.4)	49 (38.6)	$\chi^2 = 1.460^a$
Female	39 (52.7)	35 (47.3)	$P = 0.227$
Age (yr)			
< 45	20 (64.5)	11 (35.5)	$\chi^2 = 0.640^a$
45 ≤ n < 60	36 (58.0)	26 (42.0)	$P = 0.726$
≥ 60	61 (56.5)	47 (43.5)	
Tumor size (cm)			
d < 5	68 (50.0)	68 (50.0)	$\chi^2 = 13.604^a$
5 ≤ d < 10	42 (72.4)	16 (27.6)	$P = 0.001$
d ≥ 10	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	
Tumor location			
Cecum	5 (55.6)	4 (44.4)	$\chi^2 = 6.027^a$
Ascending colon	22 (75.9)	7 (24.1)	$P = 0.304$
Transverse colon	8 (57.1)	6 (42.9)	
Descending colon	6 (66.7)	3 (33.3)	
Sigmoid colon	29 (60.4)	19 (39.6)	
Rectum	47 (51.1)	45 (48.9)	
Histologic differentiation			
Well differentiated	12 (50.0)	12 (50.0)	$\chi^2 = 9.210^a$
Moderately differentiated	56 (50.9)	54 (49.1)	$P = 0.010$
Poorly differentiated	49 (73.1)	18 (26.9)	
Depth of invasion, T stage			
T1	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)	$\chi^2 = 25.470^a$
T2	25 (36.8)	43 (63.2)	$P = 0.001$
T3	79 (69.9)	34 (30.1)	
T4	11 (84.6)	2 (15.4)	
Lymph node metastasis			
LN = 0	58 (45.3)	70 (54.7)	$\chi^2 = 24.735^a$
LN = 1-3	43 (78.2)	12 (21.8)	$P = 0.001$
LN > 3	16 (88.9)	2 (11.1)	
Distant metastasis			
Negative	107 (56.3)	83 (43.7)	$\chi^2 = 5.115^a$
Positive	10 (90.9)	1 (9.1)	$P = 0.027$
TNM stage			
I - II	52 (43.3)	68 (57.7)	$\chi^2 = 27.088^a$
III-IV	65 (80.2)	16 (19.8)	$P = 0.001$

^a $P < 0.05$, statistically significant. LRP16: Leukemia related protein 16.

sion was present in bigger tumors ($P = 0.001$). When comparing the LRP16 status with clinicopathological variables, we found significant positive correlations between LRP16 expression and degree of differentiation ($P = 0.010$), depth of invasion ($P = 0.001$), lymph node metastasis ($P = 0.001$) and distant metastasis ($P = 0.027$). The level of LRP16 in cases of low TNM stage (I + II) was lower than that of high stage (III + IV) ($\chi^2 = 27.088, P = 0.001$) (Table 1).

Relationship between LRP16 expression and overall survival of colorectal cancer patients

All 201 patients were followed up for survival to assess LRP16 expression as a prognostic factor. Kaplan-Meier survival curves and Log-rank test demonstrated that LRP16 positive cases showed a significantly shortened median survival time (38.0 mo) in comparison with other patients (105.0 mo) (Log rank = 41.455, $P = 0.001$) (Figure 3).

Table 2 Cox regression analysis of prognostic factors in colorectal carcinoma

Prognostic variables	B	SE	Wald value	P value	RR
Gender	0.261	0.197	1.756	0.185	1.298
Age (yr)	0.191	0.124	2.366	0.124	1.211
Tumor location	0.071	0.060	1.338	0.239	1.074
Histologic differentiation	0.747	0.162	21.128	0.001	2.110
Tumor size	0.123	0.188	0.433	0.510	1.131
Depth of invasion	0.508	0.199	6.523	0.011	1.661
Lymph node metastasis	0.060	0.206	0.085	0.771	1.062
Distant metastasis	1.450	0.526	7.589	0.006	4.264
TNM stage	0.717	0.236	9.236	0.002	2.049
LRP16 expression	0.741	0.225	10.868	0.001	2.099

B: Partial regression coefficient; RR: Relative risk. $P < 0.05$, statistically significant.

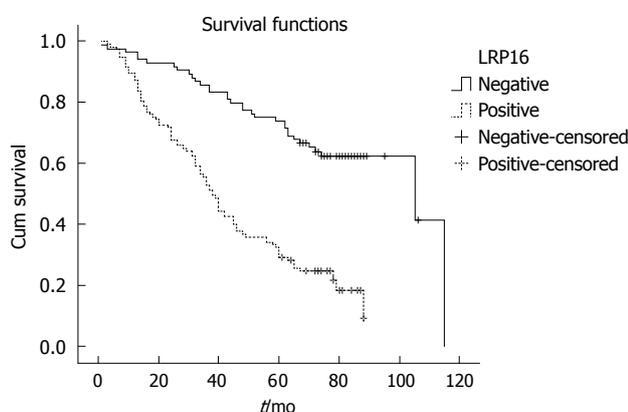


Figure 3 Cumulative survival according to LRP16 expression in colorectal cancer patients. The Kaplan-Meier plot of colorectal carcinoma patients ($n = 201$) demonstrates a significantly lower survival with LRP16 positive expression, $P = 0.001$.

The overall 5-year survival rate of the LRP16 negative patients (71.4%) was higher than that of the LRP16 positive group (29.1%). LRP16 expression appeared as a significant independent prognostic factor ($P = 0.001$) with a relative risk of 2.082 (confidence interval, 1.3-3.2) in the multivariate survival analysis of the patients. Other independent prognostic factors in multivariate survival analysis included tumor shape, degree of differentiation, depth of invasion and distant metastasis (Table 2).

DISCUSSION

LRP16 was originally recognized and isolated from human lymphocytes in 1999^[1]. It was identified as an estrogen responsive gene^[1-5]. The expression of LRP16 was found in different tissues in varying degrees, including ovary, testicle, prostate, small intestine, spleen, thymus and stomach^[2-3,6]. Furthermore, LRP16 is overexpressed in tumors, compared with their matched normal tissues^[2]. Some studies have indicated that LRP16 may play an important role in the carcinogenesis and progression of hormone-dependent breast cancer^[5,11]. Overexpression

of LRP16 significantly stimulated MCF-7 cell proliferation by promoting G1/S transition^[4]. The suppression of the endogenous LRP16 in ER α -positive MCF-7 cells not only inhibits cell growth but also significantly attenuates the cellular estrogen-responsive proliferation ability and sensitizes tumor cells to radiation^[11-13]. However, some authors thought that expression of LRP16 in ER α -negative cells had no effect on proliferation^[11]. The expression of *LRP16* gene was dependent on the estrogen activities^[14,15], LRP16 was also involved in estrogen signaling and could strengthen the ER α -responsive gene activation, therefore, it is also considered as an ER α coactivator^[11]. Previous studies have demonstrated that ER α /PR status, tumor size and auxiliary lymph node metastasis were closely correlated with LRP16 overexpression^[16]. ER includes two subtypes, ER α and ER β . They have been identified in colorectal cancer tissue and normal mucosa^[8-10]. It was also reported that the ER expression level of carcinoma was higher than that of non-cancerous colon tissues^[10]. Activation of ER signaling pathway plays an important role in multi-tissue development^[17-20]. Therefore, we propose that LRP16, a coactivator of ER α , may display an important function in the carcinogenesis and progression of colorectal cancer as in breast cancer.

Although the detailed molecular mechanism involved in this process is unclear, our study have potentially clinical benefits. LRP16 expression that could be detected by IHC may be a useful molecular marker to predict the prognosis in colorectal carcinoma patients. Moreover, LRP16 and ER α could inter-regulate each other, as LRP16 is an ER α coactivator. This study raises the possibility that anti-estrogen therapy could be used in the patients with high LRP16 expression. This information may help us individualize patient care (e.g. progression and prognosis of patients after operation). In this study, LRP16 expression was commonly up-regulated in colorectal carcinoma and was associated with shortened survival time of the patients in univariate and multivariate analyses. However, further investigations and clinicopathological correlation are necessary.

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COMMENTS

Background

Colorectal cancer is a major cause of cancer-related morbidity and mortality. In the Western world it is the second leading cause of death from cancer. The evidence of colorectal cancer has increased recently in China. Although this disease is curable by surgical interventions together with chemotherapy and radiation in its early stages, the patients are often asymptomatic before the metastasis occurred. Therefore, effective screening and preventive strategies for colorectal cancer are necessary to enhance our capability to predict the clinical outcome of the disease.

Research frontiers

Leukemia related protein 16 (LRP16) gene plays an important role in the

carcinogenesis and progression of hormone-dependent breast cancer. *LRP16* expression was also reported to be associated with invasion, metastasis and prognosis of gastric carcinoma. But no comprehensive description of LRP16 protein expression in colorectal cancer has been reported. In this study, the authors investigated the expression patterns of LRP16 protein in human colorectal cancers and compared the clinical and pathological variables including survival time of the patients.

Innovations and breakthroughs

To date, only limited data on LRP16 protein expression in solid tumors are available. This study is believed to be the first trial for verifying the relationship between LRP16 expression and clinicopathological factors of colorectal carcinoma.

Applications

The authors presented some evidences to show a significant association between high LRP16 expression in colorectal cancer and early disease progression or the disease related death, and they believe that the LRP16 expression status detected by immunohistochemistry (IHC) may be a molecular marker to predict the prognosis of colorectal carcinoma patients.

Peer review

In this paper the authors have analyzed by IHC the expression of LRP16 protein in 201 cases of colorectal carcinoma and 60 cases of distal normal mucosae and they have correlated the expression of this marker with the degree of differentiation, invasiveness, metastasis and prognosis of colorectal carcinoma. The study is well performed and the results are quite interesting, and are potentially helpful for clinical application, the quality of the research and presentation, including photomicrographs and figures, is high, the discussion is clear and well written.

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Long-term efficacy of perioperative chemoradiotherapy on esophageal squamous cell carcinoma

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Abstract

AIM: To investigate the role of perioperative chemoradiotherapy (CRT) in the treatment of locally advanced thoracic esophageal squamous cell carcinoma (ESCC).

METHODS: Using preoperative computed tomography (CT)-based staging criteria, 238 patients with ESCC (stage II-III) were enrolled in this prospective study between January 1997 and June 2004. With informed consent, patients were randomized into 3 groups: preoperative CRT (80 cases), postoperative CRT (78 cases) and surgery alone (S) (80 cases). The 1-, 3-, 5- and 10-year survival were followed up. Progression-free survival (PFS) was chosen as the primary endpoint by treatment arm measured from study entry until documented progression of disease or death from any cause. The secondary endpoint was overall survival (OS) determined as the time (in months) between the date of therapy and the date of death. Other objectives were surgical and adjuvant therapy complications.

RESULTS: With median follow-up of 45 mo for all the enrolled patients, significant differences in the 1-, 3-, 5-, 10-year OS (91.3%, 63.5%, 43.5%, 24.5% vs 91%, 62.8%, 42.3%, 24.4% vs 87.5%, 51.3%, 33.8%, 12.5%, $P = 0.0176$) and PFS (89.3%, 61.3%, 37.5%, 18.1% vs 89.1%, 61.1%, 37.2%, 17.8% vs 84.5%, 49.3%, 25.9%, 6.2%, $P = 0.0151$) were detected among the 3 arms. There were no significant differences in OS and PFS between the preoperative CRT and postoperative CRT arm ($P > 0.05$). For the patients who had radical resection, significant differences in median PFS (48 mo vs 61 mo vs 39.5 mo, $P = 0.0331$) and median OS (56.5 mo vs 72 mo vs 41.5 mo, $P = 0.0153$) were detected among the 3 arms, but there were no significant differences in OS and PFS between the preoperative CRT and postoperative CRT arm ($P > 0.05$). The local recurrence rates in the preoperative CRT, postoperative CRT group and S group were 11.3%, 14.1% and 35%, respectively ($P < 0.05$). No significant differences were detected among the 3 groups when comparing complications but tended to be in favor of the postoperative CRT and S groups ($P > 0.05$). Toxicities of CRT in the preoperative or postoperative CRT arms were mostly moderate, and could be quickly alleviated by adequate therapy.

CONCLUSION: Rational application of preoperative or postoperative CRT can provide a benefit in PFS and OS in patients with locally advanced ESCC.

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Key words: Esophageal cancer; Surgery; Esophagectomy; Chemotherapy; Radiation therapy

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INTRODUCTION

Esophageal squamous cell carcinoma (ESCC) is one of the common malignancies and the seventh leading cause of cancer-related deaths in the world^[1]. The 5-year survival rate is only 15%-20% in patients with locally advanced esophageal cancer^[2]. Treatment failure mainly results from recurrence or metastasis. A standardized comprehensive treatment is still under development. Radiotherapy can control local-regional esophageal cancer and chemotherapy has both local and systemic antineoplastic activity. With increasing enthusiasm for multidisciplinary treatment modalities to improve outcome, a commonly employed treatment approach for esophageal cancer is chemoradiotherapy (CRT) in addition to surgical resection^[3]. Preoperative CRT had been applied to patients with esophageal carcinoma in an effort to reduce the relapse rate and improve survival. Many studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of neoadjuvant CRT^[4-9]. In contrast to data available on preoperative CRT, although a number of trials compared adjuvant chemotherapy or radiotherapy with surgery alone, there are almost no randomized trials comparing adjuvant CRT with surgery alone. The only exception is a trial that compared surgery alone with surgery and adjuvant CRT for patients with resectable cancers of the stomach and gastroesophageal junction^[10]. Although the results suggest that resection followed by concurrent CRT should be considered for patients with adenocarcinoma of the stomach and the gastroesophageal junction, the question remains whether postoperative CRT can improve overall survival in patients with ESCC.

To our knowledge, as yet no study is available to determine the best sequencing of CRT and surgery. To resolve this deficiency, the present prospective study was conducted in our center from January 1997 to June 2004.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients

Two hundred and seventy one patients with ESCC were diagnosed by endoscopic biopsy and histopathology between January 1997 and June 2004 in our center. According to the preoperative computed tomography (CT) staging criteria, 238 patients with stage II-III thoracic ESCC were enrolled in this prospective study. The CT staging criteria were as follows: Stage I, the tumor was limited to the esophageal lumen or the thickness of the esophageal wall varied between 3 and 5 mm; Stage II, the thickness exceeded 5 mm but there was no invasion of the mediastinum or distant metastasis; Stage III, the tumor invaded the adjacent mediastinal structure; and

Table 1 Characteristics of the preoperative patients (*n* = 238)

	Pre-CRT (<i>n</i> = 80)	Post-CRT (<i>n</i> = 78)	S (<i>n</i> = 80)	Statistics	
				χ^2	<i>P</i>
Sex (M:F)	52:28	48:30	50:30	3.1326	0.209
Age (yr)				1.2375	0.975
40-	12	13	11		
50-	24	25	24		
60-	28	29	30		
70-	16	11	15		
Location				0.1920	0.996
Upper	11	10	12		
Middle	45	45	44		
Lower	24	23	24		
CT staging				0.1165	0.943
II	35	33	36		
III	45	45	44		

Pre-CRT: Preoperative chemoradiotherapy; Post-CRT: Postoperative CRT; S: Surgery alone; CT: Computed tomography.

Stage IV, there was distant metastasis. All patients gave informed consent prior to their inclusion in the study. The form had been reviewed by the appropriate ethics committee and had been developed and was administered in accordance with the ethical standards laid down in an appropriate version of the 1964 Declaration of Helsinki. The enrolled patients were randomized into 3 groups: preoperative CRT, postoperative CRT, and surgery alone (S). The randomization method was based on random numerals produced by computer. Characteristics of the preoperative patients are shown in Table 1.

Treatment

The surgical procedure used in this study was either a radical resection, which involved an esophagectomy through a left or right thoracotomy with 2-field lymphadenectomy, or palliative resection or esophageal bypass. All the patients who underwent palliative resection or esophageal bypass had taken traditional Chinese medicine themselves.

For patients in the preoperative arm, surgical resection was to be performed 4-6 wk after induction of CRT. The patients treated with postoperative CRT underwent surgery and received CRT 4-6 wk later. For patients treated with preoperative CRT, radiation was delivered in a total dose of 40 Gy (20 fractions at 2 Gy per fraction) in anteroposterior fields including esophageal tumors and enlarged lymph nodes, with a 4-5 cm proximal and distal margin and a 1-2 cm radial margin. For 30 out of 78 patients treated with postoperative CRT, radiation was delivered in daily fractions of 2 Gy to a total dose of 40 Gy over 4 wk by using the same double field technique as the preoperative CRT group, and the anteroposterior fields of the following 48 patients were extended from the sixth cervical vertebrae to the first lumbar vertebrae, including the origin of esophagus and lymph drainage that encompassed the supraclavicular regions and left gastric lymph nodes. Then a 10 Gy boost was delivered through parallel opposed lateral or oblique portals for limitation of spinal

cord radiation dose. Radiotherapy was carried out by linear accelerators with 6 MV photons; treatment ports were designed to include enlarged regional nodes based on CT evaluation and endoscopic ultrasound.

For chemotherapy, 2 cycles were administered on days 1-3 and days 22-24 of radiotherapy. A paclitaxel (PTX) + cisplatin (DDP) regimen was used, including PTX (135 mg/m² per day) administered as a short-term infusion on day 1 of each cycle, while DDP (20 mg/m² per day) was delivered as a continuous infusion over 24 h on days 1-3 of each cycle. The patients received the antiemetics granisetron and metoclopramide before and after the cisplatin infusion. The dose of chemotherapy in the second cycle was adjusted according to hematological toxicities.

Efficacy assessment

Any perioperative complications were observed and recorded. During treatment, the patients were monitored weekly with a physical examination and blood chemistry evaluation. Clinical evaluation was carried out by endoscopy, endoscopic ultrasonography, and CT scans. All results of the examination were collected and evaluated by the oncology experts. The 1-, 3-, 5- and 10-year survival were followed up.

Follow-up

Clinical follow-up after completion of treatment was based on periodic visits (every 3 mo during the first 2 years, every 6 mo after 2 years). The follow-up time for survivors ranged from 5 to 124 mo (median 45 mo).

Statistical analysis

STATA 10.0 for Windows (StataCorp, College Station, Texas 77845, USA) was used for statistical analysis. The differences in age group, sex, tumor location, and tumor staging, complications, and cause of death among groups were compared by the χ^2 test or Fisher's Exact test. The survival among groups were described by Kaplan-Meier curves and analyzed by the log-rank test. *P* values less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant. Progression free survival (PFS) was chosen as the primary endpoint by treatment arm measured from study entry until documented progression of disease or death from any cause. The secondary endpoint was overall survival (OS) determined as the time (in months) between the date of therapy and the date of death. Other factors determined were surgical and adjuvant therapy complications.

RESULTS

By June 30 2009, 228 out of all cases were followed up by means of telephone or outpatient service, and 10 cases were lost. There were 3.8% treatment-related deaths in preoperative CRT but no treatment-related deaths in the postoperative CRT and S group, and 51.3% of patients died from the local tumor recurrence and distant metastasis.

Median PFS was 46.5 mo (95% CI: 37.4-66.3) in the preoperative CRT group, 45 mo (95% CI: 35.8-67) in the postoperative CRT group, and 32.5 mo (95% CI:

25.4-42.3) in the S group. The 1-year PFS in preoperative CRT, postoperative CRT and S groups was 89.3%, 89.1% and 84.5%, respectively, with no significant differences ($\chi^2 = 0.64$, $P = 0.4123$). However, the 3-, 5- and 10-year PFS of the preoperative CRT (61.3%, 37.5%, 18.1%, respectively) and postoperative CRT groups (61.1%, 37.2%, 17.8%, respectively) were significantly different ($\chi^2 = 4.16$, $P = 0.0319$; $\chi^2 = 4.14$, $P = 0.0321$; $\chi^2 = 5.38$, $P = 0.0203$; respectively) from those of the S group (49.3%, 25.9%, 6.2%, respectively). There was no significant difference in PFS between the neoadjuvant and adjuvant therapy groups ($\chi^2 = 0.14$, $P = 0.7060$) (Figure 1A). Median OS was 53 mo (95% CI: 43-64.3) in the preoperative CRT group, 48 mo (95% CI: 38.5-72.5) in the postoperative CRT group, and 36 mo (95% CI: 29.7-47.3) in the S group. The 1-year OS in the preoperative CRT, postoperative CRT and S groups was 91.3%, 91% and 87.5%, respectively, which were not significantly different ($\chi^2 = 0.72$, $P = 0.3970$). However, the 3-, 5- and 10-year survival rates of the preoperative CRT (63.5%, 43.5%, 24.5%, respectively) and postoperative CRT groups (62.8%, 42.3%, 24.4%, respectively) were significantly different ($\chi^2 = 3.98$, $P = 0.0453$; $\chi^2 = 4.76$, $P = 0.0402$; $\chi^2 = 4.27$, $P = 0.0389$; respectively) from those of the S group (51.3%, 33.8%, 12.5%, respectively). There was no significant difference in OS between the neoadjuvant and adjuvant therapy groups ($\chi^2 = 0.46$, $P = 0.4978$) (Figure 1B).

For the patients who experienced radical resection, median PFS of the preoperative CRT group, postoperative CRT group and S group was 48 mo (95% CI: 40-67.0), 61 mo (95% CI: 44.0-75.4), and 39.5 mo (95% CI: 30-60), respectively. A significant difference in PFS was detected among the 3 arms ($\chi^2 = 6.82$, $P = 0.0331$), however, there was no significant difference in PFS between neoadjuvant and adjuvant therapy groups ($\chi^2 = 0.22$, $P = 0.6416$) (Figure 1C). There was a significant difference in OS among the 3 arms ($\chi^2 = 8.36$, $P = 0.0153$). The median OS of the preoperative CRT group, postoperative CRT group and S group was 56.5 mo (95% CI: 44-72), 72 mo (95% CI: 49.6-88.4), and 41.5 mo (95% CI: 31.6-57.7), respectively. However, there was no significant difference in OS between neoadjuvant and adjuvant therapy groups ($\chi^2 = 0.16$, $P = 0.6873$) (Figure 1D).

The local recurrence rates of the preoperative CRT group, postoperative CRT group and S group were 11.3%, 14.1% and 35% respectively, and showed a statistically significant difference ($P = 0.011$). There was no significant difference among the 3 groups when comparing perioperative complications but there was a tendency in favor of the postoperative CRT and S groups ($P = 0.179$).

For the 158 patients receiving CRT, incidence of grade 3 or greater leucopenia, thrombocytopenia, anemia and vomiting were 11.4% (18/158), 6.3% (10/158), 1.3% (2/158) and 6.3% (10/158), respectively. Postoperative pathologic staging and perioperative complications, and the causes of death are presented in Table 2.

DISCUSSION

Patients with resectable ESCC should receive multimod-

Table 2 Postoperative pathologic staging, perioperative complications, and cause of death <i>n</i> (%)						
	Pre-CRT (<i>n</i> = 80)	Post-CRT (<i>n</i> = 78)	S (<i>n</i> = 80)	<i>n</i> = 238	Statistics	
					χ^2	<i>P</i>
Resection					-	0.011 ¹
R	76 (97.4)	61 (78.2)	64 (80)	201 (84.5)		
P	4 (2.6)	13 (16.7)	13 (16.3)	30 (12.6)		
EB	0 (0)	4 (5.1)	3 (3.8)	7 (2.9)		
Stage					-	0.000 ¹
I	4 (2.6)	0 (0)	0 (0)	4 (1.7)		
II a	22 (27.5)	13 (16.7)	12 (15.4)	47 (19.7)		
II b	29 (36.3)	17 (21.8)	19 (23.8)	65 (27.3)		
III	25 (31.3)	48 (61.5)	49 (61.3)	122 (51.3)		
Complications					-	0.179 ¹
Hemorrhage during Surgery (> 300 mL)	8 (10.0)	2 (2.6)	2 (2.5)	12 (5.0)		
Stomal leakage	1 (1.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.4)		
Stomal stricture	2 (2.5)	3 (3.8)	1 (1.3)	6 (2.5)		
Reflux esophagitis	13 (16.3)	13 (16.7)	15 (18.8)	41 (17.2)		
Acute lung injury	3 (3.8)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (1.3)		
Death					-	0.011 ¹
Local recurrence	9 (11.3)	11 (14.1)	28 (35)	48 (20.2)		
Distant metastasis	20 (25)	23 (29.5)	31 (38.8)	74 (31.1)		
Treatment related	3 (3.8)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (1.3)		
Not related	1 (1.3)	5 (6.4)	1 (1.3)	7 (2.9)		

¹Fisher's Exact test. R: Radical resection; P: Palliative resection; EB: Esophageal bypass.

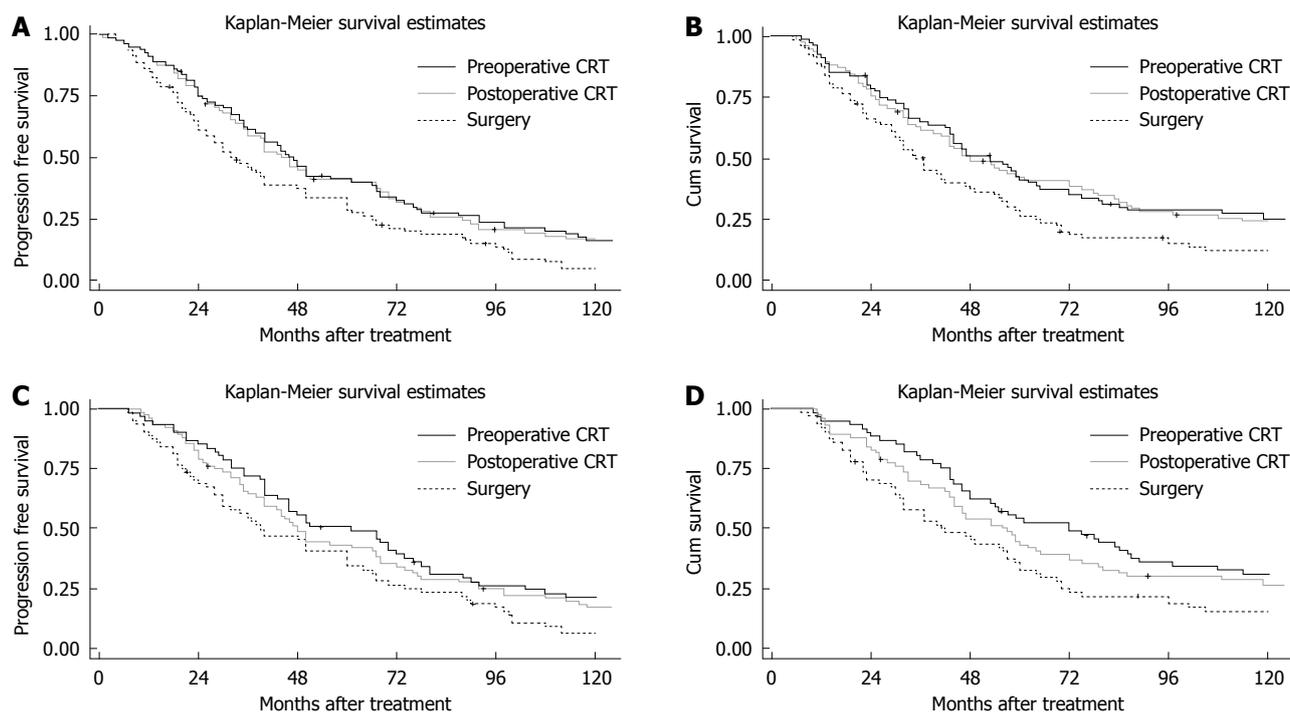


Figure 1 Kaplan-Meier curves. A: Postoperative progression-free survival. Logrank test: $\chi^2 = 8.39, P = 0.0151$; "+": Loss to follow-up. Preoperative vs surgery: $\chi^2 = 6.81, P = 0.0091$; Postoperative vs surgery: $\chi^2 = 5.38, P = 0.0203$; Preoperative vs postoperative: $\chi^2 = 0.14, P = 0.7060$; B: Postoperative overall survival. Logrank: $\chi^2 = 8.07, P = 0.0176$; "+": Loss to follow-up. Preoperative vs surgery: $\chi^2 = 7.85, P = 0.0051$; Postoperative vs surgery: $\chi^2 = 5.33, P = 0.0209$; Preoperative vs postoperative: $\chi^2 = 0.46, P = 0.4978$; C: Postoperative progression-free survival of radical resection. Logrank: $\chi^2 = 6.82, P = 0.0331$; "+": Loss to follow-up. Preoperative vs surgery: $\chi^2 = 6.16, P = 0.0130$; Postoperative vs surgery: $\chi^2 = 4.02, P = 0.0449$; Preoperative vs postoperative: $\chi^2 = 0.22, P = 0.6416$; D: Postoperative overall survival of radical resection. Logrank: $\chi^2 = 8.36, P = 0.0153$; "+": Loss to follow-up. Preoperative vs surgery: $\chi^2 = 7.65, P = 0.0057$; Postoperative vs surgery: $\chi^2 = 4.78, P = 0.0288$; Preoperative vs postoperative: $\chi^2 = 0.16, P = 0.6873$.

al treatment to prolong OS^[11,12]. There is still controversy about how to improve prognosis and how to reduce local recurrence and distant metastasis. Both chemotherapy and radiotherapy may be active against different

tumor cell populations, the chemotherapy may be effective against micrometastases while radiation counteracts spatial metastases. In the Western world, preoperative chemotherapy and CRT can increase OS by 4.4% and

6.4%, respectively, however, treatment-related mortality increases by 1.7% with neoadjuvant chemotherapy and by 3.4% with CRT, compared with surgery alone^[13]. There were a few nonrandomized trials on postoperative CRT in treating esophageal carcinoma^[14-19], however, the results had discrepancies. Regretfully, the most optimal sequence of CRT in relation to surgical resection is unclear. Thus our study is a unique randomized controlled study to evaluate the outcome of preoperative CRT in patients with local advanced thoracic ESCC, and it includes a long-term follow-up.

The present study showed a benefit in PFS and OS with neoadjuvant or adjuvant therapy. Meanwhile, our study indicated that preoperative CRT reduced the rate of local recurrence, and the survival benefit resulted from improved local cancer control brought about by the adjuvant arm. Although there was no significant difference found in 1-year PFS and OS, both preoperative CRT and postoperative CRT showed a significant advantage in longtime PFS and OS. A meta-analysis had suggested that preoperative CRT may improve survival and locoregional control but was associated with higher toxicity and increased mortality^[3]. Our results also confirm this point. Rice and coworkers found that 31 patients treated with postoperative adjuvant CRT had improved survival, in a retrospective review^[20]. Together with our present study, it further confirms that postoperative CRT may be an alternative option especially for locally advanced thoracic ESCC. Moreover, the results indicated that postoperative CRT may have almost the same long-term of efficacy as preoperative CRT, although the latter showed a nonsignificant trend of higher survival compared to the former.

To throw further light on the benefit in PFS and OS with neoadjuvant or adjuvant therapy for ESCC, we subsequently analyzed the data in patients who had undergone radical resection. The results also showed the same advantages as the above when including the palliative resection and esophageal bypass patients. The results also showed no significant difference in survival rates when comparing the preoperative CRT and postoperative CRT arms. It further clarifies that adjuvant CRT can provide almost the same long-term of efficacy as neoadjuvant CRT.

In addition, there was no suggestion that treatment-related mortality was increased by the use of postoperative CRT, which was accomplished with manageable toxicity. Most patients had less than grade 2 hematological toxicities. However, our results showed an increase in postoperative deaths and a trend for relatively higher perioperative complications in the neoadjuvant CRT arm. The involved reasons could be as follows: surgeons may undertake a challenging esophagectomy resulting in surgical difficulty and postoperative complications when performed after neoadjuvant CRT. For example, radiation might contribute to the failure of an anastomotic leak and postoperative acute lung injury. The results also showed that preoperative CRT can facilitate complete resection by downstaging tumors when compared to postoperative CRT and surgery alone. Thus, whether

or not the survival benefit of neoadjuvant CRT can be negated by an increase in postoperative deaths should of concern. In addition, loss to follow-up was low (4.2%), with only 3 patients receiving preoperative CRT and 3 patients receiving postoperative CRT and 4 patients receiving surgery alone, thus our study is robust.

In conclusion, long-term survival is maximized by the use of CRT followed by surgery for locally advanced esophageal cancer. However, patients are more likely to develop toxicity. As therapies improve, it is likely that the toxicity may be reduced and neoadjuvant CRT may provide a more marked benefit in esophageal cancer. Meanwhile, postoperative CRT can also be safely administered and considered as the multimodal treatment of choice for locally advanced ESCC. In appropriately selected patients, either pre- or postoperative CRT is a viable strategy. Further comparison of pre- and postoperative CRT in treating esophageal cancer is required for verification through multicenter and large sample randomized clinical trials.

COMMENTS

Background

Esophagectomy is a standard treatment for resectable esophageal carcinoma but relatively few patients are cured. Combined neoadjuvant chemoradiotherapy (CRT) or adjuvant CRT with surgery may improve survival but there is concern about treatment morbidity and the best sequencing of CRT and surgery.

Research frontiers

This study investigated the overall survival and progression-free survival data (up to 10-year survival).

Innovations and breakthroughs

Some studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of neoadjuvant CRT and there are almost no randomized trials comparing adjuvant CRT with surgery alone. As yet no study is available to determine the best sequencing of CRT and surgery. The most optimal sequence of CRT in relation to surgical resection is unclear. This study was a unique randomized controlled study to evaluate the outcome of preoperative and postoperative CRT in patients with local advanced thoracic esophageal squamous cell carcinoma, and it includes a long-term follow-up.

Peer review

The authors present the results of a randomized prospective study which examined the efficacy and safety of 3 treatment regimens in esophageal squamous cell carcinoma stage II and III. The study is of interest to readers of the journal. The discussion is satisfactory and is limited to the topic. Tables depicted essential data and are well constructed.

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Double-balloon enteroscopy for obscure gastrointestinal bleeding: A single center experience in China

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Abstract

AIM: To evaluate the diagnostic value of double-balloon enteroscopy (DBE) for obscure gastrointestinal bleeding (OGIB).

METHODS: The data about 75 OGIB patients who underwent DBE in January 2007-June 2009 in our hospital were retrospectively analyzed.

RESULTS: DBE was successfully performed in all 75 patients without complication. Of the 75 patients, 44 (58.7%) had positive DBE findings, 22 had negative DBE findings but had potential bleeding at surgery and capsule endoscopy, *etc.* These 66 patients were finally

diagnosed as OGIB which was most commonly caused by small bowel tumor (28.0%), angiodysplasia (18.7%) and Crohn's disease (10.7%). Lesions occurred more frequently in proximal small bowel than in distal small bowel (49.3% vs 33.3%, $P = 0.047$).

CONCLUSION: DBE is a safe, effective and accurate procedure for the diagnosis of OGIB.

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Key words: Double-balloon enteroscopy; Capsule endoscopy; Obscure gastrointestinal bleeding; Diagnosis

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INTRODUCTION

Obscure gastrointestinal bleeding (OGIB) is defined as recurrent or persistent gastrointestinal bleeding when gastric and colonic endoscopy is negative^[1]. OGIB accounts for approximately 5% of all gastrointestinal bleeding events^[2]. Most OGIB events are attributable to small bowel diseases.

The detection and management of small bowel bleeding are a challenge in the past due to the length and ana-

tomical position of small bowel. The diagnostic rate of conventional diagnostic strategies including small intestine radiography, abdominal computed tomography (CT), angiography, and red blood cell scan for small intestine disease is low^[3]. Introduction of capsule endoscopy (CE) has significantly revolutionized the study of small bowel as it is a reliable method to evaluate the entire small bowel^[4]. However, application of CE in diagnosis of OGIB is limited by the handling controllability, biopsy, endoscopic treatment, retention of capsule in stenosis intestine^[5].

Etiological diagnosis of OGIB has been markedly improved with the development of double-balloon enteroscopy (DBE) since 2001^[6]. DBE can be performed either through the mouth or through anus, and is thus able to explore a large part of the small bowel. DBE has the advantages including image clarity, handling controllability, biopsy, and endoscopic treatment over CE^[7]. It has been demonstrated that DBE is a safe and useful procedure for the diagnosis of small intestinal disease, especially for OGIB^[8]. In China, very few data are available on the diagnostic value of DBE for OGIB.

In this study, the data about 75 OGIB patients admitted to our hospital from January 2007 to June 2009 were retrospectively analyzed and the diagnostic value of DBE for OGIB was evaluated.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients

DBE was performed in 75 OGIB patients (37 males, 38 females, at a mean age 51.5 ± 16.6 years, range 16-86 years) admitted to our hospital in January 2007-June 2009. Melena, hematemesis, hemafecia, and fecal occult bleeding were detected in the patients enrolled in this study. The duration of symptoms ranged 1 d-over 10 years. The main characteristics of patients are shown in Table 1. All the patients were suspected of small bowel diseases. However, standard gastric and colonic endoscopy for them was negative. Other routine methods such as CT and small intestine radiography showed no exact diagnosis of etiology.

DBE system

OGIB was detected in patients using a Fujinon enteroscope (EN450-P5/20, Fujinon Inc, Saitama, Japan) consisting of a mainframe, an enteroscope, an overtube and an air pump. Two soft latex balloons that can be inflated and deflated are attached to the tip of enteroscope and overtube. The balloons are connected to a pump through an air channel in the endoscope that can automatically modulate the air according to the different balloon pressures. By utilizing the overtube in combination with serial inflation and deflation of the balloons, endoscope can be inserted into the small bowel.

Preoperative preparation

The patients were fasted overnight and 2 boxes of polyethylene glycol electrolyte mixed with 3000 mL water

Table 1 Characteristics of OGIB patients *n* (%)

Characteristics	<i>n</i> = 75
Age (yr)	51.5 ± 16.6 (16-86)
Sex (male/female)	37/38
Causes of OGIB	
Melena	45 (60.0)
Hematemesis and melena	7 (15.6)
Hemafecia	17 (22.7)
Occult bleeding	6 (8.0)
Duration of symptoms (mo)	
< 1	29 (38.7)
1-12	24 (32.0)
> 12	22 (29.3)

OGIB: Obscure gastrointestinal bleeding.

were taken 4-5 h prior to DBE through anus or mouth. At the same time, 5-10 mg of midazolam and 10 mg of scopolamine butylbromide were also injected intramuscularly 10 min before DBE. The patients were anaesthetized with 10 mL of oral 2% lidocaine hydrochloride before DBE through mouth. Oxygen was inhaled with electrocardiography monitored when necessary.

Procedure

DBE through mouth or anus was performed according to the suspected site of lesions. When the site was uncertain, DBE was performed through mouth.

DBE was not performed when the cause of bleeding could be explained, the operation time was too long to be tolerated, and more than half of the small intestine examined was negative.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS 11.5. Data were expressed as mean ± SD. Difference was detected by χ^2 test. $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

General information

DBE was performed 84 times in 75 patients, including 57 times through mouth and 27 through anus. Two patients completed DBE of the entire small bowel through mouth at one time.

All the procedures were successful without anesthesia. No hemorrhage, perforation, acute pancreatitis or other serious complications occurred. Nausea, vomiting, abdominal distension, and abdominal pain occurred in some patients during the procedure. However, these symptoms were transient and tolerable. In general, DBE through anus was more tolerable than through mouth.

DBE findings

Of the 75 patients, 44 (58.7%) had positive DBE, 22 had negative DBE with potential bleeding sites observed at surgery and CE, *etc.* The distribution of OGIB patients

Table 2 DBE findings in OGIB patients

Lesion	Diagnosed by DBE	Diagnosed by other methods	Location			Difference in proximal and distal small bowel
			Stomach and duodenum	Jejunum	Ileum	
Tumor	17	4	3	14	4	66.7% vs 19.0% ($P = 0.002$)
Gastrointestinal stromal tumor	7	1 ²	1	6 ²	1	
Non-hodgkin lymphoma	2	3	0	3	2	
Adenocarcinoma	3	0	1	1	1	
Lipoma	3	0	0	3	0	
Brunner adenoma	1	0	1	-	-	
Angioma	1	0	0	1	0	
Angiodysplasia	7	7	1	9	4	64.3% vs 28.6% ($P = 0.128$)
Crohn's disease	7	1	0	2	6	33.3% vs 66.7% ($P = 0.132$)
Diverticulum	3	2	0	4	1	
Henoch-Schönlein purpura	4 ¹	0	0	2 ¹	2	
Single ulcer	0	4	0	1	3	
Others	7	5	3	3	4	
Un-diagnosed	0	9	-	-	-	
Total	45	32	7	36	24	49.3% vs 33.3% ($P = 0.047$)

¹One case was accompanied with ancylostomiasis; ²One case was accompanied with heterotopic pancreas. DBE: Double-balloon enteroscopy.

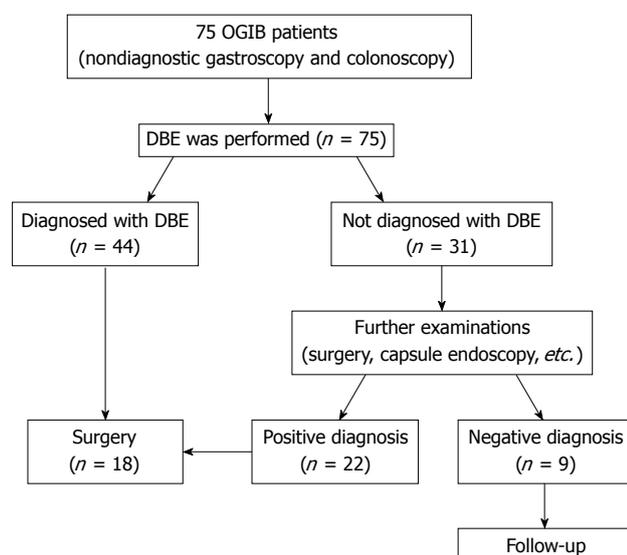


Figure 1 Distribution of obscure gastrointestinal bleeding (OGIB) patients enrolled in this study. DBE: Double-balloon enteroscopy.

enrolled in this study is shown in Figure 1. Among the 66 cases with positive DBE, OGIB was detected in upper digestive tract of 7 cases, in jejunum of 34 cases, in ileum of 24 cases, and at junction of jejunum and ileum of 1 case, respectively. The incidence of OGIB was higher in proximal small bowel (the third and fourth parts of duodenum, jejunum) than in distal small bowel (ileum) (49.3% vs 33.3%, $P = 0.047$). The DBE findings are presented in Table 2.

OGIB was most commonly caused by small bowel tumor (28.0%, 21/75), angiodysplasia (18.7%, 14/75) and Crohn's disease (10.7%, 8/75). Small bowel tumor was detected in duodenum of 3 cases, in jejunum of 14 cases, and in ileum of 4 cases, respectively. The incidence of small bowel tumor was higher in jejunum than in ileum (66.7% vs 19.0%, $P = 0.002$). Histological analysis showed that the tumor was benign in 7 cases (gastrointestinal stro-

mal tumor in 2, lipoma in 3, duodenum adenoma in 1 and angioma in 1) and malignant in 14 cases (gastrointestinal stromal tumor in 6, non-hodgkin lymphoma in 5 and adenocarcinoma in 3) (Figure 1). The detection rate of benign tumor was lower than that of malignant tumor (33.3% vs 66.7%, $P = 0.031$).

Angiodysplasia was detected in jejunum of 9 cases, in ileum of 4 cases, and in dieulafoy of gastric fundus of 1 case, respectively, accounting for 18.7% of all the cases with no significant difference between them ($P = 0.128$). Crohn's disease was detected in jejunum and ileum of 2 and 6 cases, respectively, accounting for 10.7% of all the cases with no significant difference ($P = 0.132$). In addition, diverticulum, Henoch-Schönlein purpura, single ulcer, polyp, ancylostomiasis, tuberculosis, and non-specific inflammation were also detected (Figure 2).

DBE detection rate of bleeding and duration of symptoms

Of the 75 cases, 45 presented with melena and 25 (55.6%) with positive DBE. Symptoms of hemafecia were detected in 17 cases with a DBE detection rate of 47.1% (8/17). There was no significant difference between the DBE detection rates of melena and hemafecia (55.6% vs 47.1%, $P = 0.55$). The DBE detection rates of occult bleeding, hematemesis and melena were not compared because of the limited number of cases.

The 75 patients were divided into 3 groups according to their bleeding time. There was no significance between the duration of OGIB symptoms and the DBE detection rates (Table 3).

Operation results

Of the 75 patients, 18 (24.0%) underwent operation. Gastrointestinal stromal tumor, non-hodgkin lymphoma, adenocarcinoma, lipoma and angioma were the most commonly detected tumors. Both gastrointestinal stromal tumor and bleeding from heterotopic pancreas were detected in 1 patient.

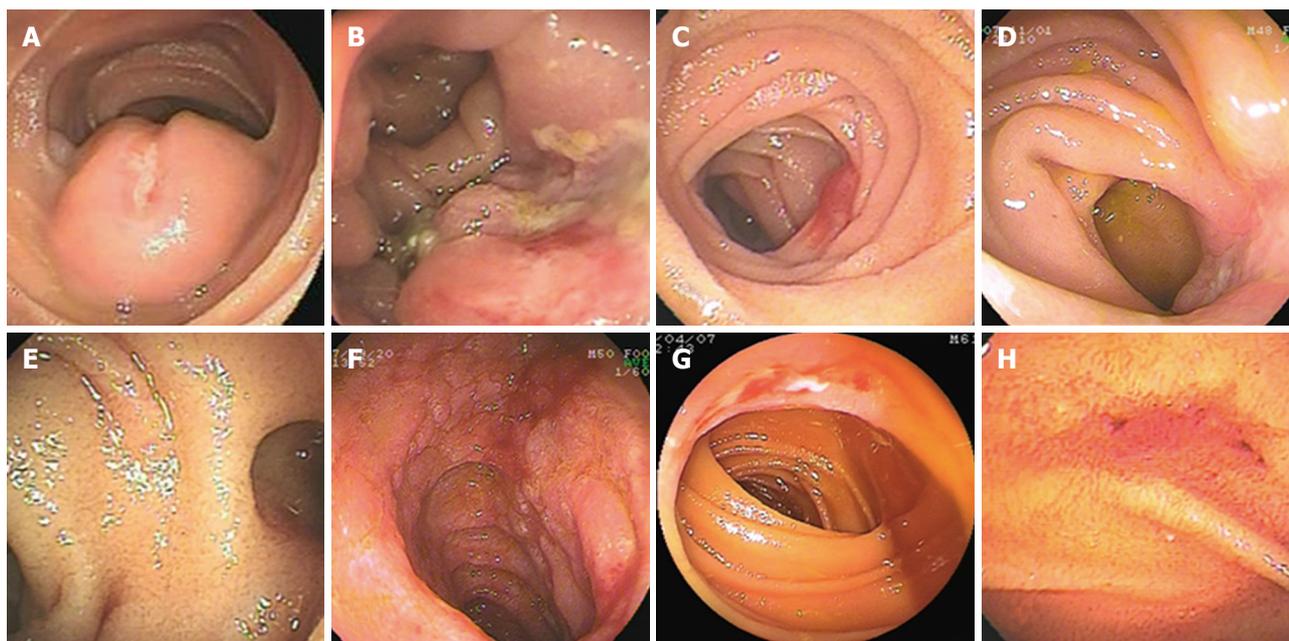


Figure 2 Typical endoscopic imaging. A: Gastrointestinal stromal tumor in jejunum; B: T cell lymphoma in jejunum; C: Angiodysplasia in jejunum; D: Crohn's disease in ileum; E: Diverticulum in jejunum; F: Henoch-Schönlein purpura in jejunum; G: Tuberculosis in ileum; H: Non-specific inflammation in jejunum.

Table 3 DBE detection rate of bleeding and duration of symptoms

	Patients	DBE findings	Detection rate (%)	P
Total	75	44	58.7	-
Causes of OGIB				
Melena	45	25	55.6	0.55 ¹
Hematemesis and melena	7	5	71.4	-
Hemafecia	17	8	47.1	-
Occult bleeding	6	6	100.0	-
Duration of symptoms (mo)				
< 1	29	18	62.1	0.56 ²
1-12	24	13	53.8	0.74 ³
> 12	22	13	54.5	0.83 ⁴

¹Difference between the DBE detection rates of melena and hemafecia;

²Difference between the DBE detection rates of < 1 mo and 1-12 mo;

³Difference between the DBE detection rates of 1-12 mo and > 12 mo;

⁴Difference between the DBE detection rates of < 1 mo and > 12 mo.

DISCUSSION

OGIB is a common problem encountered by gastroenterologists. Its diagnostic rate has been greatly improved due to CE since 2000^[9]. CE has a higher diagnostic rate of OGIB than conventional methods including small bowel barium radiography, push enteroscopy, and cross-sectional imaging^[10]. However, CE may fail to identify lesions such as Meckel's diverticulum, angiodysplasia, and malignancies^[11]. DBE can explore a large part of the small bowel, during which targeted tissue for biopsy can be taken. Moreover, endoscopic treatment procedures, including hemostasis, polypectomy, endoscopic mucosal resection, balloon dilation, and stent placement, can be performed at DBE^[12].

In this study, the diagnostic value of DBE for OGIB

was evaluated. The DBE detection rate of OGIB is consistent with the reported data^[13,14]. No complication occurred in the 75 patients who underwent DBE without anesthesia, suggesting that DBE is a safe, tolerable, and effective procedure for the diagnosis of OGIB.

It was reported that 3%-6% of OGIB events are caused by small bowel tumor^[15,16]. Sun *et al*^[17] showed that the prevalence of gastrointestinal stromal tumor is the highest among different small bowel tumors. DBE can show lesions in about 50%-66% of the small intestine and even in the entire small intestine, thus providing a high diagnostic rate of small bowel tumor^[18].

In this study, angiodysplasia was found to be another common etiology of OGIB, which is also in agreement with the reported data^[19]. The detection rate of lesions was higher in jejunum than in ileum. Since Crohn's disease has been found to be the third commonest etiology of OGIB, and shows a higher incidence in distal intestine, DBE *via* anus is usually recommended^[20].

The selection of DBE is still controversial. For those with no site of lesion indicated, DBE through mouth is preferred because our study and other studies showed that it has a higher diagnostic rate of lesions in proximal small bowel^[21,22] and is relatively easier to perform without twisting the colon, which is also supported by Safatle-Ribeiro *et al*^[23]. However, DBE through anus is also preferred by some endoscopists, since it has a better tolerance^[18].

In summary, DBE is a safe, tolerable, accurate and effective procedure for the diagnosis of OGIB. OGIB is most commonly caused by small bowel tumor and angiodysplasia. Lesions occur more frequently in proximal small bowel and DBE through mouth is recommended as a prior consideration if no evidence indicates the location.

COMMENTS

Background

The diagnosis of obscure gastrointestinal bleeding (OGIB) was rather difficult in the past. Double-balloon enteroscopy (DBE) and capsule endoscopy (CE) have significantly revolutionized the diagnosis of small bowel lesions. Compared with CE, DBE has unique advantages such as handing controllability, biopsy, diagnosis and treatment, *etc.* Few data are available on the diagnostic value of DBE for OGIB.

Research frontiers

The data about 75 OGIB patients were retrospectively analyzed in this article. The DBE detection rate of OGIB and the feasibility of operation were evaluated. The incidence of common diseases in small bowel was compared. The DBE detection rate of lesions in proximal or distal small bowel was different.

Innovations and breakthroughs

Patients could tolerate the whole DBE process with no serious complication. The DBE detection rate of different bleeding events and symptoms of OGIB were compared. DBE through mouth was completed at one time.

Applications

In this study, DBE was proven to be a safe, accurate and effective procedure for the diagnosis of OGIB and can thus be performed in hospital for the diagnosis of OGIB.

Terminology

OGIB is defined as recurrent or persistent gastrointestinal bleeding when gastric and colonic endoscopy is negative. DBE and CE are both new methods enabling diagnostic endoscopy of the entire small intestine, which have their own *pros and cons* in the diagnosis of small bowel diseases.

Peer review

This is an interesting descriptive study concerning a single center experience with DBE for OGIB in China.

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Porcine hepatocyte isolation and reversible immortalization mediated by retroviral transfer and site-specific recombination

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Abstract

AIM: To develop a hepatocyte cell line, we immortalized primary porcine hepatocytes with a retroviral vector SSR#69 containing the Simian Virus 40 T antigen (SV40Tag).

METHODS: We first established a method of porcine hepatocyte isolation with a modified four-step retrograde perfusion technique. Then the porcine hepatocytes were immortalized with retroviral vector SSR#69 expressing SV40T and hygromycin-resistance genes flanked by paired loxP recombination targets. SV40T cDNA in the expanded cells was subsequently excised by Cre/LoxP

site-specific recombination.

RESULTS: The resultant hepatocytes with high viability (97%) were successfully immortalized with retroviral vector SSR#69. One of the immortalized clones showed the typical morphological appearance, TJPH-1, and was selected by clone rings and expanded in culture. After excision of the SV40T gene with Cre-recombinase, cells stopped growing. The population of reverted cells exhibited the characteristics of differentiated hepatocytes.

CONCLUSION: In conclusion, we herein describe a modified method of hepatocyte isolation and subsequently established a porcine hepatocyte cell line mediated by retroviral transfer and site-specific recombination.

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Key words: Hepatocyte isolation; Porcine hepatocytes; Reversible immortalization; Simian virus 40 large T-antigen

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Meng FY, Chen ZS, Han M, Hu XP, He XX, Liu Y, He WT, Huang W, Guo H, Zhou P. Porcine hepatocyte isolation and reversible immortalization mediated by retroviral transfer and site-specific recombination. *World J Gastroenterol* 2010; 16(13): 1660-1664 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/1007-9327/full/v16/i13/1660.htm> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3748/wjg.v16.i13.1660>

INTRODUCTION

A virtually unlimited supply of hepatocytes for metabolic studies, bio-artificial livers and cell transplantation would be highly desirable^[1,2]. However, the utility of cultured hepatocytes is hampered by difficulties in timely obtained populations of primary cells, which have a limited life span *in vitro*. An attractive alternative source of hepatocytes would be immortalized cells which could make unlimited supplies of cells feasible and exhibit the characteristics of differentiated hepatocytes^[3]. A series of studies have developed the strategy of cell immortalization^[4,5]. However, the oncogene in the immortalized hepatocytes would expose patients to an unacceptable tumorigenic risk. An attractive solution for this problem could be the use of a novel strategy of reversible immortalization by using Cre/loxP site-specific recombination^[6]. It has been reported that Cre/loxP recombination operates efficiently in primary cells^[7]. The procedure of reversible immortalization was devised by retrovirus-mediated transfer of an oncogene that can be subsequently effectively excised by site-specific recombination^[8].

A series of cells can be immortalized by retrovirus-mediated transfer of an immortalizing oncogene (*SV40T*)^[9]. Although the hepatocytes can be transduced with retroviral vectors, the efficiency of transduction is significantly low^[10]. In the process to successfully and effectively transduce retroviral vectors into hepatocytes, establishing an efficient technique of cell isolation seems to be meaningful.

To address these issues, we herein report an efficient procedure for porcine hepatocyte isolation, and subsequent successful immortalization by retrovirus-mediated transfer of *SV40T* which could be subsequently excised by Cre/LoxP-mediated site-specific recombination. The present study expands the strategy of hepatocyte reversible immortalization and represents an important step toward the development of immortalization of hepatocytes.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals

A mini-pig weighing 13 kg was used in the present study. All procedures performed on the pig were approved by Tongji Medical College Animal Care and Use Committee and were within the guidelines for laboratory animals.

Porcine hepatocyte isolation

Porcine hepatocytes were isolated from a surgically resected liver segment with a modified four-step retrograde perfusion technique using dispase and collagenase (Figure 1). Briefly, the resected liver sample (47 g) was cannulated with a suitable pipette into the visible blood vessel on the cut surface (Figure 2A). Then the sample was flushed with a 500 mL calcium-free buffer solution (Step 1), 500 mL EDTA in buffer solution (Step 2) and another 500 mL of buffer solution at 37°C. Continuous recirculating perfusion was then carried out on the tissue using a pre-warmed

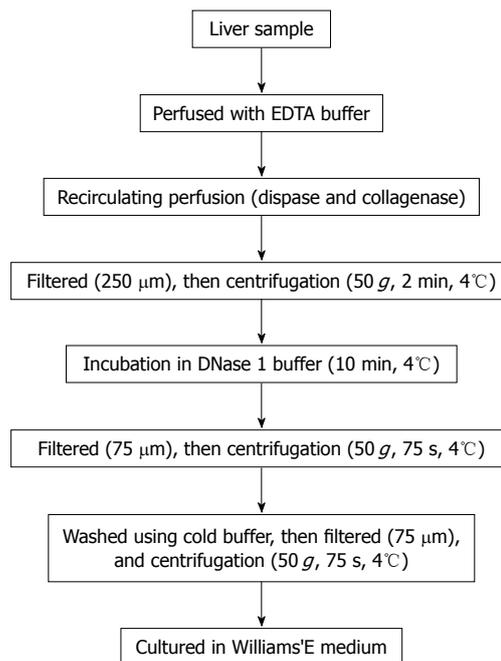


Figure 1 Flow diagram of the preparation of isolated hepatocytes with a modified four-step retrograde perfusion technique.

digestion buffer solution (8.4 g/L dispase II and 0.5 g/L collagenase IV, Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) at 37°C (Step 3). When digestion of the parenchyma was visualized, the liver tissue was finally flushed with 500 mL buffer solution (Step 4). Following sufficient digestion, the liver capsule was mechanically disrupted and the emerging cell suspension filtered through 250 μm nylon mesh and centrifuged (50 g, 2 min, 4°C). After that we employed a cell incubation step of 10 min using DNase1 (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) containing buffer solution, during which cell clumps were broken up and damaged cells digested. Then, the resulting suspension was filtered through 75 μm nylon mesh, and the cells were harvested by low speed centrifugation at 50 g for 75 s. This was followed by washes using cold buffer solution and filtration through 75 μm nylon mesh and another centrifugation step (50 g, 75 s, 4°C). The resulting cell clumps were finally resuspended in culture medium (William's medium E, supplemented with 100 mU/mL penicillin, 100 μg/mL streptomycin and 10% fetal bovine serum). Hepatocyte yield and viability was determined using the standard trypan blue exclusion technique. Freshly isolated hepatocytes were seeded at a concentration of 4×10^5 per milliliter in culture flasks. The morphology of the cultured hepatocytes was assessed with a Nikon Diaphot inverted microscope at a magnification of 100 ×.

Porcine hepatocytes immortalization

The retroviral vector SSR#69 (kindly given by Naoya Kobayashi, Okayama University) containing SV40 large TAG and a gene resistant to hygromycin (Figure 3) was cultured in DMEM medium (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) supplemented with 10% newborn calf serum. Freshly isolated primary porcine hepatocytes were transduced with 2 mL of SSR#69 cells supernatant per T25 flask at

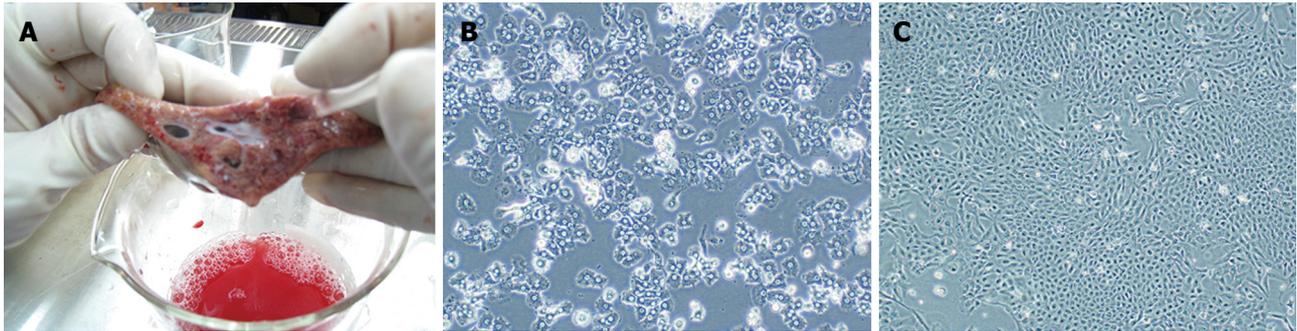


Figure 2 Isolation technique and microscopic appearance of primary and immortalized porcine hepatocytes. A: Perfusion was conducted by inserting a suitable pipette into vessels exposed on a cut surface of the sample; B: Non-immortalized primary porcine hepatocytes grow slowly with low plating efficiency and a short life span; C: Immortalized porcine hepatocytes grow rapidly as islands and had an extended life span. Magnifications: B and C 100 ×.

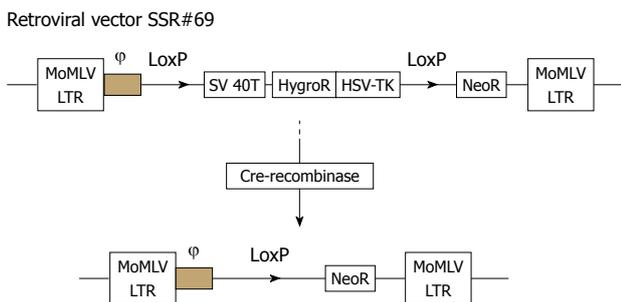


Figure 3 Schematic drawings of the integrating component of retroviral vector SSR#69 before and after Cre-recombination. SSR#69 contains the hygromycin B resistance gene (*Hyg R*) as a positive selectable marker and the herpes simplex virus thymidine kinase gene (*HSV-TK*) as a negative selectable marker. The *SV40T*, *Hyg R* and *HSV-TK* genes are flanked by loxP sites.

37°C for 12 h each day for 5 d. Two days after the final transduction, selection was applied with 100 µg/mL hygromycin. After two weeks hygromycin selection, colonies of transduced hepatocytes emerged. One of the colonies displayed morphological characteristics of the primary hepatocytes, TJPH-1, and was isolated by cloning rings and expanded in culture. Finally, *SV40T* cDNA in the expanded cells was excised by Cre/loxP site-specific recombination.

Immunofluorescent analysis of SV40T antigen (SV40Tag) in immortalized cells

For detection of *SV40Tag*, indirect immunofluorescent staining was performed, using mouse monoclonal immunoglobulin G antibody to *SV40Tag* (Santa Cruz Biotechnology; Santa Cruz, CA, USA) and the second antibody, rhodamine (TRITC)-conjugated sheep anti-mouse IgG (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA). DAPI (4',6-diamidino-2'-phenylindole dihydrochloride, Roche, Cat. No. 10236276001) blue-fluorescent dye was used for staining nuclei (double-stranded DNA).

Gene expression of liver-specific functions in immortalized cells

Total RNA was extracted from immortalized cells and reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) was performed according to the manufacturer's

protocol. Primers used were as follows: *SV40T* (422 base pair, bp), CAGGCATAGAGTGTCTGC (5'primer), CAACAGCCTGTTGGCATATG (3'primer); porcine albumin (324 bp), CTTATTCCAGGGGTCTGTTTC (5'primer) and TCGTTTCTCTCAGGCTCTTCT (3'primer); porcine GAPDH (179 bp), CATCATCCCTGCTTCTACCG (5'primer), CCTGCTTCACCACITTTCTTG (3'primer).

RESULTS

Successful porcine hepatocytes isolation resulted in a cell yield of 1.05×10^7 cells/g liver. The viability of hepatocytes immediately after isolation, using the trypan blue exclusion technique, was 97%. The primary hepatocytes attached to the plates showed typical morphological appearance with a polygonal shape, granular cytoplasm and one or more nuclei (Figure 2B).

After transfection of porcine hepatocytes with *SV40T*, several clones (Figure 2C) grew steadily in the culture medium within 2 wk after 100 µg/mL hygromycin selection. One of the surviving cell colonies, TJPH-1, isolated by cloning rings displayed morphological characteristics of primary hepatocytes featuring a large round nucleus with a few nucleoli and multiple granules in the cytoplasm. After treatment with Cre recombination, the expanded TJPH-1 cells reverted to their pre-immortalized state. The reverted cells lost expression of *SV40T* (Figure 4), resulting in loss of proliferation.

The *SV40Tag* was examined by immunofluorescent staining in the nuclei of all immortalized cells, as shown in Figure 5A. Immortalized and reverted cells expressed the albumin gene shown by RT-PCR, similar to normal porcine hepatocytes (Figure 4).

DISCUSSION

Cultured primary porcine hepatocytes provide a valuable tool for various research strategies and clinical applications, such as studying the regulation of cell growth and of certain differentiated hepatocyte functions and BAL (bio-artificial liver) systems^[11,12]. However, the utility of cultured hepatocytes is hampered by difficulties in obtaining populations of primary cells which cannot be expanded *in vitro*.

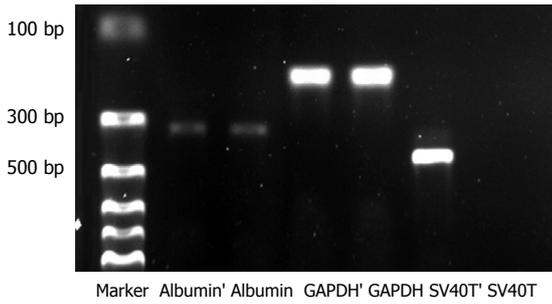


Figure 4 Gene expression of liver-specific functions in immortalized and reverted cells. Lines 1 to 7, from left to right, Marker, Albumin' (immortalized hepatocytes), Albumin (reverted hepatocytes), GAPDH' (immortalized hepatocytes), GAPDH (reverted hepatocytes), SV40T' (immortalized hepatocytes), SV40T (reverted hepatocytes), respectively.

Thus, other alternative sources of hepatocytes have to be explored^[13]. Hepatocytes immortalized with a SV40Tag can make unlimited supplies of cells feasible. However, the continued presence of a SV40Tag in the immortalized hepatocytes would expose patients to an unacceptable tumorigenic risk. To surmount this hurdle, we herein established reversible immortalized porcine hepatocytes to intentionally control population expansion (Figure 5). Use of the Cre/LoxP-based reversible immortalization strategy represents an important step in the development of a potentially novel strategy for resolving the current limits of primary hepatocytes^[2]. Different from a general gene transfer strategy, the novel strategy of reversible immortalization allows temporary expansion of cell populations by transfer of an oncogene which can be subsequently excised by site-specific recombination. Several studies have confirmed the utility, safety and efficiency of the reversible immortalization procedure^[14]. This novel procedure has extended to several cell types, such as liver endothelial cells^[15], hepatic stellate cells^[16] and rat hepatocytes^[17]. The present study expands the work to primary porcine hepatocytes.

Although porcine hepatocytes can be immortalized by retrovirus-mediated transfer of SV40T, the efficiency of transduction was significantly low^[10]. A major challenge of successful transduction is represented by the availability of a sufficient amount of hepatocytes with high post-isolation viability. Thus, in the process to successfully and effectively transduce retroviral vectors into primary hepatocytes, establishing an efficient cell isolation technique would be meaningful.

Hepatocyte isolation started in the mid-1960s, when rat hepatocytes were isolated using a combined mechanical/enzymatic digestion technique^[18]. It was not until 1976, when Seglen^[19] introduced the two-step collagenase perfusion technique, that high-yield preparation of isolated intact hepatocytes was available. After that, different innovative techniques have been introduced to further improve isolation results^[20,21]. In this study, we established a modified four-step collagenase retrograde perfusion technique. The modified four-step method of hepatocyte isolation, compared to the traditional two-step method, can

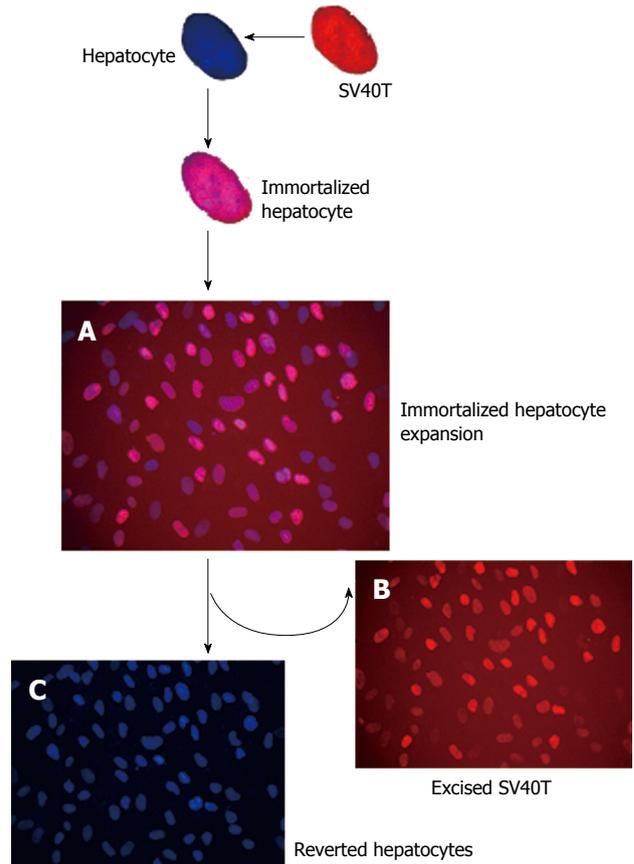


Figure 5 Scheme of reversible immortalization. The primary porcine hepatocytes were immortalized by transfer of an oncogene (SV40T). After expansion of the immortalized cells, Cre/loxP recombination was performed to remove the oncogene (SV40T) and the cells reverted to their pre-immortalized state. (A-C) Double immunofluorescence of immortalized hepatocytes stained with DAPI (blue), which binds, together with monoclonal antibody anti-SV40T revealed with texas red-antibody conjugate (red). Blue and red fluorescence merged as purple. SV40T expression is revealed by intense staining of the cell nucleus.

result in an improvement in cell viability and yield^[22]. After cell isolation, we employed an incubation step of 10 min using DNase 1, during which cell clumps were broken up and damaged cells digested. This method resulted in a hepatocyte yield of 1.05×10^7 cells/g liver. The viability of the cells, using the trypan blue exclusion technique, was 97%.

In summary, we propose that the modified four-step technique would improve research results, allowing large-scale production of hepatocytes of high quality. Furthermore, the present study expanded the novel strategy of reversible immortalization to primary porcine hepatocytes. By permitting temporary and controlled expansion of hepatocyte populations, the reversible immortalized cells may therefore be used for various research strategies and clinical applications.

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COMMENTS

Background

The limited lifespan of porcine hepatocytes is a major hurdle to their use. Furthermore, the functional activities of primary porcine hepatocytes decline rapidly after several days in culture. An attractive alternative source of liver cells would be reversible immortalized cells that could make unlimited supplies of cells feasible which would exhibit the characteristics of differentiated hepatocytes. Toward this goal, the authors have focused on reversible immortalization by using Cre/loxP site-specific recombination.

Research frontiers

Cre/loxP site-specific recombination was used to reversibly induce the proliferation of primary cells. A reversible immortalization system using the Cre-loxP site-specific recombination system has been widely used in establishing immortalized cell lines.

Innovations and breakthroughs

The authors described a modified four-step retrograde perfusion technique of hepatocyte isolation and subsequently established a porcine hepatocyte cell line mediated by retroviral transfer and site-specific recombination.

Applications

The modified four-step retrograde perfusion technique would improve research results, allowing large-scale production of hepatocytes of high quality. Furthermore, the present study expanded the novel strategy of reversible immortalization to primary porcine hepatocytes. This reversible immortalized cell line could provide an unlimited supply of cells for research and clinical use.

Terminology

Reversible immortalization: The procedure of reversible immortalization was devised by retrovirus-mediated transfer of an oncogene that can be subsequently effectively excised by site-specific recombination.

Peer review

This manuscript appears to be about two separate, but related topics of hepatocyte isolation and "reversible immortalization". In my opinion, by combining the two topics, it weakens the manuscript. It appears they were able to reproduce techniques described by others, which is good.

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Over-the-scope clip closure of two chronic fistulas after gastric band penetration

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Abstract

Gastrointestinal perforations are conservatively managed at endoscopy by through-the-scope endoclips and covered self expandable stents, according to the size and tissue features of the perforation. This is believed to be the first report of successful closure of two gastrocutaneous fistulas with over-the-scope clips (OTSCs). After laparoscopic gastric banding, a 45-year old woman presented with band erosion and penetration. Despite surgical band removal and gastric wall suturing, external drainage of enteric material persisted for 2 wk, and esophagogastroduodenoscopy demonstrated two adjacent 10-mm and 15-mm fistulous orifices at the esophagogastric junction. After cauterization of the margins, the 10-mm fistulous tract was grasped by the OTSC anchor, invaginated into the applicator cap, and closed by a traumatic OTSC. The other 15-mm fistula was too large to be firmly grasped, and a fully-covered metal stent was temporarily placed. No leak occurred during the following 6 wk. At stent removal: the OTSC

was completely embedded in hyperplastic overgrowth; the 15-mm fistula significantly reduced in diameter, and it was closed by another traumatic OTSC. After the procedure, no external fistula recurred and both OTSCs were lost spontaneously after 4 wk. The use of the anchor and the OTSC seem highly effective for successful closure of small chronic perforations.

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Key words: Gastrointestinal endoscopy; Fistula; Stent; Esophagogastric junction

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INTRODUCTION

Gastrointestinal (GI) perforations require prompt closure and control of extraluminal fluid collections and sepsis. They have been managed traditionally by surgery^[1-3], but a conservative endoscopic approach has recently been preferred with the advantages of negligible morbidity and mortality, a short hospital stay, and the possibility of prompt resumption of an oral diet^[2,4-6].

Routine endoscopic methods to close GI perforations are endoclips and covered self-expandable stents; the choice being related to the width and tissue features of the margins^[7,8]. Endoclips are metallic double-pronged clips loaded on a deployment catheter introduced through the operative channel of the scope [through-the-

scope (TTS) clips^[7]. Although acute small (< 15 mm) perforations can be successfully closed with TTS clips^[9], these devices achieve controversial results when used for larger perforations^[10,11], and seem technically inadequate for chronic perforations, due to poor grasping ability and insufficient strength to close fibrotic margins^[7]. Therefore, TTS clips have rarely closed chronic leaks^[12-17] and are generally considered only as a supplementary technique^[8].

Covered self-expandable metal stents (SEMSs) or self-expandable plastic stents (SEPSs) are an effective method for sealing and healing more than 80% of chronic GI leaks, but have drawbacks: the removal of partially-covered SEMSs may be difficult due to the ingrowth at uncovered ends and the risk of mucosal tears, hemorrhage and subcutaneous emphysema^[4,18,19], whereas fully-covered stents show a migration rate of up to 50% and often require replacement^[6,20,21].

The present case is the first successful closure of two gastro-cutaneous fistulas with the newly designed over-the-scope-clip (OTSC) (Ovesco Endoscopy, Tubingen, Germany).

CASE REPORT

Twenty-six months after laparoscopic gastric banding, a 45-year-old woman presented severe epigastric pain. The diagnosis of band erosion with penetration through two large tears at the posterior wall of the gastric fundus was established by esophagogastroduodenoscopy (EGD), and a subphrenic abscess was demonstrated by computed tomography (CT). Management included surgical band removal, suturing of the gastric wall with two omental patches, and abdominal drainage.

However, external drainage of enteric material persisted for 2 wk and the barium swallow revealed two fistulas at the esophagogastric junction (Figure 1). EGD showed two opposite perforations of 10 and 15 mm (Figure 2), with fistulous tracts partially and fully negotiable by the 9.8-mm endoscope, respectively.

After cauterization of the margins, the proximal segment of the 10-mm fistula was grasped by the OTSC anchor, invaginated into the applicator cap (Figure 3A), and closed by a 9-mm traumatic OTSC (Ovesco Endoscopy GmbH, Tuebingen, Germany) (Figure 3B). On the contrary, the 15-mm fistula was too wide to be firmly grasped by the anchor and therefore it was closed with a fully-covered esophageal self-expandable metal stent (SEMS; Niti-S, Taewoong, South Korea), which also covered the OTSC.

The barium swallow performed after 24 h confirmed the complete sealing of both fistulas (Figure 3C) and the patient was discharged on an oral diet.

After 6 wk, the fully-covered SEMS was easily removed, and the EGD showed that the OTSC was buried into an intense overgrowth reaction (Figure 4). The 15-mm fistula diameter was reduced to 8 mm, and therefore it was sealed by a second 9-mm traumatic OTSC (Figure 5).

During the following 8 wk, no external fistula or



Figure 1 Barium swallow: two fistulas at the esophagogastric junction.

abdominal collection was observed by barium swallow (Figure 6) or the dye leak test with methylene blue. Both OTSCs were lost within the second and fourth weeks of follow-up after SEMS removal.

DISCUSSION

The OTSC has a different conception from TTS clips: (1) the OTSC is in nitinol with a “leghold trap” memory shape, is loaded on a cap placed on the scope tip, and has the capacity to grasp and compress the tissue more widely and with greater strength, without provoking ischemia or cutting the tissue; and (2) the target tissue needs to be caught and pulled into the cap by specifically developed devices that make addressing tangential lesions easier.

Preliminary small case series suggest that the OTSC is effective for hemostasis of non-variceal bleeding^[22,23]. Moreover, results from a few human cases^[22-24] and animal studies^[25-27] have indicated that this device may be appropriate to close acute gastric and colonic perforations that occur during endoscopic mucosal resection, and natural orifice transluminal endoscopic surgery orifices up to 20 mm in size.

This is the first report of successful closure of two inveterate perforations by OTSCs. In our opinion, the success of the procedure should be attributed both to the anchor used to pull the tissue into the cap and to the OTSC itself. The three rigid hooks of the anchor firmly grasp the perforation margins at three equidistant points, permitting to pull the margins circumferentially into the cap. In the present case, the anchor was opened beyond the luminal margins of the fistulous orifice into the proximal segment of the fistulous tract that was partially invaginated into the cap before the release of the OTSC. This mechanical result would not have been achieved using the other OTSC device, the twin grasper, which has two independently movable branches that grasp the perforation margins at two opposite points. This two-point grasping method may be sufficient for acute perforations with normal elastic tissue margins, but not for fibrotic hard chronic ones that would be only partially invaginated into the cap (Figure 7).

Both traumatic OTSCs placed in the present case were lost after a period between the 2nd and 4th week after SEMS removal. Whether traumatic or atraumatic

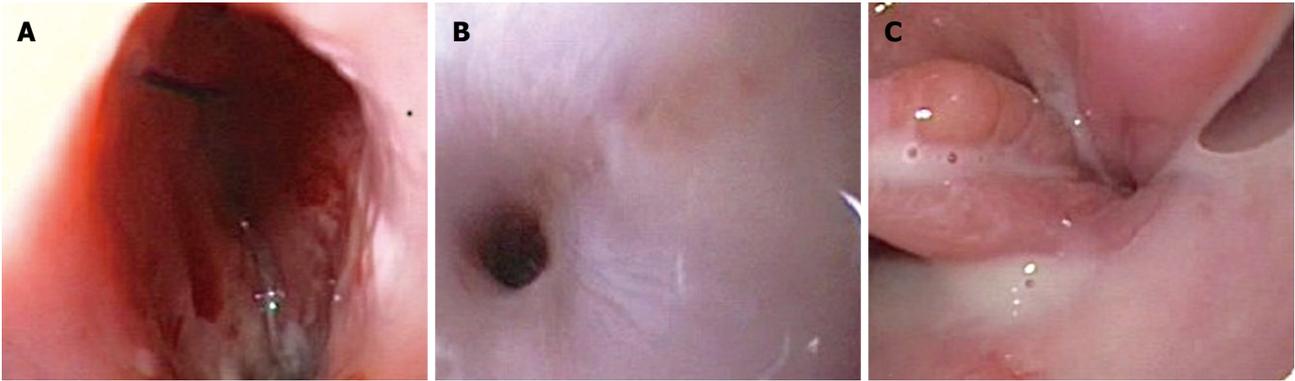


Figure 2 Endoscopic view of the 15-mm (A) and 10-mm (B) fistulous openings on the left and right sides, respectively, above the esophagogastric junction (C).

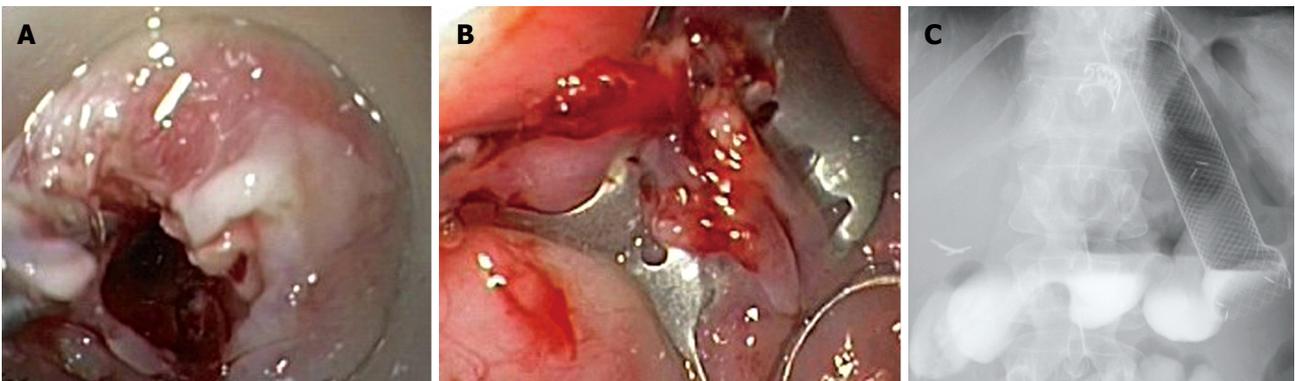


Figure 3 First OTSC placement. A: Invagination of the proximal segment of the 10-mm fistula into the OTSC applicator cap using the anchor; B: Closure of the 10-mm fistula; C: Barium swallow after the first OTSC and stent placement.



Figure 4 First OTSC completely embedded in hyperplastic overgrowth.

jaws have different “stay-in-place” periods is unknown. In previous studies, acute perforations have been successfully closed independently from the OTSC teeth shape after remaining in place for similar periods of time^[22,26], and only occasionally for > 4 wk^[24,26]. Although the traumatic teeth may reduce the possibility of hard tissue slipping out of the OTSC, prolonging its *in situ* stay, strong tissue compression could be more important to determine long-standing closure. Moreover, the use of oversized OTSCs may increase the capacity to grasp and close fibrotic margins of chronic perforations and its permanence.

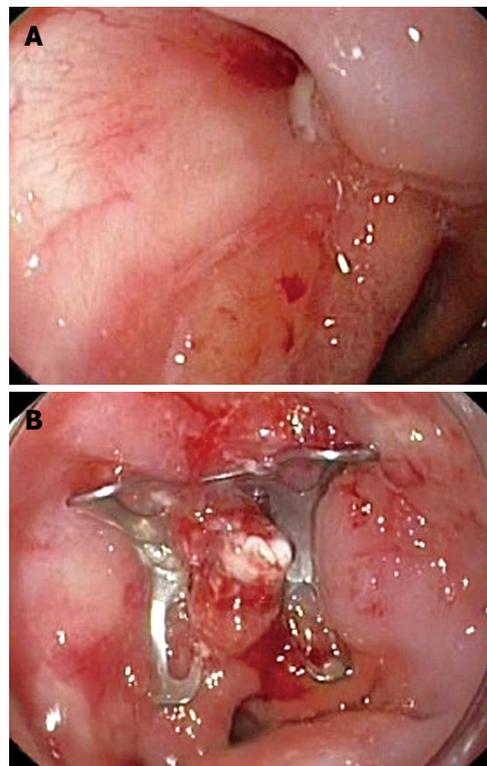


Figure 5 Second OTSC placement. A: Fistula opening reduced in size; B: Fistula closure.

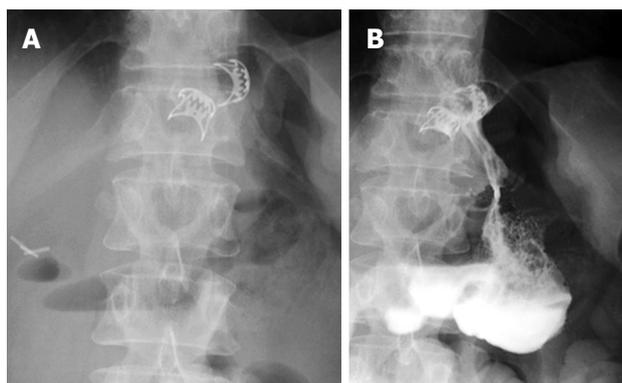


Figure 6 OTSC closure of the two fistulas. A: Two OTSCs in place; B: No leaks from both OTSCs at barium swallow.

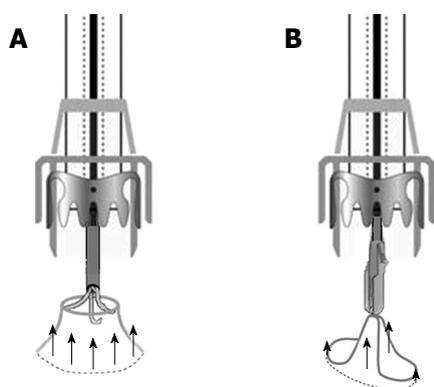


Figure 7 Mechanical results of OTSC devices pulling fibrotic margins of chronic perforations. A: Circumferential invagination using the anchor; B: Two-point invagination with the twin grasper.

Finally, no OTSC-related complications occurred. An intense overgrowth embedded the first OTSC after SEMS removal, but it did not prevent the spontaneous loss of the clip during follow-up. It remains to be established whether the overgrowth reaction would have occurred without the stent. Although endoscopic follow-up was not scheduled in previous studies, OTSC-related overgrowth has not been observed in humans^[22-24], whereas Schurr *et al*^[26] have observed minimal overgrowth in the colon of some pigs after 1 mo.

In conclusion, the OTSC may be the least invasive method to close chronic small fistulas or leaks, if prospective large comparative studies with fully-covered stents will confirm our observation.

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Therapeutic angiography for giant bleeding gastro-duodenal artery pseudoaneurysm

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Abstract

We present the case of an 18-year-old female transferred to our center from an outside hospital due to persistent gastrointestinal bleeding. Two weeks prior to her transfer she underwent duodenal omentopexy for a perforated duodenal peptic ulcer. The patient underwent a computed tomography angiogram which identified the source of bleeding as a giant gastro-duodenal artery (GDA) pseudoaneurysm. The patient was taken to interventional radiology where successful microcoil embolization was performed. We present this rare case of a giant GDA pseudoaneurysm together with imaging and a review of the medical literature regarding prevalence, etiology and treatment options for visceral arterial aneurysms.

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Key words: Gastro-duodenal artery; Gastrointestinal; Bleeding; Angiography; Pseudoaneurysm

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INTRODUCTION

Upper gastrointestinal bleeding (UGIB) is one of the leading causes of admission to the emergency department. While the vast majority of these bleeding episodes resolve spontaneously and most of the remaining cases are successfully managed endoscopically, a small percentage of patients require treatment using more invasive procedures such as therapeutic angiography and surgery. UGIB can be caused by a number of various pathologies. Gastro-duodenal artery (GDA) pseudoaneurysm is a rare but potentially fatal complication of surgery and, hence, early recognition and management of this complication is critical^[1]. Although open surgery has traditionally been the treatment of choice, therapeutic angiography is emerging as an effective treatment modality for selected cases^[2]. In this article we present such a case as well as remarkable images of the giant GDA aneurysm. Additionally, we discuss the pathophysiology of the condition, the treatment options and our rationale for opting for angiographic intervention over surgery.

CASE REPORT

An 18-year-old female was transferred to our surgery department due to unsuccessful treatment of acute upper gastrointestinal bleeding. Seven months prior to this admission she was diagnosed with Crohn's disease of the ileo-cecal region. She was treated with oral steroids and



Figure 1 Computed tomography angiography (CTA). A: CTA arterial late phase showing the giant GDA pseudoaneurysm (arrow); B: CTA eight days post the procedure which shows the reduction in size of the pseudoaneurysm (long arrow), angiographic coils (short arrow) and no perfusion.

mesalamine (Pentasa) with gradual improvement of the disease symptoms. Five months later she was admitted to a local community hospital due to acute abdominal pain. She was taken immediately to the operating theatre. At that time, a perforated duodenal ulcer was identified and treated with duodenal omentopexy (Graham's patch). On post-operative day 14, the patient began bleeding from the surgical wound and experiencing episodes of UGIB. She was transfused with multiple units of packed blood cells and was transferred to a second hospital where she underwent an upper endoscopy (Figure 1A). The endoscopy showed erosive gastritis and blood clots without active bleeding. Due to unsatisfactory explanation for the source of the hemorrhage she underwent computed tomography angiography (CTA) which demonstrated a giant pseudoaneurysm of the GDA, surrounded by fresh clots of blood. The patient was transfused with an additional five units of packed blood cells and transferred to our institution as the initial hospital did not have an interventional radiology unit. Upon arrival at the emergency department, the patient's pulse was 80 bpm and blood pressure was 110/70 mmHg. A pulsatile abdominal mass was palpated at the right upper quadrant. Blood tests showed hemoglobin level of 11.6 mg/dL and normal coagulation studies. A naso-gastric tube was inserted which drained multiple clots of blood, at which time she was treated with intravenous omeprazole and taken to the angiography suite. After cannulation of the celiac trunk and the superior mesenteric artery *via* a right transfemoral approach, the giant pseudoaneurysm emerging from the GDA was demonstrated. Arterial embolization was performed by placement of several detachable micro-coils until flow-arrest was obtained. The procedure was performed without complication. Eight days following the procedure she underwent CTA which showed the angiographic coils surrounded by a small collection of fluid and no signs of perfusion in the GDA (Figure 1B). She was discharged on the 10th d of hospitalization. After two years of follow up, the patient is asymptomatic and has not been hospitalized due to recurrent UGIB.

DISCUSSION

Visceral artery pseudoaneurysms are considered rare

pathologies. Nevertheless, pseudoaneurysm rupture and bleeding can lead to significant morbidity and mortality. The visceral arteries which most commonly develop pseudoaneurysm are the splenic artery, hepatic arteries, gastric and gastroepiploic arteries, gastro-duodenal artery and branches of the mesenteric arteries^[3]. The most common artery involved is the splenic. GDA aneurysms are considered to be extremely rare. Although pseudoaneurysms and aneurysms of splanchnic arteries have traditionally been considered uncommon clinical entities, the prevalence discovered during autopsy study was surprisingly high (10.4%)^[1]. More recent, higher rates of detection are likely related to increased frequency of imaging studies such as ultrasonography and computed tomography. There are multiple etiologies for development of pseudoaneurysms including: atherosclerosis, trauma, surgery, pancreatitis, infection, collagen vascular disease and congenital abnormalities. Infection and trauma are probably the most common causes. Infection can occur as a direct process around the vessel or as lymphatic spread from a primary focus such as *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* located away from the vessel^[4]. Patients with pseudoaneurysm may be asymptomatic or present with symptoms of gastrointestinal bleeding, intraperitoneal hemorrhage, obstructive jaundice due to external pressure by the pseudoaneurysm, hematemesis and rupture into the portal vein.

A review of visceral aneurysms conducted by Moore *et al.*^[5] concluded that 35% of GDA aneurysms are ruptured at presentation, carrying a mortality rate of 21%. In the past, these pseudoaneurysms were treated surgically. However, in the last two decades, radiographic intervention has emerged as an attractive method for treating these patients. Surgical treatments include resection of the aneurysm and placing an interposition graft or performing aneurysmectomy with or without patching using a great saphenous vein. Endovascular treatments used are embolization or stent graft repair of the aneurysm. A laparoscopic procedure has also been reported for treating splenic artery aneurysm^[6]. The potential complications of angiography, aside from those of standard femoral cannulation, include infarction of viscera and abscess

formation. Fortunately, the complication rate regarding the former is relatively low due to rich collateral blood supply. Saltzberg *et al*⁷¹ retrospectively reviewed the outcome of 65 patients diagnosed with visceral aneurysm, 18 of whom were treated by angiography and 9 by surgery. He reported that the initial technical success rate of the endovascular procedures was 94.4% (17/18). Major complications occurred in 22.2% (4/18). However, all four of these were in patients who were treated for splenic artery aneurysms. They concluded from their experience that endovascular management of visceral artery aneurysms is a reasonable alternative to open surgical repair, except for patients with splenic artery aneurysm. Carrafiello *et al*⁸¹ published a case report of a patient with an evolving asymptomatic GDA pseudoaneurysm who underwent a combination of percutaneous, ultrasound-guided thrombin injection directly into the pseudoaneurysm sac and microcoil embolization of the gastro-duodenal artery. They concluded that thrombin injection may reduce the pseudoaneurysm's wall tension and probably diminishes the risk for rupture.

Our patient presumably developed the pseudoaneurysm due to a leak occurring after the omentopexy repair for her perforated duodenal ulcer which initiated an infectious/inflammatory process in the region of the GDA area, causing damage to the vessel wall. Bleeding into the peritoneal space or the gastrointestinal tract beginning several days following an operation should be a cause for suspicion for the possibility of a ruptured pseudoaneurysm. Any operation which involves handling of an infected space or organ is a risk factor for infecting the peritoneal cavity and developing the pseudoaneurysm. Angioembolic occlusion of this giant aneurysm provided an effective treatment with minimal morbidity risk. Sur-

gical repair in this case would have been particularly challenging and possibly morbid as it would have required re-exploring a previously operated space. We conclude that angiographic management is not only a feasible but possibly preferred treatment modality in selected cases of visceral artery aneurysms.

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A geriatric patient with diffuse idiopathic skeletal hyperostosis

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Abstract

The most frequent health problems seen in senility are chronic and degenerative diseases. A 75-year-old male patient with the complaints of weight loss and difficulty in swallowing was admitted to our hospital from a nursing home. Upper system fiber-optic gastrointestinal endoscopy was performed and a mass at the junction of the hypopharynx and esophagus just below recessus piriformis obstructing almost the whole of the lumen and blocking the distal passage was detected. Computed tomography revealed marked narrowing secondary to osseous hypertrophy in the air column of the hypopharynx and proximal esophagus. Diffuse idiopathic skeletal hyperostosis or Forestier's disease is an idiopathic disease characterized by the ossification of the anterior longitudinal ligament of vertebra and some of the extraspinal ligaments. In the present case we aim to discuss an elderly patient who suffered from dysphagia and weight loss and the diagnostic stages.

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INTRODUCTION

Diffuse idiopathic skeletal hyperostosis (DISH) is a common but often unrecognized systemic disorder observed mainly in elderly people^[1]. All papers related to DISH demonstrate a consistent and marked increase of the disease with advancing age^[2]. Various local structural lesions such as oropharyngeal tumors, vascular pathologies, retropharyngeal abscesses, and anterior cervical osteophytes may lead to mechanical esophageal dysphagia^[3-5]. The prevalence of DISH in adults over the age of 50 years is around 25% for men and 15% for women, with an increased incidence in patients with obesity, gout and diabetes^[6].

Although most patients with cervical spine involvement are either asymptomatic or have limited cervical spine movement and unspecified pain, possible complications described in the literature are dysphagia^[7], stridor^[8], dyspnea^[9], ossification of the posterior longitudinal ligament and/or myelopathy^[10] and hoarseness^[11].

CASE REPORT

A 75-year-old male patient was found drunk and unconsci-

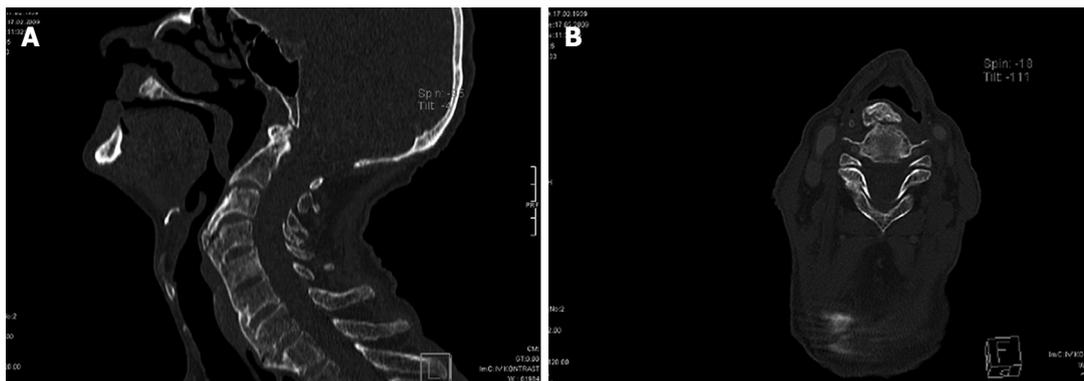


Figure 1 Cervical CT. A: Sagittal section revealed hypertrophic bridging alterations of anterior corpus parts at the level of C3-T1 vertebra and restriction of the esophagus due to osteophytic sprue formations; B: Axial section revealed osteophytic formations on the anterior parts of vertebral corpus.

ous on the street in November 9, 2008 and was transferred to the nearest state hospital. After an operation for intertrochanteric femur fracture he was sent to a nursing home. Because of progressive weight loss and swallowing difficulty, some blood tests were done and Hb and erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR) were found to be 9 g/dL and 75 mm/h, respectively. The patient was then transferred to our hospital on 28 January, 2009 with the preliminary diagnosis of malignancy. His height was 160 cm, weight 41 kg and body mass index was 16 kg/m². Physical examination revealed only cachectic appearance and limited neck movements; the other findings were normal, and the thyroid gland was nonpalpable. Due to detected anemia two packs of erythrocyte suspensions were transfused. In the biochemical analyses hepatic and renal functions were normal; he didn't have any electrolyte imbalance or systemic disease (fasting plasma glucose: 79 mg/dL, blood urea nitrogen: 22 mg/dL, creatinine: 1.0 mg/dL, uric acid: 4.8 mg/dL, aspartate aminotransferase: 8 U/L, alanine aminotransferase: 3 U/L, potassium: 4.3 mmol/L, iron: 41 µg/dL total iron binding capacity: 173 µg/L). His vitamin B12 and folic acid levels were 57 pg/mL and 1.46 ng/mL respectively. Total protein value was 5.7 g/dL and albumin was 2.3 g/dL. Evaluation of cognitive functions revealed his Mini Mental State Examination score was 12. There was not any evidence for malignancy in his thoracic and abdominal CT scans. Upper system fiber-optic gastrointestinal endoscopy was performed and a mass at the junction of the hypopharynx and esophagus just below recessus piriformis obstructing almost whole of the lumen and blocking the distal passage was detected. Biopsy couldn't be performed because of the risk of bleeding and aspiration. As a result of ear-nose-throat clinic consultation, and after laryngoscopic examination, anesthesia confirmation and cervical CT was performed for taking a biopsy from the mass thought to have originated from the pharyngeal area. Cervical CT revealed hypertrophic bridging alterations of anterior corpus parts at the level of C3-T1 vertebra (Figure 1A and B). At the hypopharynx and proximal parts of esophagus restriction secondary to osseous hypertrophy was demonstrated and this aspect was evaluated as consistent with DISH or Forrester disease. As a result of

multidisciplinary evaluation, an operation wasn't planned because of the patient's poor general condition. Patient's nutrition was regulated with fluid foods. No problem was established during nutrition with fluids. The patient was sent back to nursing home after recovery of general status.

DISCUSSION

Although mortality decreases and life expectancy gets longer with developing technology and medicine, chronic diseases remain common problems of elderly patients. In the differential diagnosis for dysphagia, larynx, lung and mediastinal tumors, esophagus motility disorders, esophagitis, restriction of esophagus, spinal tumors, vascular abnormalities, Zenker diverticle, Plummer-Vinson syndrome, gastroesophageal reflux and globus histericus should be kept in mind. For differentiating these disorders barium esophagography has a great importance^[12].

A medical history should be taken in detail and questions about anatomical structure and functions of the oral cavity, pharynx, larynx, and esophagus should be examined when a patient complaining of dysphagia applies to ear-nose and throat clinics. Physical examination of the oral cavity, pharynx, larynx and neck should be done for determining the possible pathologies. Esophageal cancer, web, achalasia, diffuse esophageal spasm and esophagitis are common causes of esophageal dysphagia. Rarely, mediastinal tumors pressing the esophagus, vertebral bone processes and impressions due to the aorta can be the causes^[13]. In our case, the patient's complaints were anemia, weight loss and difficulty in swallowing and initially esophageal malignancy was thought to be the cause of these complaints and upper gastrointestinal system endoscopy was planned. As a result of these evaluations, hypertrophic bridging alterations of anterior corpus parts at the level of C3-T1 vertebra were revealed. It was reported that perforation during esophagoscopy improves because of compression due to cervical osteophytes^[14].

Treatment for DISH is primarily conservative, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs and myorelaxants are used. But in refractory cases there are two surgical approaches to remove osteophytes by lateral cervical or

peroral transpharyngeal ways^[15]. In our case, we initially preferred a medical approach and started treatment with anti-inflammatory drugs and nutrition with liquid foods, after recovery of oral intake we maintained with high calorie formulas.

In our case, the patient hadn't applied to any hospital in the period that he lived alone but after he began to stay in the nursing home for elderly these complaints and problems were established and he was transferred to our hospital. At the present time, it is emphasized that without increasing the quality of the life, longer life will have no meaning and health expectancy is more important than life expectancy. Consequently, while treatment is the target in a young population, in a geriatric population the main target is the preservation of quality of life. We avoided the complications of surgical management and anesthesia, we tried nutrition with liquids and facilitated oral intake. Eventually, recovery in our patient's status and weight gain started. Gastrostomy may be planned if necessary and the patient is followed at particular intervals. During the evaluation of elderly patients, social status, cognitive functions and exhaustive physical examination should be performed definitely.

In conclusion, DISH should be considered an important, although rare, cause of dysphagia among older adults. However, it should not be accepted as the cause of dysphagia until all other causes have been ruled out.

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Peeling a giant ileal lipoma with endoscopic unroofing and submucosal dissection

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abdominal CT immediately after removal of the lesion showed a small amount of free air, conservative treatment was successfully carried out for the perforation. Histologically, the removed lesion was a lipoma.

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Key words: Lipoma; Endoscopic submucosal dissection; Endoscopic unroofing; Perforation

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Abstract

Lipoma is relatively common in the colon but is less often in the small intestine. Most lipomas are incidentally detected at endoscopy and are usually small and asymptomatic. However, some of them can present with obstruction and/or intussusceptions. Surgical resection is commonly recommended to remove such significant lipomas with a limited pedicle and larger than 2 cm in size, as endoscopic resection may result in unfavorable complications such as intestinal perforations. We report a case of 62-year-old man presenting with hematochezia. Colonoscopy showed a submucosal tumor, about 50 mm in size, in the terminal ileum. A clinical diagnosis of lipoma was established based on the findings of colonoscopy and abdominal computed tomography (CT). As the patient complained of hematochezia and mild iron deficiency anemia associated with repeated tumor prolapse, we decided to remove his lipoma. Consequently, the lesion was completely removed *en bloc*. Although

INTRODUCTION

Lipoma is relatively common in the colon (65%-75%) but is less often in the small intestine (20%-25%). Most lipomas are incidentally detected at endoscopy and are usually small (less than 2 cm) and asymptomatic. However, some of them can present with obstruction and/or intussusceptions^[1]. Surgical resection is commonly recommended to remove such lipomas with a limited pedicle and larger than 2 cm in size, as endoscopic resection may result in unfavorable complications such as intestinal perforations^[2]. We herein report a case of a large lipoma, 50 mm in diameter, arising from the end of ileum, which was completely removed with the so-called endoscopic

unroofing technique in combination with endoscopic submucosal dissection (ESD)^[3,4].

CASE REPORT

A 62-year-old man presented with hematochezia. Colonoscopy showed a pedunculated lesion, about 50 mm in size, originating from the ileum end. With peristalsis, the lesion prolapsed through the ileocecal valve into the cecum and ascending colon (Figure 1). The surface was regularly covered with normal mucosa, except for a part of nodular change suggesting hyperplastic mucosa due to repeated prolapse, and “Cushion-sign” was positive^[5]. Moreover, computed tomography (CT) showed a uniform mass with a very low-density in the ileum end corresponding to the above detected lesion (Figure 2A and B). A clinical diagnosis of ileal lipoma was established based on the above findings. Although there was not any symptom of intestinal intussusception, multiple erosions were seen in the ascending colon perhaps caused by the tumor prolapsing with peristalsis. As oozing of blood was also seen, the ileal lipoma was considered as the bleeding source of his hematochezia. Therefore, local resection was decided for treatment. At first, conventional endoscopic mucosal resection (EMR, lift and cut technique) was attempted under CO₂ insufflation. However, the tumor was too large for the largest commercially available snare with a maximum diameter of 33 mm in our department to capture the whole lesion after injection of glycerol at the base of the lesion (Figure 3A). Alternatively, endoscopic submucosal resection (ESD) was conducted with an IT-knife for removal. Unfortunately, the muscle layer was lacerated and serosal membrane was observed during dissection (Figure 3B). Thus, we used the snare to break the mucosal layer on the top of the lipoma, and then dissection from the defect on the top rather than from the base of the lesion was continued. Capsulated fat tissue extruding through the overlying mucosa during dissection (naked fat sign) was seen (Figure 3C)^[5,6]. Finally, the lesion was completely removed *en bloc* (Figure 3D). The vital signs were stable and no abdominal distension or discomfort was found during the whole procedure. The lacerated muscle layer could not be completely but only partially sutured with metallic clips due to the narrow lumen in the terminal ileum. Abdominal CT immediately after removal, however, showed only a small amount of free air around the ileum end without ascites. Conservative treatment including withholding of oral intake, intravenous administration of antibiotics and hyperalimentation was started after consultation with the surgeons. The vital signs were stable except for fever (at the highest degree of 38°C) for 2 d. No sign of peritoneal irritation suggesting diffuse peritonitis was seen on close physical examination. Oral intake was restarted on the fifth day after ESD, and the patient was discharged uneventfully 2 d thereafter. Histologically, the removed lesion was a lipoma.

DISCUSSION

This lipoma could be correctly diagnosed before resec-

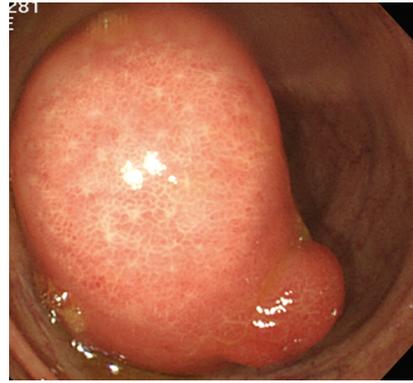


Figure 1 Colonoscopy showing a large pedunculated tumor, 50 mm in size, originating from the ileum end.

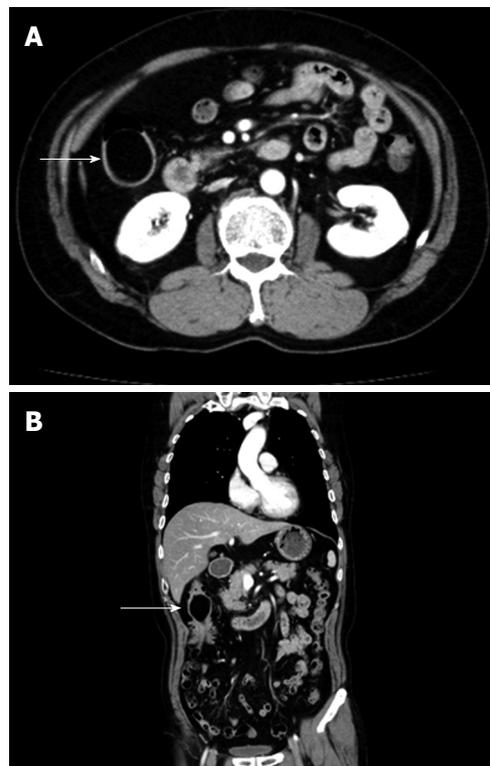


Figure 2 Abdominal CT showing a round, smooth and well-demarcated tumor at the end of the ileum (A) with a fat attenuation coefficient of -116 Hounsfield units (arrows) (B).

tion, as endoscopically it was a submucosal tumor with a positive “Cushion sign”, and moreover computed tomography disclosed a round and smooth, well-demarcated tumor with a fat attenuation^[7,8]. Although, lipohyperplasia, frequently discovered at the right-sided colon (especially in the ileocecal valve), should be included in the differential diagnosis, the encapsulated yellowish adipose tissue detected during endoscopic dissection finally supported the endoscopic diagnosis of a lipoma rather than lipohyperplasia before histological evaluation. We decided to treat this ileal lipoma, as the patient complained of hematochezia and mild iron deficiency anemia associated with erosions caused by repeated tumor prolapse. Various techniques including endoscopic

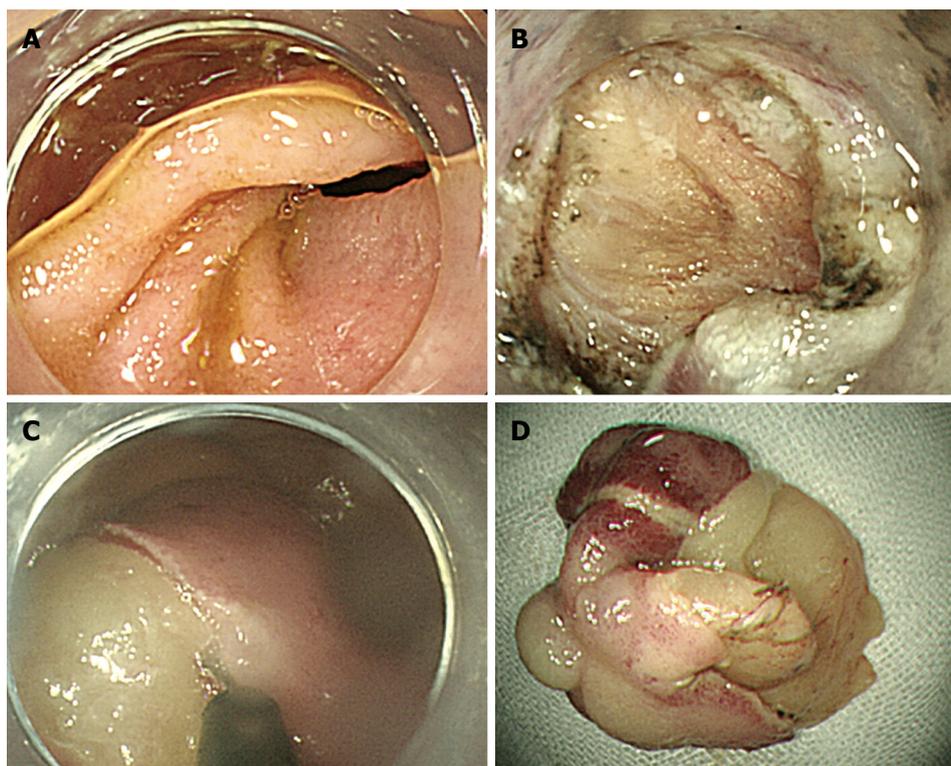


Figure 3 Whole captured lesion after injection of glycerol at the base of the lesion. The base of the lipoma (A), lacerated muscle layer (B), dissected overlying mucosa and capsule (C), and completely removed lipoma (D).

removal and surgical resection have been reported^[9,10]. We firstly attempted conventional EMR. However, unfortunately the tumor could not be completely captured with the largest snare. Piecemeal resection was also tried but failed to electroscopically resect the tumor with the snaring technique. We therefore used the ESD technique to remove this large lesion, as this newly developed technique can remove this kind of large lesions *en bloc*^[11].

During dissection, since laceration of the muscle layer and thereafter the serosa were unfortunately endoscopically identified, we modified the ESD technique for removal. We enrolled the reported unroofing technique in combination with ESD for endoscopic resection^[3,4,12]. At first, the overlying mucosa and capsule of the lipoma were peeled off with the tip of the snare and IT knife from the top to the bottom of the tumor. The underlying adipose tissue was thereafter seen like a peeling banana. This modified technique finally enabled us to completely remove the lipoma *en bloc*. Different from the submucosal direct dissection at the base, we dissected this lipoma from the top to the bottom rather than from the base. We believe that this modified technique can remove large lipomas more safely and quickly than ESD^[11].

Perhaps, perforation is one of the most serious complications associated with endoscopic resection. We did not close the lacerated muscle layer immediately, as the clips in the narrow lumen of ileum would disturb continuing the endoscopic procedure. Fortunately, we could complete the endoscopic removal, as the patient did not develop pneumoperitoneum and the lumen was not collapsed. Furthermore, we could not close the perforation completely with metallic clips. However, conservative treatment was carried out successfully. Our case was

treated successfully without laparotomy. However, the choice of conservative or surgical treatment for iatrogenic colonic perforation remains controversial. In this case, non-surgical treatment was selected because the vital signs of the patient were stable, the abdominal pain was mild and localized, no unexplained peritoneal fluid was found in the abdominal CT, and the colonic preparation was extremely good. We also believe that CO₂ insufflation plays an important role in this successful conservative treatment, as room air insufflation would lead to pneumoperitoneum collapsing the lumen and vital signs (abdominal compartment syndrome)^[13-16].

In conclusion, large ileal lipoma can be completely removed with the modified ESD procedure in combination with endoscopic unroofing technique (from the top to the bottom like peeling a banana).

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Upper gastrointestinal hemorrhage caused by superwarfarin poisoning

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Abstract

Superwarfarins are a class of rodenticides. Gastrointestinal hemorrhage is a fatal complication of superwarfarin poisoning, requiring immediate treatment. Here, we report a 55-year-old woman with tardive upper gastrointestinal hemorrhage caused by superwarfarin poisoning after endoscopic cold mucosal biopsy.

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Key words: Esophagogastroduodenoscopy; Upper gastrointestinal hemorrhage; Superwarfarin poisoning

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Zhao SL, Li P, Ji M, Zong Y, Zhang ST. Upper gastrointestinal hemorrhage caused by superwarfarin poisoning. *World J Gastroenterol* 2010; 16(13): 1680-1682 Available from: URL:

INTRODUCTION

Superwarfarins are anticoagulants similar to warfarin. As substitutes for acute rodenticides, superwarfarins are usually the first choice of rodenticide, especially in rural areas. Esophagogastroduodenoscopy (EGD) is a common tool for diagnostic and therapeutic goals. Significant bleeding after cold mucosal biopsy is seldom seen. Here, we report a woman with severe upper gastrointestinal hemorrhage after gastroscopic mucosal biopsy, which is a rare and previously unreported complication of superwarfarin poisoning.

CASE REPORT

A 55-year-old woman was referred to our hospital for epigastric pain and abdominal distention. Her medical history and physical examination were unremarkable. She had no history of anticoagulation therapy or use of non-steroid anti-inflammatory drugs. She came to the outpatient department for further evaluation.

Routine EGD revealed an uneven granular mucosa and several erosion lesions scattering in the stomach, covered with fresh blood crusts (Figure 1). Five mucosal biopsies of the stomach, two from the gastric angle and three from the lesser curvature side of gastric antrum, were performed for pathological analysis and *Helicobacter pylori* (*H. pylori*) detection. Gastric biopsy specimens revealed atrophic gastritis accompanying intestinal metaplasia. Rapid urease test was negative for *H. pylori* infection. No active bleeding was seen immediately after endoscopic biopsy and throughout the whole endoscopic procedure. However, she was admitted to the emergency department of our hospital because of hematemesis and melena the next day after EGD examination.

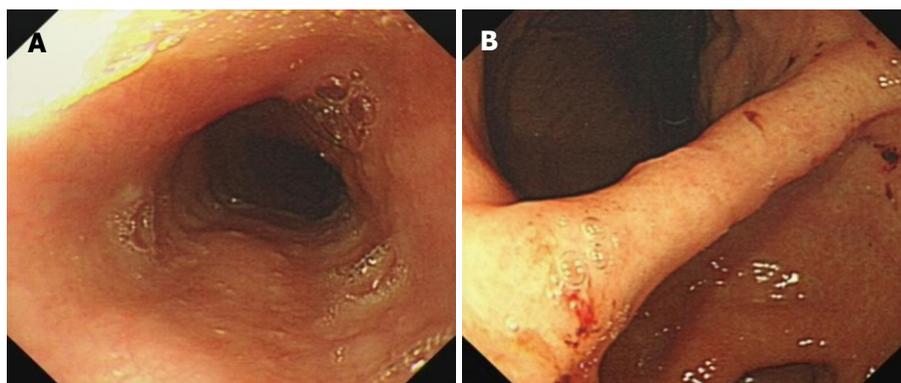


Figure 1 Initial esophagogastroduodenoscopy (EGD) demonstrating normal esophageal mucosa (A) and erosion lesions scattering in the stomach (B).

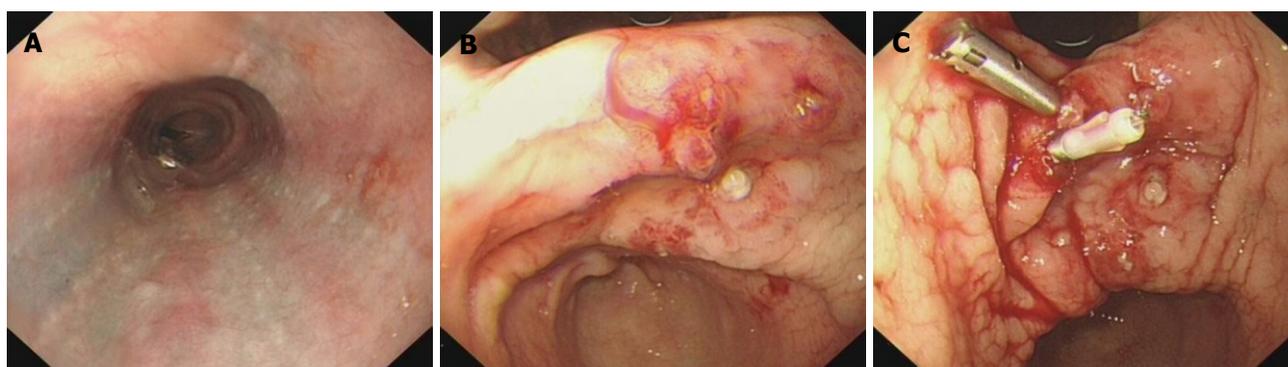


Figure 2 Second EGD showing submucosal congestion in the esophagus (A), active bleeding in the original biopsy sites (B), and titanium clips used for hemostasis (C).

Table 1 Findings in hematologic and coagulation laboratory tests

Variables	Normal range	Day 2	Day 4	Day 8
RBC ($10^{12}/L$)	3.5-5.5	1.7	2.25	2.72
Hemoglobin (g/L)	110-160	55	74	89
Prothrombin time (s)	11.0-14.0	> 180	16.8	13.8
Activated partial thromboplastin time (s)	35.0-55.0	94.3	30.5	26.9

Routine blood test showed 1.7×10^{12} erythrocytes per liter (normal 3.5-4.5 erythrocytes/liter) and 56 g hemoglobin per liter (Table 1). Coagulation function test revealed a prolonged prothrombin time (PT > 180 s) and an activated partial thromboplastin time (APTT = 94.3 s) (Table 1), both of which could be corrected when mixed with normal plasma at a 1:1 ratio. Other blood tests, such as platelet count, fibrinogen, renal function, and liver function, were normal (data not shown).

Superwarfarin poisoning was taken into consideration. The patient's serum and urine specimens were sent to Affiliated 307 Hospital of Academy of Military Sciences of China for toxicology analysis. Laboratory evaluation for some common superwarfarins was performed with the help of reverse-phase high performance enzyme-linked chromatography, showing that the level of brodifacoum and bromadiolone in serum was 1665 ng/mL and 132 ng/mL, respectively, and 216 ng/mL and 15 ng/mL in urine, respectively. The diagnosis of superwarfarin

poisoning was confirmed. The patient was also allowed to have intentionally ingested rodenticides to commit suicide 10 d before the routine EGD examination because of severe depression.

Emergency EGD showed submucosal congestion of the esophagus (Figure 2A), and five hemorrhagic sites in the stomach, which were still bleeding during the endoscopic procedure (Figure 2B). All the bleeding sites were closed with 5 titanium clips to achieve hemostasis (Figure 2C).

The patient was treated with concentrated red blood cells, fresh frozen plasma and intravenous vitamin K (30 mg/d) for 8 d until her coagulation parameters returned to normal, RBC count and hemoglobin concentration were greatly improved (Table 1). She began to have oral vitamin K1 (30 mg/d) from day 9 after admission. Toxicology analysis on day 7 showed a brodifacoum concentration of 986 ng/mL and a bromadiolone concentration of 36 ng/mL in serum. Brodifacoum (7 ng/mL) could only be detected in the urine specimen. On day 10, EGD showed that the submucosal congestion of esophagus was absorbed with no sign of bleeding in the stomach, and titanium clips in good condition (Figure 3). Plain radiography and CT scanning revealed 5 titanium clips in the stomach (Figure 4).

Two days after the last EGD examination, the patient was discharged from our hospital and oral vitamin K1 was prescribed (10 mg/d) for 1 mo. Weekly PT, prothrombin activity and international normalized ratio measurements

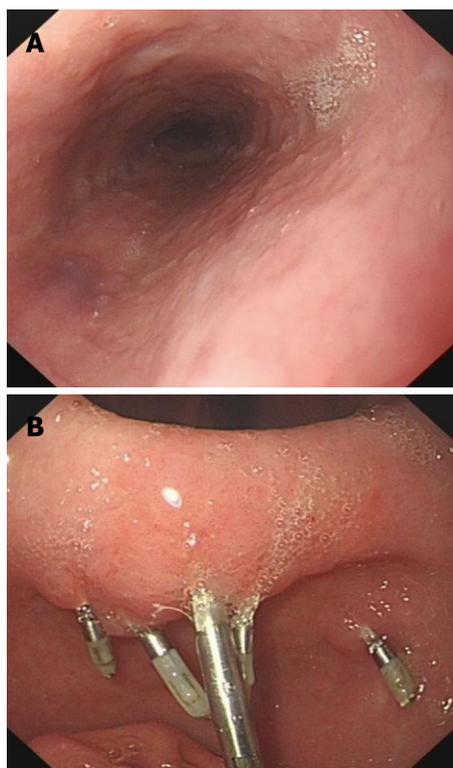


Figure 3 Final EGD showing the absorbed esophageal submucosal congestion (A) and bleeding in the stomach with titanium clips in good condition (B).

were also advised. During the 1-mo following-up after discharge, her coagulation parameters remained normal with no recurrent bleeding.

DISCUSSION

Superwarfarins, a class of rodenticides with brodifacoum and bromadiolone as their representative, are long acting anticoagulants^[1,2] and are 100 times as potent as warfarin. The half life of brodifacoum and bromadiolone can be as long as 24 d^[3] or 30 d^[1] and 31 d^[2], respectively.

Superwarfarins are supposed as the first-line rodenticides all over the world. However, superwarfarin poisoning cases are often reported, especially in rural areas. The number of superwarfarin poisoning cases has also increased in the USA^[4,5]. The causes of superwarfarin poisoning include accidental exposure, suicide intention and occupational exposure. In addition to oral intake, inhalation and skin absorption can also result in superwarfarin poisoning.

Gastrointestinal hemorrhage is a fatal complication of superwarfarin poisoning, requiring immediate treatment. Treatment modalities include use of antidotes, such as vitamin K1, often requiring a high dose (20-125 mg/d) and a prolonged time because of the long half-life of superwarfarins^[2].

Endoscopic treatment for hemostasis is somewhat

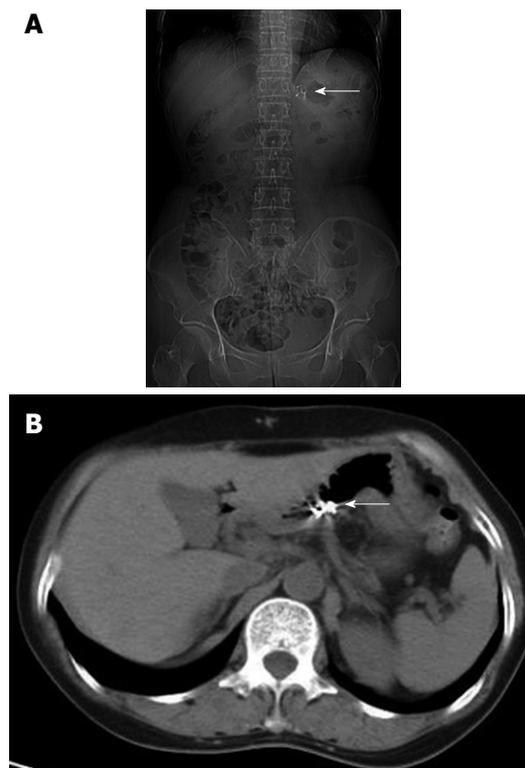


Figure 4 Plain radiography (A) and CT scanning (B) revealing 5 titanium clips in the stomach (arrows).

effective. Due to the extensive bleeding and hemodynamic instability of our patient, blood transfusion and fluid infusion should also be applied to correct the blood volume before emergency endoscopy. In this case, hemostasis was achieved by placing five titanium tips to clip the bleeding sites with the help of an EGD.

In conclusion, with the help of antidotes against superwarfarins and EGD, upper gastrointestinal hemorrhage caused by superwarfarin poisoning after endoscopic cold mucosal biopsy can be successfully and safely controlled.

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 Conference

January 28-30
 Hong Kong, China
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 Abdominal Obesity

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 21th Annual International Colorectal
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February 26-28
 Carolina, United States
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 The Caribbean

March 04-06
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 Targeted Anticancer Therapies

March 05-07
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 26th Pakistan Society of
 Gastroenterology & Endoscopy
 Meeting

March 09-12
 Brussels, Belgium
 30th International Symposium on
 Intensive Care and Emergency
 Medicine

March 12-14
 Bhubaneswar, India
 18th Annual Meeting of Indian
 National Association for Study of
 the Liver

March 23-26
 Cairo, Egypt
 14th Pan Arab Conference on
 Diabetes PACD14

March 25-28
 Beijing, China
 The 20th Conference of the Asian

Pacific Association for the Study of
 the Liver

March 27-28
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 Chronic Liver Disease

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 and Hepatology Conference, EGHC
 2010

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 Surgery

April 14-18
 Vienna, Austria
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 2010

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 Dubrovnik, Croatia
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 of surgery and the 5th Croatian
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 Chicago, IL, United States
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 Singapore, Singapore
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 Kosice, Slovakia
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 the Research of Probiotics and
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 Fourth Annual Conference

September 11-12
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 New Advances in Inflammatory
 Bowel Disease

September 12-15
 Boston, MA, United States
 ICAAC: Interscience Conference
 on Antimicrobial Agents and
 Chemotherapy Annual Meeting

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September 23-26
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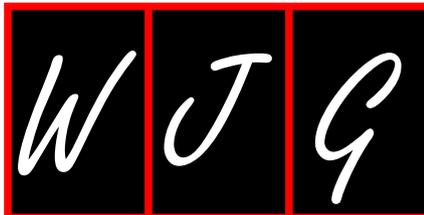
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- 3 **Tian D**, Araki H, Stahl E, Bergelson J, Kreitman M. Signature of balancing selection in Arabidopsis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2006; In press

Organization as author

- 4 **Diabetes Prevention Program Research Group**. Hypertension, insulin, and proinsulin in participants with impaired glucose tolerance. *Hypertension* 2002; **40**: 679-686 [PMID: 12411462 PMCID:2516377 DOI:10.1161/01.HYP.0000035706.28494.09]

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- 5 **Vallancien G**, Emberton M, Harving N, van Moorselaar RJ; Alf-One Study Group. Sexual dysfunction in 1, 274 European men suffering from lower urinary tract symptoms. *J Urol* 2003; **169**: 2257-2261 [PMID: 12771764 DOI:10.1097/01.ju.0000067940.76090.73]

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- 6 21st century heart solution may have a sting in the tail. *BMJ* 2002; **325**: 184 [PMID: 12142303 DOI:10.1136/bmj.325.7357.184]

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- 9 Outreach: Bringing HIV-positive individuals into care. *HRS-A Careaction* 2002; 1-6 [PMID: 12154804]

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Books

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- 10 **Sherlock S**, Dooley J. Diseases of the liver and biliary system. 9th ed. Oxford: Blackwell Sci Pub, 1993: 258-296

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- 11 **Lam SK**. Academic investigator's perspectives of medical treatment for peptic ulcer. In: Swabb EA, Azabo S. Ulcer disease: investigation and basis for therapy. New York: Marcel Dekker, 1991: 431-450

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- 15 Morse SS. Factors in the emergence of infectious diseases. Emerg Infect Dis serial online, 1995-01-03, cited 1996-06-05; 1(1): 24 screens. Available from: URL: <http://www.cdc.gov/ncidod/EID/eid.htm>

Patent (list all authors)

- 16 **Pagedas AC**, inventor; Ancel Surgical R&D Inc., assignee. Flexible endoscopic grasping and cutting device and positioning tool assembly. United States patent US 20020103498. 2002 Aug 1

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