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ABOUT COVER

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Chinese expert consensus and practice guideline of totally implantable access port for digestive tract carcinomas

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Abstract

Totally implantable access port is a fully implantable drug delivery system that is implanted subcutaneously and can be retained for a long time. Advantages of ports include a simple nursing process, low risk of infection and embolism, and high patient comfort. In order to promote the standardized application of ports in the treatment of digestive tract tumors and reduce port-related complications, the Chinese Research Hospital Association Digestive Tumor Committee, the Chinese Association of Upper Gastrointestinal Surgeons, the Chinese Gastric Cancer Association, and the Gastrointestinal Surgical Group of Chinese Surgical Society Affiliated to Chinese Medical Association have organized multidisciplinary expert discussions at the General Hospital of the People's Liberation Army and nationwide expert letter reviews and on-site seminars, and formulated an expert consensus of the operation guidelines.

Key words: Totally implantable access port; Digestive tract tumor; Consensus and guideline; Venous port; Peritoneal port; Arterial port

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Core tip: Totally implantable access port is a fully implantable drug delivery system that is implanted subcutaneously and can be retained for a long time. Advantages of ports include a simple nursing process, low risk of infection and embolism, and high patient comfort. Currently no practice guideline is available. In order to reduce port-related complications, the Chinese Research Hospital Association Digestive Tumor Committee, the Chinese Association of Upper Gastrointestinal Surgeons, the Chinese Gastric Cancer Association,

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and the Gastrointestinal Surgical Group of Chinese Surgical Society Affiliated to Chinese Medical Association have, for the first time, organized multidisciplinary expert discussions at the General Hospital of the People's Liberation Army and nation-wide expert letter reviews and on-site seminars, and formulated the present expert consensus of the operation guidelines.

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INTRODUCTION

Totally implantable access port is a fully implantable drug delivery system that is implanted subcutaneously and can be retained for a long time. It can be used for the infusion of various liquids, including chemotherapy drugs, parenteral nutrient solutions, and blood products. Some advantages of ports include a simple nursing process, low risk of infection and embolism, and high patient comfort. According to the infusion route, types of ports include venous^[1], peritoneal^[2], arterial^[3] and intrathecal^[4]. Venous access ports are widely used clinically. Therapies, such as chemotherapy and nutritional support, are often needed during the treatment of digestive tract tumors and require a reliable infusion channel. Ports are handled by various clinical personnel^[5], and the standard operation needs to be improved. In order to promote the standardized application of ports in the treatment of digestive tract tumors and reduce port-related complications, the Chinese Research Hospital Association Digestive Tumor Committee, the Chinese Association of Upper Gastrointestinal Surgeons, the Chinese Gastric Cancer Association, and the Gastrointestinal Surgical Group of Chinese Surgical Society Affiliated to Chinese Medical Association have successively organized multidisciplinary expert discussions at the General Hospital of the People's Liberation Army and nation-wide expert letter reviews and on-site seminars, and reached an expert consensus of the operation guidelines. The clinical questions included in this expert consensus were taken from the controversial points in the letter review by multidisciplinary experts. Corresponding suggestions are recommended based on the quality of the evidence using the evidence-based Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluations (GRADE) system^[6]. The operation guidelines introduces the venous, peritoneal, and arterial implantation methods as there is a great deal of evidence supporting the use of these methods.

CLINICAL QUESTIONS

Types and selection of port

The main components of a port include the portal and the catheter. There are single-chamber and double-chamber portals^[7], with various sizes. Single-chamber ports are used more often clinically^[8]. Ports with the smallest number of chamber(s) that can meet the needs of the patient should be selected to reduce the risk of infection^[9]. Double-chamber ports can be used for simultaneous infusion of chemotherapy drugs and parenteral nutrient solution^[10]. Although some studies support that double-chamber ports do not increase the incidence of sepsis^[11], the compatibility of different infusion fluids should be considered during application.

Port catheters are made of two different materials, silica gel and polyurethane, which are considered equally safe. However, silica gel catheters can easily be blocked, and polyurethane catheters can cause venous thrombosis^[12,13]. Catheter ends with open and valvular designs are available. Compared with an open-end catheter, a valvular-end catheter can prevent blood from flowing back into the catheter lumen and does

not require heparin washing, but a valvular-end catheter cannot be used to draw blood samples. A prospective randomized controlled study showed that the short-term and long-term complications caused by the two catheters were comparable^[14]. Drug-coated catheters can significantly reduce the risk of blood infections^[15,16], but there is no evidence of their application in ports.

Recommendation: Single-chamber ports are preferred to reduce the risk of drug interactions that may occur when a double-chamber port infuses liquids simultaneously. Silica gel and polyurethane catheters are safe when used for long-term central venous infusion. (Level of evidence: Medium; degree of recommendation: Strong; expert approval rate: 100%).

Implantation modes and routes of venous port

In 1982, Niederhuber *et al*^[17] completed the first case of port implantation through the cephalic vein by surgical incision. In 1992, Morris *et al*^[18] reported an ultrasound-guided percutaneous port implantation. Presently, the percutaneous puncture route is more commonly applied in clinical practice. The results of a systematic review show that the complications of the percutaneous puncture route are comparable to those after surgical incision, but the success rate of the percutaneous puncture route is higher^[19]. The internal jugular vein, subclavian vein, basilic vein, and femoral vein can be selected for the percutaneous puncture route, and the literature reports that the internal jugular vein and subclavian vein are used most often^[5]. The selection of the puncture vein should take into account patient-related specific factors (such as whether there is positive pressure ventilation or anatomical dysplasia), relative risks of complications during the operation (hemorrhage, pneumothorax, and thrombosis), and risk of infection. For experienced operators, there is no difference in postoperative complications or patient quality of life between different vein approaches for port implantation^[20,21]. A randomized controlled study has confirmed that there are no differences in the incidence of catheter-related thrombotic events or catheter blockage between left-side and right-side port implantation^[22]. Percutaneous puncture methods include blind puncture based on anatomical landmarks, real-time ultrasound guidance and venography, and the ultrasound-guided real-time method, which is currently the most common^[23]. Research has shown that ultrasound real-time guidance can improve puncture efficiency and reduce venous catheter-related infections^[24].

Recommendation: The port is recommended to be implanted through a percutaneous puncture of the internal jugular vein or subclavian vein using real-time ultrasound guidance. (Level of evidence: High; degree of recommendation: Strong; expert approval rate: 96%).

Catheter tip position of the venous port

The position of catheter tip is very important for preventing complications and maintaining a smooth infusion. Data shows that the catheter tip position is an independent risk factor for venous thrombosis^[25]. Catheter thrombosis can affect the patency of the infusion. When the catheter tip is located at the lower 1/3 of the superior vena cava, the incidence of venous thrombosis and abnormal catheter patency is the lowest^[26]. Positioning the catheter parallel to the vessel wall helps to reduce the risk of catheter movement and the damage to the vessel wall. The position of the catheter tip can be confirmed by intraoperative fluoroscopy and postoperative chest radiograph. A study showed that intracardiac electrocardiogram technology can also accurately and conveniently confirm the position of the catheter tip^[27].

Recommendation: The catheter tip is recommended to be placed at the lower 1/3 of the superior vena cava, and the location be confirmed by a postoperative chest radiograph. (Level of evidence: Medium; degree of recommendation: Strong; expert approval rate: 100%).

Timing of the first medication through the venous port

The time interval between the port implantation and first medication may be a risk factor for the occurrence of port-related infections^[28]. The results of a prospective cohort study showed that when the intervals between the catheter implantation and first medication were 0-3 d, 4-7 d, and > 7 d, the total incidence rates of complications were 24.4%, 17.1%, and 12.1%, respectively, and the incidence rates of infections were 10.6%, 6.7%, and 2.0%, respectively^[29]. The results of a single-center prospective study of 4045 cases also showed that a time interval between port implantation and first medication of > 6 d could significantly reduce the risk of complications and catheter removal rates^[30]. However, scholars in China have not found any correlation between the timing of the first medication and complications.

Recommendation: In clinical practice, the timing of first medication should be considered and the first medication should be reasonable according to the regulations of each center. (Level of evidence: Medium; degree of recommendation: Strong; expert approval rate: 94%).

Prophylactic antibiotic use for venous port

The results of a prospective randomized controlled study showed that the prophylactic use of antibiotics did not reduce the postoperative infection complications^[31]. Recently, the results of systematic review showed that 5 (1.39%) out of 360 patients receiving prophylactic antibiotics experienced an infection, while 22 (1.23%) out of 1794 patients who did not receive an antibiotic experienced an infection; there were no statistical differences between the two groups. This indicates that prophylactic antibiotics had no effect on postoperative infection complications^[32]. Currently, relevant guidelines do not recommend the routine prophylactic use of antibiotics before or during port implantation^[33]. Unnecessary use of antibiotics increases the risk of anaphylaxis, leads to the growth of drug-resistant microorganisms, and increases medical expenses^[32].

Recommendation: Routine prophylactic use of antibiotics is not recommended. (Level of evidence: High; degree of recommendation: Strong; expert approval rate: 92%).

Flushing and sealing of the venous port

Long-term indwelling catheters can easily be blocked by protein biological films generated by a cross-linking reaction between the biological proteins and the catheter. Flushing and sealing are effective measures to prevent these complications, but the specific protocols vary greatly^[34]. To reduce the adhesion of injected substances on the inner surface of the catheter, it is generally recommended to flush the catheter with normal saline, infuse the drug, and flush the catheter with normal saline again^[35]. The results of randomized controlled studies confirmed that flushing and sealing the catheter with normal saline is not inferior to using heparin^[36,37]. A Cochrane systematic review also does not support any advantage of heparin in reducing catheter blockage^[38]. During the non-treatment period, a valvular catheter can be sealed with 10 mL normal saline every 4 wk and an open catheter can be sealed with 10 mL normal saline or 5 mL (100 U/mL) heparin every 4 wk^[39,40].

Recommendation: Under normal circumstances, the catheter can be flushed and sealed with normal saline. For maintenance, during the non-treatment period a valvular catheter can be sealed with normal saline every 4 wk and an open catheter can be sealed with normal saline or heparin (100 U/mL) every 4 wk. (Level of evidence: High; degree of recommendation: Strong; expert approval rate: 98%).

Prevention of port-related infections

Port-related infections are caused by various factors. Standardized evidence-based strategies can significantly reduce catheter-related infections^[41]. These measures include (operator) hand hygiene, skin disinfection, selection of optimal vascular access, and timely assessment of the necessity of catheter retention. It is not recommended to apply antibacterial ointment to the wound during port implantation^[9]. There is no evidence to support the reduction of infections by routine antibiotic catheter sealing, but it is recommended for patients with a history of multiple catheter-related blood infections^[42,43]. It is particularly important to provide the necessary training and education for catheter implantation operators and maintenance personnel^[44].

Recommendation: The operation and maintenance of the port should be carried out by medical personnel trained on professional standards, and standardized measures should be adopted to prevent port-related infections. (Level of evidence: Medium; degree of recommendation: Strong; expert approval rate: 100%).

PRACTICE GUIDELINES

Indications and contraindications

Indications for a venous port: (1) Long-term repeated infusion of corrosive and/or irritating drugs; (2) Long-term parenteral nutrition support is needed; (3) Long-term intermittent infusion and the transfusion of blood products is required; (4) It is difficult to establish peripheral venous access; (5) Frequent blood collection and

monitoring are required; and (6) Contrast agent bolus injection (high pressure-resistant). Indications for a peritoneal port: Peritoneal metastasis requiring intraperitoneal perfusion chemotherapy^[45]. Indications for an arterial port: Hepatic metastasis requiring hepatic artery perfusion chemotherapy^[46]. Contraindications: (1) Patients with a massive pleural effusion who cannot tolerate and/or cooperate with surgery; (2) Uncontrolled bacteremia or local infection at the operation site (confirmed or suspected local infection by puncture, bacteremia or symptoms of septicemia); (3) Confirmed or suspected allergies to port materials; (4) Abnormal venous return, such as vena cava compression syndrome; (5) Obvious coagulation dysfunction; (6) No suitable implantable port size for the patient's physique and/or body shape; (7) Severe pulmonary embolism; (8) Those who have received radiotherapy at the site to be punctured; (9) Signs of thrombosis at the site to be used for the catheter insertion or the patient has undergone a surgery; and (10) The puncture site is located on the same side as the only remaining normal lung tissue (there is a risk of fatal pneumothorax).

Preoperative assessment and preparation

Before the port implantation, the patient needs to be evaluated in detail, including the medical history and physical, laboratory, and imaging examinations. The medical history inquiry should include the history of radiotherapy and chemotherapy, the history of central vein catheterization, relevant operation history of the proposed port implantation site, and history of anticoagulant and anti-angiogenic medication use. The physical examination should include an assessment of the anatomy of the proposed portal placement site to assure that it is abnormal and subcutaneous fat thickness/skin condition is acceptable. Laboratory examinations should include routine blood test, immunity and coagulation function. Imaging examinations should include electrocardiogram, erect chest radiograph, and B-mode ultrasonography of the proposed puncture site. The preset catheter insertion length should be estimated according to the chest radiograph.

During preparation for the port implantation operation, it is necessary to communicate with the patients and their family members to inform them of the risks related to the operation, the operation methods and process, as well as matters needing attention after the operation. The informed consent form should be signed and volume expansion should be performed fully before the operation. It is also recommended to take a shower the day before the operation.

Port implantation operation

Implantation should be completed in an operating room that meets aseptic requirements. Before operation, the integrity and patency of the port kit should be checked.

Venous port implantation: Internal jugular vein approach (**Figure 1**): The patient lies in the supine position with the head turned to the opposite side, exposing the operation area on the neck. The operation plane should be flat and the muscles relaxed. The operator stands on the cranial side of the patient, the B-mode ultrasonography machine is placed on the left side of the patient, and the assistants and console are on the right side of the patient. B-mode ultrasonography is used to probe and locate the internal jugular vein, and to determine the relationship between the carotid arteries and veins and the puncture point. The puncture point, subcutaneous tunnel course, and port pocket position are marked. The skin is disinfected with the collarbone as the center. The disinfection scope includes an area with the upper margin to the level of the ear roots and mandible, the lower margin to the connection line of the bilateral nipples, the margin on the operating side to the posterior axillary line, and the margin on the contralateral side to the clavicle midline. Routine draping is performed. Infiltration with 1% lidocaine is applied for a local anesthesia on the operating region. A small incision of 0.5 cm is made at the puncture site. The puncture needle is guided into the venous lumen layer by layer by holding a B-mode ultrasonography probe, and the needle tip with strong echo light spot in the venous center can be seen after the successful puncture. Blood is drawn to confirm again that the needle tip is in the blood vessel. The guide wire is inserted and slowly fed in by 10-15 cm through the puncture needle. The guide wire is confirmed to enter the superior vena cava by B-mode ultrasonography or fluoroscopy. The peel-away sheath is introduced along the guide wire, and the catheter is introduced through the sheath. The peel-away sheath is sent to the lower 1/3 of the superior vena cava according to the predicted length. Then, the peel-away sheath is removed, blood is drawn to confirm the catheter position, and the rear end of the catheter is clamped. A cutaneous incision is made 2-3 cm below the 1/3 clavicle on the same side. The

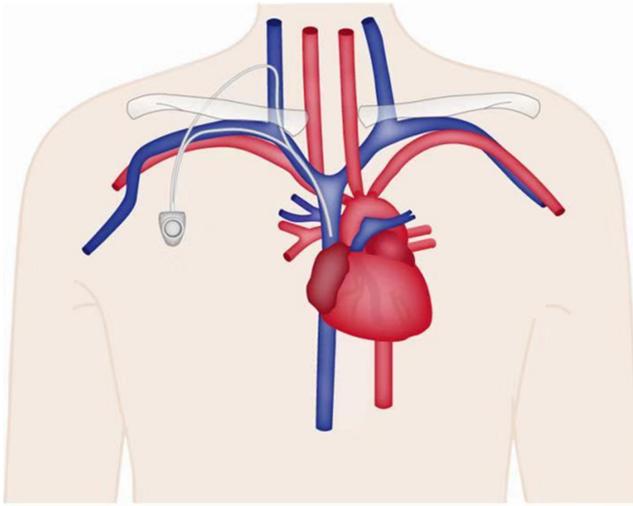


Figure 1 A schematic diagram for venous port implantation.

incision is about 2-3 cm long. A blunt dissection is performed to reach the subcutaneous tissue. A port pocket with a depth of 0.5-1.0 cm is made according to the size of the portal. The upper edge of the portal body is about 1 cm away from the surgical incision site to prevent the atraumatic needle from puncturing on the incision. The tip of the tunneling needle is pushed from the puncture point to the incision of the port pocket to form a subcutaneous tunnel, and the catheter is slowly pulled through the subcutaneous tunnel. The catheter is trimmed to a suitable length and ensured that the trimming edge is flat. The catheter is connected to the portal. The portal is placed into the port pocket and the course and radian of the catheter are adjusted on the neck and in the subcutaneous tunnel to avoid corner folding. A 2-0 non-absorbable suture is used to fix the portal and the surrounding tissues, and suture the neck and port pocket incision, and finally the wound is bound with dressing.

Subclavian vein approach: The patient lies in a supine position with the neck and shoulders elevated with a pad, the head tilted back and turned to the opposite side. The implantation process is roughly the same as that of the internal jugular vein approach, with the following differences: The puncture point is 1-2 cm below the mid-point of the clavicle. The position of the port pocket can be selected by a transverse incision at the needle insertion point without the establishment of a tunnel. The port pocket can also be placed in other positions using tunneling technology. During the puncture, the puncture needle faces the sternoclavicular joint or suprasternal fossa. The insertion angle is horizontal, and the needle is withdrawn while being inserted. Generally, the needle is inserted about 3-4 cm. After blood is seen upon withdrawal, the needle is inserted 1-2 mm further to ensure that the needle tip completely entered the blood vessel. The needle end is fixed, the syringe is disconnected, and the guide wire is sent to the superior vena cava. The other steps are the same as in internal jugular vein implantation.

Peritoneal port implantation: A peritoneal port can be implanted by open surgery, laparoscopy, or ultrasound-guided percutaneous implantation (Figure 2). It is recommended to implant the peritoneal port *via* laparoscope because of its minimal invasiveness, ability to probe the peritoneal cavity to evaluate the lesions, and ability to separate peritoneal adhesions. Under general anesthesia, routine disinfection and draping are performed. Pneumoperitoneum is established through a transumbilical puncture, and the lens are placed in a 10-mm puncture hole. The peritoneal cavity is explored and a 12-mm hole is established to separate peritoneal adhesions if necessary. The catheter is implanted by a method similar to the venous puncture, and the puncture point 5-6 cm laterally of the umbilicus is selected. Under the direct vision of laparoscope, the puncture needle is guided into the peritoneal cavity, the guide wire is introduced, and the puncture needle is removed. The peel-away sheath is fed in along the guide wire and then the guide wire is withdrawn. The catheter is introduced through the sheath. At least 10 cm of the catheter should remain in the peritoneal cavity. Then, the peel-away sheath is removed. The port pocket can be placed near the anterior superior iliac spine on the same side as the puncture point or 2 cm below the costal margin of the medial clavicle on the same side (bony structure support). A

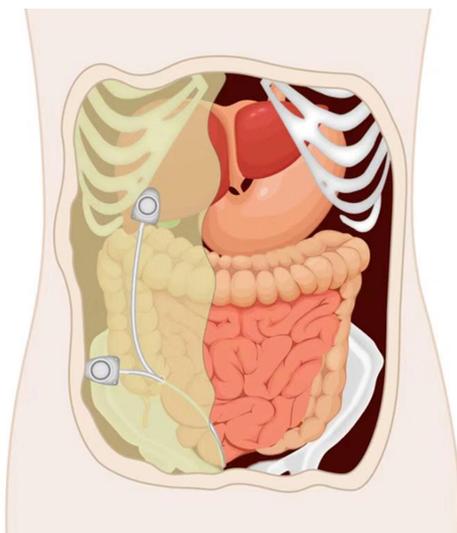


Figure 2 A schematic diagram for peritoneal port.

longitudinal incision of about 3 cm is made near the anterior superior iliac spine and a transverse incision of about 3 cm is made below the costal margin. A tunneling needle is used to establish a subcutaneous tunnel from the puncture point to the port pocket, and the catheter is guided to the port pocket. The catheter is adjusted to the rectovesical or rectouterine pouch in the pelvic cavity via laparoscope. The catheter is trimmed to a suitable length, connected with the portal, and the patency is checked with an atraumatic needle. The edge of the portal is adjusted to about 1 cm away from the incision and the edge of the portal is fixed with a non-absorbable suture. The incision is sutured and the wound is bound with dressing.

Arterial port implantation: An arterial port can be implanted through the left subclavian or the right femoral artery. However, the right femoral artery approach is preferred. In the supine position, the skin on the groin and perineum is prepared, disinfected, draped, and 1% lidocaine is used for local anesthesia. The modified Seldinger method is used to puncture the right femoral artery and insert the appropriate guide wire and catheter. Using the catheter guide wire technology, the catheter is selectively inserted into the celiac trunk for angiography to determine the tumor location, size, and number of arteries that supply blood to the tumor. The catheter is super-selectively inserted into the artery that supplies blood to the tumor, the guide wire is replaced as appropriate along the catheter, the catheter is withdrawn, the guide wire is retained, the port catheter is fed in along the guide wire until reaching the target blood vessel, and the guide wire is slowly withdrawn. The port catheter is fed in along the super-smooth guide wire and then the guide wire is slowly withdrawn. A cavity for the port pocket is created by an incision at the peritoneal wall of the iliac fossa in the superior lateral direction of the puncture point. The catheter is guided to the port pocket cavity by a tunneling needle. The catheter is intercepted at a proper length and connected to the portal interface filled with heparin saline. The portal is embedded in the port pocket. The skin and subcutaneous tissue at the site of the port pocket are sutured layer by layer, and the wound is bound up with local pressure. The lower limb on the puncture side is straightened and strictly immobilized for 12 h.

Prevention of complications

Complications related to the implantation operation: Common complications during port implantation include pneumothorax, hemothorax, arterial injuries, thoracic duct injuries, hematoma, air embolisms, intestinal tract injuries, brachial plexus injuries, arrhythmias, and catheter insertion failure. The keys to prevention and management include: (1) Port implantation should be completed by or under the guidance of trained personnel; (2) The puncture should be guided by an ultrasound or digital subtraction angiography. For blind access without image guidance, the puncture should first be attempted with a fine needle to confirm the direction and depth of the needle insertion; (3) The puncture vessel should remain in a positive-pressure state, *e.g.*, by keeping the head lowered and the feet elevated. Patients should be instructed

to hold their breath and cooperate during the process of transporting the catheter through the sheath. At the same time, care should be taken to prevent the puncture needle and the opening of the peel-away sheath from being exposed to the air. Using a peel-away sheath with a one-way valve can also effectively prevent air embolism; (4) To prevent the catheter from entering too far into the atrium, intraoperative fluoroscopy or a real-time electrocardiogram can be used to accurately evaluate the catheter tip position; and (5) During peritoneal port implantation, the puncture should be performed with a curved puncture needle under the direct vision of the lens to avoid injuring the intestinal tract.

Portal related complications: Complications related to the portal include incision wound dehiscence, inversion of the portal, drug extravasation, port pocket hematoma, and infection. The keys to prevention and management include: (1) When the patient is malnourished or the possibility of cachexia is predicted, the portal can be implanted deeper to reduce the tension at the skin incision. Anti-angiogenic drugs should be avoided before the operation^[47] and patients should be educated to avoid strenuous exercises that can increase wound tension after the operation; (2) The port pocket site should be selected as a location receiving relatively little traction from movements and the size should be matched with the portal, which should be sutured and fixed after being placed in the port pocket; (3) An atraumatic needle which is replaced every 7 d should be used to prevent the septum of the portal from being damaged. For peritoneal port implantation, a reinforced suture should be performed, or a catheter cuff should be used for the incision from which the catheter enters the peritoneal cavity. During intraperitoneal chemotherapy, the patient should adopt the supine position to reduce the risk of atraumatic needle prolapse; and (4) When creating the port pocket, bleeding should be minimized by dissection according to the anatomical layers, and the bleeding in the surgical field of view should be stopped completely. Care bundles should be used to prevent infections.

Catheter-related complications: Catheter-related complications include catheter displacement, thrombosis, pinch-off syndrome, breakage/fracture/detachment, deep vein thrombosis, fibrin sheath formation, superior vena cava erosion, and perforation. The prevention and management measures include: (1) Regular X-ray examinations should be performed for patients with a chronic cough or frequent movement of the limbs to eliminate the risk of catheter displacement; (2) The routine use of anticoagulant drugs is not recommended, but the prophylactic use of anticoagulants can be considered for tumor patients with a high risk of thrombosis and low risk of hemorrhage; the catheter flushing and sealing should be standardized to reduce the risk of thrombosis; (3) For a subclavian vein puncture, the lateral 1/3 of the clavicle should be selected as the puncture point to avoid an included angle between the clavicle and the first rib; and (4) Special care should be taken to ensure that the lock connection and catheter are not folded back during operation. If the patient suffers from pain and swelling around the catheter during the infusion, the infusion should be stopped immediately and an X-ray examination should be conducted to identify abnormalities such as catheter breakages as soon as possible. Patients should be instructed to avoid overstretching the catheter indwelling area during daily activities.

Port removal

Most ports can perform their functions without complications, but if complications occur at the initial stage of implantation, it may be necessary to remove the device immediately and attempt to implant a new one during the removal operation. Most complications can be treated without removal, but sometimes removal is the only reasonable choice. The overall removal rate due to complications is 5.5%-18%. Most port-related complications occur after the first chemotherapy session. Common reasons for removal include: (1) Infections: Infections around the portal pocket and along the catheter tunnel can generally be treated with reasonably selected antibiotics, while bacteremia is an indication for port removal; (2) Thrombosis: Thrombosis is the second major cause of port removal; removal can be considered if anticoagulation is ineffective and thrombosis complicated with persistent infection is an absolute indication for port removal; (3) Catheter displacement: There are two pathophysiological types of catheter displacement. One is the pinch-off sign on a chest radiograph, which indicates that the catheter leakage site is between the first rib and the collarbone; the other type occurs in obese patients when the catheter tip migrates to the periphery due to tissue traction in the upright position; (4) Catheter fragments and embolisms caused by catheter fractures: Detached fragments can be taken out through the femoral vein; the port does not need to be removed if there are no

additional complications; and (5) Skin corrosion on the port surface: This is very rare. It is recommended to ensure that the skin thickness on the surface is 0.5-1 cm when implanting the port. When the port is removed, the catheter tunnel should be closed immediately to avoid an air embolism.

Patient education

Health education for patients can reduce the risk of port-related complications. The specific recommendations include: (1) After the wound heals, patients can take showers or do low-intensity exercise such as walking, while strenuous exercises such as pull-ups should be avoided; (2) After the operation, if symptoms such as chest pain, abdominal discomfort, and fever and chills of an unknown cause occur, medical attention should be sought immediately; (3) Avoid local friction with clothes, bra straps, and knapsack shoulder straps to prevent skin rupture. Patients should go to the hospital every 4 wk for professional port maintenance; (4) During CT or MRI examinations, a contrast agent cannot be injected under high pressure unless a high pressure-resistant port is implanted; and (5) Keep the port maintenance manual.

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Management of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease in the Middle East

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Abstract

The prevalence of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) in the Middle East is increasing in parallel to an increase in the prevalence of associated risk factors such as obesity, metabolic syndrome, and type 2 diabetes mellitus. About 20% to 30% of the patients progress to develop nonalcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH), a histological subtype of NAFLD, with features of hepatocyte injury such as hepatocyte ballooning. NASH can progress to fibrosis, cirrhosis, and even hepatocellular carcinoma. NAFLD thus causes a substantial burden on healthcare systems and it is imperative that appropriate strategies are discussed at a regional level to facilitate effective management tailored to the needs of the region. To fulfil this unmet need, expert gastroenterologists, hepatologists, and endocrinologists from the region came together in three advisory board meetings that were conducted in Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, and Kuwait, to

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discuss current local challenges in NAFLD screening and diagnosis, and the different available management options. The experts discussed the disease burden of NAFLD/NASH in the Middle East; screening, diagnosis, and referral patterns in NAFLD; and available treatment options for NAFLD and NASH. This paper summarizes the discussions and opinion of the expert panel on the management of NAFLD/NASH and also presents an extensive literature review on the topic.

Key words: Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease; Nonalcoholic steatohepatitis; Middle East; Expert opinion

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Core tip: With the rising prevalence of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) in the Middle East, there is an unmet need of appropriate strategies to facilitate effective management at a regional level. Therefore, expert gastroenterologists, hepatologists, and endocrinologists from the region came together in three advisory board meetings that were conducted in Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, and Kuwait. Current local challenges in NAFLD screening and diagnosis, and the different available management options were discussed. This paper summarizes the discussions of the expert panel on the management of NAFLD/nonalcoholic steatohepatitis and also presents an extensive literature review on the topic.

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INTRODUCTION

Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) is the most common chronic liver disease worldwide and is characterized by fatty infiltration of the liver in the absence of alcohol abuse or other causes of hepatic steatosis such as medications and viral or autoimmune hepatitis^[1]. It encompasses the entire spectrum of manifestations from steatosis, steatohepatitis, and fibrosis to cirrhosis^[1]. NAFLD can be categorized as nonalcoholic fatty liver (NAFL) and nonalcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH) based on histopathological criteria. NAFL is defined as the presence of more than 5% of hepatic steatosis without evidence of hepatocellular injury and is generally a nonprogressive condition. On the other hand, NASH implies the presence of hepatic steatosis (> 5%), in conjunction with features of hepatocyte injury (such as hepatocyte ballooning), and can progress to fibrosis, cirrhosis, and even hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC)^[1,2]. Although patients with only hepatic steatosis (NAFL) typically do not develop cirrhosis or liver-related complications, about 20% to 30% of NAFLD can be classified as NASH^[3,4]. It is important to distinguish between the different types of NAFLD as it has an impact on prognosis and management^[5].

The estimated prevalence of NAFLD varies worldwide, ranging from 6% to 35%^[6,7]. In a recent meta-analysis on the global epidemiology of NAFLD, Younossi *et al*^[8] reported its prevalence to be highest (32%) in the Middle East. Also, with an increase in the risk factors of NAFLD and NASH such as obesity, metabolic syndrome (MetS), and type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM), the prevalence is estimated to grow further^[6]. Alswat *et al*^[9] conducted an analysis to estimate the burden of NAFLD in Saudi Arabia and United Arab Emirates (UAE) by the year 2030^[9]. The analysis projected that by 2030 there will be over 12 million individuals (an increase by 48% from 2017) with NAFLD in Saudi Arabia and 372000 (an increase by 46% from 2017) in UAE^[9]. This projected NAFLD prevalence corresponds to predicted increase in the burden of obesity and T2DM. Furthermore, NASH prevalence, which was 4.2% and 4.1% of the total population in Saudi Arabia and UAE, respectively, in 2017, is expected to rise by 96% and 87%, respectively, by 2030. This model also predicts that the percentage of patients with F3/F4 fibrosis or advanced liver disease (decompensated cirrhosis or HCC) is anticipated to increase to 21.8% (13.5% in 2017) and 21.1% (13.6% in 2017) of

the NASH cases in Saudi Arabia and UAE, respectively, by 2030. In Saudi Arabia, incident decompensated cirrhosis is expected to rise by 273% with almost seven thousand cases in 2030. In UAE, the incident decompensation is anticipated to rise by 241%. NAFLD related HCC cases are projected to increase by 209% (580 to 1790) in Saudi Arabia and by 181% (18 to 51) in UAE. By 2030, annual liver-related deaths are estimated to rise by 295% in Saudi Arabia and by 270% in UAE^[9].

It is important to note that the clinical outcomes of NAFLD can vary across the globe. In a recent study of the Global NASH Registry™, NAFLD subjects enrolled from 14 different countries showed some clinical similarities but also a number of differences^[10]. These data suggest that the epidemiology of NAFLD must be considered in the context of regional and country-specific factors that impact the incidence, prevalence, and natural history of NAFLD.

NAFLD and NASH pose major challenges in both diagnosis and treatment. There is an ongoing debate as to whether at-risk patients should be screened for NAFLD/NASH in the absence of effective, approved pharmacological treatment options^[2,11]. In such a scenario, screening of high-risk groups could be a more practical option. Also, there are uncertainties regarding appropriate referral, management, and follow-up of these patients. With the rising prevalence of NAFLD and NASH in the Middle East, it is imperative that these concerns are discussed at a regional level to facilitate effective strategies tailored to the needs of the region.

With this objective, advisory board meetings were conducted between May 2018 and February 2019 in Saudi Arabia, UAE, and Kuwait, to discuss current local challenges in NASH screening and diagnosis and the different available management options. These meetings were attended by expert gastroenterologists, hepatologists, and endocrinologists from the region. This paper summarizes the discussions in the meetings, along with a comprehensive literature review on the topic. For the review, PubMed and Google Scholar were searched employing the Boolean operators, “AND” and “OR”, and using the following search terms: “nonalcoholic fatty liver disease”, “NAFLD”, “nonalcoholic steatohepatitis”, “NASH”, “type 2 diabetes mellitus”, “T2DM”, “metabolic syndrome”, “obesity”, “guidelines”. The bibliographies of the key references were also searched manually for additional relevant references.

During the meetings, the experts discussed the following topics: (1) Disease burden of NAFLD/NASH in the Middle East; (2) Screening, diagnosis, and referral patterns in NAFLD; and (3) Available treatment options for NAFL and NASH.

DISEASE BURDEN OF NONALCOHOLIC FATTY LIVER DISEASE/ NONALCOHOLIC STEATOHEPATITIS IN THE MIDDLE EAST

NAFLD/NASH burden in the Middle East countries is growing with the increase in the prevalence of risk factors such as obesity, MetS, and T2DM

A population-wide screening program in UAE found that 35% of the population had obesity, 32% were overweight, 55% had central obesity, 18% had diabetes, 27% were prediabetic, and 44% had dyslipidemia^[12] (Table 1). Further, Radwan *et al*^[13] reported a two to three-fold increase in the prevalence of obesity in the UAE between 1989 and 2017^[13]. In a survey conducted in 2013 in Saudi Arabia, 28.7% of the 10735 participants were obese (body mass index, ≥ 30 kg/m²)^[14]. Moreover, Al-Quwaidhi *et al*^[15] projected an increase in the overall prevalence of obesity in Saudi Arabia to 41% in men, and 78% in women by 2022^[15]. Obesity has been strongly linked with NAFLD and is known to be associated with the entire histological spectrum from steatosis, hepatocellular injury, fibrosis, cirrhosis, and even HCC^[16]. In a study ($n = 296$), Alqahtani *et al*^[17] found that 65% of severely obese young children in Saudi Arabia had NASH and 60% had clinically significant liver fibrosis^[17].

Similarly, regional disease burden from diabetes has been steadily increasing. As per the World Health Organization, in the Middle East and North Africa region, a 72% increase in the prevalence of diabetes from 39 million adults in 2017 to 85 million in 2045 is estimated^[18]. In Saudi Arabia, the prevalence of diabetes has risen almost 10 fold over the past three decades^[19]. There are several contributors to this, including rapid urbanization, unhealthy eating habits, and sedentary lifestyle^[18]. Patients with T2DM have a high prevalence of NAFLD and advanced fibrosis. In a meta-analysis of 24 studies, the pooled prevalence of NAFLD in T2DM patients was almost 60%^[20]. In another more recent (2019) meta-analysis, the global prevalence of NAFLD among T2DM patients was 55.5%^[21]. Similarly, a meta-analysis that included 17 studies with T2DM patients found the prevalence of NAFLD to be 54%^[22]. All these studies may

Table 1 Prevalence and Estimation Studies of Risk Factors of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease in United Arab Emirates, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, and Kuwait

Place of study	Study	Main findings	Ref.
Dubai, UAE	Cross-sectional study to assess prevalence of MetS and its associated risk factors among children and adolescents (596 students)	Prevalence of MetS was 3.7%; was more common among boys than girls (12 boys versus 10 girls); 18.6% were overweight; 21.2% were obese; MetS was more commonly found in obese (16%) compared to overweight students (2%)	Haroun <i>et al</i> ^[81] , 2018
Abu Dhabi, UAE	Multicenter cohort study to determine cardiovascular risk factor prevalence rates (50138 participants)	35% were obese, 32% were overweight, 55% had central obesity, 18% were diabetic, 27% were prediabetic; Age-standardized diabetes and prediabetes rates were 25% and 30%, respectively; Age-standardized obesity and overweight rates were 41% and 34%, respectively	Hajat <i>et al</i> ^[12] , 2012
UAE	Systematic review and qualitative synthesis of prevalence, incidence rates, trends, and Economic Burden of Obesity and cardiometabolic disorder (36 studies)	All studies reported high prevalence rates for obesity, diabetes, hypertension, and MetS; Obesity and related cardiometabolic disorders seem highly prevalent in the UAE but estimating an accurate occurrence is challenging due to methodological heterogeneity of the epidemiological studies addressing them; Frequency of overweight and obesity was reported to increase by 2-3-fold between 1989 and 2017	Radwan <i>et al</i> ^[13] , 2018
Saudi Arabia	Survey to determine obesity prevalence and associated factors (<i>n</i> = 10293)	28.7% of the population evaluated were obese; Obesity prevalence was higher among women (33.5%) than men (24.1%)	Memish <i>et al</i> ^[14] , 2014
Saudi Arabia	Secondary analysis to estimate the trends in the prevalence of adult obesity over the period 1992–2022 (5 studies)	Obesity trend from 1992-2005: In men, the prevalence increased from (1) 10.1% to 27.1% in age-group 25-34 yr; and (2) 12.9% to 31.0% in age group 55-64 yr. In women, obesity prevalence was higher; increased from (1) 16.1% to 39.5% in age group 25-34 yr; and (2) 22.8% to 53.2% in age group 55-64 yr. Obesity projection from 1992-2022: The future obesity prevalence was estimated to increase from (1) 12% to 41% in men; and (2) 21% to 78% in women	Al-Quwaidhi <i>et al</i> ^[15] , 2014
Saudi Arabia	Cross sectional study to evaluate the prevalence of MetS	The prevalence of MetS in Saudi Arabia was found to be 39.8% (34.4% in men and 29.2% in women) as per the NCEP ATP III and 31.6% (45.0% in men and 35.4% in women) as per IDF criteria	Al-Rubeaan <i>et al</i> ^[26] , 2018
Kuwait	Observational study (multicenter) to examine the prevalence of MetS and its components (992 adults ≥ 20 yr)	Obesity percentage was significantly greater in females (54.7%) compared to males (32.3%); Abdominal obesity was the most predominant MetS abnormality; Prevalence of MetS increased with age and was higher in females than males	Al Zenki <i>et al</i> ^[82] , 2012
Kuwait	Cross-sectional survey to estimate prevalence of overweight, obesity, and various types of adiposity (3589 adults, 18-69 yr)	Overall obesity prevalence was 40.3% (men, 36.5%; women, 44.0%); The prevalence of Class I, Class II, and Class III obesity was 24.9%, 9.9%, and 5.5%, respectively	Weiderpass <i>et al</i> ^[83] , 2019
Kuwait	Descriptive, cross-sectional survey (multicenter) to understand the prevalence of MetS, and estimation of the 10-year risk for developing T2DM and CHD (<i>n</i> = 1610)	4% subjects were found to have screen detected T2DM. A history of high blood glucose levels was reported by 18.0% subjects; 35.5% of the participants were obese; MetS was present in about 32% of the participants; Almost 30% of participants were found to be at moderate/high/very high risk of developing T2DM within the next 10 yr; 8.45% were found to be at moderate/high/very high risk of developing both T2DM/CHD within the next 10 yr	Awad <i>et al</i> ^[84] , 2014

IDF: International Diabetes Federation; MetS: Metabolic syndrome; NCEP ATP III: National Cholesterol Education Program and Adult Treatment Panel III; T2DM: Type 2 diabetes mellitus; UAE: United Arab Emirates.

have slightly different methodology but, as is evident, prevalence of NAFLD in individuals with T2DM was quite high. Moreover, presence of NAFLD has been reported to be associated with a twofold increased risk of incident diabetes^[23]. Further, the prevalence of NASH in diabetic patients with NAFLD has also been evaluated. In a recent meta-analysis by Younossi *et al*^[21], while the global prevalence of NASH in patients with T2DM was found to be 37.3%, the prevalence of advanced fibrosis was 17%^[21]. In a study derived from the NASH Clinical Research Network, of 346 patients with diabetes and NAFLD, the prevalence of NASH and advanced fibrosis was 69.2%

and 41%, respectively^[24].

Similar to T2DM, the prevalence of MetS (*i.e.*, abdominal obesity, hypertension, atherogenic dyslipidemia, and hyperglycemia) in the Middle East is also on the rise. A meta-analysis of cross-sectional studies from the Middle East countries reported the prevalence of MetS to be 16%-41% in Saudi-Arabia, 9%-36% in Kuwait, and 22%-50% in UAE^[25]. A recent study found the prevalence of MetS in Saudi Arabia to be about 40%^[26]. A strong association between MetS and NAFLD has been reported previously. In a study conducted on 304 patients with NAFLD without overt diabetes, 88% of patients who had NASH on liver biopsy had MetS. Further, the study showed that MetS was associated with a high risk of NASH among NAFLD patients [odds ratio (OR), 3.2; 95% CI: 1.2-8.9; $P = 0.026$]^[27]. Furthermore, in the NASH Clinical Research Network data, presence of NASH was significantly associated with MetS (OR: 1.43; 95% CI: 1.09-1.98; $P = 0.009$)^[28]. In a regional study from Kuwait, T2DM ($P = 0.02$) and obesity ($P < 0.004$) were again significantly associated with NAFLD^[29].

In summary, obesity, MetS, T2DM, and NAFLD are all associated with each other. Emerging data also appears to show that the prevalence of NAFLD is growing in parallel with that of obesity, MetS, and T2DM, worldwide, with Middle East being no exception^[11,30,31].

SCREENING, DIAGNOSIS, AND REFERRAL PATTERNS IN NONALCOHOLIC FATTY LIVER DISEASE

Patients with risk factors, namely obesity, MetS, and T2DM should be screened for NAFLD

Given the high prevalence of NAFLD in high-risk groups, most international guidelines including European, Asia-Pacific, and National Institute for Health and Care Excellence recommend routine screening in these patients with liver enzymes, ultrasonography, and transient elastography, where available^[2,32,33]. European guidelines also recommend case finding of advanced disease (*i.e.* NASH with fibrosis) in high risk individuals (age > 50 years, T2DM, MetS)^[2]. However, the American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases (AASLD) guidelines currently do not recommend routine screening for NAFLD given the uncertainties regarding performance characteristics of diagnostic tests and available treatment options^[1]. Nevertheless, they urge clinicians to have a high index of suspicion for NAFLD and NASH in patients with diabetes even if liver enzymes are normal^[1]. European guideline also recommends that individuals with persistently abnormal liver enzymes be screened for NAFLD and all those with steatosis be screened for MetS independent of liver enzymes^[2]. Obtaining a random aspartate transaminase and alanine transaminase (ALT) level in individuals with obesity, MetS, and T2DM may be a reasonable approach^[34]. However, as it is known that liver enzymes may not always be elevated in NAFLD, an ultrasound can be done on patients suspected to have NAFLD. Other tests can be used for screening based on availability and feasibility.

Definite diagnosis of NASH can only be made by liver biopsy. Candidates for liver biopsy should be chosen carefully based on the results of noninvasive tests.

The diagnosis of NAFLD involves clinical history to rule out secondary causes of fatty liver and to obtain information on risk factors such as age (≥ 50 years) and the presence of T2DM and MetS^[35] (Figure 1). Further, biochemical investigations and radiological findings aid in making the diagnosis. Patients often do not experience overt symptoms but their quality of life is impaired^[36]. In most cases, the diagnosis of NAFLD is made when elevated liver enzymes are found incidentally. Also, it is important to note that liver enzymes can be within the normal range in NASH and a definitive diagnosis can only be made by histology^[30].

Although liver biopsy is considered as the gold standard for establishing NASH and for staging of fibrosis, it is associated with the risk of complications such as pain, intraperitoneal bleeding, and pneumothorax^[35]. Noninvasive methods of diagnosis include serum biomarkers, routine radiologic tests such as ultrasound, computed tomography, magnetic resonance imaging, and assessment of liver stiffness by transient elastography (FibroScan[®]) and magnetic resonance elastography^[37]. Validated laboratory-based scoring systems for estimating the stage of hepatic fibrosis are also available, such as NAFLD fibrosis score, FibroMeter, and Fibrosis-4^[35]. The advantages and limitations of some of the available diagnostic modalities are listed in Table 2.

In addition to these tests, a number of serum fibrosis tests are being evaluated for

Table 2 Key diagnostic modalities for nonalcoholic fatty liver disease and nonalcoholic steatohepatitis^[11,35,85,86]

Diagnostic Tests	Advantages	Limitations
Liver enzymes and other blood tests for fibrosis		
Platelet count; APRI; AST; ALT; AST/ALT ratio; Hyaluronic acid; ELF; Hepascore; FibroSpect; FibroTest/FibroSure	Simple and easy; AST/ALT of > 1 is predictive of fibrosis; ELF can predict stage of fibrosis and outcomes	AST and ALT can be normal in some patients with NAFLD; ELF is not widely available; Some tests initially developed for HCV; Limited published data on external validation
Radiology		
Ultrasonography	Easily available; Safe; Overall scanning of abdominal organs	Cannot detect mild degree of steatosis (< 30% of hepatocytes); Does not distinguish between steatosis and NASH; Operator dependent
MRI	More sensitive than ultrasonography	Cost and availability; Does not distinguish between steatosis and NASH
Transient; Elastography	Can detect fibrosis	Cost and availability
MRE	Can detect fibrosis and MRI-PDFF can quantify steatosis	Cost and availability
Fibrosis scoring systems		
NAFLD fibrosis score (NFS), Fibro Meter Fibrosis-4 (FIB-4)	Allow a more targeted use of liver biopsy by reliably excluding advanced fibrosis in a high proportion of NAFLD patients; Potentially predict liver-related and cardiovascular complications and death	Significant number with indeterminate scores; Limited external validation in NASH
Liver biopsy	Gold standard for diagnosis of NAFLD and NASH; Allows staging of the disease	Invasive; Associated with complications – pain, intraperitoneal bleeding; Cost

ALT: Alanine aminotransferase; AST: Aspartate aminotransferase; APRI: AST-to-platelet ratio index; CT: Computerized tomographic; ELF: Enhanced liver fibrosis; MRE: Magnetic resonance elastography; MRI: Magnetic resonance imaging; MRI-PDFF: MRI-based proton density fat fraction; NAFLD: Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease; NASH: Nonalcoholic steatohepatitis.

risk-stratifying patients with NASH. Of these, Enhanced Liver Fibrosis (ELFTM) is available in Europe and seems to be a promising non-invasive test for risk assessment in patients with NASH^[38].

Since none of the noninvasive tests can confirm a diagnosis of NASH, the only available option for definitive diagnosis is liver biopsy. However, it has been found that the combination or sequential use of different noninvasive methods or different scoring systems can increase overall diagnostic accuracy with consequent decrease in the need for liver biopsy^[39-41]. In summary, diagnosis of NASH is complex and needs careful consideration of available non-invasive diagnostic tools. It is advisable to use these various modalities based on availability and carefully select the subset of patients, who will benefit from liver biopsy, based on the results of the noninvasive methods.

Liver biopsy also plays an important role in staging and risk-stratification of the disease. NASH fibrosis is divided into four stages based on severity, ranging from the less severe stages (F1 and F2) to F3 and F4 (bridging fibrosis and cirrhosis, respectively)^[42]. The presence and degree of fibrosis has been shown to be the most

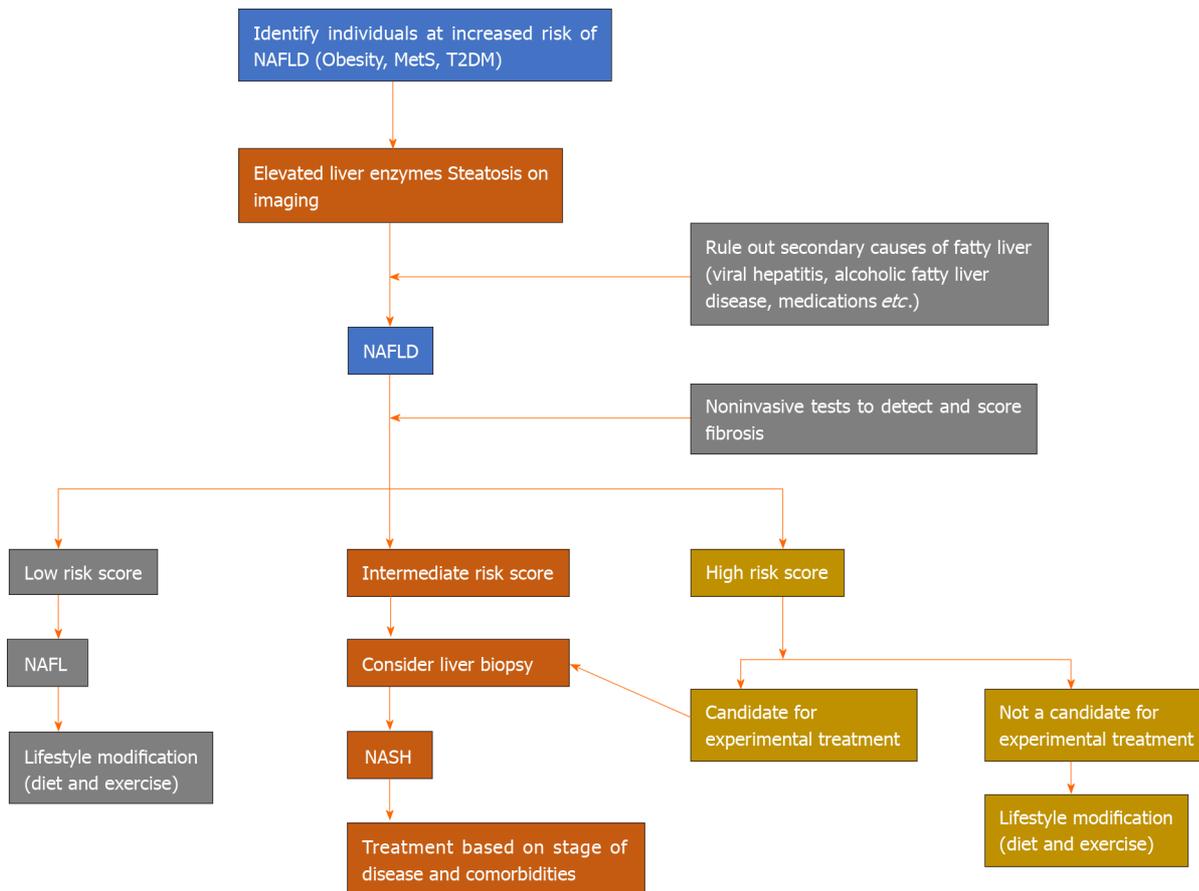


Figure 1 Basic algorithm for diagnosis and treatment of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease/nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. MetS: Metabolic syndrome; NAFL: Nonalcoholic fatty liver; NAFLD: Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease; NASH: Nonalcoholic steatohepatitis; T2DM: Type 2 diabetes mellitus.

important prognostic marker in NASH^[43-46]. In a study, during a follow-up of mean 20 years (range 0-40) equivalent to 139163 person-years, the risk of severe liver disease increased per stage of fibrosis (hazard ratio ranging from 1.9 in F0 to 104.9 in F4) compared to controls^[44]. In another study, features of liver biopsies significantly associated with death or liver transplantation included fibrosis stage 1 (HR: 1.88; 95%CI: 1.28-2.77), stage 2 (HR: 2.89; 95%CI: 1.93-4.33), stage 3 (HR: 3.76; 95%CI: 2.40-5.89), and stage 4 (HR: 10.9; 95%CI: 6.06-19.62) compared with stage 0^[43].

Referral of patients should be done promptly once NASH is suspected and NASH should be managed by multidisciplinary teams

Currently, NAFLD is underdiagnosed^[47]. It is crucial to increase awareness regarding NAFLD and NASH *via* effective multi-disciplinary collaboration among healthcare professionals. Education of primary care physicians as well as diabetologists is important. Diabetologists and primary care physicians should be encouraged to screen at-risk patients for NAFLD, followed by time-sensitive referral, especially in patients with suspected NASH. In view of the co-morbid conditions often associated with NAFLD, a multidisciplinary management approach that includes primary care physicians, gastroenterologists, endocrinologists/diabetologists, cardiologists, and nutritionists is warranted.

AVAILABLE TREATMENT OPTIONS FOR NONALCOHOLIC FATTY LIVER AND NONALCOHOLIC STEATOHEPATITIS

Patients with NAFL should be advised lifestyle modifications only. Patients with NASH should be considered for therapy based on the stage of the disease and the presence of comorbidities

Once NAFLD/NASH is diagnosed, the next step is to consider appropriate therapeutic intervention. This is currently limited by lack of effective treatment options

to prevent or reduce progression to cirrhosis and HCC. Although all patients with NAFLD are candidates for lifestyle intervention to optimize their cardiovascular risks, only patients with NASH are candidates for pharmacotherapy. Therefore, the current treatment options for NASH include lifestyle interventions, pharmacotherapy (mostly off-label), and consideration for bariatric surgery in the context of metabolic indication for weight loss surgery. Importantly, treatment should also involve the management of comorbidities^[1,2].

Patients with NAFL usually have a favorable liver-related prognosis and require management of their cardiovascular risks. In this context, NAFL patients do not require consideration of pharmacotherapy for liver disease and this treatment option should be reserved for patients diagnosed with NASH. Intervention in patients with NAFL should be limited to encouragement of appropriate lifestyle modifications^[1,2]. Lifestyle interventions, including diet and exercise, have been found to be effective when adequate weight loss is achieved. In a meta-analysis that included 20 studies and 1073 NAFLD patients, exercise significantly improved aspartate transaminase and ALT ($P < 0.05$). Additionally, combined exercise and diet decreased ALT ($P < 0.01$) and improved NAFLD activity score (standardized mean difference -0.61 , 95% CI: -1.09 to -0.13)^[48]. Bradford *et al.*^[49] reviewed 30 studies that used diet and/or exercise as an intervention for patients with NAFLD^[49]. A total of 14 studies that included both diet and exercise showed improvement in the various outcome measures evaluated. Of the nine studies that included only exercise as an intervention, eight studies showed a positive outcome. Furthermore, all seven studies that used only diet as an intervention also showed improvement in markers of hepatic steatosis, leading the authors to conclude that lifestyle intervention is a critical component of management of patients with NAFLD^[49].

European Association for the Study of the Liver, European Association for the Study of Diabetes, and European Association for the Study of Obesity and AASLD guidelines recommend a combination of daily reduction in caloric intake by 500 to 1000 kcal and moderate-intensity exercise for sustaining weight loss over time^[1,2]. A systematic review and meta-analysis reported improved hepatic steatosis with $\geq 5\%$ weight loss and improvement in NASH with a weight loss of $\geq 7\%$ ^[50]. As per the AASLD guidelines, weight loss of 3%-5% of total body weight is required to improve steatosis and weight loss of 7%-10% is necessary to improve histopathological features of NASH^[1]. It has also been suggested that weight loss of more than 10% may improve fibrosis^[51,52].

It is important to note that currently, there are no pharmacotherapies approved for the treatment of NASH. This underscores the need for clinicians to make treatment decisions based on individual patient circumstances, taking into account the stage of NASH and safety, expected benefit, pricing, and evidence base of available off-label pharmacological treatment options. Although metformin has been widely studied in patients with NASH, it was not found to have beneficial effects on liver histology^[53-55] and is therefore not recommended in patients with NASH^[1,2,32]. On the other hand, the thiazolidinedione, pioglitazone has been shown to be promising in improving liver histology in NASH patients with or without T2DM^[56-58]. Pioglitazone could be considered in these patients although currently AASLD guidelines recommend consideration of its use in biopsy-proven NASH only^[1]. Vitamin E has also been used in patients with NAFLD and NASH. In a meta-analysis, vitamin E supplementation was associated with significant ($P < 0.05$) improvement in all histological parameters including steatosis, ballooning, lobular inflammation, and fibrosis in nondiabetic individuals with NASH^[59]. Similar results were found in another meta-analysis, where vitamin E significantly reduced liver enzymes and improved liver histology^[60]. However, concerns have been raised about the safety of vitamin E supplementation, including increased all-cause mortality with dose of > 800 IU/d and an observed association with prostate cancer^[61,62]. Nevertheless, a large meta-analysis that included 57 studies including 246371 patients, who were followed for up to 10 years, did not show any association between vitamin E and all-cause mortality^[63]. Consequently, it is recommended that vitamin E at a dose of 800 IU/d be considered in nondiabetic adults with biopsy-proven NASH^[1]. A meta-analysis that included nine clinical trials (three with thiazolidinedione, three with metformin, two with vitamin E and one with both thiazolidinedione and vitamin E), found that thiazolidinedione and vitamin E improved liver histologic scores, but metformin did not. None of the agents improved fibrosis^[64].

NAFLD has been shown to be associated with an increased risk of cardiovascular events, regardless of the presence of coexisting metabolic syndrome, mandating consideration of interventions to treat cardiovascular risk factors^[65]. Concerns persist amongst clinicians regarding statin use in patients with liver disease. However, statins

can be used to treat dyslipidemia in patients with NAFLD and NASH without any concern regarding liver toxicity^[1,66]. Statins have also been studied for the treatment of NAFLD and NASH but their efficacy for this indication is debated due to inconsistent results in clinical trials^[66].

Sustained weight loss is indeed the most effective way to treat NAFLD and NASH. Unfortunately, this is difficult to achieve utilizing lifestyle modifications alone. Bariatric surgery, therefore, has an important role in the management of obese NASH patients. In one study, 85% of 109 morbidly obese patients with biopsy-proven NASH showed resolution of disease one year after bariatric surgery and the likelihood of improvement correlated with liver disease severity prior to surgery and degree of weight loss achieved^[67]. A third of patients were also observed to have improvement in hepatic fibrosis^[67]. In a systematic review and meta-analysis, bariatric surgery was associated with a significant reduction in the weighted incidence of a number of histological features of NAFLD including steatosis (50.2%), fibrosis (11.9%), hepatocyte ballooning (67.7%), and lobular inflammation (50.7%)^[68]. A study conducted in the United States found bariatric surgery to be not just effective but also cost-effective in the treatment of obese patients with NASH^[69].

In a study conducted in the UAE, 80 patients underwent bariatric surgery, either laparoscopic sleeve gastrectomy ($n = 53$) or mini-gastric bypass ($n = 27$). There was significant reduction in mean body weight at 3, 6, 12, and 24 mo ($P < 0.001$ for each time point). Of the 61.3% who had NAFLD, 22.4% showed improvement in sonographic features of hepatic steatosis with normalization of ALT^[70]. In another study ($n = 27$) conducted in Saudi Arabia, after 3 mo of bariatric surgery, 66.6% of the patients with preoperative steatosis (median score 2) had reduced steatosis scores postoperatively ($P = 0.025$) and 68% of the patients had reduced fibrosis (median score 1) ($P = 0.012$). Also, NAFLD activity score was decreased from 4 (3-5) to 2 (1-3) ($P = 0.004$)^[71]. However, it is also important to note that the use of bariatric surgery is limited by its cost and complications that are associated with any surgical procedure. As such, any advocacy for bariatric surgery must be tempered with a parallel education of its associated complications, which remains suboptimal in the region^[72].

NASH-related cirrhosis is growing as an indication for liver transplantation

NASH is projected to become the most common indication for liver transplantation in near future^[73]. With the availability of highly effective treatment options for hepatitis C virus (HCV)-related cirrhosis, NASH-related cirrhosis is emerging as the leading indication for liver transplantation worldwide.

In a study conducted in Saudi Arabia, over the course of the time period from January 2001 to December 2006, 50%, 17%, and 12% of the patients underwent liver transplant for HCV-induced cirrhosis, HBV-induced cirrhosis, and NASH-related cirrhosis, respectively. On the other hand, from January 2007 to January 2012, 35%, 16%, and 20% of the patients underwent transplantation for HCV-, HBV-, and NASH-induced cirrhosis, respectively, underscoring the evolving trends in the indications for liver transplantation^[74].

Being a complex procedure, liver transplantation is associated with several limitations. Another important aspect to consider is that liver transplantation does not treat the comorbidities of NASH and therefore interventions to address the accompanying metabolic diseases is important, before and after transplantation^[73].

Emerging therapies for NASH are awaited for more effective management of this disease

Currently, many new drugs are being developed with varying mechanisms of action, with the goal of improving hepatic steatosis, inflammation, liver cell injury, and fibrosis in patients with NAFLD^[75]. Some of these include obeticholic acid (farnesoid X receptor agonist), elafibranor (a dual receptor peroxisome proliferator activated alpha/delta agonist), GS-9674 (farnesoid X receptor agonist), and GS-0976 (Acetyl-CoA carboxylase inhibitor). Future treatment options may also include combination therapies^[75,76].

ADDRESSING NONALCOHOLIC FATTY LIVER DISEASE BURDEN IN THE MIDDLE EAST

Despite the high burden of NAFLD, there are no proper epidemiological studies or regional clinical guidelines that are relevant to these countries. The lack of properly

carried out community-based epidemiological studies is a particular concern, and has obvious fallouts on resource planning and allocation, and poses considerable difficulties to these countries' healthcare systems. To some extent, regional prevalence numbers remain best guess estimates, based in part on modeling analyses or otherwise on indirect markers of NAFLD such as obesity and T2DM^[9]. This stresses an immediate need for adequately sampled, large-scale, nationwide surveys for NAFLD, where the prevalence across all population sectors, age groups, and geographic distributions is properly estimated. The relevant health authorities and ministries of these countries would be best positioned to lead such an initiative, executing it jointly with regional scientists and public health experts. Part of the epidemiological equation entails understanding the demographics and evolution of the disease, and towards this an access to a national registry for NASH is crucial.

There must be an urgent commitment to address the factors contributing to obesity in the Middle East, including dietary factors and inactivity, with particular focus on childhood obesity^[77]. Dietary and lifestyle changes have a substantial impact on the natural course of the disease. As such, from a public health perspective, one of the most crucial aspects to focus on is to modify risk factors that are geared towards reducing obesity rates and achieving better dietary habits. Targeted measures such as taxation of beverages, marketing regulation, improving nutritional labeling, conducting awareness campaigns, and allocating subsidies to improve healthy eating could be implemented^[78].

The dearth of algorithms for primary care referral is worrisome in view of the high prevalence of NAFLD in the Middle East. Primary health care should play a key role in the management of NAFLD, not only because of its pivotal role in health promotion and community care but also because specialized liver care is generally not prepared to receive such a large number of patients. Simple and affordable algorithms to identify patients at high risk of complications could be implemented in primary care to determine patients needing specialized care. A broad availability of transient elastography in primary healthcare centers must be envisioned in any NAFLD national plan, since significant hepatic disease may exist in non-obese individuals, and in those with normal liver enzymes^[79]. This approach would contribute substantially to managing the intricacies of NAFLD-related disease burden within a healthcare system that provides early detection while preserving economic sustainability and equity^[78].

Therefore, continuing education programs and awareness campaigns are crucial, as well as development and adaptation of clinical guidelines to protocols that identify patients who need specialist referral. Potential factors that need to be assessed include the role of non-liver specialists, and the implementation of community-based initiatives and civil society involvement aimed at NAFLD education, prevention, detection, and care.

This huge challenge facing our medical community must be effectively tackled with comprehensive, widely adopted, national (or regional) NAFLD plans, that start from awareness and education, emphasize prevention, set up early detection programs, and provide the recommended algorithms of care in a cost-effective and evidence-based manner. Such efforts should be led by robust research machinery that is able to predict, rationalize, and assess the effectiveness of hereupon-adopted strategies. Alliances will require to be forged not just across different institutes and affiliations, but also involving patients and community partners. However, most importantly, such plans would demand unprecedented attention to public health and can only succeed if they are coupled with an enforcement power that can guarantee their implementation^[80].

CONCLUSION

The prevalence of NAFLD in the Middle East is increasing, along with its known associations of obesity, MetS, and T2DM, thereby placing a substantial burden on healthcare systems in the region. Suggested interventions to mitigate this challenge include education and awareness of patients and primary care providers regarding NAFLD; management of the risk factors and comorbidities; appropriate screening, evaluation, and diagnosis; and timely referral to hepatologists. This calls for a multidisciplinary approach involving primary care providers, gastroenterologists, endocrinologists, diabetologists, cardiologists, and hepatologists. There remains a need for clinical care pathways to help guide clinicians involved in the care of these patients^[81-86].

Many challenges and unmet needs remain in the diagnosis and management of

NAFLD. There is a lack of reliable noninvasive tests for the accurate diagnosis of NASH. Also, there is no approved therapy for the treatment of NASH and current management is largely dependent on lifestyle modifications, which are challenging to initiate and sustain, resulting in inadequate weight reduction. Many therapies are currently under development and are keenly awaited. The availability of effective pharmacotherapy holds significant promise to improve the current landscape of available treatment options in NAFLD.

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Practical review for diagnosis and clinical management of perihilar cholangiocarcinoma

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Abstract

Cholangiocarcinoma (CCC) is the most aggressive malignant tumor of the biliary tract. Perihilar CCC (pCCC) is the most common CCC and is burdened by a complicated diagnostic iter and its anatomical location makes surgical approach burden by poor results. Besides its clinical presentation, a multimodal diagnostic approach should be carried on by a tertiary specialized center to avoid misdiagnosis. Preoperative staging must consider the extent of liver resection to avoid post-surgical hepatic failure. During staging iter, magnetic resonance can obtain satisfactory cholangiographic images, while invasive techniques should be used if bile duct samples are needed. Consistently, to improve diagnostic potential, bile duct drainage is not necessary in jaundice, while it is indicated in refractory cholangitis or when liver hypertrophy is needed. Once resectability criteria are identified, the extent of liver resection is secondary to the longitudinal spread of CCC. While in the past type IV pCCC was not considered resectable, some authors reported good results after their treatment. Conversely, in selected unresectable cases, liver transplantation could be a valuable option. Adjuvant chemotherapy is the standard of care for resected patients, while neoadjuvant approach has growing evidences. If curative resection is not achieved, radiotherapy can be added to chemotherapy. This multistep curative iter must be carried on in specialized centers. Hence, the aim of this review is to highlight the main steps and pitfalls of the diagnostic and therapeutic approach to pCCC with a peculiar attention to type IV pCCC.

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Core tip: Perihilar cholangiocarcinoma (pCCC) is burdened by a complicated diagnostic iter and, due to its anatomical location and biological characteristics, is affected by poor results. Confounding factors, such as biliary decompression, must be avoided during diagnosis and evaluation of longitudinal extension of the tumor. While surgical advances allows the extension of surgical indication (especially for type IV pCCC and portal invasion), adjuvant chemotherapy should be administered to improve post-surgical results. Herein, a highlight on diagnostic and therapeutic management is here provided.

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INTRODUCTION

Cholangiocarcinoma (CCC) is the most frequent and aggressive malignant tumor of the biliary tract. It arises from the epithelial cells of a bile duct and from their progenitor cells (a group of heterogeneous dynamic cells lining the biliary tree). CCC develops either within the duct or shaping a mass infiltrating the adjacent tissue (mass forming cholangiocarcinoma)^[1].

CCC is commonly classified according to the site of invasion into intrahepatic and extrahepatic, itself divided into hilar/perihilar [or Klatskin tumor, perihilar CCC (pCCC)] and distal. Extrahepatic CCC are the most common among CCC^[2]. pCCC is defined as CCC located in the extrahepatic biliary tree proximal to the origin of the cystic duct^[3,4]. It is burdened by a complicated diagnostic iter and its anatomical location makes the surgical site less accessible, causing higher unresectable rates^[5].

In this review, we will focus our attention on diagnostic and surgical approach to pCCC in order to underline the key points in its management.

EPIDEMIOLOGY AND ETIOPATHOGENESIS

CCC is a heterogeneous group of malignancies that represent the 3% of all gastrointestinal tumors^[6]. Among CCC, 75% are extrahepatic CCC and half of them pCCC. The incidence of extrahepatic CCC varies worldwide from 0.3-3.5 per 100000 inhabitants/year in North America to 90/100000 inhabitants/year in Thailand. Among Mediterranean region, the incidence is fixed around 7.5/10000 inhabitants/year^[7,8]. In Italy 5400 new cases/year are expected^[9]. Extrahepatic CCC represent 1% of new neoplastic diagnosis in male and 1.4% in female, with a reduction in the female sex during the last few years^[10]. The median age at diagnosis is 50 years; almost null risk is reported before 40 years, while a peak is registered around 70 years^[9].

The identification of risk factors for pCCC is some-like difficult due to many reasons; first of all, papers do not often distinguish CCC into intrahepatic or extrahepatic and merge CCC with gallbladder carcinomas. Furthermore, cases are frequently isolated with no identifiable risk factors. The published risk factors can be divided in^[11,12]: Known: Hepato/choledocholithiasis, hepatitis B and C infection, obesity, diabetes mellitus, congenital hepatic fibrosis, Caroli's disease or choledocal cyst, primary sclerosing cholangitis (PSC), liver fluke infections (Opisthorchis viverrini and Clonorchis sinensis), intrahepatic litiasis and recurrent pyogenic cholangitis; suspect: Inflammatory bowel disease, smoke, asbestos, genetic polymorphisms, diabetes.

According to these data, a surveillance program can be settled in selected patients using magnetic resonance or endoscopic-retrograde-pancreatoduodenoscopy (ERCP)

(Table 1)^[13-16].

The highest relative risk is identified in liver fluke infections (*Opisthorchis viverrini* and *Clonorchis sinensis*), endemic in South-East Asia^[17]. Infection spreads after the ingestion of contaminated fish; and then the flukes colonize biliary tree causing chronic infection and inflammation.

Even if the mechanisms causing the transformation of cholangiocyte into neoplastic cells are nowadays unknown, CCC development in PSC is widely investigated. The risk for patients affected by PSC (as well as other diseases of biliary plate, *e.g.* Caroli's disease) to develop CCC in their lifetime is around 3%-30%^[15]. Pancreatic enzymes reflux, cholestasis and chronic inflammation leads to cholangiocyte activation, apoptosis, progression of senescence pathways and increased cellular turnover. All these mechanisms are involved in carcinogenesis: Some studies underline a common pathway (interleukin 6, cyclooxygenase-2, nitric oxide, *etc.*) between inflammation and malignant cellular proliferation acting on hepatic progenitor cells^[18-20]. Together with this pathogenetic theory, an alternative carcinogenetic mechanism has been introduced: It is based on mitogenic pathway activation with a consequent multistep tumoral development^[21]. These two mechanisms cannot be considered mutually exclusive. Indeed, in PSC patients the presence of cholangiocyte dysplasia was demonstrated together with CCC. The analyses of CCC specimens underlined a wide heterogeneity of gene mutations, however they seem to be pooled according to a geographical distribution^[22].

CLASSIFICATION AND STAGING

Macroscopic classification

The Bismuth classification, after modified by Corlette, is well known between general surgeons (Figure 1)^[23]. It is used to try to define the correct surgical approach and it is based on macroscopic tumor appearance at the pre-surgical imaging. Although this classification is largely used in literature, it has different limits: The absence of longitudinal description of the cancer extension, no relation with prognostic data, and no clearly defined resectability criteria^[24,25]. Other classifications have been proposed (*e.g.*, Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Centre) but none of them supplanted the use of the Bismuth-Corlette one.

On the other hand, tumor-node-metastasis (TNM) classification is worldwide accepted to define the prognosis^[4]. Since the 7th edition of American Joint Commission on Cancer (AJCC) classification, pCCC has been recognized as a separate disease from the distal CCC. Unfortunately, histopathological evaluation of surgical specimen, together with pre-operative imaging data is needed to define the correct TNM classification. For these reasons, it cannot be used to define resectability during diagnostic iter.

At the end of 2016, AJCC was revised and the 8th edition of TNM classification was published. Some main changes were introduced in the 8th edition to better depict pCCC prognosis^[3,26,27]. T4 stage is no longer linked to Bismuth-Corlette type IV pCCC, as underlined by Ebata *et al.* T4 pCCC is now defined as a tumor invading the main portal vein or its branches bilaterally, or the common hepatic artery, or unilateral second order biliary radicals with contralateral portal or hepatic artery involvement. According to the current TNM classification, N stage depends on the number of loco-regional lymph nodes involved. Furthermore, stage IIIC category was introduced in TNM staging.

Beside these changings, some comments can be pointed out: Liver parenchymal invasion does not define a metastatic disease (T2b) and represent a more favorable prognostic factor than omolateral vascular invasion (T3); the main portal vein invasion (T4) is not a surgical contraindication, but requires vascular reconstruction. A proper N stage can be achieved, according to the 8th edition, only if at least 15 lymph nodes are detected on surgical specimen. A recent paper by Ruzzente *et al.*^[26], tried to evaluate the performance of the new TNM classification in a Western setting. Surprisingly, in this publication, the T4-staged patients had no increased risk of death compared to T1. Furthermore, the ability to predict prognosis of 8th edition N stage was not improved compared to the previous edition. These differences are probably explained by the biological behavior and surgical approach to pCCC in Western and Eastern countries^[28,29].

Microscopic morphology

Along with the macroscopic and staging classification, pCCC can be grouped in four

Table 1 Patients that should undergo to screening programs and the techniques that should be applied

Predisposing factors	Diagnostic technique	Worrisome features
Intrahepatic lithiasis and recurrent pyogenic cholangitis	MR	Stenosis progression, distal bile duct dilatation, intraductal polypoid mass > 1 cm.
PSC	MR + ERCP	Irregular bile duct stenosis, bilateral bile duct dilatation, ipsilateral lobar atrophy. ERCP bile duct sampling can simplify differential diagnosis.
Intrahepatic fluke	US/MR	Central intrahepatic and main bile duct dilation with stenosis identification ^a .

MR: Magnetic resonance; PSC: Primary sclerosing cholangitis; ERCP: Endoscopic retrograde pancreatoduodenoscopy; US: Ultrasound.

^a: Ultrasound, computed tomography and magnetic resonance findings for intrahepatic fluke are diffuse and uniform dilatation of peripheral intrahepatic bile ducts with no dilatation of central intrahepatic and main bile ducts, without focal obstruction lesions, with increased echogenicity of bile ducts and non-shadowing echogenic foci within bile ducts (eggs or flukes).

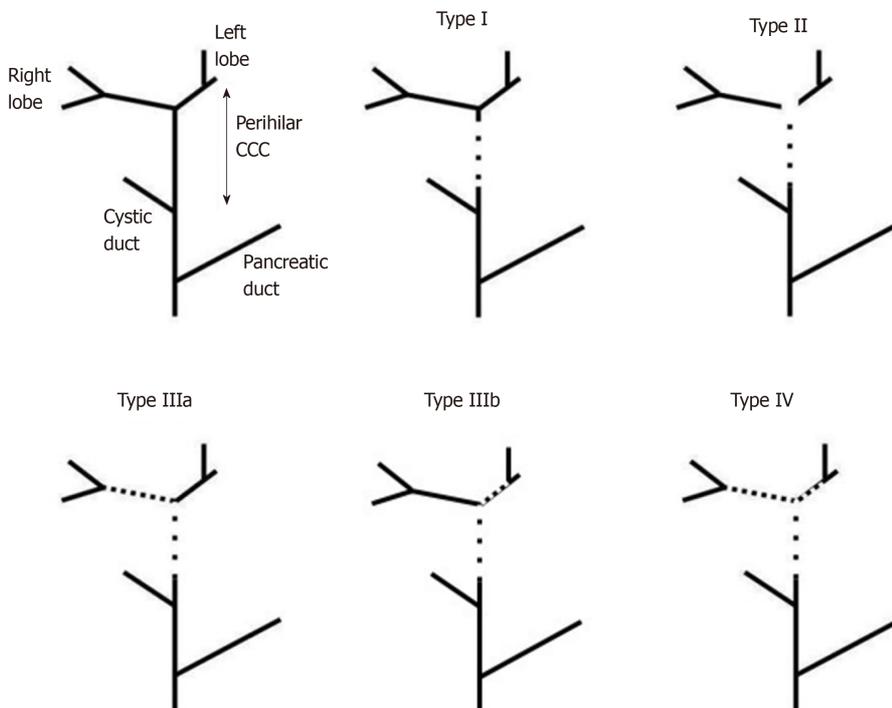


Figure 1 Schematic representation of extrahepatic and intrahepatic bile ducts (until second order) showing Bismuth-Corlette classification. CCC: Cholangiocarcinoma.

patterns according to its microscopic morphology^[5,20]: (1) Periductal infiltrating: The most common pattern, characterized by an undefined annular thickening of the duct, is frequently associated to perineural and lymphatic invasion; (2) Mixed: Periductal infiltrating associated with a mass forming tumor involving biliary ducts; (3) Intraductal: Mucosal growth associated to segmental bile duct dilatation. biliary-intrapapillary mucinous neoplasm are included in this pattern; and (4) Papillary-mucinosus: This class is characterized by rich mucina secretion that clutter bile ducts. Their diagnosis is frequently associated to liver abscess.

DIAGNOSIS

Literature identifies the characteristics of an ideal diagnostic iter for pCCC: Non-invasive imaging and characterization of pCCC, correct localization of the tumor, pre-surgical stadiation and resectability evaluation (vascular invasion and biliary spread)^[30]. Once CCC is suspected, patients must be referred to specialized surgical centers to complete diagnosis and settle a correct treatment. An incorrect diagnostic pathway exposes patients to delayed diagnosis or repetition of invasive and useless

examinations^[31].

The onset of symptoms is not specific and most of the patients (> 65%-80%) are not resectable at the time of diagnosis^[32-34]. pCCC identification can be anticipated by jaundice (90%) or cholangitis (10%). Almost patients subjected to screening are found asymptomatic^[5]. A proposed diagnostic flow chart for pCCC is showed in **Figure 2**.

Non-invasive diagnosis

Ultrasound (US) is considered the first line examination. Even if it is weighted by operator-dependent sensitivity and specificity (55%-95% and 71%-96% respectively) in stenosis visualization, US offers valuable information (also using color-doppler) to establish the future diagnostic plan^[35-37].

Computer tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance cholangiographic sequences (MRCP) provide complementary information. CT allows a better definition of local tumor extension, vascular invasion and metastatic disease, but only small details about intraductal extension of pCCC (sensitivity and accuracy of 60% and 92% respectively). However, the introduction of multidetector-row CT (high-resolution) has increased the ability to predict intraductal biliary spread of pCCC^[38], in particular when bile ducts are dilated^[31].

MRCP has the best sensitivity and accuracy (92% and 76% respectively) in identifying the extension of pCCC, but alone is not enough to establish a correct surgical strategy (*e.g.*, lack in vascular invasion)^[39,40]. The importance of a correct MRCP execution is highlighted in Zhang *et al*^[41] review. Indeed, they demonstrated that inadequate MRCP image leads to the re-execution of the exam and up to 60% of MRCP were found incomplete or inadequate if performed in non-specialized centers.

Positron-emissions-tomography has a marginal role in pCCC staging. It can be used to identify metastatic lymph nodes, distant metastases or clarify indeterminate lesions, especially in PSC patients^[42,43]. Due to its low sensitivity (< 70%), it can be considered only in selected cases: In fact, distant metastasis are better identified using CT, while EUS is the gold standard in lymphnode staging^[37].

Invasive diagnosis

In selected pCCC cases, diagnosis should rely on invasive examinations: ERCP, percutaneous transhepatic cholangiography (PTC), endoscopic ultrasound (EUS). They should be addressed to clarify the nature of a stenosis (biopsy) or to drain bile ducts^[5,32,44,45]. Indeed, ERCP and PTC are not more relevant than MRCP images in visualizing biliary tree^[46,47]. Park *et al*^[48] showed an accuracy for predicting biliary confluence and intrahepatic bile duct involvement of 91%-87% for MRCP and 85%-87% for CT combined with invasive cholangiography.

Nowadays, PTC is considered a second choice compared to ERCP due to its increased number of complications. However, Zhimin *et al*^[49] described an increased accuracy of PTC (> 90%) in identifying the cranial border of pCCC (especially in pCCC with a proximal localization) compared to ERCP and MRCP.

Endoscopic ultrasound has a controversial role in pCCC diagnosis and management. It provides accurate information about localization of biliary lesions, peribiliary tissue involvement, visualization of lymph nodes, hepatic vessels involvement, and it ultimately allows a proper preoperative staging^[5,16,32,44,45,50]. However, EUS and EUS fine-needle-aspiration (FNA) sensitivity is reduced from distal to proximal lesions (100% and 83% respectively)^[51]. Definition of N staging using EUS needs further studies: Clinical trials are ongoing to identify the role of lymph nodes FNA in predicting pre-operative N stage^[52].

Cytological sampling can be obtained through brushing or FNA. It is useful in non-resectable pCCC or before surgery when diagnosis is not confirmed by non-invasive techniques^[5,44]. EUS-FNA could also be useful for cases with negative ERCP-examination^[53]. The brushing sensitivity ranges from 20%-40%^[54,55] while 79%-83% for FNA^[51]. Overall specificity is 92%-100% (the number of cases performed in a hospital highly increase specificity and sensitivity)^[16,56]. The low global negative predictive value of cytological sampling using ERCP, PTC and EUS does not exclude the presence of pCCC when a non-neoplastic report is given. It is worth highlighting that, although FNA or brushing allows a proper diagnosis, they are charged by an increased risk of seeding. Only small data are reported on this topic^[7,52]. Seeding is a major concern especially during EUS FNA: Indeed, the fine-needle crosses duodenal bulb and peritoneal cavity to sample the pCCC. For these reasons, EUS FNA is contraindicated before liver transplantation^[16,52].

A further improvement in endoscopic diagnosis is intraductal-EUS. Even if it has almost 91% accuracy^[57], it has a lack in tissue sampling and a reduced radial visualization (max 2 cm). Cholangioscopy allows direct visualization of bile duct

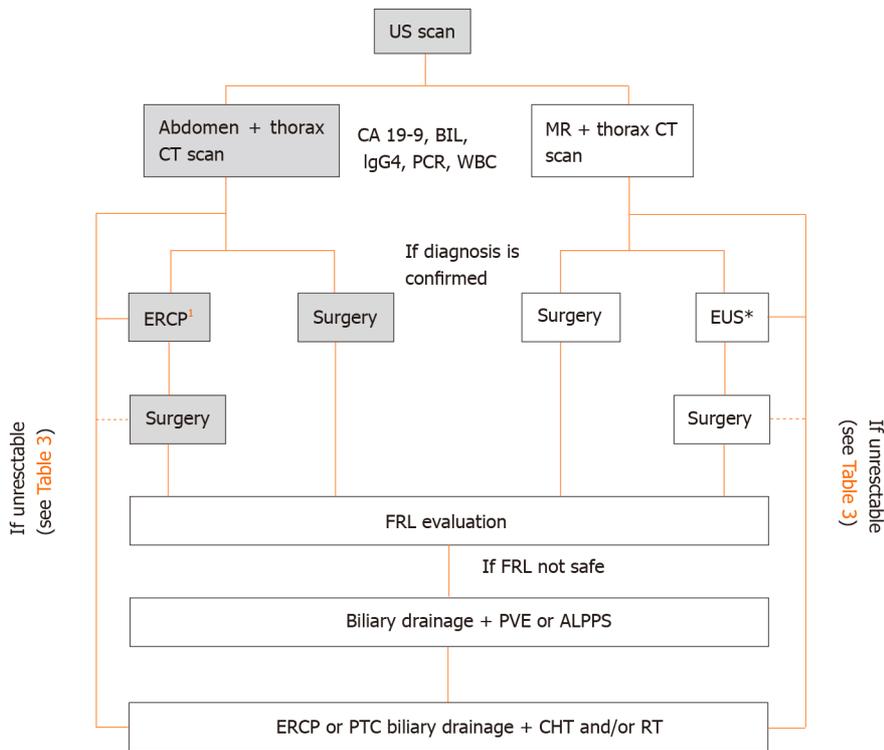


Figure 2 Diagnostic and therapeutic work-flow for perihilar cholangiocarcinoma.¹If cytological confirmation is needed (negative carbohydrate antigen 19-9, positive immunoglobulin G4, and confounding diagnosis at imaging); interrupted line, consider neo-adjuvant therapies. US: Ultrasound; CT: Computed tomography; MR: Magnetic resonance; CA 19-9: Carbohydrate antigen 19-9; BIL: Bilirubin; IgG4: Immunoglobulin G4; ERCP: Endoscopic-retrograde-pancreatoduodenoscopy; EUS: Endoscopic ultrasound; FRL: Future remnant liver; PVE: Portal vein embolization; ALPPS: Associated liver partition to portal vein ligation for staged hepatectomy; PTC: Percutaneous transhepatic colangiography; CHT: Chemotherapy; RT: Radiotherapy.

epithelium and FNA execution and has a sensitivity and specificity of 90% and 96%, and 85% and 100%, respectively^[58]. Confocal laser endomicroscopy has high sensitivity, specificity and accuracy (89%-71%-82%^[59]). However, many concerns are reported concerning standardization and reproducibility of this diagnostic tool, for this reason it is not suggested for a routine use^[16].

Serum markers

Carbohydrate antigen (CA) 19-9 is elevated in 85% of pCCC, but it has a variable sensitivity (33%-93%) and specificity (67%-98%) with low positive predictive value (16%-40%). A CA 19-9 cut-off of 129 ng/dL should raise specificity at 70%^[2,7,56,60-62]. The main confounding factor is jaundice: A re-evaluation after biliary decompression (BD) is suggested. Another tumor marker is CA-125, but it is seldom used outside clinical trials^[7]. Immunoglobulin G4 (IgG4) are specific immunoglobulines produced during IgG4 cholangiopathy, a rare autoimmune disease associated with pancreatitis. The presence of IgG4 suggests IgG4 cholangiopathy, susceptible to steroids' treatment rather than surgery^[63]. New diagnostic approaches are based on liquid biopsy: Detection of cholangiocarcinoma cell-free DNA and circulating tumor cells. Even if some authors reported a usefulness of miRNA measured in bile and blood in pCCC diagnosis, further studies are needed and it probably has a prognostic, more than a diagnostic, role^[64-66].

TO DRAIN OR NOT TO DRAIN

BD is a key point during diagnostic and therapeutic management of the pCCC patients. A wide debate is open in literature about this topic and BD must be evaluated according to patient clinical conditions.

Diagnosis and staging in patients with a suspected pCCC are better obtained in absence of foreign bodies in biliary tree. Incorrect indication to BD is one of the most frequent causes of delayed or miss-diagnosis, especially as regards the intraductal extension of the tumor. Hosokawa and colleagues^[31] demonstrated that biliary

drainage placed before proper diagnosis and staging leads to a higher rate of non-R0 resections. They hypothesized a confounding factor due to artifacts and reduction of the bile duct dilatation.

Sepsis secondary to cholangitis non-responsive to pharmacological treatment is the only absolute indication to BD. Jaundice, itching or cholangitis are not indications to drain the biliary tree during diagnostic time if the patient is a candidate for liver resection. The use of plastic stents or naso-biliary drainages is more suitable than the use of metallic stents. Indeed the first are easily removed to obtain a correct diagnosis^[11,5].

Once surgical indication is established, biliary decompression is anyway debated. Wide accordance on drainage is achieved when a two-step procedure (two-step hepatectomy or portal vein embolization followed by hepatectomy) is needed to increase the future remnant liver (FRL) volume. Indeed, standard surgical procedure in pCCC requires the resection of a large portion of “healthy” liver parenchyma and liver hypertrophy could be needed before surgery. When a two-step procedure is programmed, whilst the risk of bacterial colonization is increased, BD can improve FRL hypertrophy^[67] and could reduce morbidity and mortality^[68,69]. In this setting, Eastern surgeons are more likely to use a naso-biliary drainage^[31], while Western specialists prefer endoscopic stents^[29].

Once a one-step hepatectomy is programmed, BD is associated to high risk of septic shock secondary to retrograde cholangitis that could exclude resectable patient from surgery^[70]. In a multicenter study, Farges and colleagues^[71] reported an increased mortality after BD in patients that underwent left hepatectomy (mainly due to post-operative septic shock) (adjusted OR 4.06, 95%CI 1.01 to 16.3; $P = 0.035$), while a decreased mortality rate, due to reduction of post-operative liver failure, was observed after right-side hepatectomy (adjusted OR 0.29, 95%CI: 0.11-0.77; $P = 0.013$). According to their data, the authors suggested that when a right-side hepatectomy is planned in jaundiced patients, BD should be performed and surgery scheduled when bilirubin < 3 mg/dL. Conversely, Celotti *et al*^[72], in their meta-analyses, underlined that patients that underwent pre-operative BD had an increased rate of morbidity and wound infections with no advantages on post-operative mortality. While only a selective use of pre-operative BD is suggested (*e.g.*, patients affected by cholangitis) if one-step hepatectomy is planned, randomized prospective studies are needed to better depict the indications for BD.

BD can be achieved through percutaneous [Percutaneous Transhepatic Biliary Drainage (PTBD)] or endoscopic (plastic or metallic stent or naso-gastic tube) approach according to hospital expertise. No definitive data are published on the best technique for BD^[67]. **Table 2** summarizes pros and cons of the two techniques. A recent paper by Higuchi *et al*^[73] estimated a comparable patient survival and morbidity in patients undergoing PTC or ERCP. While increased post-operative tumor dissemination in PTC group is reported, an increased rate of infection is highlighted in ERCP patients^[74,75]. Even if some authors reported the overall superiority of PTC on ERCP^[74-76], a recent randomized control^[77] trial was prematurely stopped due to the higher rate of pre-surgical mortality among PTC patients (PTC *vs* ERCP: 41% *vs* 11%). Until PTBD the superiority of a technique will be demonstrated, ERCP with endoscopic stent placement should be considered the first line technique to obtain BD^[78]. When curative intent resection is not feasible, ERCP must be pursued in a patient oriented approach.

TREATMENT

Patient and resectability assessment

Due to the late onset of symptoms and the aggressive nature of pCCC, less than 50% of the patients are surgically resectable at diagnosis^[5]. The main criteria involved in resectability evaluation are highlighted in **Table 3**.

A recent paper provides a pre-operative risk score designed to predict the risk of intraoperative metastatic disease or locally advanced pCCC (*i.e.* unresectable) and the post-operative mortality^[79]. Through the evaluation of 566 resected pCCC, the authors identified 5 objective criteria (bilirubin > 2 mg/dL; Bismuth classification at imaging; portal vein and hepatic artery involvement at imaging; suspicious lymph node on imaging) that allow the definition of 4 risk categories. An interesting perspective can be the adoption of this score to define the need for up-front neo-adjuvant chemotherapies in high-risk patients.

According to the complexity of surgical approach, resectability decision is strictly connected to a careful evaluation of the patient’s performance status, liver, cardiac,

Table 2 Main advantages of two the two techniques available to obtain bile duct drainage

ERCP	PTC
Internal stent: Less patient discomfort ^[5]	External drainage: Increased patient discomfort ^[5]
Reduced risk of seeding ^[73]	Higher expertise needed ^[108]
Higher rate of bacterial contamination/cholangitis ^[76]	Higher rate of hemorrhage ^[76]
“One shot” microbiological examination	Never cross the malignant bile duct stenosis ^[5]
Removed during surgery	Repeated cholangiography and microbiological samples
	Useful during and after surgery

ERCP: Endoscopic retrograde pacreatoduodenoscopy; PTC: Percutaneous transhepatic colangiography.

Table 3 Criteria that can be used to identify non-resectable patients

Absolute criteria	Relative criteria	
	Criteria	Suggestions
Presence of distant metastasis (especially liver, lung, peritoneum)	Longitudinal and lateral dissemination	Consider adequate staging (avoid R1-2)
Extra-regional lymphnode involvement (para-aortic and extraperitoneal)		
Bilateral intrahepatic involvement of biliary tree that exclude bilio-enteric anastomosis	Portal infiltration < 2 cm	Portal vein resection needed
Infiltration or occlusion of the main portal trunk proximal to bifurcation		
Right lobe atrophy associated to contralateral portal vein infiltration or portal occlusion > 2 cm	Low remant liver	Consider liver hypertrophy techniques
Right lobe atrophy associated to contralateral tumor extension more than to 2 cm from hepatic hilum		
Contralateral invasion of hepatic artery	Type IV pCCC	High expertise; consider en-bloc resection
Unilobar secondary bile ducts invasion associated to contralateral infiltration or collusion of portal vein		

pCCC: Perihilar cholangiocarcinoma.

respiratory and kidney function^[45]. Nutritional status must be evaluated before surgery and all efforts should be directed towards counterbalancing malnutrition progression. Poor nutritional condition leads to reduced survival, increased post-operative complications and prolonged hospital stay^[80-82].

Advanced age was identified as one of the main changings in the characteristics of pCCC population. Despite the advanced age, the rate of resectable patients (70%) was similar in octogenarian and non-octogenarian patients. Post-surgical overall survival was not reduced by age even if a carefully selection of patients is needed. Indeed, 30% of octogenarians (*vs* 6% of under 60 years) were excluded to surgery for poor performance status and poor liver function^[83].

Surgical resection

Curative approach to pCCC relies on free surgical margins. Indeed, after R0 resection, 5-year survival reaches 20%-42% in association or not with chemotherapy^[8,5,45,67]. The localization of pCCC is one of the most important factors influencing surgical strategy: Isolated bile duct resection is applicable in Bismuth Corlette type I pCCC, while resection of the bile duct confluence is associated to major hepatectomies in the other types. The quantity of liver parenchyma and the number of segments resected depend on the localization of the cranial border of pCCC: Right hepatectomy + S4 in Bismuth-Corlette type IIIa and left hepatectomy in type IIIb. As surgical procedures (especially in type IIIa) require the resection of more than 50% of the liver, post-surgical hepatic failure must be avoided. FRL and liver functional reserve need to be carefully evaluated through liver functional tests (*e.g.*, indocyanine green clearance), imaging techniques and, if possible, liver biopsy. If the predicted FRL is less than the necessary

(< 40% in hepatopatic patients, < 30% in normal liver), a single step hepatectomy is related to an increased risk of liver failure and death^[84,85]. A two-step procedure (associated liver partition to portal vein ligation for staged hepatectomy or simple portal vein ligation) or pre-operative portal vein embolization (PVE) must be settled. PVE is largely adopted in the Eastern Countries (55% of the cases compared to the 7% of Western Countries)^[29]. A recent study by Lee *et al*^[86] developed a score to evaluate the risk of “small for size” after resection. They included in their analyses FRL, intraoperative blood loss and prothrombine time > 1.2. Olthof *et al*^[69], in the same year, proposed their own score based on FRL, jaundice at presentation, preoperative cholangitis and immediate post-operative bilirubin > 2.9 mg/dL. While the authors underlined that pre-operative BD increases FRL hypertrophy, post-BD cholangitis reduced the positive effect of biliary decompression on post-operative liver failure rate. Even if PVE is more frequently used in Eastern countries, the rate of post-surgical liver failure is similar to Western ones. A more aggressive approach to liver vascular pedicle, a larger lymphadenectomy and an increased rate of intraoperative trans-hepatic biliary drainage in the Eastern Countries can counterbalance the effect of PVE hypertrophy^[87].

Regardless of the type of hepatectomies, resection of caudate lobe is considered the gold standard. Caudate lobe’s bile ducts open out at bile duct bifurcation and are frequently infiltrated by pCCC. Its removal increases the percentage of R0 resections (59%-87%) with better results in long-term survival (5 years survival from 33% to 44%, resection S1 *vs* non-resection HR 3.03)^[88,89].

Curative surgical strategies cannot leave aside from a histological intraoperative evaluation of bile duct margins (cranial and caudal). Bile duct R0 resection is one of the most important factors influencing long-term follow-up. If neoplastic cells are detected at frozen section, surgical resection will be enlarged till feasible to obtain R0 (60% of the cases^[90]). The growth of pCCC is intraluminal and the perineural spread is frequent. A resection of 1 cm above pCCC localization must be considered in the infiltrative type^[91], as well as 2 cm in the papillary/mass-forming^[92]. A debate in literature is open to understand the results of high-grade dysplasia detection on bile duct margins. While some studies reported comparable patients’ - but reduced disease free - survival, other studies showed a reduced 2 and 5-year disease specific survival in N0 R1-high grade-dysplasia patients (2-year, 76.7% *vs* 84.3%; 5-year, 37.5% *vs* 69.3%)^[73,93].

Portal vein resection can be headed if focal portal invasion (< 2 cm) of the main trunk is demonstrated. Indeed, portal vein resection does not affect post-resection outcome^[4,90,94]. Conversely, hepatic artery resection is related to an increased surgical risk, without a demonstrated positive influence on long-term results^[95,96].

In 2012 Neuhaus *et al*^[91] proposed a new approach to liver resection in type IIIa pCCC, called “en bloc resection”. In his paper, Neuhaus presented a series of 100 type IIIa pCCC patients that received two different surgical treatments according to the tumor localization: “en bloc resection” in tumors located close to hepatic hilum (*n* = 50) and standard resection in the others (*n* = 50). “En bloc resection” consisted in right enlarged hepatectomy + S1, lymphadenectomy and en bloc resection of biliary confluence, extrahepatic bile duct, portal vein bifurcation and right hepatic artery (portal vein reconstruction is needed). 3 and 5-year survival was superior in “en bloc” group (35% and 25% *vs* 65% and 58% respectively) without an increase in surgical complications. Other authors adopted this approach with reported comparable results^[97]. The “en bloc resection” is not feasible in left hepatectomy because the no touch approach on hilum is impossible, unless resection and reconstruction of the right hepatic artery are being considered.

In 2017, Kawabata *et al*^[98] proposed their own surgical technique based on reduced liver manipulation and tumor spread. They described an ab-initio parenchymal transection prior to liver mobilization. Two-year survival was increased in the study group (95% *vs* 58%) with a decrease in surgical complications.

Bismuth-Corlette Type IV pCCC deserves a peculiar consideration (Table 4). It was considered a surgical contraindication for several years due to the bilateral bile duct invasion. However, in the last few years, the surgical approach to this type of pCCC changed due to the Japanese group’s contributions. In 2018, they published^[99] a series of 216 patients with Bismuth Corlette type IV pCCC that underwent surgical resection: R0 resection was achieved in 76.2% of the cases, post-surgical morbidity was 41.6% and the 5-year survival was superior in the resected patients (32.8% *vs* 1.5%). Even if the resection of type IV pCCC is feasible and the results are promising, two main concerns are emerging: An undiagnosed vascular invasion often detected at histopathological evaluation and the high rate of N positive specimens^[100,101]. The adoption of an en-bloc approach can be suggested in this type of pCCC to avoid

Table 4 Articles reporting resection of type IV perihilar cholangiocarcinoma according di bismuth

Author	Publication year	Resection rate (%)	Resected cases (n)	Vascular resection (n)	Vascular reconstruction (n)	Vascular invasion at histological evaluation (n)	Complications (%)	N+ (%)	R0 (%)	Patient survival 1-3-5 yr (%)
Hu HJ	2018	NA	69	52	14	63	39	57	86	76-44-22
Li B	2017	NA	142	42	NA	NA	NA	37	75	35-12-3
Ebata T	2018	50	216	131	NA	136 PV + 53 HA	19	20	72	68-34-22
Ji GW	2017	NA	25	4	4	13	13	76	95	NA
Hoffman K	2015	NA	31 (+29 tipo II e III)	31 ¹²	21 ¹	19	52	36	60	84-38-18 ¹
Han IW	2014	21	33	6	NA	12 PV + 13 HA	NA	36	54	NA-28-NA
Cheng QB	2012	61	101 (+75 tipo III)	NA	NA	NA	25	40	76	89-38-13 ³

We selected only the series where data on type IV resection can be extracted.

¹Added type II and III cases.

²All cases with presumed vascular infiltration had vascular resection, while only 19 cases had histologically proven vascular infiltration.

³Added type III cases. PV: Portal vein; HA: Hepatic artery. NA: Not applicable.

unexpected vascular invasion diagnosis. Furthermore, neoadjuvant chemotherapy can be useful in type IV pCCC to select chemo-responsive tumors, reduce the possible futile resections and improve the extent of R0 rate.

Liver transplantation

In unresectable pCCC, liver transplantation (LT) can be considered within research protocols and with strict inclusion criteria^[102]. These criteria are: Tumor smaller than 3 cm, no evidence of lymph node involvement or metastatic disease, and no prior percutaneous or endoscopic biopsy^[103]. The initial results of LT for pCCC were poor. Indeed, overall survival (OS) following LT alone for incidentally diagnosed pCCC in PSC are < 40% at 3-year^[104]. LT for pCCC gained new enthusiasm with the publication of Mayo Clinic results: In their studies they identified the risks for disease progression and recurrence, and a multimodal therapy (neoadjuvant chemoradiation therapy is mandatory prior to listing) was successfully applied. In the published series of LT performed at Mayo Clinic, the LT group with neoadjuvant chemoradiation (38 patients) achieved better 1 year (92% *vs* 82%), 3 years (82% *vs* 48%), and 5 years (82% *vs* 21%) overall survival (OS) when compared with the resection group (26 patients). Consistently, the LT group experienced lower post-transplant recurrence (13% *vs* 27%)^[105]. Ethun *et al*^[106] compared 191 patients that underwent curative resection with 41 patients that received LT (with Mayo Clinic Protocol) for pCCC. In LT group, 38% of the patients were excluded. Patients who underwent transplant for pCCC showed improved OS compared with resection (5-year: 64% *vs* 18%; $P < 0.001$). The same results were obtained if patients with tumors < 3 cm with lymph-node negative disease and without PSC patients from resection group (5-year: 54% *vs* 29%; $P = 0.03$).

Resective surgery in pCCC is the standard of care for suitable patients outside the setting of PSC^[107]. To date, even if there are no randomized controlled trials, LT after aggressive neoadjuvant therapy (including external beam and transluminal radiation, as well as systemic chemotherapy) seems like an adequate treatment for both unresectable pCCC, as well as pCCC arising in the setting of PSC^[108].

Laparoscopic exploration

The role of laparoscopic exploration (LE) decreased over time together with the increase of sensibility and specificity of imaging techniques. Routine LE is not recommended, but it can be useful in T2/T3 pCCC according to AJCC classification or type III and IV according to Bismuth-Corlette^[92,109]. LE is the only way to detect peritoneal metastasis prior to laparotomy, due to the low predictive value of non-invasive technique. Furthermore, routine opening of the lesser sac during LE can help in detecting metastatic lymphnode of hepatic artery (N2 stage)^[110]. A recent meta-analysis^[111] collected 8 studies evaluating the role of LE: 32.4% of the patients

were found unresectable at exploration with a sensitivity of 56% and a specificity of 100%. In another study, sensitivity of LE increased from 24% to 41% using intraoperative ultrasound^[112].

Lymphadenectomy

Lymphadenectomy is an essential part of the surgical intervention, as well as bile duct and liver resection. In pCCC, hilar, hepatic artery, portal vein, bile duct, celiac trunk and retroduodenal lymph nodes must be resected. The role of lymphadenectomy is to obtain an adequate post-surgical staging, even if some authors reported a survival benefit^[88,113,114]. The 8th edition of TNM classification identifies 15 lymph nodes as the minimum number to obtain an adequate N staging (N1 when 1 to 3 regional lymph nodes are positive, N2 when more than 4 regional lymph nodes are positive)^[4]. Regional lymph nodes are located in the hepatic hilum and in the hepatoduodenal ligament (pericholedochal nodes). The first systematic review on lymphadenectomy was published in 2015^[115]. Beside AJCC classification, Kambakamba *et al*^[115] rose criticism about the minimum number of dissected nodes. Indeed, in their review, only 9% of the series reported a number of dissected lymph nodes > 15, while N positivity ranged from 31% to 58%^[116,117]. Their analyses showed that 7 is the number of lymph nodes that ensures the highest detection rate of N1 and the lowest rate of potentially understated N0 patients. The impact on survival of extended lymphadenectomy (> 15 lymph nodes) is debated, because it does not improve 5-year survival and median OS with an increased rate of surgical complications^[5]. The presence of malignant cells within dissected lymph nodes (N1) has a detrimental impact on patient survival: 3-year survival 35% *vs* 10% in N0 *vs* N1 patients^[115]. It was recently suggested that the presence of a small number of metastatic lymph nodes (lymph nodal ratio < 0.2 or number of lymph node < 4) does not exclude good long-term survival^[114,118].

Chemotherapy, radiotherapy and palliative treatments

The role of neo-adjuvant chemotherapy in pCCC is not clearly identified and it is mostly adopted in clinical studies.

The Mayo Clinic protocol combined neoadjuvant chemosensitization with 5-fluorouracil, external beam radiotherapy plus brachytherapy boost and orthotopic liver transplantation for patients with stage I and II pCCC. In a retrospective series, thirty-eight patients underwent liver transplantation while 54 patients were explored for resection. Patients receiving transplantation had better one-, three- and five-year survival (92%, 82% and 82%) compared to resection (82%, 48% and 21%, $P = 0.022$). Transplanted patients had fewer recurrences compared to resection (13% *vs* 27%)^[105]. The ongoing phase III TRANSPHIL trial is comparing resection with neoadjuvant chemoradiotherapy capecitabine-based and orthotopic liver transplantation^[102].

Resected patients, except the R0 pT1N0M0 ones, as well as non-resected patients must undertake chemotherapy with adjuvant intent. The role of adjuvant chemoradiotherapy is not well defined due to the lack of data from randomized trial^[8]. On the contrary, the phase III randomized BILCAP trial, comparing adjuvant capecitabine with observation in resected biliary tract cancers, showed an increased OS for the experimental arm in the protocol-specified sensitivity analysis (adjusting for minimisation factors, nodal status, grade and gender). Specifically, median OS in the capecitabine arm was 53 mo *vs* 36 mo in the observation group ($P = 0.028$)^[119]. Diversely, the phase III Prodigie 12-Accord 18 trial, comparing chemotherapy with oxaliplatin and gemcitabine *vs* observation after resection, failed to show an increase in OS ($P = 0.74$)^[120].

A further phase III study, comparing cisplatin and gemcitabine treatment *vs* observation (ACTICCA-1) is open and recruiting patients^[121].

A meta-analysis evaluating studies of adjuvant chemotherapy, chemoradiotherapy or radiotherapy in biliary tract cancers found a nonsignificant improvement in OS compared with adjuvant treatment compared with surgery alone ($P = 0.06$). However, patients treated with chemoradiotherapy (OR 0.61) or chemotherapy (OR 0.39) had greater benefit with compared to radiotherapy alone (OR 0.98, $P = 0.02$) and, specifically, the greatest benefit was in those patients with nodes positive (OR 0.49, $P = 0.004$) and R1 disease (OR 0.36, $P = 0.002$)^[122]. Another meta-analysis of randomized and non-randomized studies confirmed the improvement in OS given by adjuvant chemotherapy, with a 41% of risk of death reduction compared with observation after resection (HR 0.59, $P < 0.0001$)^[123]. In contrast, a meta-analysis of randomized clinical trials showed no effect of adjuvant treatment on OS improvement (HR 0.91) and a mild improvement in recurrence-free survival (HR 0.83). Neither the lymph-node positive (HR 0.84) nor the surgical margin positive subgroups (HR 0.95) had an OS prolongation with adjuvant treatment^[124]. Nassour *et al*^[125] retrospectively analyzed the

National Cancer Database to evaluate the role of adjuvant chemotherapy (AT) on pCCC. They found the patients that received AT were younger, with a higher pathological T and N staging, a higher rate of non-R0 resections and a longer hospital stay than patients that did not undergo AT. After a propensity match analyses, they found that AT had a beneficial role on 5-year survival in all resected patients, especially in high risk (non-R0 resection) ones. Furthermore, an advantage on 5-year survival was showed for patient that underwent chemo-radiotherapy compared to chemotherapy alone.

In case of locally-advanced unresectable disease, the role of radiation therapy remains unclear^[6]. A phase II trial compared gemcitabine plus oxaliplatin *vs* chemoradiotherapy with 5-fluorouracil and cisplatin. The trial closed before completion due to slow recruitment, showing an increased median OS (19.9 mo *vs* 13.5 mo, HR 0.69) and progression free survival (11.0 mo *vs* 5.8 mo, HR 0.65) for the chemotherapy arm^[126]. A small series using image-guided intensity-modulated radiation therapy both in gallbladder and extrahepatic bile ducts cancers demonstrated the feasibility of the procedure, allowing safe dose escalation^[127].

Exclusive chemotherapy remains a suitable option in case of unresectable disease. The phase III UK ABC-02 study has established the cisplatin/gemcitabine chemotherapy as the new standard of care in patients with advanced biliary tract cancer. Median survival was 11.7 for the combination therapy compared with 8.1 mo for the gemcitabine only comparator arm ($P < 0.001$)^[128]. The benefit of the combination was present independent of age (inferior *vs* superior to 65 years), gender, primary tumour site (intra *vs* extrahepatic *vs* gallbladder *vs* ampullary), stage of disease (locally advanced *vs* metastatic) and previous therapy (surgery *vs* stenting)^[129]. In case of altered renal function, oxaliplatin may be used instead of cisplatin, while in case of poorer clinical conditions, gemcitabine monotherapy may be a choice^[8].

Beyond failure of first line treatment, evidence is scarce. A recent systematic review of the literature gathering 25 non-randomized prospective and retrospective studies reported a median progression-free survival (mPFS) and median overall-survival (mOS) of 3.2 and 7.2 mo, respectively^[130]. A large multicenter Italian survey and pooled analysis with published data found a mPFS of 3.1 and median OS of 6.3 mo^[131]. Recently, the results of a phase III trial (ABC-06) comparing modified FOLFOX to best supportive care found an advantage in mOS (6.2 mo *vs* 5.3 mo) with adjusted hazard ratio (HR) 0.69. Patients treated with FOLFOX had a prolongation of median radiological PFS or 4 mo. Moreover, the study showed a 1% rate of complete responses, 4% of partial responses and a 28% of cases had disease stabilization. The overall disease control rate was 33%. Due to the results of this trial, modified FOLFOX should be considered the standard of care in the second-line treatment of BTCs^[132].

Iso citrate dehydrogenase isoenzyme 1 (IDH1) mutations are present in 15% of patients with CCC. Recently, the results of treatment with ivosidenib, an oral small-molecule inhibitor of mutant IDH1 (mIDH1), have been presented. In patients with mIDH1 progressed to first line treatment, mPFS was 2.7 mo with ivosidenib *vs* 1.4 mo for placebo (HR 0.37, $P < 0.001$). MOS was 10.8 mo for ivosidenib *vs* 9.7 mo for placebo (10.8 mo *vs* 9.7 mo for placebo, HR 0.69, $P = 0.06$). However, mOS for placebo decreased to 6 mo after considering a 57% crossover-rate from placebo to experimental treatment and the difference in mOS between ivosidenib and placebo became statistically significant (HR 0.46, $P = 0.0008$)^[133]. Ivosidenib is the first targeted molecular agent showing efficacy in the treatment of advanced CCC and its use will probably become a standard in the second-line treatment of mIDH1 CCC.

In patients with an estimated survival longer than 3 mo, bile duct decompression should be reached. Percutaneous or endoscopic approaches are both possible. ERCP has the advantage of a totally internal stent, without the discomfort of PTBD (less pain and aesthetic impact). On the other hand, endoscopic stents are not easy to arrange in type III and IV pCCC. Percutaneous transhepatic biliary stent placement is an effective alternative to endoscopic stent to relieve cholestasis⁷⁷. Combined seed intracavitary irradiation with ¹²⁵I can be applied to obtain a better stent patency and survival^[134,135].

OUTCOME AND RESULTS

Survival after pCCC diagnosis is poor and frequently accompanied by a prolonged hospitalization and a wide use of diagnostic and therapeutic techniques. Median survival is 12 mo in patients not susceptible to surgery and 38 (range 25-40) mo in radically resected patients. Koerkamp and colleagues in 2015^[136] evaluated a population of 306 patients that underwent surgical resection for pCCC: Overall 5-year

survival was 35%, while it increased to 50% in the 122 (42%) patients N0R0 resection. Excluding R2 patients and patients with intra-hospital death, the median time to recurrence was 31 mo with a 3-year survival after recurrence of 18%. Eastern post-operative survival is slightly better than Western one (median OS of 56 mo *vs* 43 mo respectively, $P = 0.028$), depicting a possible more aggressive behavior of pCCC in Western world^[29].

In literature, many variables influence 3 and 5-year survival: Resection margins, type of resection, T stage, N stage, staging, lymphovascular invasion and caudate lobe invasion^[88,137,138]. T stage and N positivity are burdened by the highest Hazard Ratios: N1 HR 2.32 (5-year survival N1 *vs* N0 11% *vs* 35%) and T3-4 HR 1.86 (5-year survival T1-2 *vs* T3-4 47% *vs* 19%)^[137]. R0 resection was recently underlined as the main factor influencing the outcome, irrespective of the tumor staging^[31,139]. Three and five-year recurrence-free survival was 57% and 49% in R0 resection, while 31% and 16% in R1 resection. In stage I, II and III, R0 resection was directly related to segment 1 resection and age > 56 year^[31]. Lymphovascular invasion was identified as one of the detrimental prognostic factors on patient and disease free survival. Its role was investigated in lymph nodes positive and negative patients and in both was identified as a detrimental factor^[138]. Furthermore, lymphovascular invasion resulted in an increased percentage of patients with lymph nodes metastasis, but not with a decrease in R0 rate, also in Bismuth-Corlette tipe IV pCCC^[101,137,140].

In 2017, van Vugt *et al*^[95] evaluated the impact of vascular invasion on 674 patients affected by pCCC. Median OS was considered independently from curative resection. They found that any hepatic artery involvement is related to poor prognosis (median OS: 16.9 (13.2-20.5) mo *vs* 10.3 (8.9-11.7) mo, $P < 0.001$), while unilateral or main portal vein involvement was not related to reduced median OS [14.7 (11.7-17.6) mo *vs* 13.3 (11.0-15.7) mo, $P = 0.116$]. This paper confirmed the results provided by other authors and highlighted the necessity of a further modification of the 8th AJCC classification. Indeed, the T4 classification does not discriminate arterial or main portal vein infiltration with a reduced ability to predict patient outcome^[26].

The resection benefits have to deal with the high surgical morbidity and mortality of pCCC. In both Western and Eastern Centre, 90-d surgical mortality ranges around 10%.

The 5-year survival rate for perihilar cholangiocarcinoma in patients receiving a liver transplant is greater than 70%^[105], although these data are affected by selection bias. A number of factors were identified as predictors of outcomes in pCCC liver transplantation: Elevated CA 19-9, portal vein encasement, perineural invasion and absence of vital tumor at explant histopathological examination^[140-142]. Recent evidence showed that overall survival is affected by the amount of necrotic tumor after neoadjuvant therapy (patients with minimal response were 9.0 times more likely to die than patients with a complete tumor necrosis) and by lymphovascular invasion^[140].

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, perihilar cholangiocarcinoma is characterized by high mortality and low rate of resectable patients. The main issue for surgeons is to obtain the most rapid and accurate diagnosis. For this reason, patients must be referred to specialized centers after a suspect diagnosis. Biliary drainage is an important tool in non-resectable patients and in those that are candidate to two-stage hepatectomy. It must be obtained after a definitive diagnosis. Even if surgery represents the only curative option, it is still charged by reduced long-term survival.

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Development of innovative tools for investigation of nutrient-gut interaction

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Abstract

The gastrointestinal tract is the key interface between the ingesta and the human body. There is wide recognition that the gastrointestinal response to nutrients or bioactive compounds, particularly the secretion of numerous hormones, is critical to the regulation of appetite, body weight and blood glucose. This concept has led to an increasing focus on “gut-based” strategies for the management of metabolic disorders, including type 2 diabetes and obesity. Understanding the underlying mechanisms and downstream effects of nutrient-gut interactions is fundamental to effective translation of this knowledge to clinical practice. To this end, an array of research tools and platforms have been developed to better understand the mechanisms of gut hormone secretion from enteroendocrine cells. This review discusses the evolution of *in vitro* and *in vivo* models and the integration of

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innovative techniques that will ultimately enable the development of novel therapies for metabolic diseases.

Key words: Nutrient-gut interaction; Metabolic disorders; Incretin hormones; Enteroendocrine cells; Enteroids; Intestinal intubation; Intestine-on-a-chip

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Core tip: The development of platforms for investigating nutrient-gut interactions is critical to understanding how nutrients trigger the release of gut hormones and has the potential to yield novel targets for improved management of metabolic disorders. In addition to the use of endoscopic or surgical gut tissues or primary enteroendocrine cells, *in vitro* models now include enteroendocrine cell lines originating from rodent (STC-1 and GLUTag) or human (NCI-H716 and HuTo-80) intestinal tumours, and intestinal organoids differentiated from intestinal stem cells. The physiological relevance of these models has been challenged, but may be improved substantially by incorporating advanced biomedical techniques (*e.g.*, microfluidic devices) into the culture system. These approaches have complemented clinical studies utilising intestinal intubation, often with integrated manometry and impedance recording, which have revealed gut region-specific responses to intraluminal contents. Newer clinical developments include the use of novel ingestible sensors.

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INTRODUCTION

It is now widely appreciated that the gastrointestinal (GI) tract not only serves to process food, but also represents the largest endocrine organ in the body, releasing a wide array of peptide hormones to orchestrate metabolic homeostasis^[1]. Ghrelin, for example, is released from gastric Gr-cells into the circulation during fasting or periods of negative energy balance and triggers hunger to drive food intake^[2]; ghrelin levels in circulation are subsequently suppressed upon feeding^[3]. The interaction of nutrients and digestive juices with the intestinal mucosa triggers the secretion of a number of postprandial hormones, including cholecystokinin (CCK) from enteroendocrine (EE) I-cells^[4] and glucose-dependent insulinotropic polypeptide (GIP) from K-cells in the upper small intestine, and glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) and peptide YY (PYY) from L-cells located predominantly in the distal small and large intestine^[5,6]. A subset of EE cells in the proximal small intestine have also been shown to secrete both GLP-1 and GIP^[7]. GLP-1 and GIP are known as the incretin hormones; both stimulate insulin secretion in a glucose-dependent manner^[8,9]. GLP-1 also suppresses glucagon and acts with CCK and PYY to inhibit appetite, slow the delivery of nutrients from the stomach into the small intestine and retard their subsequent absorption^[10]. Accordingly, the integrated responses of GI hormones to meal ingestion is a critical determinant of energy balance and postprandial glycaemia.

That plasma concentrations of GI hormones are typically increased after enteral, but not intravenous, nutrient administration attests to the importance of nutrient-gut interactions to the release of these hormones^[11]. Accordingly, improved understanding of the sensor and actuator mechanisms through which nutrients or bioactive compounds interact with EE cells, has the potential to yield novel “gut-based” approaches for the management of metabolic diseases. In the last few decades, a broad range of preclinical and clinical models have been developed to study nutrient-gut interactions, with increasing efforts to achieve clinically relevant outcomes. To this end, *ex vivo* studies have extended from the use of EE cell lines towards primary intestinal tissues and organoids, and have increasingly incorporated sophisticated culture conditions to mimic normal physiology. Clinical studies employing customised intestinal perfusion catheters for targeted delivery of nutrients or therapeutic compounds, or novel ingestible sensors, have attempted to better characterise the

regional specificity of GI responses. In this review, we summarise the research tools and models used to investigate nutrient-gut interactions, and discuss their advantages and limitations for clinical translation of findings (Table 1).

CELLULAR MODELS

The GI mucosa incorporates a monolayer of columnar epithelium with region-specific architecture and EE cell composition that is uniquely tuned to secrete specific gut hormones and absorb nutrients to fulfil specific metabolic functions. EE cells account for less than 1% of all epithelial cells, and their distribution varies substantially along the GI tract (Figure 1)^[12]. Immortalised cell lines derived from murine and human intestinal tumours have been developed for *in vitro* studies, and retain the capacity to secrete GI hormones in response to nutrient stimuli (Table 2).

STC-1 cells are a heterogeneous and poorly differentiated EE cell line derived from intestinal secretin-producing tumours in mice. They have a high immunoreactivity to anti-proglucagon sera and are capable of releasing glucagon-like immuno-reactants^[13]. STC-1 cells were subsequently shown to secrete multiple gut hormones, including CCK^[14], GLP-1^[15,16], GIP^[17], and PYY^[18,19], in a similar manner to native murine EE cells, when stimulated by glucose^[20], amino acids and fatty acids. As a result, STC-1 cells have been a popular model to screen for gut hormone-releasing stimuli. However, the clinical relevance of this model has been frequently questioned. For example, treatment with potato protease inhibitor concentrate (PPIC) or whey protein does not induce CCK secretion from STC-1 cells^[21,22]. By contrast, oral administration of PPIC (100 mg/kg per day) stimulates CCK secretion in rodents^[21], while ingestion of whey protein (55 g) increases plasma CCK levels in humans^[23].

GLUTag cell line is a subcloned homogeneous EE cell model developed by the Drucker group from an endocrine carcinoma of the large bowel in transgenic mice^[24]. These cells express both proglucagon and CCK genes^[25] but produce primarily GLP1(7-36)-amide. GLUTag cells are equipped with a wide repertoire of nutrient sensors and transporters, including G-protein coupled receptors (GPCRs)^[26], glucokinase^[27] and the sodium-glucose linked transporter 1 (SGLT1)^[28] involved in nutrient-induced GLP-1 secretion. In agreement with *in vivo* findings, GLUTag cells exhibit robust release of GLP-1 in response to glucose^[29], bile acids^[30], fatty acids^[31] and amino acids^[32]. These observations have promoted GLUTag cells as a frontline model of L cells, leading to a wide application for studying the mechanisms underlying GLP-1 secretion and for screening potential GLP-1 secretagogues. However, clinical studies are still required to validate *in vitro* findings. For example, the treatment of glutamine (10 mmol/L) was shown to markedly increase GLP-1 secretion (7-fold) from GLUTag cells^[32]. However, oral administration of encapsulated ileal-release glutamine (6 g) or intra-duodenal glutamine infusion (7.5-15 g) evoked only modest increases in plasma GLP-1 levels in healthy subjects and patients with type 2 diabetes^[33,34].

The human cell lines NCI-H716 and HuTu-80 have also been used widely to characterise nutrient-evoked GLP-1 release. The NCI-H716 cell line was first reported by Park *et al.*^[35] from human colorectal carcinoma. It contains dense-core granules, expresses chromogranin A, and secretes GLP-1 in response to glucose, fatty acids and protein hydrolysates^[36]. Studies incorporating the NCI-H716 cell line have revealed critical roles of amino acid transporters^[37], type 1 taste receptors^[38] and monoacylglycerol-sensing GPCR^[31] in GLP-1 secretion. However, the secretory profile of NCI-H716 cells is more limited compared to murine STC-1 or GLUTag cells. For example, NCI-H716 cells secrete GLP-1 and GLP-2 but not GIP, PYY or CCK in response to 50 mmol/L KCl, or combined glucose (10 mmol/L), forskolin and phosphodiesterase inhibitor (10 µmol/L)^[39]. That NCI-H716 cells do not secrete PYY reflects their limited resemblance to native L-cells.

The HuTu-80 cell line is an alternative EE cell model of human origin that secretes GLP-1, GIP, PYY and CCK^[40] and was developed initially to study the biology of GI cancers^[41]. Sweet and bitter taste receptors are abundantly expressed in HuTu-80 cells as in native human L-cells, making them a potential model to investigate tastant-induced gut hormone secretion^[42,43]. However, unlike native L-cells, bitter tastants, including quinine, denatonium benzoate and phenylthiocarbamide fail to trigger GLP-1 secretion from HuTu-80 cells^[44]. Relative to the three aforementioned cell lines, HuTu-80 cells have been less frequently employed to study nutrient-gut interactions.

Table 1 Available tools used for investigation of nutrient-gut interactions

Tools		Advantages	Disadvantages/challenges
Cellular models	EE cell lines	Established secretion profiles; genetically modifiable; readily accessible	Limited resemblance to native I-cells; lack of inter-organ interaction; limited success in clinical translation
Tissue-based approaches	Intestinal organoids	Preserved native architecture; region-specific functions; high plasticity for oriented differentiation	Undefined secretion profiles; lack of integrated nervous or immune systems; inconsistent culture outcomes
	Isolated intestinal tissues	Preserved native intestinal structure; access to luminal and basolateral surface; high physiological relevance	Short viable period; lack of inter-organ interaction; limited access to human tissue; low EE cell density
Intestinal intubation	<i>In vivo</i> infusion in gut	Region-specific delivery; direct insights into human (patho-)physiology	Technically demanding; restricted to specialised research centre
Novel techniques	3D culture	Enhanced anatomical complexity; compatibility with co-culture system	Limited cellular variety; static culture environment
	Intestine-on-a-chip	Dynamic culture environment; recapitulation of luminal events	Sophisticated validation of the system; partial resemblance to luminal physiology
	Ingestible sensors	A broad range of application; high potential for multi-purposed <i>in vivo</i> investigation	Difficulty in signal interpretation; lack of stability; High cost

EE: Enteroendocrine.

Table 2 Enteroendocrine cell models

Species	Model	Origin	Hormones	Features
Mouse	STC-1	Duodenal secretin tumour cells	GLP-1, GLP-2, CCK, GIP, PYY	Heterogeneous cell population; respond to glucose, amino acids, fatty acids and neural stimuli; poor expression of CaSR
	GLUTag	Colonic tumour	GLP-1, GLP-2, CCK	Subcloned homogenous cells; respond to glucose, bile acids, fatty acids, amino acids
Human	NCI-H716	Colorectal carcinoma	GLP-1, GLP-2	Heterogeneous cell population; poorly differentiated; respond to glucose, fatty acids, protein hydrolysates
	HuTu-80	Duodenal carcinoma	GLP-1, PYY, GIP, CCK	Respond to antioxidant compounds, sweet and bitter substances

CCK: Cholecystokinin; GLP-1: Glucagon-like peptide 1; GIP: Glucose-dependent insulinotropic polypeptide; PYY: Peptide YY; CaSR: Ca²⁺-sensing receptor.

TISSUE-BASED GUT HORMONE RELEASE *EX VIVO*

The major functional differences between immortalised intestinal cell lines and primary EE cells have led to an increased research focus on primary intestinal models to study the endocrine function of the gut. These have included the isolation and use of primary EE cells^[45-47] and use of *ex vivo* intestinal tissue preparations from animals^[48-51] and humans^[52,53]. These tissue-based approaches maintain native cell-cell connections and polarity, and have hitherto yielded a deep understanding of the mechanisms governing nutrient and drug-evoked 5-hydroxytryptamine and GLP-1 release^[54,55]. However, clinical access to gut endoscopic, colonoscopic or surgical tissues, tissue viability and potentially low EE cell density can limit these primary models. The purification of primary EE cells is also technically demanding. The recent development of intestinal organoids holds the promise to overcome some of these limitations.

INTESTINAL ORGANIDS

Intestinal organoids, also known as “mini-guts”, are miniaturised intestinal units that display many features of gut tissue architecture and function. In 2007, Barker and colleagues identified leucine-rich repeat-containing GPCR5 (Lgr5) -positive cells as stem cells in the small intestine and colon via genetic lineage tracing experiments^[56]. Subsequently, a single Lgr5-positive stem cell was shown to differentiate into crypt-

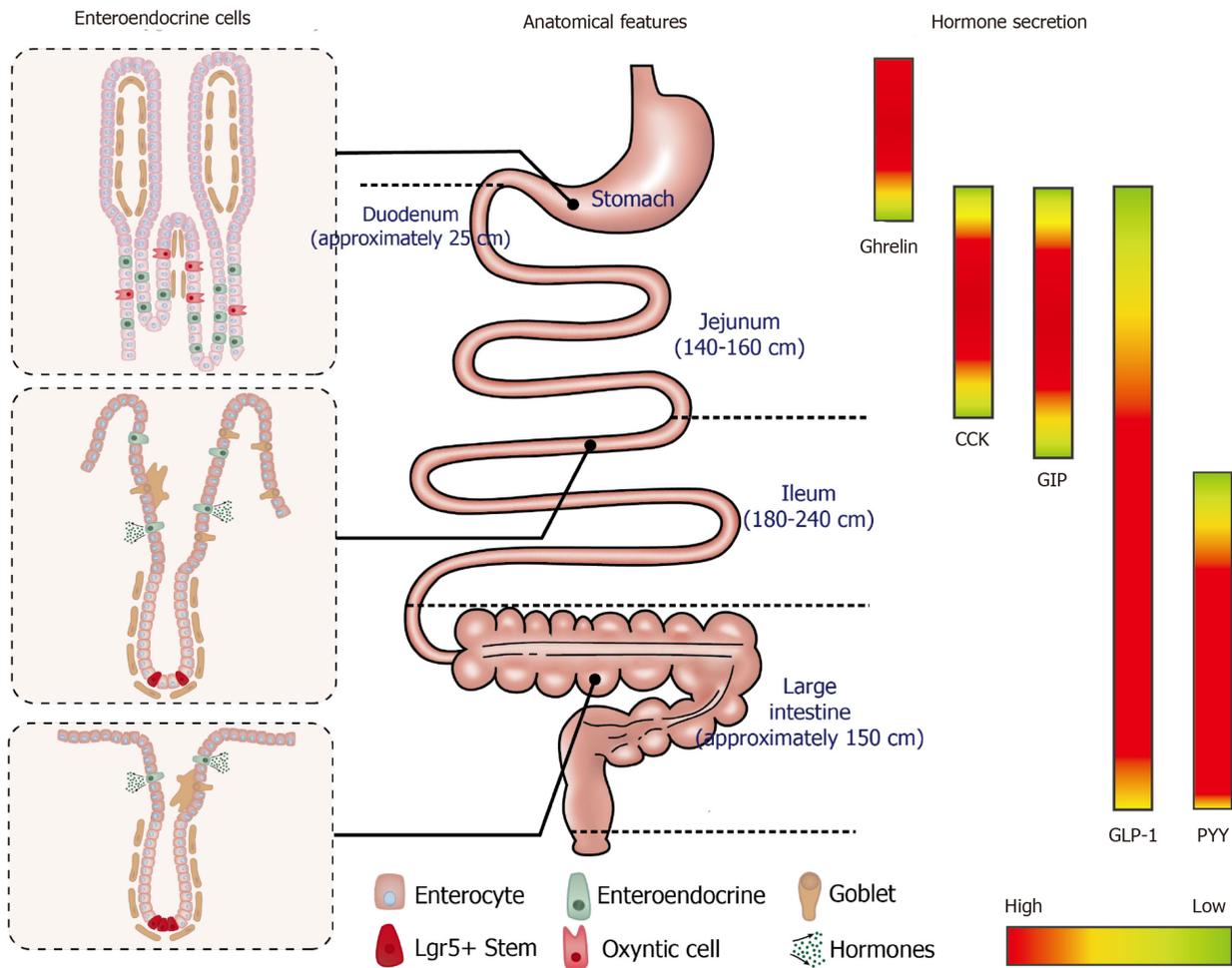


Figure 1 The composition of intestinal epithelial cells along the gastrointestinal tract (left); anatomical features and typical length of different sections of gastrointestinal tract (middle); regionally specific secretion profile of different gut gut hormones, including ghrelin, cholecystokinin, glucose-dependent insulinotropic polypeptide, glucagon-like peptide 1 and peptide YY (right). CCK: Cholecystokinin; GLP-1: Glucagon-like peptide 1; GIP: Glucose-dependent insulinotropic polypeptide; PYY: Peptide YY.

villus organoids, namely enteroids, that are inclusive of all cell types present in the native intestinal epithelium^[57]. Of note, enteroids can be developed from Lgr5-positive cells originating from any section of the gut. *Ex vivo* characterisation has shown that these enteroids display the basal-apical polarity of mature epithelial cells^[58,59]. Moreover, they retain many region-specific functions of the original location from which the stem cells were taken^[60].

Intestinal organoids can also be developed from human pluripotent stem cells, which are referred to as human intestinal organoids (HIOs)^[61,62]. HIOs have similar morphology as enteroids and display crypt-villus structures inclusive of all intestinal cell types. By contrast, HIOs contain a mesenchyme layer that is composed of myofibroblasts, endothelial cells and smooth muscle^[63]. Moreover, HIOs do not show region-specific features and eventually grow into an unselective population of EE cells^[61]. The differentiation process has been shown to be enhanced by the Happy Cell Advanced Suspension Medium^[64] and by activation of the bone morphogenetic protein signalling pathway^[65].

In contrast to primary intestinal epithelium, intestinal organoids remain viable for over 1-year *ex vivo* and show plasticity in cellular composition in response to changes in the culture environment or modified gene expression. Accumulating evidence suggests that the density of EE cells in organoids is subject to the expression of several translational factors, including Neurogenin 3 and *Aristaless*-related homobox^[61,66,67], raising the prospect that EE cells can be customised in an organoid. Indeed, exposure of mouse or human enteroids to short-chained fatty acids (SCFAs) increases the number of L cells, and hence GLP-1 secretion, over 48 h of SCFA treatment^[68]. Similar trends in differentiation have also been observed with enteroids treated with dibenzazepine or bile acids^[69,70]. However, the secretory profile of intestinal organoids

in response to nutrients or non-nutritive compounds has not been well characterised. It should also be noted that delivery of stimuli to the lumen of the organoids requires individual microinjection, which is both labour-intensive and technically demanding due to their small size^[71]. Moreover, the culture of organoids in conventional platforms makes it difficult to mimic the continuous movement of luminal contents and constantly changing nature of the extracellular fluid. Finally, it is not yet possible to recreate the architectural complexity of the GI tract, including its vascular, nervous, immune, mucous elements and the microbiome, in any organoid preparation.

INTESTINAL PERFUSION *IN VIVO*

The development of intestinal perfusion techniques and analytic methods capable of measuring GI hormones released into the peripheral circulation has allowed the evaluation of nutrient-gut interactions *in vivo*. In rodents, dietary effects on gut hormone secretion have been investigated in models of isolated intestinal perfusion^[72,73]. In humans, it is also possible to characterise the responses of various regions of the gut to intraluminal stimuli, and to examine the underlying mechanisms.

A rubber feeding tube was initially designed to deliver medication to the intestine and to examine luminal contents in paediatric patients^[74]. This early design incorporated 1-2 cm wide lateral window(s) for infusion/aspiration of liquids and a weighted terminal bulb to facilitate passage of the catheter by peristalsis. Subsequently, intestinal catheters have been increasingly customised to study gut function. For example, the integration of an inflatable balloon at the distal end of the catheter was employed to evaluate the perception of distension or control the position of the catheter^[75]. Use of a multi-lumen catheter has allowed for multiple inflatable balloons, making it possible to isolate segments of the lumen^[76], within which nutrient absorption can be carefully characterised^[77-79]. Incorporation of manometry and impedance sensors into the catheter design has further facilitated concurrent recording of gut motility^[34] and flow events^[80]. Positioning these catheters has relied on fluoroscopy, for which radiation exposure represents a major limitation. To overcome this, Andersson and Grossman established an alternative method of monitoring catheter position by measuring transmucosal potential difference (TMPD) between skin or blood and the intestinal lumen^[81]. Corresponding to the differences in pH between the stomach and the duodenum, TMPD in the distal antral channel and the proximal duodenal channel record around -40 mV and 0 mV, respectively^[82,83]. Accordingly, a change of TMPD from -40 mV to 0 mV reflects passage of channels through the transpyloric area (Figure 2).

Relative to oral administration, intestinal perfusion of nutrients or investigational compounds circumvents the impact of inter-individual variations in the rate of gastric emptying – which can be substantial^[84-86] – such that the exposure of the small intestine to nutrients can be standardised. Studies employing intraduodenal infusion of nutrients spanning the normal range of gastric emptying (1-4 kcal/min) have established that the stimulation of gut hormones, including CCK, GIP, GLP-1 and PYY, is dependent on the rate of nutrient entry into the small intestine. In line with the biological distribution of respective EE cells, the secretion of CCK and GIP appears to be proportional to the load of glucose, lipid or protein, whereas GLP-1 and PYY responses are non-linear, being modest at 1-2 kcal/min and substantially greater at 3-4 kcal/min^[87]. Moreover, when glucose and fat are infused intraduodenally at an identical rate of 2 kcal/min, it is observed that fat is significantly more potent than glucose at stimulating GLP-1 and GIP secretion^[88].

A multi-lumen catheter of adequate length can also be positioned over a long length of small intestine to allow targeted delivery of nutrients or investigational compounds into proximal or distal sites, to determine the regional specificity of nutrient-gut interactions. In this way, infusion of glucose (2 kcal/min) into jejunum (50 cm distal to pylorus) was shown to elicit more GLP-1 and GIP release compared to equivalent duodenal infusion (12 cm distal to pylorus) in healthy men^[89]. Furthermore, ileal glucose infusion (2 kcal/min, 190 cm distal to pylorus) resulted in markedly greater GLP-1 and lower (but more sustained) GIP responses compared to intraduodenal infusion, and was associated with a greater incretin effect and GI-mediated glucose disposal in both healthy subjects and patients with type 2 diabetes (Figure 3)^[90]. Administration of compounds into the rectum can similarly be undertaken using a soft tube with minimal discomfort^[91,92]. Characterisation of the region-specific profile of gut hormone release has shed light on the mechanisms by which Roux-en-Y gastric bypass surgery improves blood glucose control in type 2 diabetes^[93]. In addition, this

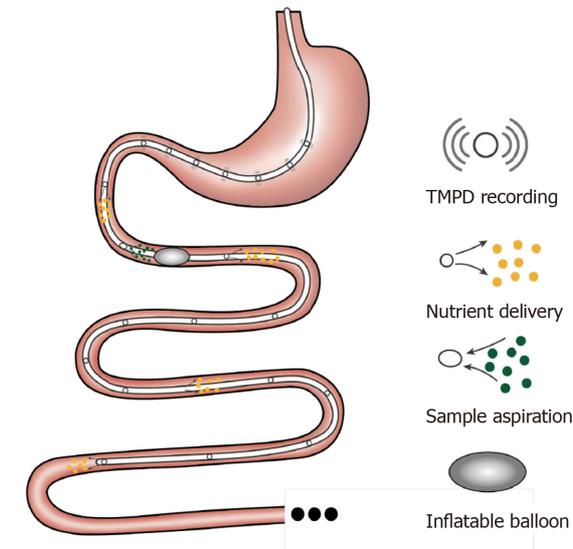


Figure 2 Schematic of a multichannel intestinal catheter to study regional specificity of nutrient-gut interactions. Multiple channels are opened on the catheter to record the transmembrane potential difference and monitor its position. These channels can also deliver investigational compounds or aspirate luminal samples in a specific region of intestine. The balloon is generally designed to create physical restriction to prevent the fluid flow or the movement of the catheter. TMPD: Transmembrane potential difference.

knowledge has directed the precise delivery of stimuli to optimise gut hormone response for therapeutic gain. For example, enteric coating of a small dose of lauric acid to allow targeted release in the ileum and colon was shown to be effective at stimulating GLP-1 secretion and lowering blood glucose in patients with type 2 diabetes^[94].

Access to the intestines via endoscopy and colonoscopy has provided an additional means for targeting intestinal perfusion to a specific region, while also allowing for the collection of mucosal biopsies to study anatomical and molecular mechanisms underlying nutrient-gut interactions (discussed in earlier section). In this way, sweet taste receptors (STRs) (heterodimeric T1R2 and T1R3) were found to be involved in intestinal glucose sensing and linked to regulation of glucose absorption in both health and type 2 diabetes; in patients with type 2 diabetes, a defect in the downregulation of STRs in the face of hyperglycaemia was shown to contribute to excessive postprandial glycaemic excursions^[95]. Moreover, *ex vivo* studies using human intestinal biopsies have revealed a critical role for both SGLT1 and the facilitative glucose transporter 2 in mediating glucose-induced GLP-1 secretion^[55].

NOVEL TECHNIQUES TO STUDY GUT HORMONE SECRETION

Several novel techniques are emerging to evaluate nutrient-gut interactions with improved physiological or therapeutic relevance, while overcoming limitations of clinical studies.

Recent development of culture engineering techniques has allowed integration of advanced culture interfaces into the conventional 2D culture platforms of intestinal organoids and primary epithelial cells. This has enabled the provision of culture frameworks that support the growth of intestinal cells and facilitate the assessment of tissue function in a more physiologically relevant environment^[96,97]. For example, culturing intestinal cells on a porous polyester membrane provides access to both basolateral and apical sides of the polarised epithelial cells, which is of particular importance for the investigation of the intestinal function in response to luminal stimuli (Figure 4A). In addition, the membrane can be coated with an extracellular matrix containing growth factors to induce growth and differentiation of organoids. This experimental platform is being increasingly used to study intestinal barrier function^[98,99], immune responses^[100], and drug metabolism^[101,102], with a handful of studies focusing on nutrient-gut interactions. Kozuka *et al.*^[103] developed an intestinal monolayer culture platform utilising Transwell (a culture plate with an inserted membrane) with a 0.4 μm or 1 μm pore membrane and successfully cultured murine

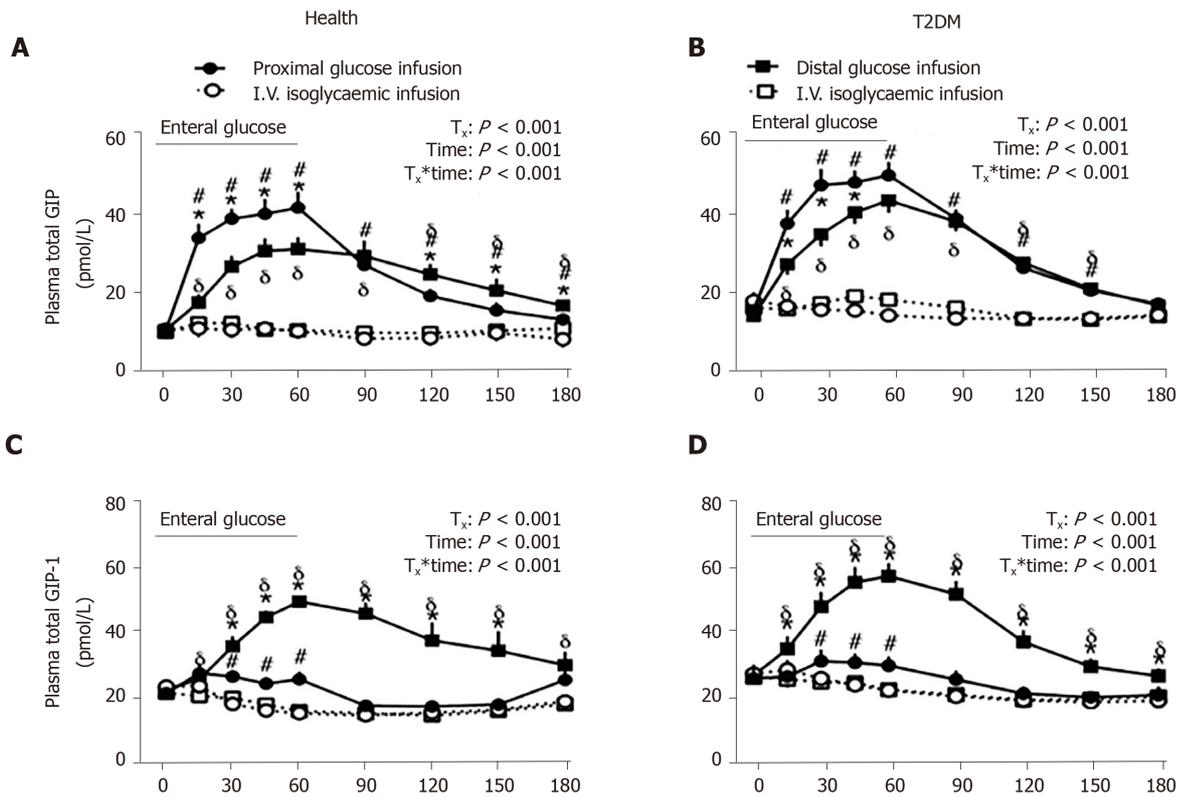


Figure 3 Comparison of the effect of enteral (proximal or distal) and intravenous (i.v.) isoglycemic glucose administrations on plasma incretin hormone, glucose-dependent insulinotropic polypeptide and glucagon-like peptide-1 secretions in healthy subjects and subjects with type 2 diabetes mellitus. A and B: Glucose-dependent insulinotropic polypeptide; C and D: Glucagon-like peptide-1. Asterisk represents $P < 0.05$ for proximal vs distal enteral glucose infusion; Numbersign represents $P < 0.05$ for proximal enteral vs corresponding i.v. glyceimic glucose infusion; Delta represents $P < 0.05$ for distal enteral vs corresponding i.v. glyceimic glucose infusion. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM. GLP-1: Glucagon-like peptide 1; GIP: Glucose-dependent insulinotropic polypeptide; T2DM: Type 2 diabetes mellitus. Citation: Zhang X, Young RL, Bound M, Hu S, Jones KL, Horowitz M, Rayner CK, Wu T. Comparative Effects of Proximal and Distal Small Intestinal Glucose Exposure on Glycemia, Incretin Hormone Secretion, and the Incretin Effect in Health and Type 2 Diabetes. *Diabetes Care* 2019; 42: 520-528. Copyright© The Authors 2019. Published by American Diabetes Association.

and human intestinal enteroids. Treatment with forskolin (100 μ M) in the apical chamber stimulated GLP-1 release into the basolateral chamber, consistent with the presence of functional L-cells and GLP-1 deployment mechanisms. With this compartmental culture system, it is possible to model the interaction between the intestinal epithelium and luminal content and monitor the hormonal response in the downstream chamber.

More advanced and complex intestine models have been achieved by applying microfluidic devices in gut function studies, also known as “intestine-on-a-chip”. These microfluidic devices have the capacity to provide a dynamic culture environment, including continuously refreshed culture media and biomimetic mechanical strain, to more accurately resemble physiological conditions (Figure 4B). Current *in vitro* gut models on microfluidic devices have mainly been used to investigate drug metabolism^[104] and gut-liver interactions^[105]. The application of the “intestine-on-a-chip” model for gut hormone secretion study is in its infancy. In 2016, Hsiao *et al*^[106] developed a high-throughput automated microfluidic platform to assess the response of NCL-H716 cells to sweet and bitter stimuli. Although gut hormones were not measured in the study, the microfluidic system recorded the dynamic changes in intracellular Ca^{2+} in over 500 single NCI-H716 cells trapped in each micro-well. In another study, Park and his colleagues established a co-culture of GLUTag cells and the β cell line INS-1 to screen compounds of anti-diabetic potential^[107]. Relative to the use of intestinal cancer cell line, intestinal organoids cultured on a microfluidic device display a high resemblance to the native intestine transcriptome, including the expression of genes related to cell proliferation, digestion and responses to nutrients^[108], and may prove to be a useful *ex vivo* model for studying GI hormone secretion.

Ingestible sensors are under rapid development in clinical settings. These are typically capsule devices of up to 11 mm in diameter and 28 mm in length, to allow

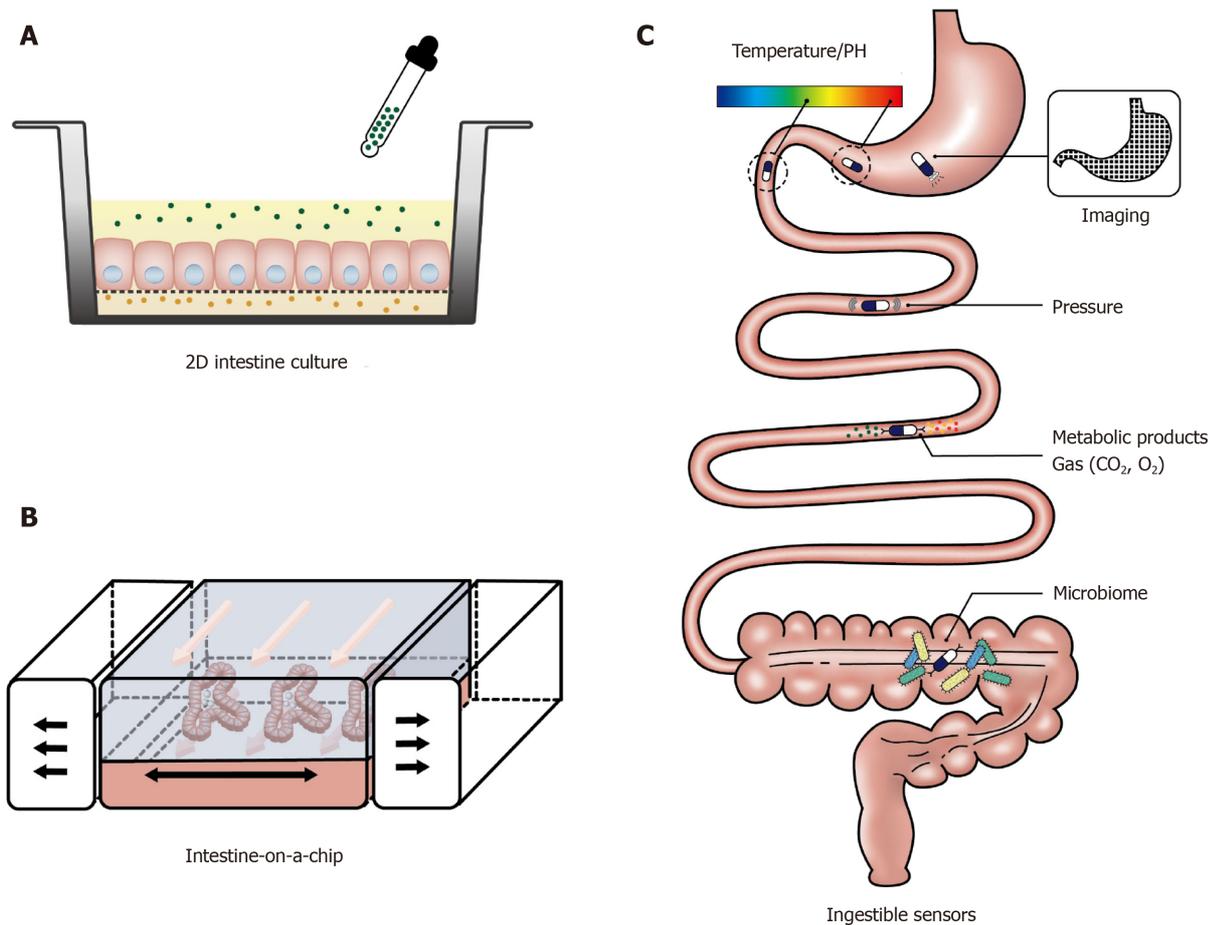


Figure 4 Emerging advanced techniques to study nutrient-gut interaction. A: 2D culture of intestinal epithelium on a porous membrane; B: intestine-on-a-chip model with intestinal organoids cultured in a microfluidic device, where constant perfusion and periodic mechanical strain can be applied on the system; C: ingestible sensors for measuring various parameters relevant to gut functions.

easy transit through the gut while measuring biomedical parameters (Figure 4C). To date, ingestible sensors have been developed for imaging^[109-112] and measurements of gases^[113], pH, temperature^[114-117], pressure^[118] and luminal contents^[119-121]. The pH sensors have been used to assess gastric emptying and small intestinal transit, marked by abrupt pH changes between the stomach and duodenum (> 3 units) and between the ileum and colon (> 1 unit)^[122,123]. The wide application of ingestible sensors will require further technical development to improve stability, signal interpretation and reduce costs, but offer an exciting glimpse into the future of GI surveillance.

CONCLUSION

A better understanding of the mechanisms underlying nutrient-gut interactions is fundamental to the development of gut-based therapies for major metabolic disorders. For this purpose, the development of *in vitro* EE cell models, and techniques suitable for *in vivo* studies, particularly in humans, is of critical importance. EE cell lines of both murine (STC-1 and GLUTag) and human (NCI-H716 and HuTo-80) origin are useful for early studies on gut hormone secretion, but have had limited translational success. This necessitates the development of more physiologically relevant *in vitro* gut models. The emergence of intestinal organoids and novel co-culture systems represents a major advance in this area. In particular, the combination of intestinal organoids and microfluidics will provide an unprecedented opportunity to study the dynamic hormonal response to stimuli under various conditions. *In vivo* validation of research outcomes derived from these models remains critical. In clinical studies, intestinal intubation and the application of novel ingestible sensors, have provided deep knowledge of the region-specific nature of nutrient-gut interactions, and ensuing hormonal and metabolic responses. Further development of non-invasive techniques

suitable for use in humans will expand opportunities to translate research findings from the bench to bedside.

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Monoacylglycerol lipase reprograms lipid precursors signaling in liver disease

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Abstract

Dietary oversupply of triglycerides represent the hallmark of obesity and connected complications in the liver such as non-alcoholic fatty liver disease and non-alcoholic steatohepatitis, which eventually progress to cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma. Monoacylglycerol lipase is the last enzymatic step in the hydrolysis of triglycerides, generating glycerol and fatty acids (FAs), which are signaling precursors in physiology and disease. Notably, monoacylglycerol lipase (MGL) also hydrolyzes 2-arachidonoylglycerol, which is a potent ligand within the endocannabinoid system, into arachidonic acid - a precursor for prostaglandin synthesis; thus representing a pivotal substrates provider in multiple organs for several intersecting biological pathways ranging from FA metabolism to inflammation, pain and appetite. MGL inhibition has been shown protective in limiting several liver diseases as FAs may drive hepatocyte injury, fibrogenesis and de-activate immune cells, however the complexity of MGL network system still needs further and deeper understanding. The present review will focus on MGL function and FA partitioning in the horizons of liver disease.

Key words: Lipid metabolism; Monoacylglycerol lipase; Non-alcoholic steatohepatitis; Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; Cannabinoid; Nuclear receptors

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Core tip: Monoacylglycerol lipase inhibition/modulation is yet unappreciated however

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attractive therapeutic concept to limit liver disease as fatty acids may drive hepatocyte injury, fibrogenesis and change immune cells phenotype.

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INTRODUCTION

Dietary lipids are major sources of energy in the body and serve a variety of vital functions^[1]. They represent pivotal substrates for beta oxidation, fueling the production of cellular energy as well as being precursors of all lipid classes, including prostaglandins, steroid hormones and those that form biological membranes^[1]. Notwithstanding their key roles, aberrant lipid metabolism may become harmful to cells, as free fatty acids (FAs) are known to be powerful signaling molecules^[2,3]. FAs and their metabolites regulate several intracellular processes such as gene transcription and expression, post-transcriptional/translational modification of proteins, also directly modulating an array of enzyme activities as co-activators^[4,5]. Fat stores in the adipose tissue (AT) are the major energy reserves in mammals. Upon food intake, lipid species are absorbed in the intestine and delivered to the circulation; the surplus of dietary non-esterified fatty acids (NEFAs) which are not immediately needed by the body, are re-esterified into triglycerides (TG) that are subsequently stored in cytosolic lipid droplets of the adipocytes^[6]. During fasting for instance, these TG stores in the AT can be released by hydrolytic cleavage, and the resulting NEFAs reach peripheral tissues such as liver and muscle to be processed for β -oxidation and therefore energy/ATP production^[6]. Of interest, also non-adipose organs can effectively esterify NEFAs into TG and re-hydrolyze them back into NEFAs according to the energy demands^[6]. Excessive amounts of TGs store into AT and other organs such as liver leading to lipotoxicity as well as non-alcoholic fatty liver disease and type 2 diabetes^[7]. The cleavage of primary/secondary ester bonds between long chain FAs and glycerol backbone that form TGs, depends on specific hydrolases commonly called neutral lipases (to be differentiated from lysosomal acid lipases)^[3,8]. Three main enzymes are involved in the thorough hydrolysis of TGs in cellular lipid stores: adipose triglyceride lipase exclusively performs the first step hydrolyzing TGs to generate diacylglycerols (DGs) and FAs^[9]. Hormone-sensitive lipase instead is capable of hydrolyzing several acylesters including TGs, DGs, and monoacylglycerols (MGs)^[3,6]. Finally, monoacylglycerol lipase (MGL) efficiently cleaves MGs into glycerol and FAs^[9] (Figure 1). This process is aided by comparative gene identification-58 (CGI-58, also known as ABHD5), which interacts with perilipin, protecting or exposing the TG core of a lipid droplet to lipases (mainly adipose triglyceride lipase)^[10] and therefore enhancing their activity^[11]. Hydrolysis is finely balanced by concomitant re-esterification of MGs/DGs into TGs, which is performed by monoacylglycerol acyltransferases (MGAT) and diacylglycerol acyltransferase (DGAT) respectively, as shown in Figure 1.

MGL is a particularly interesting enzyme as substantially bridges organ-specific nutrient metabolism to central and peripheral endocannabinoid and eicosanoid systems^[12]. The fact that the latter holds such a multipurpose and promiscuous role in several physiological processes is driving a resurgence of interest in this lipase as putative drug target for several different disorders^[13]. Although, very well characterized in behavioral studies and central nervous system disease models^[14-16] (in connection to the endocannabinoids and prostaglandins network), the contribution of MGL to metabolic liver disease, cholestasis, inflammation, and fibrosis is surprisingly unknown.

PRE-CLINICAL STUDIES ON MONOACYLGLYCEROL LIPASE DELETION/INHIBITION

MGL is the rate-limiting enzyme of MG degradation that derive from intra- /extra-

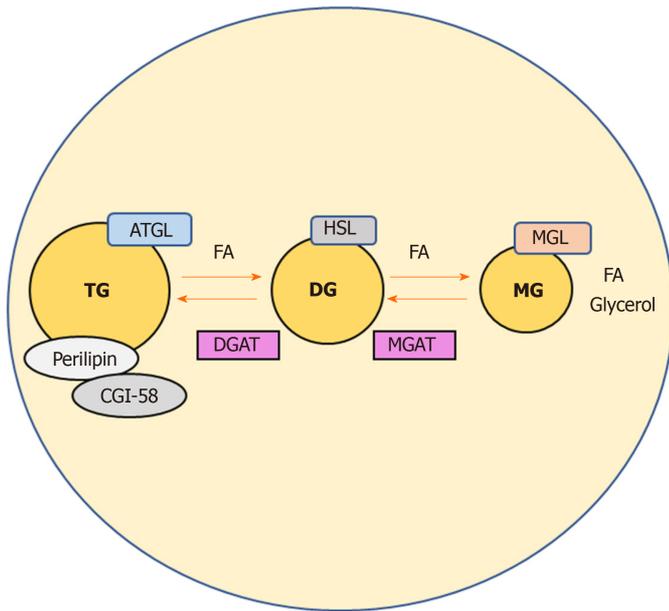


Figure 1 Catabolic pathways regulating triglycerides levels in adipocytes. Adipose triglyceride lipase, hormone sensitive lipase, and monoacylglycerol lipase act on triglycerides in a series of subsequent reactions in order to generate glycerol and fatty acids. Comparative gene identification-58 binds to perilipin facilitating lipolysis, as a known activator of adipose triglyceride lipase. Intermediates of this catabolic pathway may also be re-esterified to phospholipids and triglycerides by the enzymes monoacylglycerol acyltransferases and diacylglycerol acyltransferase. ATGL: Adipose triglyceride lipase; HSL: Hormone sensitive lipase; MGL: Monoacylglycerol lipase; TGs: Triglycerides; FAs: Fatty acids; CGI-58: Comparative gene identification-58; MGAT: Monoacylglycerol acyltransferases; DGAT: Diacylglycerol acyltransferase.

cellular phospholipids or TGs^[17]. The extracellular most important source of MGs is TG-rich lipoproteins such as the liver-derived very low density lipoproteins^[18]. TGs are released from circulating very low density lipoproteins by the action of the endothelial lipoprotein lipase that generates FAs, hydrolyzing TGs in positions sn-1- and sn-3, thus generating MG species^[19]. Digestion of dietary TG is also aided by pancreatic lipase that can generate in addition fair amounts of MGs^[20]. Extracellular derived MGs are internalized by cells and may be further degraded by MGL or alternatively re-esterified to TGs by the enzymatic activities of MGAT and DGAT (Figure 1). In fact, MGAT and DGAT are key players in enterocytes and particularly in the small intestine, where they are thought of synthesizing up to 80% of the TG incorporated into chylomicrons^[21]. In addition, another source of MGs can directly originate from the intracellular TGs storage in cytosolic lipid droplets^[3].

MGL is a pivotal lipase that produces signaling lipid, notably hydrolyzing 2-AG (which is a known ligand of cannabinoid receptors) into arachidonic acid (AA)^[9]. Given the multiple roles of the cannabinoid system in regulation of several key processes in human physiology including (but not limited to) appetite, pain and even cancer, enzymes targeting the cannabinoid catabolism are potentially interesting candidates for drug discovery and pharmaceutical development^[14]. MGL is ubiquitous in the body and its expression varies greatly in an organ-specific fashion, being present in brain and in peripheral tissues such as the kidney, testis, ovary, adrenal gland, AT, and heart. At the cellular level, MGL mainly localizes in the cytoplasm as well as in the plasma membrane and in the lipid droplet^[22]. Interestingly, molecular strategies exploiting genetic or pharmacological inactivation of MGL in mice resulted in a significant accumulation of MGs in several tissues demonstrating its central role in MG catabolism^[9]. In diet induced obesity models, MGL ablation showed to be protective in the development of glucose intolerance and insulin resistance, although reduced MGL activity was partially reverted by hormone-sensitive lipase^[23]. This phenotype was shown to be influenced by the effects of MGL on the central nervous system and derived behavioral changes triggered by the endocannabinoid pathway^[23]. Importantly, MGL knockout mice (*Mgl*^{-/-}) showed neuroprotective properties in a parkinsonian mouse model, with consequent reduction of multiple prostaglandins and eicosanoids mediators in the brain, including prostaglandin -E2, -D2, -F2, and thromboxane B2^[24]. In keeping with this parkinsonian mouse models, MGL's network of endocannabinoid and prostaglandin regulation was also demonstrated to contribute to the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease, representing a promising target for its prevention/treatment^[16]. Chronic inactivation of MGL in the central nervous system

was shown to lead to a 2-AG oversupply and consecutive desensitization of cannabinoid 1 receptor (CB1r) signaling^[23]. Intriguingly, central CB1r inactivation was correlated to a higher incidence of depression and several other psychiatric side effects in patients^[25], which led to consequent withdrawal of the anti-obesity drug rimonabant, an inverse CB1r agonist^[23]. Experiments with CB1r/MGL double-KO mice revealed that oral but not intraperitoneal lipid administration strongly suppressed the appetites of *Mgl*^{-/-} and CB1r/MGL DKO mice, but not affecting wild-type and CB1r^{-/-} mice^[26]. In this study, appetite suppression was reversed by vagotomy, suggesting a mechanical involvement of MGL in the gut-brain axis regulation of appetite^[26]. In keeping, administration of an MGL inhibitor called MJN110, reduced food intake in rats^[27]. Notably, pharmacological blockade of MGL with JZL184 caused increased systemic 2-AG levels in a mouse model of myocardial infarction^[28]. This resulted in elevated cardiac C-X-C motif chemokine ligand-1, -2, and matrix metalloproteinase-9 levels as well as increased cardiac neutrophil/monocyte counts 24 h after infarction compared to vehicle-treated mice^[28]. In another study, dietary supplementation of linoleic acid in a range of 1% to 8% significantly increased 2-AG in the liver and small bowel, suggesting possible dietary tools to modulate endocannabinoid ligands^[29].

Of interest, a recent study characterized a unique population of human bone marrow adipocytes^[30], discovering a profound downregulation of MGL expression which was shown to underlie the metabolic differences in the phenotype/lipid metabolism, also justifying bone marrow adipocytes' resistance to caloric restrictions^[30]. Further studies showed that when *Mgl*^{-/-} animals were challenged with high fat diet feeding, great amounts of 2-AG were detected in the brain, although affecting neither food consumption nor body weight, therefore evidencing cannabinoid receptors desensitizing effects^[23]. Notably, the liver content of certain species of saturated and unsaturated MGs were highly enriched in *Mgl*^{-/-}, showing after 12 wk high fat diet better insulin sensitivity and glucose tolerance^[31,32], although whether adipose depots or skeletal muscle were the main players in determining this phenotype, was not thoroughly investigated. Several other works evidenced a role of MGL in tumor growth/metabolism as well as oncogenic signaling^[33], being associated with gastrointestinal stromal tumors^[34] and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC); others instead showed that MGL deletion resulted into significant colorectal cancer growth inhibition^[35] while also reducing ischemia/reperfusion-induced lung injury and inflammation^[36,37]. Additionally, MGL was found to be part of a gene signature determining stem-like properties of cancer cells in prostate cancer^[38]; this further supported a role for this enzyme in pro-tumorigenic metabolism, involving the dual control of endocannabinoid and FA pathways^[38,39].

Xiang *et al*^[40] elegantly showed that MGL deficiency caused lipid overload in tumor associated macrophages^[40]. Intriguingly, MGL expression in macrophages was strongly decreased in cancer tissues and positively correlated with the overall survival of cancer patients^[40]. Mechanistically, MGL deficiency was shown to promote CB2r/TLR4 axis and subsequent macrophage activation, which in turn suppressed the function of tumor associated CD8⁺ T cells. In addition, treatment with CB2r antagonist drugs delayed tumor progression in inoculated and genetic cancer models^[40].

In the liver, MGL ablation was demonstrated to attenuate LPS-induced inflammation whilst whole body genetic and pharmacological inhibition protected against inflammation and liver lesions provoked by ischemia/reperfusion injury^[41]. Intriguingly, hypoxia training was demonstrated to induce MGL expression and ameliorate hepatic steatosis in obese mice, showing decreased 2-AG levels and expression of CB1r^[42].

2-AG accumulation in the liver has been shown to have anti-inflammatory and anti-fibrotic effects through CB2r signaling, conversely CB1r activation associates with increased liver damage and fibrosis in different models of liver injury^[43] (Figure 2). Habib *et al*^[43] suggested that the increased 2-AG levels following MGL blockade selectively stimulate CB2r but not CB1r, thus resulting in hepato-protective effects^[43]. In their study, lack of MGL prompted fibrosis regression due to autophagy-mediated anti-inflammatory mechanisms in macrophages^[43]. In details, using a mouse model lacking MGL in the myeloid lineage (*Mgl*^{Mye-/-}), authors demonstrated that MGL inhibition in immune cells is sufficient to reduce hepatic fibrosis and inflammation after carbon tetrachloride (CCl4) injection^[43]. In line with what Cao *et al*^[41] previously showed, that systemic MGL inhibition had protective effects on hepatocytes in different models of acute liver injury. These evidence was dependent on the enhanced CB2r activation and modulation of eicosanoid pathways, resulting into diminished neutrophil infiltration and neutrophil-mediated liver damage^[41].

In a microarray study, the expression of MGL was shown to be enriched in HCC tumors than in matched non-tumor tissues^[44]. The upregulation of MGL in HCC cells

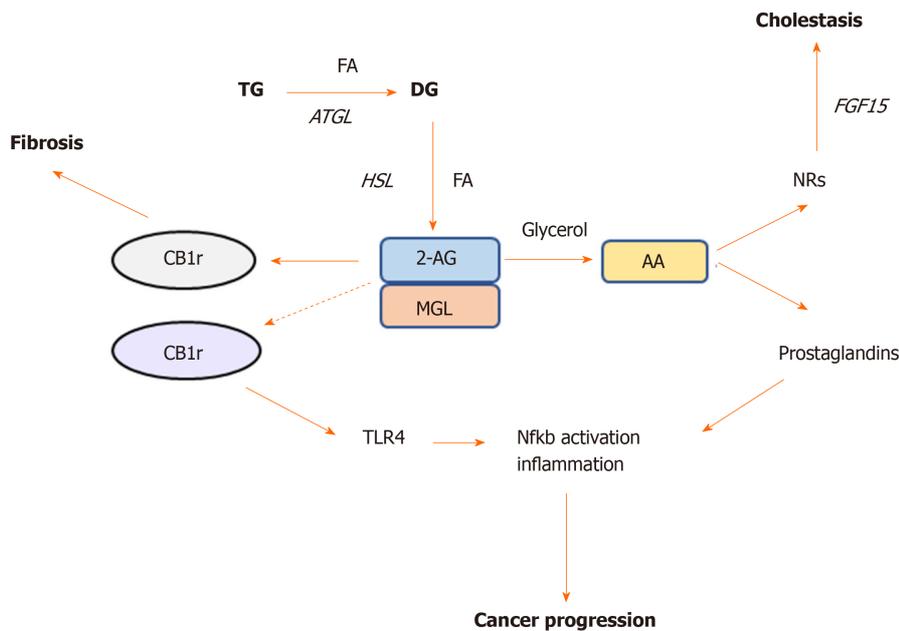


Figure 2 Monoacylglycerol lipase represent a crossroad between cannabinoid and lipid signaling pathways. Monoacylglycerol lipase is the key enzyme degrading the endogenous cannabinoid ligand 2-AG, which in turn is able to bind either cannabinoid receptor (CB) -1r or -2r. Activation of CB1r was found to promote fibrosis whereas CB2r is involved in TLR4 activation and immune cells recruitment in cancer. Monoacylglycerol lipase action further hydrolyzes 2-AG into arachidonic acid, which is a precursor of prostaglandin synthesis, the main drivers of inflammation. Arachidonic acid was also found to bind nuclear receptors such as farnesoid X receptor and peroxisome proliferator activated receptors in the intestine and ameliorate cholestatic disease. AA: Arachidonic acid; NRs: Nuclear receptors; CB: Cannabinoid; MGL: Monoacylglycerol lipase; HSL: Hormone sensitive lipase; ATGL: Adipose triglyceride lipase; TG: Triglyceride; FA: Fatty acid.

promoted cell growth and invasion through pro-tumorigenic lipid signaling^[44]. Importantly, MGL was demonstrated to facilitate HCC progression *via* nuclear factor kappa light chain enhancer of activated B cells-mediated epithelial-mesenchymal transition^[44]. A recent work from our group strongly demonstrated a central role of MGL inhibition in the pathophysiology of cholestatic liver disease^[45]. Using total body knockout mice challenged with cholestatic diet [3,5-diethoxycarbonyl-1,4-dihydrocollidine (DDC)] and pharmacological inhibition (JZL184) of MGL in *Mdr2* (*Abcb4*) knock out - *Mdr2*^{-/-} (an established mouse model that develops spontaneous cholestasis^[46]), we evidenced beneficial effects in sclerosing cholangitis development and resolution^[45]. We showed that both mouse models were protected from cholestatic liver disease due to a crosstalk mechanism involving the gut-liver axis, microbiome modulation and substrate (AA) accumulation in the intestine (Figure 3). Notwithstanding that AA is a known precursor of pro-inflammatory mediators, in this study it was demonstrated to bind nuclear receptors such as peroxisome proliferator activated receptor alpha and gamma (PPAR- α , - γ) and farnesoid X receptor diminishing intestinal inflammation and consequently impacting liver bile acid synthesis *via* fibroblast growth factor 15^[45]. Nevertheless, the development of tissue specific and inducible knockout models would deliver better mechanistic understanding on which organ is playing the most relevant role in the development of cholestasis and other liver diseases after MGL invalidation.

Although several pre-clinical studies showed promising/beneficial effects of MGL blockade in multiple disease models, inhibition of this key metabolic enzyme requires cautious evaluation. On the one hand, the MGL inhibitor named JZL184 (firstly characterized by Long *et al.*^[47]) has been shown to have low specificity and thus blocking activities of other hydrolases such as fatty acid amide hydrolase and carboxylesterases. On the other hand, another inhibitor called MJN110 was shown to have less activity towards other serine hydrolase systems, also being more effective at enhancing 2-AG levels in the brain than JZL184^[48,49]. In keeping with this evidence, both inhibitors are currently used in preclinical studies and *in vitro* systems to explore the effects of MGL inhibition. In a recent work, a new candidate JNJ-42226314 was identified as a reversible and highly selective MGL inhibitor and several other approaches reported developments of positron emission tomography radioligand inhibitors for MGL such as PF-06809247^[50,51].

In summary, MGL appears to serve as key metabolic hub for several pathways within chronic liver disease such as sclerosing cholangitis, non-alcoholic fatty liver

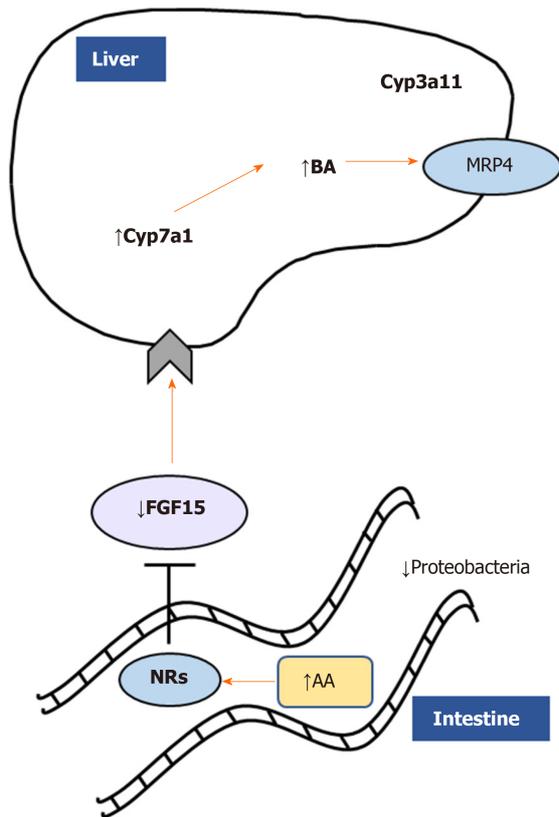


Figure 3 Monoacylglycerol lipase deletion impacts gut-liver axis via nuclear receptor and microbiome modulation. Monoacylglycerol lipase ablation ameliorates cholestatic liver disease induced by 3,5-diethoxycarbonyl-1,4-dihydrocollidine challenge diminishing fibrosis, inflammation, and fatty acid metabolism/oxidation in the liver. Accumulation of arachidonic acid binds nuclear receptors such as farnesoid X receptor, downregulating in turn fibroblast growth factor 15 and inducing bile acids synthesis and detoxification as shown by Cyp7a1/Cyp3a11. In addition, proinflammatory *Proteobacteria* were diminished in feces from *Mgl*^{-/-} mice. AA: Arachidonic acid; NRs: Nuclear receptors; FGF15: Fibroblast growth factor 15; BA: Bile acids.

disease, fibrosis and HCC which are disorders affecting complex network of several cell types and molecular mechanisms.

CLINICAL RELEVANCE OF MONOACYLGLYCEROL LIPASE AND ITS GENETIC MUTATION

Only a handful of studies explored the clinical relevance of MGL in human patients, and those mainly focused on rare genetic variants known as single nucleotide polymorphism (SNPs), which may in turn influence determinant lipid-related traits and pathologies^[52]. Intriguingly, 4 MGL SNPs named rs13076593, rs782440, rs541855, rs549662 were associated with increased LDL particle size, whilst the rs3773159 with type 2 diabetes^[53]. Moreover, 20 common variants of the *MGL* gene were associated with high BMI in a cohort of 289 individuals (of which 147 controls and 142 extremely obese)^[54]. Interestingly, the genotype rs604300 was shown to have protective effects against childhood abuse-related increases in cannabis dependence and was suggested to relate to epigenetic modulation of MGL expression^[55]. Lastly, the variant Pro129Thr of one of the endocannabinoid inactivating enzyme called fatty acid amide hydrolase was found to significantly associate with both street drug use and problematic drug/alcohol use^[56]. However, this could not be replicated in another study in which no associations were found between Pro129Thr or other MGL SNPs and alcoholism in 729 Japanese patients with alcoholism and 799 healthy controls^[57].

CONCLUSION

Further work is needed to understand in detail the specific tissue/cell contribution to

the beneficial effects of MGL deletion observed in many studies and disease types. Of special interest would be unveiling the role of MGL in complex cancers such as HCC and cholangiocellular carcinoma or other liver conditions such as alcoholic liver disease, as no data are available yet. Moreover, novel therapeutic avenues may explore functional antagonism of MGL on *i.e.*, the endocannabinoid system, which could be implemented with temporary approaches such as reversible blockade, small molecules, or immuno-therapy systems to study short-term efficacy. This could ultimately lead to better speculations and understanding of the complex network of the lipid machinery involved in the development of liver disease, insulin resistance and type 2 diabetes paving the way to novel pharmacological treatments.

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Basic Study

TBL1XR1 induces cell proliferation and inhibit cell apoptosis by the PI3K/AKT pathway in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma

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Abstract**BACKGROUND**

Pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) is one of the deadliest solid tumors. Identification of diagnostic and therapeutic biomarkers for PDAC is urgently needed. Transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1 (TBL1XR1) has been linked to the progression of various human cancers. Nevertheless, the function and role of TBL1XR1 in pancreatic cancers are unclear.

AIM

To elucidate the function and potential mechanism of TBL1XR1 in the development of PDAC.

METHODS

Ninety patients with histologically-confirmed PDAC were included in this study. PDAC tumor samples and cell lines were used to determine the expression of TBL1XR1. CCK-8 assays and colony formation assays were carried out to assess PDAC cell viability. Flow cytometry was performed to measure the changes in the cell cycle and cell apoptosis. Changes in related protein expression were measured by western blot analysis. Animal analysis was conducted to confirm the impact of TBL1XR1 *in vivo*.

RESULTS

Patients with TBL1XR1-positive tumors had worse overall survival than those

committee statement: The animal care and use was approved by the Ethics Committee of Changshu No.1 People's Hospital.

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with TBL1XR1-negative tumors. Moreover, we found that TBL1XR1 strongly promoted PDAC cell proliferation and inhibited PDAC cell apoptosis. Moreover, knockdown of TBL1XR1 induced G0/G1 phase arrest. *In vivo* animal studies confirmed that TBL1XR1 accelerated tumor cell growth. The results of western blot analysis showed that TBL1XR1 might play a key role in regulating PDAC cell proliferation and apoptosis *via* the PI3K/AKT pathway.

CONCLUSION

TBL1XR1 promoted PDAC cell progression and might be an effective diagnostic and therapeutic marker for pancreatic cancer.

Key words: Pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma; TBL1XR1; Proliferation; PI3K/AKT pathway

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Core tip: Transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1 (TBL1XR1) has been linked to the progression of various human cancers. However, the function and role of TBL1XR1 in pancreatic cancers are unclear. Elucidation of the effect and potential molecular mechanism of TBL1XR1 in pancreatic cancer is important. This study showed that TBL1XR1 promoted pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) cell proliferation, inhibited PDAC cell apoptosis and might regulate PDAC cell proliferation and apoptosis by the phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase/protein kinase B pathway. Therefore, TBL1XR1 might be a promising therapeutic marker for patients with advanced PDAC.

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INTRODUCTION

Pancreatic carcinoma is one of the deadliest solid tumors. Currently, pancreatic carcinoma is the fourth leading cause of cancer-related death in the United States, and there were approximately 48960 new cases confirmed and 40560 deaths in 2015^[1,2]. The best chance for survival is early surgical detection. However, due to the lack of effective screening tests for pancreatic carcinoma, local invasion and early metastasis, only 10%–20% of patients are diagnosed at a stage amenable to resection and curative treatment^[3,4]. Therefore, the overall 5-year survival rate is lower than 5%^[5]. Despite decades of efforts, there has been no significant improvement in the long-term survival of pancreatic carcinoma patients^[6]. Pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) is the most common type of pancreatic carcinoma. Therefore, identification of efficacious early tumor markers for the early diagnosis and treatment of PDAC has clinical value and significance^[7].

As a member of the TBL1 family, transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1 (TBL1XR1) is the key element of the SMRT/N-CoR corepressor complex^[8]. TBL1XR1 is located on chromosome 3 at 3q26 and has a high degree of homology to the TBL1 protein. Recently, studies have demonstrated that TBL1XR1 could react to transcriptional regulators such as nuclear receptors by switching from gene inhibition to gene activation^[9]. Moreover, TBL1XR1 plays a vital role in cell growth, cell apoptosis, inflammation and transcriptional activation, which involve estrogen receptor, androgen receptor, thyroid hormone receptor β, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ, nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells (NF-κB), Notch and β-catenin^[10]. Currently, studies focus on the effect and mechanism of TBL1XR1 in carcinogenesis and tumor progression, including those of nasopharyngeal carcinoma, colon cancer, osteosarcoma cancer, prostate cancer, breast cancer, and hepatocellular carcinoma^[11-16]. Nevertheless, the role and molecular mechanism of TBL1XR1 in the progression of PDAC remain unclear.

In this study, we aimed to explore the effect of TBL1XR1 in PDAC. We found that

TBL1XR1 expression was closely associated with the clinicopathologic features of PDAC, which might provide a new diagnostic and therapeutic target for PDAC.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients and tissue specimens

This study was performed in 90 PDAC patients. The patients all underwent radical pancreaticoduodenectomy and were histopathologically and clinically diagnosed at Changshu No. 1 People's Hospital Affiliated with Soochow University from 2011 to 2015. Our study complied with the ethical standards of the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the Ethics Committee of Changshu No. 1 People's Hospital. Ninety pairs of PDAC and normal pancreatic epithelial samples were promptly fixed in 4% formalin and embedded in paraffin for immunohistochemical (IHC) staining after removal.

Immunohistochemical analysis

After obtaining fresh isolated specimens, we immediately fixed the specimens in 4% formalin and then embedded them in paraffin. Next, we cut them into 5 mm sections and mounted them on slides. IHC and HE staining were performed to examine the expression of TBL1XR1^[17].

Immunohistochemical staining score

Immunohistochemical staining of TBL1XR1 expression in PDAC and normal pancreatic epithelial specimens was performed as described by Li *et al.*^[17]. The TBL1XR1 staining score was the summation of the staining strength and the ratio of positively stained cells. We defined TBL1XR1 staining strength as follows: 0% immunoreactive cells are scored 0; less than 5% immunoreactive cells are scored 1; 5%-50% immunoreactive cells are scored 2; and more than 50% immunoreactive cells are scored 3. Staining intensity was scored as follows: negative was scored 0; weak was scored 1; intermediate was scored 2; and strong was scored 3. For statistical convenience, we set intermediate and strong scores to be positive, and the negative and weak scores were considered to be negative^[18].

Cell lines and cell cultures

The PDAC cell lines (Panc1, MiaPaCa-2, Capan1 and Aspc-1) were purchased from the Cell Bank of the Chinese Academy of Science. Panc1 and Capan1 cells were cultured in DMEM, and MiaPaCa-2 and Aspc-1 cells were cultured in RPMI-1640 medium. Streptomycin (100 µg/mL) and penicillin (100 U/ml) and 10% fetal bovine serum were added to DMEM or RPMI-1640 medium. The cells were cultivated at 37 °C in a humidified incubator with 5% CO₂.

Cell transfection

Five hundred thousand cells were inoculated into 6-well plates, and after the cells attached, we performed a cell transfection assay according to the manufacturer's instructions. In short, 50 nmol siRNA and 6 µL of Lipofectamine 2000 were added to 200 µL of Opti-MEM medium and incubated for 5 min. Then, the two suspensions were mixed and incubated for 15 min. The suspension was added to 6-well plates and incubated for 4 h. After incubation, we replaced the medium and harvested fresh culture medium every 2 d. The siRNA sequences were as follows: CTRL siRNA: 5'-TTCTCCGAACGTGTCACGT-3'; TBL1XR1: 5'-GGAGUAGACAAGACUACAA-3'.

Quantitative real-time PCR

We performed the assay using the methods described by Li *et al.*^[17]. Total RNA was extracted from different treated cells with TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen) in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. The expression of TBL1XR1 and GAPDH was determined by the primers shown below: TBL1XR1: 5'-GAG GTG TTT ATT TGT GCT TGG-3'; 5'-TGC ACT TAA TAT GAA GTT GCC-3'. GAPDH: 5'-GCCGCATCTTCTTTTGGCTCGC-3'; 5'-TCCCGTTCTCAGCCTTGACGGT-3'.

The expression of TBL1XR1 was determined by normalization to the expression of the housekeeping gene GAPDH.

Lentivirus-mediated RNA interference

The lentivirus vector was constructed by the Shanghai GeneChem Company.

Lentivirus-mediated RNA interference was performed in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. After cell adherence, a considerable volume of virus was added to the cells for 6-8 h. Then, fresh complete medium was added, and the cells were harvested for 2 d. Cells were continuously cultured and used for subsequent studies.

Cell viability assay

A CCK-8 (Beyotime, Shanghai) assay was performed to determine the viability of PDCA cells. CCK-8 is widely used in the rapid and highly sensitive detection of cell proliferation and cytotoxicity based on WST-8. PDAC cells at 1000 cells/well were inoculated into 96-well plates after the corresponding treatment and incubated for the indicated times. Then, 10 μ L of CCK-8 was added to the medium and cultured for 2 h in the dark. A microplate reader (Bio-Tek, United States) was used to measure the absorbance of PDCA cells at 450 nm.

Colony formation assay

PDAC cells with different treatments (approximately 500 cells/well) were seeded in 6-well plates. The culture medium was changed every 3 d. After approximately 2 wk of culture, the cells were cleaned with PBS and fixed with 10% formalin for 20 min at ordinary temperature. Then, 0.1% crystal violet (Sigma-Aldrich) was used to stain the cells for 20 min at room temperature. After staining, the plates were washed and dried. The colonies (with more than 50 cells) were observed under a microscope (Leica, Germany).

Western blot analysis

Proteins were extracted using RIPA buffer mixed with 1% protease inhibitor cocktail (Beyotime, Shanghai, China). Ten percent sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) was applied to separate the cell proteins, and polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membranes were used for transfer. Five percent skim milk was used to block the membranes for 2 h. Then, the membranes were incubated with primary antibodies against TBL1XR1 (Abcam, ab228940), p-AKT (CST, 9271), p-PI3K (CST, 17366) and GAPDH (Abclonal, A19056) at 4 °C overnight. The second day, secondary antibodies were added and incubated with the PVDF membranes for 1 h at room temperature. A Gel Doc 2000 system (Bio-Rad, United States) was used to detect protein expression.

Cell cycle and apoptosis analyses

For cell cycle analysis, PDAC cells with different treatments were fixed with 75% ethanol at 4°C overnight. Then, the cells were centrifuged for precipitation and incubated with 5 μ L of RNase and 5 μ L of PI at room temperature. For cell apoptosis analysis, PDAC cells with different treatments were resuspended with 1 \times Annexin V binding buffer and Annexin V and PI at 37 °C. After incubation for half an hour, the apoptotic cell and cell cycle ratios were detected with flow cytometric analysis.

Animal study

Four- to six-week-old nu/nu nude mice were purchased from the Shanghai Laboratory Animal Centre of the Chinese Academy of Sciences (Shanghai, China). The mice were randomly divided into the Lv-shCTRL group and the Lv-shTBL1XR1 group. One hundred thousand Panc1 cells were resuspended in 0.1 mL of serum-free medium and hypodermically inoculated into the right axilla of the mice. After approximately 4 wk, the mice were sacrificed, and the subcutaneous tumors were measured and weighed. The volume of the tumors was calculated by the following formula: Volume = length (mm) \times width² (mm²)/2.

Statistical analysis

All experiments were repeated at least 3 times, and the results are expressed as the mean \pm standard deviation unless otherwise stated. Student's *t* test was used to compare differences between the treated groups and the corresponding control groups; *P* < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Clinicopathological significance of TBL1XR1 expression in patients with PDAC

The clinicopathological features of the 90 PDAC patients are shown in **Table 1**. As illustrated in **Table 1**, the overexpression of TBL1XR1 was associated with TNM stage ($P = 0.006$) but not with patient age ($P = 0.652$), gender ($P = 1.000$), histopathological subtype ($P = 0.929$), tumor size ($P = 0.465$), tumor location ($P = 0.065$) or lymph node metastasis ($P = 0.050$). To additionally confirm the importance of TBL1XR1 in PDAC, we analyzed the overall survival (OS) of 90 patients by the Kaplan-Meier method (**Table 2**). **Table 2** and **Figure 1A** show that patients with TBL1XR1-negative expression displayed a longer OS than those with TBL1XR1-positive expression ($P < 0.001$). Moreover, TNM stage ($P < 0.001$) and lymph node metastasis ($P = 0.047$) were obviously related to the average survival time. Furthermore, the Cox proportional hazards model was used in multivariate analysis. As shown in **Table 3**, TBL1XR1 expression, TNM stage and lymph node metastasis were found to be significant independent prognostic factors for patients with PDAC, suggesting that TBL1XR1 expression is a risk factor for PDAC.

Enhanced expression of TBL1XR1 in PDAC tissues and cell lines

To investigate the possible role of TBL1XR1 in PDAC, we used IHC staining to investigate the relationship between TBL1XR1 expression and the clinicopathological features of the patients with PDAC (**Figure 1B**). IHC staining revealed that TBL1XR1 was mainly localized in the PDAC cell nucleus. The positive rate of TBL1XR1 staining in the tumor cells was approximately 70% (63/90) of the PDAC patients. Only 30% (27/90) of the patients possessed positive staining in the corresponding control tissues (**Figure 1C**, $P < 0.001$).

To determine the expression of TBL1XR1 in the PDAC tumor tissues and the adjacent normal tissues, we performed quantitative RT-PCR (qRT-PCR) and western blot assays. As illustrated in **Figure 2A** and **B**, enhanced expression of TBL1XR1 was observed in the PDAC tissues compared with the adjacent tissues. Then, we used MiaPaCa-2, Panc1, Aspc-1, and Capan1 cell lines to evaluate the role of TBL1XR1 in PDAC cell lines. TBL1XR1 expression at the mRNA and protein levels was examined *via* qRT-PCR and western blotting. We observed that TBL1XR1 was overexpressed in the PDAC cell lines, particularly in the Aspc-1 and Panc1 lines, at the mRNA (**Figure 2C**) and protein (**Figure 2D**) levels. Taken together, these data suggest that TBL1XR1 is upregulated in PDAC.

Effects of TBL1XR1 on the proliferation and apoptosis of PDAC cells

We performed CCK-8 and colony formation assays to further evaluate the effect of TBL1XR1 on the proliferation of PDAC cells. We knocked down the expression of TBL1XR1 in the Aspc-1 and Panc1 cells, and the knockdown efficiency is shown in **Figure 3A** and **B**. The CCK-8 assay showed that the downregulation of TBL1XR1 prominently suppressed PDAC cell viability compared with that of the control cells ($P < 0.05$, **Figure 3C** and **D**). Moreover, colony formation analysis showed that the colony formation capacity was significantly reduced in the TBL1XR1-knockdown cells compared to that of the control group ($P < 0.05$, **Figure 3E**). These results suggested that TBL1XR1 may play a vital role in PDAC cell proliferation *in vitro*. Furthermore, we investigated whether TBL1XR1 played a role in the proliferation of PDAC cells *in vivo* using xenograft mouse models. As shown, the tumor volume and weight of the TBL1XR1-knockdown group were distinctly decreased compared to those of the control group (**Figure 3F** and **G**).

To explore the probable molecular mechanism of TBL1XR1 in PDAC cells, we detected the cell cycle and apoptotic profile of the Lv-shCTRL and Lv-shTBL1XR1 groups. As shown in **Figure 4A**, cell cycle analysis demonstrated that the cells treated with Lv-shTBL1XR1 exhibited cell arrest at the G0/G1 phase (**Figure 4A**). Moreover, we examined the protein expression of cell cycle-related regulatory genes to determine the impact of TBL1XR1 on the cell cycle by western blot assays. As depicted in **Figure 4B**, the protein expression levels of CDK2, CDC25A, or cyclin D1 in the Lv-shTBL1XR1 group were obviously lower than those in the control group. Therefore, we concluded that downregulation of TBL1XR1 induced PDAC cell cycle arrest at the G0/G1 phase by regulating the expression of cell cycle-related regulatory genes.

Furthermore, we performed an apoptosis assay to explore the effect of TBL1XR1 on apoptosis in PDAC cells. As shown in **Figure 4C**, an obvious increase in the percentage of apoptotic cells was observed in the TBL1XR1 knockdown group compared with the Lv-shCTRL group. Moreover, the knockdown of TBL1XR1 significantly enhanced the

Table 1 Association between transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1 expression and the clinicopathological parameters of pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma cells

Parameter	Category	Case number	TBL1XR1 expression		
			Number of positive cases, n (%)	χ^2	P value
Age (yrs)	< 60	40	27 (67.5)	0.214	0.652
	\geq 60	50	36 (72.0)		
Sex	Male	59	41 (69.5)	0.021	1.000
	Female	31	22 (71.0)		
Histopathological subtypes	High	3	2 (66.7)	0.146	0.929
	Middle	51	35 (68.6)		
	Low	36	26 (72.2)		
TNM stage	1-II	12	4 (33.3)	8.864	0.006 ^b
	III-IV	78	59 (75.6)		
Tumor size	< 3 cm	60	42 (66.7)	0.952	0.465
	\geq 3 cm	30	23 (76.7)		
Tumor location	Head	37	30 (81.1)	3.674	0.065
	Body/tail	53	33 (62.3)		
Lymph node metastasis	Negative	61	44 (72.1)	0.409	0.624
	Positive	29	19 (65.5)		

^bP < 0.01. TBL1XR1: Transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1; PDAC: Pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma; TNM: Tumor-node-metastasis.

expression of Bax and Bad and reduced the expression of Bcl-2 (Figure 4D). Taken together, these results suggest that TBL1XR1 might regulate PDAC cell apoptosis and cell cycle progression.

TBL1XR1 regulated the proliferation and apoptosis of PDAC cells via the PI3K/AKT pathway

To explore the potential mechanism by which TBL1XR1 influences proliferation and apoptosis in PDAC cells, we examined the expression changes of relevant proteins by western blotting. As shown in Figure 5A, the expression levels of p-AKT and p-PI3K were obviously reduced, while no significant effect on p-STAT3 and p-MEK was observed in the TBL1XR1 downregulation group, which indicated that TBL1XR1 might regulate PDAC cell proliferation and apoptosis *via* the phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase/protein kinase B (PI3K/AKT) pathway. To determine whether TBL1XR1 knockdown-induced inhibition of proliferation was regulated by the PI3K/AKT pathway, we assessed the effect of the presence or absence of LY294002 (a PI3K/Akt inhibitor) on the TBL1XR1-overexpressing cells. Unsurprisingly, overexpression of TBL1XR1 promoted proliferation and suppressed apoptosis in PDAC cells, which was consistent with previous results. LY294002 treatment reversed the TBL1XR1-mediated promotion of proliferation and inhibition of apoptosis (Figure 5B-D). Moreover, LY294002 inhibited the TBL1XR1 overexpression-induced increases in Bcl-2 and decreases in Bad and Bax (Figure 5E). Therefore, we deduced that TBL1XR1 induces PDAC cell proliferation, cell cycle arrest and apoptosis *via* the PI3K/AKT signaling pathway.

DISCUSSION

Although many studies have attempted to elucidate its pathogenesis, PDAC remains a deadly malignancy^[19]. Hence, identification of efficacious early tumor markers for the early diagnosis and treatment of PDAC will have clinical value and significance.

TBL1XR1 (TBLR1) was first identified as a gene transcript in human CD34+CD38-cells; moreover, researchers discovered that TBL1XR1 has an F-box/WD40-repeat

Table 2 Univariate log-rank analysis of overall survival

Parameter	Category	Case number	Median survival time (mo)	P value
			(95%CI)	
Age (yrs)	< 60	40	10.0 (4.8-15.2)	0.413
	≥ 60	50	9.7 (7.41-12.0)	
Sex	Male	59	9.9 (6.7-13.1)	0.983
	Female	31	9.9 (8.1-12.0)	
Histopathological subtypes	High	3	25.0 (-)	0.760
	Middle	51	10.3 (8.1-11.7)	
	Low	36	8.7 (6.0-11.4)	
TNM stage	1-II	12	25.0 (18.1-31.9)	< 0.001 ^c
	III-IV	78	8.0 (5.5-10.5)	
Tumor size	< 3 cm	60	9.8 (8.6-11.0)	0.251
	≥ 3 cm	30	8.3 (4.8-11.8)	
Tumor location	Head	37	9.3 (7.0-11.7)	0.095
	Body/tail	53	11.0 (6.0-16.0)	
Lymph node metastasis	Negative	61	12.0 (7.9-16.1)	0.047 ^a
	Positive	29	7.6 (5.3-9.8)	
TBL1XR1 expression	Low	27	18.9 (10.9-26.9)	< 0.001 ^c
	High	63	7.0 (5.7-8.3)	

^aP < 0.05,^cP < 0.001. TBL1XR1: Transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1; CI: Confidence interval; TNM: Tumor-node-metastasis.

sequence^[20]. A growing body of research has revealed that TBL1XR1 can play a vital role in tumorigenesis, invasion, metastasis, and the development of resistance to therapies^[15,21]. Moreover, TBL1XR1 mRNA is highly expressed in many human tissues, such as thyroid, prostate and breast tissues^[22], which indicates that TBL1XR1 may function as an oncogene. TBL1XR1 functions by activating many signal transduction pathways, such as Wnt-β-catenin, NF-κB, and Notch23. Nevertheless, it remains unclear how TBL1XR1 functions in the development of PDAC.

In this research, we discovered that the expression of TBL1XR1 was obviously enhanced in PDAC tissues compared with adjacent tissues. Moreover, we revealed that TBL1XR1 expression, TNM stage and lymph node metastasis were significant independent prognostic factors for patients with PDAC, suggesting that TBL1XR1 expression is a risk factor for PDAC. To further evaluate the function of TBL1XR1 in PDAC, we performed CCK-8 and colony formation assays, and the results showed that the downregulation of TBL1XR1 significantly suppressed PDAC cell proliferation. Moreover, we found that TBL1XR1 knockdown induced PDAC cell cycle arrest in G0/G1 phase and inhibited PDAC cell apoptosis *in vitro*. Additionally, the results of the *in vivo* animal analysis were consistent with the *in vitro* analysis, which indicated that TBL1XR1 might be a potential diagnostic target for PDAC.

The PI3K/AKT signaling pathway has a key impact on multiple cell processes, including cell growth, cell proliferation, angiopoiesis and survival, in both normal and tumor cells^[23]. In our study, we found that TBL1XR1 can induce PDAC cell proliferation and inhibit PDAC cell apoptosis. However, whether the PI3K/AKT signaling pathway is involved in the TBL1XR1-induced promotion of PDAC cell proliferation and inhibition of apoptosis is unknown. Thus, we explored the potential mechanism by which TBL1XR1 influences proliferation and apoptosis in PDAC cells, and we found that inhibition of the PI3K/AKT pathway reversed the TBL1XR1 promotion of proliferation and inhibition of apoptosis, indicating that TBL1XR1 might play an important role in regulating PDAC cell proliferation and apoptosis. In addition, the activity of Akt could be regulated through S-nitrosylation at the kinase cysteine residues, and it was reported to be associated with reduced kinase

Table 3 Multivariate analysis of overall survival

Parameter	Category	Hazard ratio	95%CI	P value
Age (yrs)	< 60	0.139	0.907 (0.544–1.514)	0.709
	≥ 60			
Sex	Male	0.013	1.031 (0.613–1.734)	0.908
	Female			
Histopathological subtypes	High	0.536	1.184 (0.754–1.859)	0.464
	Middle			
	Low			
TNM stage	1-II	5.692	3.046 (1.220–7.604)	0.017 ^a
	III-IV			
Tumor size	< 3 cm	1.297	1.378 (0.794–2.394)	0.255
	≥ 3 cm			
Tumor location	Head	3.450	1.487 (0.978–2.261)	0.063
	Body/tail			
Lymph node metastasis	Negative	7.855	2.231 (1.273–3.909)	0.005 ^b
	Positive			
TBL1XR1 expression	Low	13.951	3.507 (1.815–6.774)	< 0.001 ^c
	High			

^a*P* < 0.05.^b*P* < 0.01.^c*P* < 0.001. TBL1XR1: Transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1; CI: Confidence interval; TNM: Tumor-node-metastasis.

activity^[24,25], which provides us with another research direction. Overall, we illuminated the effect and mechanism of TBL1XR1 in human PDAC, and we believe that TBL1XR1 could be a promising diagnostic and therapeutic target for treating patients with advanced PDAC. Targeted therapy is an important aspect of precision therapy. We concluded that TBL1XR1 inhibitors might be promising therapeutic measures for PDAC; however, there are no inhibitors targeting TBL1XR1, which is worth investigating in the future.

In summary, our study showed that TBL1XR1 might regulate PDAC cell proliferation and apoptosis *via* the PI3K/AKT signaling pathway. Therefore, TBL1XR1 may be a promising diagnostic and therapeutic biomarker for patients with advanced PDAC.

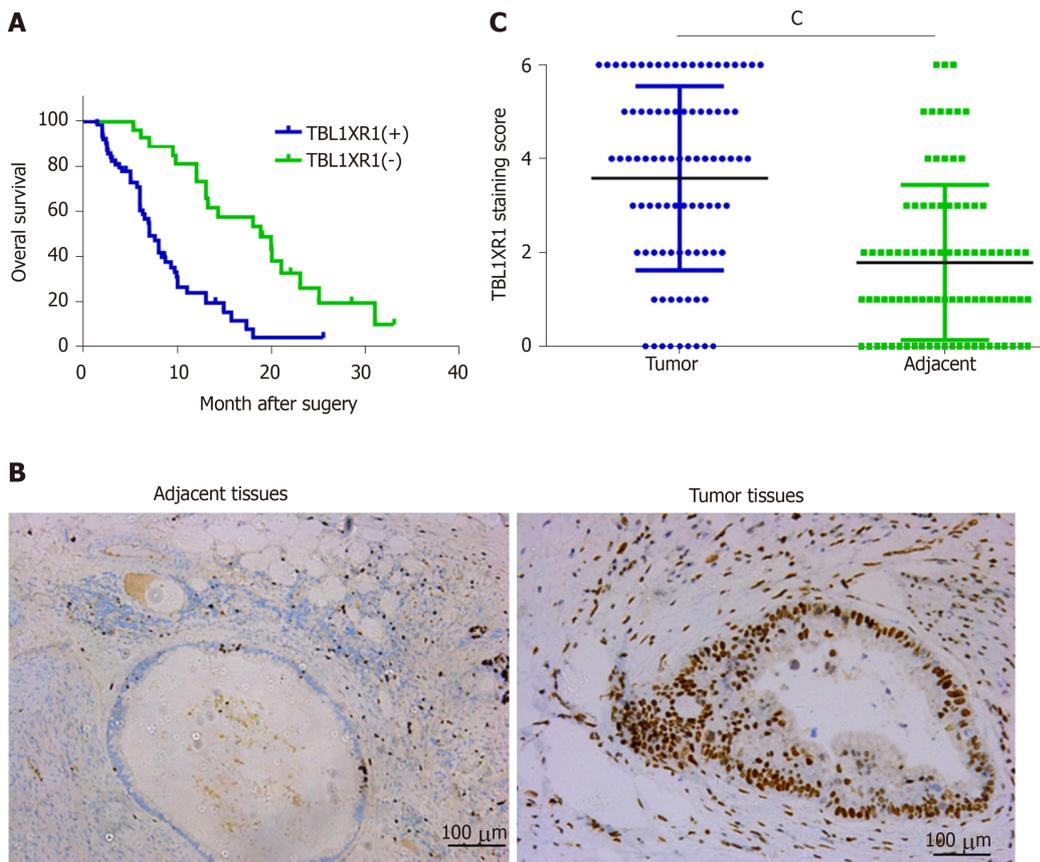


Figure 1 Clinicopathological significance of transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1 expression in patients with pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma. A: Kaplan–Meier plots of overall survival of pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) patients with positive and negative transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1 (TBL1XR1) expression scores; B: Negative and positive staining of TBL1XR1 in PDAC; C: The average staining scores of TBL1XR1 expression in PDAC tissues and adjacent tissues. $^{\circ}P < 0.001$. Scale bar, 100 μ m. TBL1XR1: Transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1.

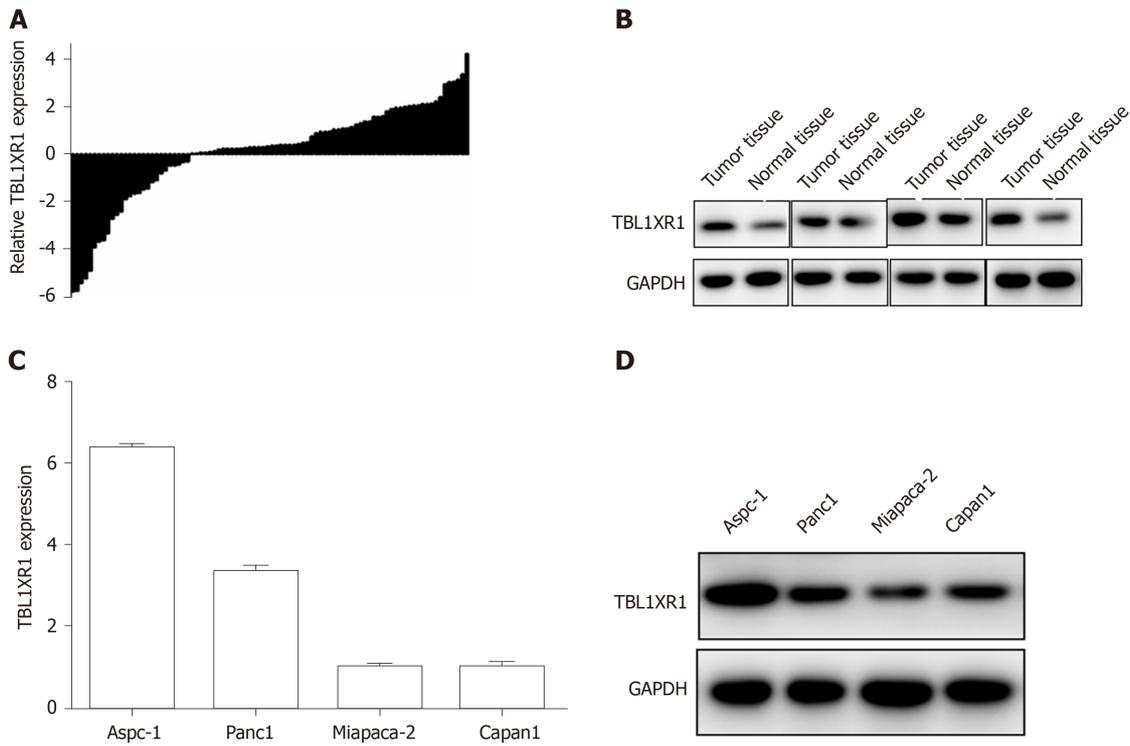


Figure 2 Enhanced expression of transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1 in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma tissues and cell lines. A and B: The mRNA and protein expression of transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1 (TBL1XR1) in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma tissues and adjacent nontumor tissues; C and D: The mRNA and protein expression of TBL1XR1 in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma cells. GAPDH: Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase; TBL1XR1: Transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1.

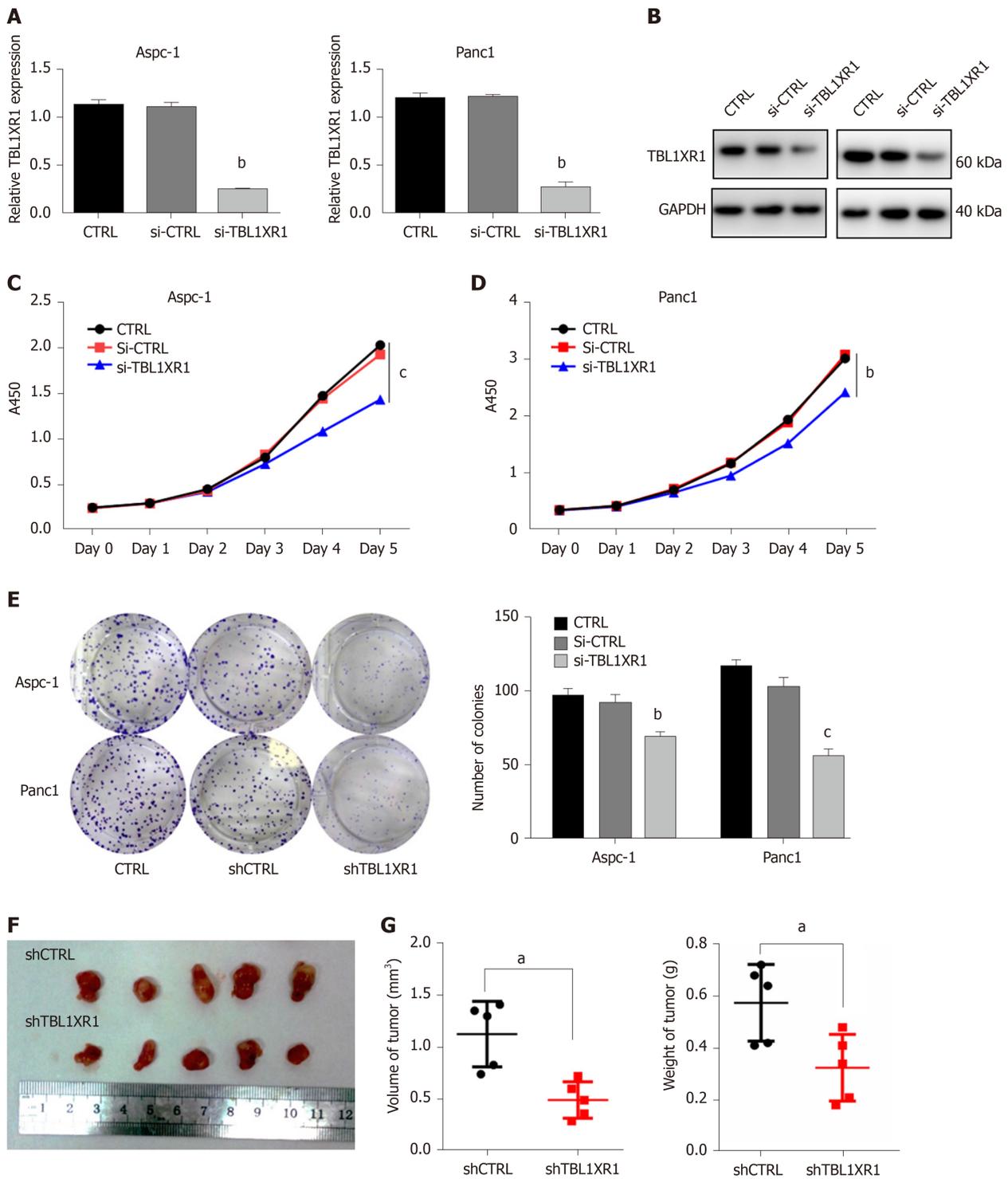
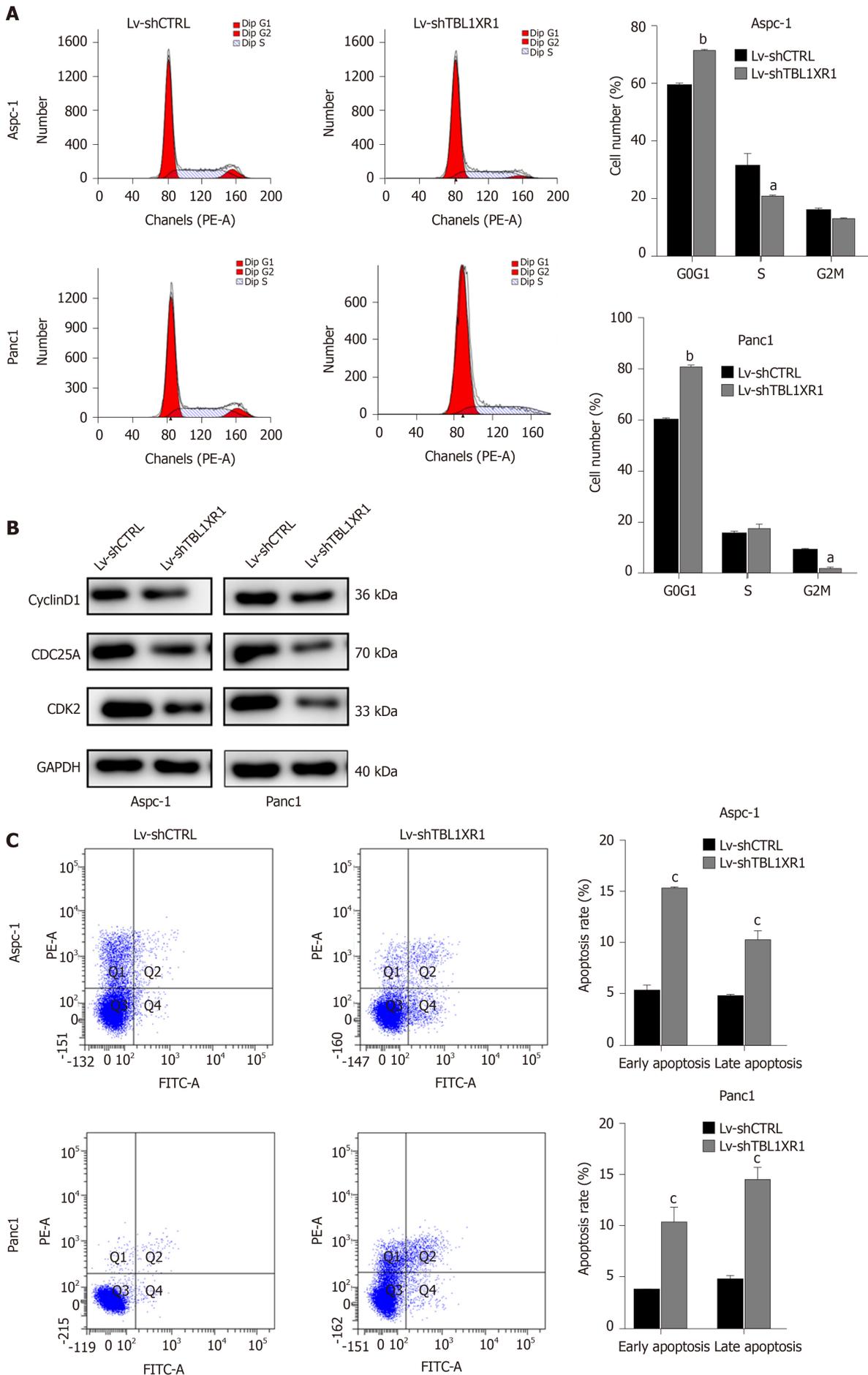


Figure 3 Transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1 exhibited oncogenic properties in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma cell lines. A: The transfection efficiency of transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1 (TBL1XR1) in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) cells by quantitative real-time PCR; B: The transfection efficiency of TBL1XR1 in PDAC cells by western blots; C and D: Cellular proliferation of untransfected or transfected Aspc-1 and Panc1 cells was measured using a CCK8 assay daily for 5 d; E: Aspc-1 and Panc1 cells were seeded at 500 cells/well, and the cells were allowed to form colonies. Colony numbers were counted and recorded; F: Mice were treated with Lv-shCTRL and Lv-shTBL1XR1 PDAC cells; G: Tumor volumes and weights were measured. ^a*P* < 0.05, ^b*P* < 0.01, ^c*P* < 0.001. GAPDH: Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase; TBL1XR1: Transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1; CTRL: Control; Si-CTRL: CTRL siRNA; Si-TBL1XR1: TBL1XR1 siRNA; ShRNA: Short hairpin RNA; ShCTRL: CTRL shRNA; ShTBL1XR1: TBL1XR1 shRNA.



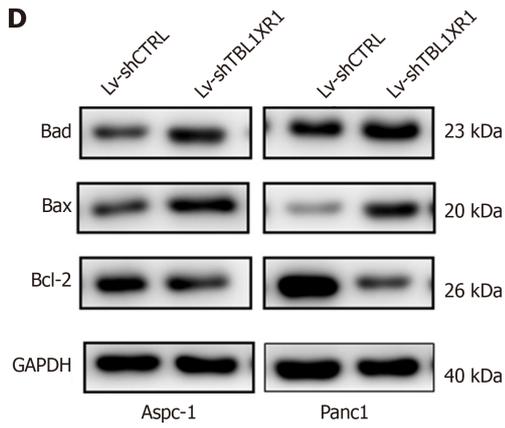
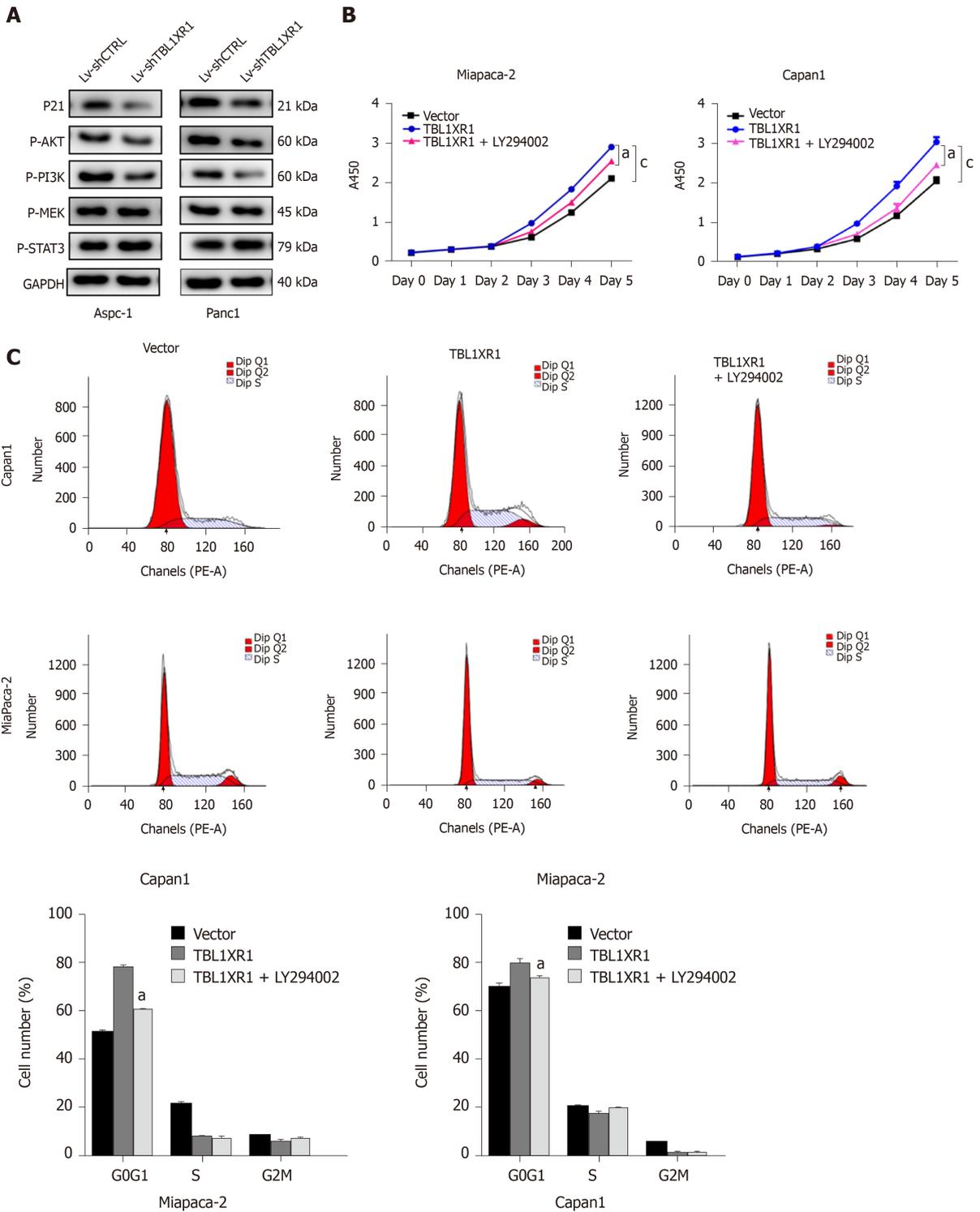


Figure 4 Effects of transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1 silencing on cell cycle progression and apoptosis. A: The cell cycle phases of treated cells were evaluated by flow cytometry after transfection for 48 h. The X-axis indicates the different periodic distribution, and the y-axis indicates the number of cells. B: The protein levels of cell cycle regulators, such as CDK2, CDC25A and cyclinD1, were examined by western blotting analysis. C: Untransfected and transfected pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma cells were analyzed by flow cytometry with annexin V–fluorescein 5-isothiocyanate/propidium iodide (PI) staining. The X-axis indicates annexin V–fluorescein 5-isothiocyanate, and the Y-axis indicates PI staining. Annexin V/PI⁺ represents necrotic cells, annexin V⁺/PI represents early apoptotic cells, and annexin V⁺/PI⁺ represents late apoptotic cells. D: The protein levels of bad, bax and bcl-2 were examined by western blotting analysis. ^a $P < 0.05$, ^b $P < 0.01$, ^c $P < 0.001$. GAPDH: Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase; TBL1XR1: Transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1.



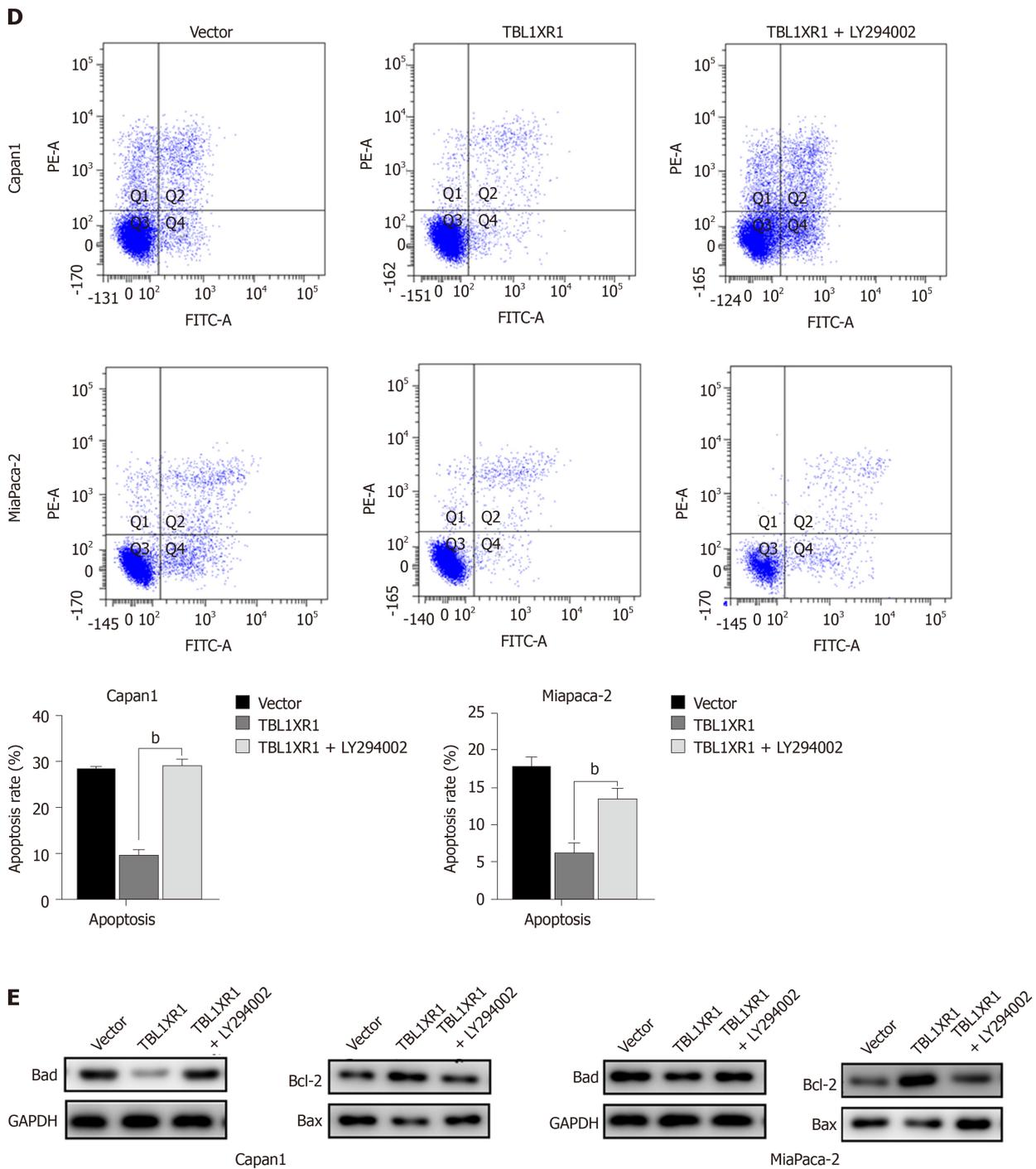


Figure 5 Transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1 regulates phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase/protein kinase B signaling in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma cells. A: Western blot analysis of phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase/protein kinase B (PI3K/Akt) signaling-related proteins in both cell lines. GAPDH was used as a loading control; B: Cellular proliferation of pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) cells treated with or without the PI3K/Akt pathway inhibitor LY294002 was measured using a CCK-8 assay daily for 5 d; C: Cell cycle phase analysis and apoptosis of PDAC cells treated with or without LY294002 were analyzed by flow cytometry. The X-axis indicates the different periodic distributions, and the Y-axis indicates the number of cells. D: Apoptosis analysis of PDAC cells treated with or without LY294002 was analyzed by flow cytometry. The Y-axis indicates V-fluorescein 5-isothiocyanate, and the Y-axis indicates propidium iodide (PI) staining. Annexin V/PI+ represents necrotic cells, annexin V+/PI- represents early apoptotic cells, and annexin V+/PI+ represents late apoptotic cells. E: Western blot analysis of PI3K/Akt signaling-related proteins in PDAC cells treated with or without LY294002. GAPDH: Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase; TBL1XR1: Transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

Pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) is one of the deadliest and most aggressive solid tumors and has a poor prognosis. Transducin (β)-like 1 X-linked receptor 1 (TBL1XR1) has been linked to the progression of various human cancers. Nevertheless, the function and role of TBL1XR1 in pancreatic cancers are unclear.

Research motivation

PDAC is one of the deadliest solid tumors. Identification of diagnostic and therapeutic biomarker of PDAC is urgently needed. TBL1XR1 has been linked to the progression of various human cancers. Nevertheless, the function and role of TBL1XR1 are unclear in pancreatic cancers.

Research objectives

To explore the potential effect and mechanism of TBL1XR1 in the development of PDAC.

Research methods

Ninety histologically confirmed PDAC patients were enrolled in this study. PDAC cancer samples and cell lines were used to determine the expression of TBL1XR1. CCK-8 assays and colony formation analysis were performed to assess the viability of PDAC cells. Flow cytometry was carried out to analyze changes in the cell cycle and apoptosis. Related protein expression changes were determined by western blot analysis. Animal analysis was performed to confirm the impact of TBL1XR1 *in vivo*.

Research results

The results showed that patients with TBL1XR1-positive tumors had worse overall survival than those with TBL1XR1-negative tumors. Moreover, we found that TBL1XR1 obviously promoted PDAC cell proliferation and inhibited PDAC cell apoptosis. Moreover, knockdown of TBL1XR1 induced G0/G1 phase arrest. *In vivo* animal studies confirmed that TBL1XR1 accelerated tumor cell growth. The results of western blot analysis showed that TBL1XR1 might play a significant role in regulating PDAC cell proliferation and apoptosis *via* the PI3K/AKT pathway.

Research conclusions

TBL1XR1 promotes PDAC cell progression and might be a probable effective diagnostic and therapeutic marker for pancreatic cancer.

Research perspectives

TBL1XR1 may be an effective diagnosis and therapeutic marker for pancreatic cancer

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Basic Study

Retrievable puncture anchor traction method for endoscopic
ultrasound-guided gastroenterostomy: A porcine study

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Institutional animal care and use committee statement: The study was reviewed and approved by the Ethics Review Committee and Ethics Committee of Shengjing Hospital of China Medical University (No. 2018PS482K). All animal experiments conformed to the internationally accepted principles for the care and use of laboratory animals.

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Abstract

BACKGROUND

Endoscopic ultrasound-guided gastroenterostomy (EUS-GE) is an alternative method for the surgical treatment of gastric outlet obstruction, but it is regarded as a challenging technique for endoscopists as the bowel is highly mobile and can tent away. Thus, the technique requires superb skill. In order to improve EUS-GE, we have developed a retrievable puncture anchor traction (RPAT) device for EUS-GE to address the issue of bowel tenting.

AIM

To evaluate the feasibility of RPAT-assisted EUS-GE using an animal model.

METHODS

Six Bama mini pigs each weighing between 15 and 20 kg underwent the RPAT-assisted EUS-GE procedure. Care was taken to ensure that the animals experienced minimal pain and discomfort. Two days prior to the procedure the animals were limited to a liquid diet. No oral intake was allowed on the day before the procedure. A fully covered metal stent was placed between the stomach and the intestine using the RPAT-assisted EUS-GE method. Infection in the animals was determined. Four weeks after the procedure, a standard gastroscope was inserted into the pig's intestine through a previously created fistula in order to check the status of the stents under anesthesia. The pig was euthanized after examination.

RESULTS

The RPAT-assisted EUS-GE method allowed placement of the stents with no complications in all six animals. All the pigs tolerated a regular diet within hours of the procedure. The animals were monitored for four weeks after the RPAT-assisted EUS-GE, during which time all of the animals exhibited normal eating behavior and no signs of infection were observed. Endoscopic imaging performed

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four weeks after the RPAT-assisted EUS-GE showed that the stents remained patent and stable in all the animals. No tissue overgrowth or ingrowth was observed in any case. Each animal had a mature fistula, and the stents were removed without significant bleeding. Autopsies of all six pigs revealed complete adhesion between the intestine and the stomach wall.

CONCLUSION

The RPAT method helps reduce mobility of the bowel. Therefore, the RPAT-assisted EUS-GE method is a minimally invasive treatment modality.

Key words: Retrievable puncture anchor; Endoscopic ultrasound; Endoscopic ultrasound-guided gastroenterostomy; Gastric outlet obstruction; Gastroenterostomy; Electrocautery-enhanced delivery of lumen-apposing metal stents

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Core tip: To evaluate the feasibility of retrievable puncture anchor traction (RPAT)-assisted endoscopic ultrasound-guided gastroenterostomy (EUS-GE), six Bama mini pigs underwent the RPAT-assisted EUS-GE procedure. Four weeks later, a standard gastroscope was inserted into the pig's intestine through a previously created fistula in order to check the status of the stents under anesthesia. The pigs were euthanized after examination. The results showed that the RPAT-assisted EUS-GE method allowed placement of the stents with no complications in all six animals. This study proved that the RPAT method helps reduce mobility of the bowel. Therefore, the RPAT-assisted EUS-GE method is a minimally invasive treatment modality.

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INTRODUCTION

Endoscopic ultrasound-guided gastroenterostomy (EUS-GE) has become an alternative to the surgical or standard endoscopic treatment methods for gastric outlet obstruction (GOO) when endoscopic stents cannot be placed. However, EUS-GE presents certain challenges and the current procedural methods have limitations. One source of difficulty during EUS-GE is the high mobility of the intestine, which can tent away during puncture with a needle or electrocautery-enhanced delivery of lumen-apposing metal stents (ECE-LAMS). In order to improve EUS-GE, we developed a retrieval puncture anchor traction (RPAT) method for EUS-GE. We evaluated the feasibility of the RPAT method using a pig model.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals

Six Bama mini pigs (15-20 kg) were selected to undergo the RPAT method of EUS-GE, which consisted of placing fully covered metal stents between the animals' stomach and bowel walls. This pig model study was approved by the Ethics Review Committee and Ethics Committee of Shengjing Hospital of China Medical University (No. 2018PS482K).

Preoperative preparation

Each pig received a full liquid diet two days before the operation, and drinking water was forbidden the day before surgery. Based on the weight of each animal, propofol was intramuscularly injected for the induction of anesthesia. The pigs were placed on their left side. Venous access was established through the ear vein. The animals'

breathing was maintained by the insertion of a tracheal tube. The animals were monitored with continuous cardiopulmonary monitoring.

RPA

The RPA (Vedkang Inc., Changzhou, Jiangsu, China) is made up of two wires (Figure 1A). The direction of the anchor head can be altered by pulling the retrieval wire (Figure 1B). The anchor can be sent through the needle (Figure 1C and D)^[1].

Operative procedure

RPAT method of EUS-GE: First, a gastroscope was advanced into the duodenum. A guidewire (0.035 inch/480 mm; Cook Medical Inc., Bloomington, IN, United States) was sent through the working channel of the gastroscope. A nasal biliary drainage catheter (NBDC) (7Fr; Cook Medical Inc., Limerick, Ireland) was then inserted along the guidewire. Next, the gastroscope and guidewire were removed, leaving the NBDC in place. Approximately 200 mL of saline solution containing methylene blue was injected into the bowel through the NBDC to optimally dilate the bowel and facilitate the subsequent EUS-guided puncture. Methylene blue was added to confirm bowel placement by aspirating the blue saline solution with a needle (described below) before the ECE-LAMS insertion. A longitudinal (linear) ultrasound endoscope (EG-3830-UT; Pentax Japan) was inserted into the stomach and the puncture area (*i.e.*, the closest area between the intestine and the stomach) was marked. We used color Doppler to prevent vascular damage during the puncture. A needle (19-G, Boston Scientific Corp., Massachusetts, United States) was then passed through the working channel, and the intestine was punctured under EUS guidance (Figure 2A and B). After removal of the stylet, saline solution with methylene blue was drawn out and a contrast agent was injected for endoscopy. The RPAT was then passed through the needle (Figure 2C and D) and inserted into the small intestine. The needle and the echoendoscope were removed over the wire of the RPAT. The small bowel was pulled with the anchor (Figure 2E and F). RPAT only pulls the intestinal canal during stent implantation to prevent free action, so the pulling action is gentle rather than violent. During the procedure, we did not observe the angle of the digestive tract wall due to stretching. The echoendoscope was reinserted into the stomach and the 19-G needle was advanced through the working channel. Additional saline solution with methylene blue was injected through the NBDC using multiple 50-mL syringes if the bowel expansion was insufficient. The identified small-bowel loop was punctured under EUS guidance followed by aspiration of the methylene blue solution to confirm the correct puncture site when the small bowel was pulled with the anchor. The guidewire was inserted through the needle. Next, the needle was removed, and ECE-LAMS (16 mm/30 mm; Micro-Tech/Nan Jing Co., Ltd. Nanjing, Jiangsu, China) was inserted over the guidewire and released into the small intestine until the distal flares were fully open under EUS guidance (Figure 2G and Figure H). Through endoscope monitoring, while keeping the proximal section in the field of vision, the rest of the stent was released. Finally, the stent was confirmed and leakages were excluded by EUS (Figure 3A and B). After the operation, the retrieval cord was pulled using a pair of forceps (Figure 2I and J). This changed the direction of the anchor and made it easy to remove (Figure 2K and L).

Postoperative care: Postoperatively, the pigs were observed for signs of peritonitis. Four weeks after surgery, the pigs underwent anesthesia, and a standard gastroscope was used to examine the pigs' intestines. After removing the metal stent using a pair of forceps, the gastroscope was advanced into the afferent and efferent bowel loops (Figure 3C and D). X-ray examination was performed to check for the presence of free gas. All pigs were then euthanized (Figure 4).

RESULTS

All six operations were successfully performed. Each metal stent was placed successfully, and the EUS-GEs selected the body of the stomach as the puncture site in each case. All RPAs were able to be removed with no complications. No animal showed signs of peritonitis or any other complications after the procedure. Within a few hours after anesthesia, the pigs were able to tolerate a regular diet. No clinically significant adverse reactions were observed in the following weeks. Four weeks after EUS-GE, it was confirmed that the stents remained intact, in their original positions, with no hyperplastic tissue overgrowth or ingrowth in any animal. The fistulas were

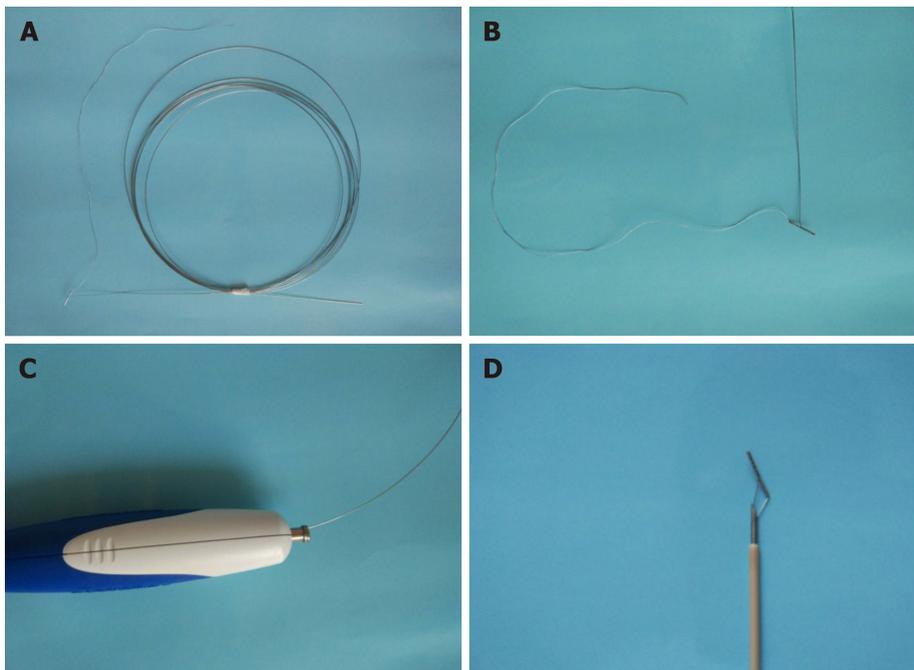


Figure 1 The retrievable puncture anchor. A: The retrievable puncture anchor (Vedkang Inc., Changzhou, Jiangsu, China) in its entirety; B: The head of the anchor; C and D: A view of the passage of the anchor along the shaft of the puncture needle.

mature in all six pigs and all the stents were easily removed using forceps without significant bleeding. On autopsy, there were no signs of bleeding, organ damage, or peritonitis, and complete adhesions of the intestines to the stomach wall were seen.

DISCUSSION

Surgical GE is a traditional choice for patients with malignant GOO. Intraluminal self-expanding metal stents (SEMS) placed through the endoscope is another method to relieve GOO^[2-4]. Surgical GE is superior to endoscopic SEMS placement in terms of lumen patency^[4]; however, adverse events including delayed gastric emptying, extended hospital stay, increased cost of hospitalization, and delayed treatment of cancer are not uncommon^[4,5]. The main limitation of placing SEMS endoscopically is repeated occlusion of the lumen, which is mainly due to tumor ingrowth, overgrowth, or both^[4]. In general, EUS-GE can provide durable lumen patency, avoid the risk of tumor overgrowth and ingrowth, and avoids the need for surgery in patients with end-stage disease^[6]. In 2002, Fritscher-Ravens *et al*^[7] reported the results of EUS-GE using special compression buttons in pigs. In 2012, Binmoeller *et al*^[8] described the use of a new intraluminal metal stent in a porcine model that was used to invent an EUS-GE anastomosis. Recently, Itoi *et al*^[9] used another endoluminal stent for EUS-GE.

The emergence of stents allows easier creation of anastomoses between the small intestine and the stomach wall. These stents are fully covered with flanges at either end to prevent leakage and migration. The EUS-GE technique using an echoendoscope is an excellent means of providing endoscopic access to the duodenal or jejunal lumen distal to obstructed intestinal segments. Various techniques have been used with EUS-GE^[10], including antegrade EUS-GE (the “traditional/downstream” method and the “rendezvous method”), retrograde EUS-GE, EUS-guided double-balloon-occluded GE, and direct EUS-GE^[9,11-13].

One of the challenges associated with direct EUS-GE is the inability to puncture the small bowel, despite the use of an ECE-LAMS, resulting in it being pushed away rather than punctured^[11]. Inadequate expansion of the small bowel or rapid dissipation of the infused contrast and methylene blue (due to peristalsis) can also be limiting factors^[11]. The RPAT method for EUS-GE did not use glucagon or other antispasmodic drugs to reduce the mobility of the bowel. The RPA can pull the intestine closer to the stomach wall to reduce intestinal mobility. Compared with traditional EUS-GE, RPAT reduces the distance between the stomach and the bowel, and provides sufficient reverse tension during ECE-LAMS implantation. With sufficient opposite pulling

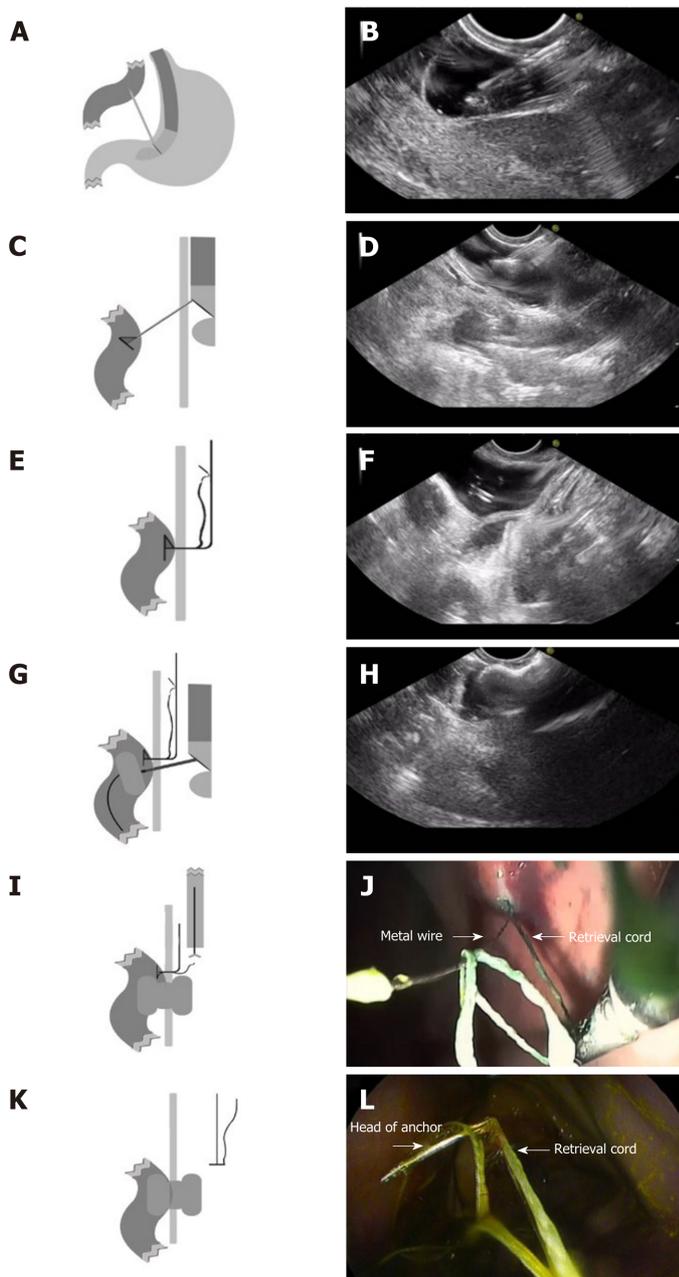


Figure 2 The retrievable puncture anchor traction method. A: Schematic diagram: The bowel is punctured under endoscopic ultrasound (EUS) guidance; B: Endoscopic ultrasound image: The bowel is punctured under EUS guidance; C: Schematic diagram: The retrievable puncture anchor is passed through the needle; D: Endoscopic ultrasound image: The anchor is inserted into the bowel; E: Schematic diagram: After pulling out the needle, the anchor attaches to the bowel; F: Endoscopic ultrasound image: After pulling out the needle, the anchor attaches to the bowel; G: Schematic diagram: The identified small-bowel loop is punctured again under EUS guidance. A guidewire is inserted through the needle. The small bowel is shown being punctured and drained using electrocautery-enhanced delivery of lumen-apposing metal stents over the guidewire; H: Endoscopic ultrasound image: The anchor-grasped bowel is shown under traction for stent implantation; I: Schematic diagram: The retrieval cord is pulled using a pair of forceps; J: Endoscopy image: The retrieval cord is pulled using a pair of forceps; K: Schematic diagram: The retrievable puncture anchor is easily removed; L: Endoscopy image: The retrievable puncture anchor is easily removed.

force, the ECE-LAMS is relatively easy to implant. The stomach wall and intestine of six experimental animals were clearly visible in the ultrasound field of view during the entire surgical procedure. We used an NBDC in the RPAT method to reduce the procedure time for EUS-GE, while avoiding the infusion of large amounts of saline into the intestine to prevent colon swelling. Prior to puncturing and guidewire insertion, a saline solution containing methylene blue was added in order to maintain the expansion of the bowel, provide a better field of view, and improve the safety of the operation.

In contrast to other techniques used with EUS-GE, the RPAT method for EUS-GE does not use a balloon, which reduces the difficulty of performing the operation as the advancement of the dilated balloon over the guidewire under fluoroscopic guidance

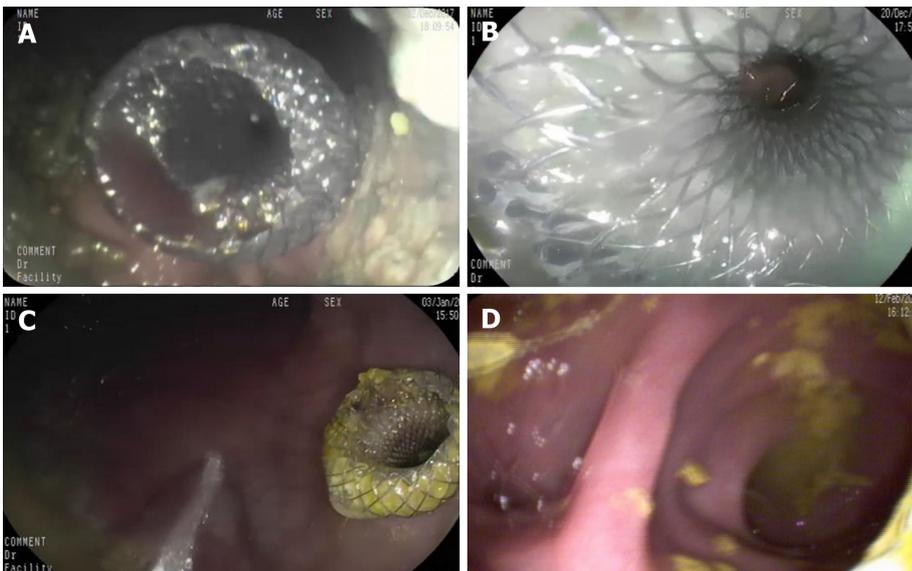


Figure 3 Endoscopic imaging of stent placement and anastomoses. A and B: Endoscopic imaging shows the well-reflected proximal flange of the stent immediately after deployment in the initial session; C: The stents were still in the same position 4 wk later and no traumatic changes were observed; D: A standard gastroscope was easily advanced through the anastomosis to observe the afferent and efferent bowel loops.

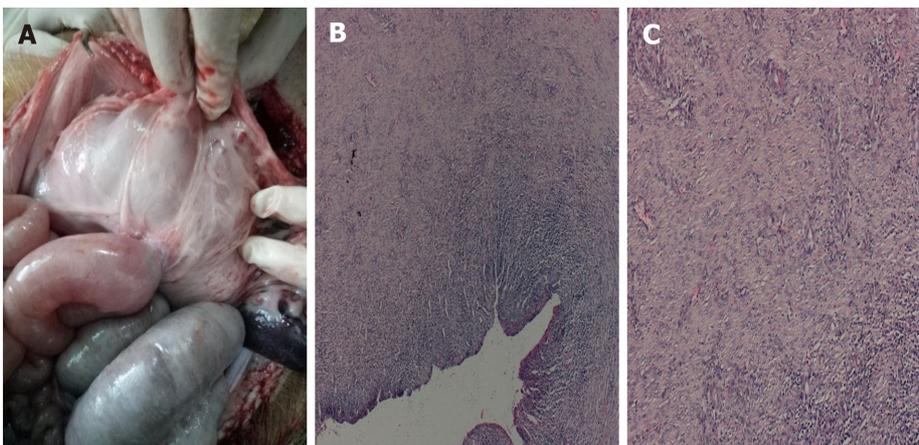


Figure 4 Autopsy and histological findings. A-C: Necropsy and histological evidence shows complete adhesion between the bowel and the stomach wall (20 ×).

can be quite challenging. Moreover, the RPAT method for EUS-GE is suitable for cases where the digestive tract is severely stenotic, allowing only the passage of liquid solution. The RPAT method for EUS-GE can help pull the intestine by pulling the anchor and can inflate the intestine by allowing the injection of saline solution through the NBDC at any time.

Although advanced EUS techniques and the availability of the proper equipment allow EUS-GE to be performed, the procedure is still in its early stages of development. This new technique is accompanied by technical issues requiring instrument modification that must be addressed prior to its clinical application^[10,14-21]. Interventional EUS treatment is a newly developed method for the treatment of many diseases^[9,19-22]. The small bowel has variable motility and thus tents away from the puncturing needle or the cautery tip of the ECE-LAMS. Hence, we have developed the RPAT method to improve the current EUS-GE method.

The success rate of EUS-GE using the RPAT method was 100% in our study. Remarkably, the retrievable puncture devices anchor to the bowel without causing tissue injury, and the RPA can also be removed without complications. Four weeks after the EUS-GE, it was found that all the stents remained in their original positions. Necropsy revealed complete adhesion between the intestinal wall and the stomach wall.

There are a few limitations in this study. First, the study consisted of a small

number of animals. Second, the follow-up period was four weeks, limiting the evaluation of long-term observations and results. Lastly, the procedure outcomes and findings were not compared to those of other non-EUS-guided gastrojejunostomy techniques^[8]. A larger study with a longer follow-up period that compares several gastrojejunostomy techniques is needed.

In general, we proved the technical success of the RPAT method used with EUS-GE in a pig model. The RPAT method for EUS-GE is promising as a minimally invasive treatment. Clinical prospective trials are warranted to verify the efficacy of this treatment method. We are convinced that this treatment method can be widely used in EUS-GE in the future.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

Endoscopic ultrasound-guided gastroenterostomy (EUS-GE) is an alternative method for the surgical treatment of gastric outlet obstruction (GOO), but it is regarded as a challenging technique for endoscopists as the bowel is highly mobile and can tent away. Thus, the technique requires superb skill. In order to improve EUS-GE, we have developed a retrievable puncture anchor traction (RPAT) device for EUS-GE to address the issue of bowel tenting.

Research motivation

One source of difficulty in EUS-GE is the high mobility of the intestine, which can tent away during puncture with a needle or electrocautery-enhanced delivery of lumen-apposing metal stents. In order to improve EUS-GE, we developed a RPAT method for EUS-GE. We evaluated the feasibility of the RPAT method using a pig model.

Research objectives

The present study aimed to use an animal model to evaluate the feasibility of RPAT-assisted EUS-GE.

Research methods

Six Bama mini pigs each weighing between 15 and 20 kg underwent the RPAT-assisted EUS-GE procedure. Care was taken to ensure that the animals experienced minimal pain and discomfort. Two days prior to the procedure the animals were limited to a liquid diet. No oral intake was allowed on the day before the procedure. A fully covered metal stent was placed between the stomach and the intestine using the RPAT-assisted EUS-GE method. Infection in the animals was determined. Four weeks after the procedure, a standard gastroscope was inserted into the pig's intestine through a previously created fistula in order to check the status of the stents under anesthesia. The pigs were euthanized after examination.

Research results

The RPAT-assisted EUS-GE method allowed placement of the stents with no complications in all six animals. All the pigs tolerated a regular diet within hours of the procedure. The animals were monitored for four weeks after the RPAT-assisted EUS-GE, during which time all of the animals exhibited normal eating behavior and no signs of infection were observed. Endoscopic imaging performed four weeks after RPAT-assisted EUS-GE showed that the stents remained patent and stable in all the animals. No tissue overgrowth or ingrowth was observed. Each animal had a mature fistula, and the stents were removed without significant bleeding. Autopsies of all six pigs revealed complete adhesion between the intestine and the stomach wall.

Research conclusions

The RPAT method helps reduce mobility of the bowel. Therefore, the RPAT-assisted EUS-GE method is a minimally invasive treatment modality.

Research perspectives

We proved the technical success of the RPAT method used with EUS-GE in a pig model. The RPAT method for EUS-GE is promising as a minimally invasive treatment. Clinical prospective trials are warranted to verify the efficacy of this treatment method. We are convinced that this treatment method can be widely used in EUS-GE in the future.

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Case Control Study

Risk factors associated with inflammatory bowel disease: A multicenter case-control study in Brazil

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Abstract

BACKGROUND

The etiology of inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) is unknown, but it is believed to be multifactorial. The hygiene hypothesis proposes that better hygiene conditions would lead to less infectious disease during childhood and favor the development of immune-mediated diseases.

AIM

To test the hygiene hypothesis in IBD by assessing the environmental risk factors associated with IBD development in different regions of Brazil with diverse socioeconomic development indices.

METHODS

A multicenter case-control study was carried out with 548 Crohn's disease (CD) and 492 ulcerative colitis (UC) outpatients and 416 healthy controls, from six IBD centers within different Brazilian states at diverse socioeconomic development stages. A semi-structured questionnaire with 87 socioeconomic and environmental questions was applied. Logistic regression model was created to assess the odds ratio (OR) with *P* value and 95% confidence intervals (CI).

RESULTS

Predictive variables for both diseases (CD and UC) were women [odd ratios (OR) = 1.31; OR = 1.69], low monthly family income (OR = 1.78; OR = 1.57), lower number of cohabitants (OR = 1.70; OR = 1.60), absence of vaccination (OR = 3.11; OR = 2.51), previous history of bowel infections (OR = 1.78; OR = 1.49), and family history of IBD (OR = 5.26; OR = 3.33). Associated risk factors for CD were age (18-39 years) (OR = 1.73), higher educational level (OR = 2.22), absence of infectious childhood diseases (OR = 1.99). The UC predictive variables were living in an urban area (OR = 1.62), inadequate living conditions (OR = 1.48) and former smokers (OR = 3.36). Appendectomy was a risk factor for CD (OR = 1.58) with inverse association with UC (OR = 4.79). Consumption of treated and untreated water was associated with risk of CD (OR = 1.38) and UC (OR = 1.53), respectively.

CONCLUSION

This is the first examining environmental exposures as risk factors for inflammatory bowel disease in Brazil. Most of the variables associated with disease risk support the role of the hygiene hypothesis in IBD development.

Key words: Crohn's disease; Ulcerative colitis; Risk factors; Environmental factors; Hygiene hypothesis

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Core tip: Brazil is a country with continental dimensions comprising an ethnically diverse population living in different regions with extreme socioeconomic differences. The country is the perfect setting to test the hygiene hypothesis in inflammatory bowel disease development. Thus, the aim of this study was to identify inflammatory bowel disease environmental risk factors across different geographical regions in Brazil and evaluate if the hygiene hypothesis might explain interregional differences in prevalence and incidence.

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INTRODUCTION

Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) encompasses ulcerative colitis (UC) and Crohn's disease (CD), which are recurrent immune-mediated diseases characterized by a chronic inflammatory process that involves the gastrointestinal tract^[1,2]. The etiology of IBD is unknown, but it is believed to be multifactorial. Many theories have been put forward regarding IBD development; these have emphasized interactions between genetic susceptibility (genome), individual immunological factors (immunome), gut microbiota (microbiome), and environmental exposure (exposome), starting at the time of intrauterine life and going through childhood to adulthood and acting as likely triggers for the disease^[3-7].

IBD was initially recognized in Europe during the industrial revolution and today has substantially higher incidence and prevalence in developed countries^[1]. Although Latin America, and especially Brazil, is considered to be a region of low prevalence and incidence, its incidence has increased over the past few years^[3,8]. In Brazil, an incidence increase from 0.68 cases of CD per 100000 inhabitants in 1995 to 5.5 cases in 2015^[9] has been reported^[4]. Regarding prevalence, Brazilian studies such as the one conducted by Parente *et al*^[5] in 2015 found a prevalence of 12.8 cases per 100000 inhabitants in the northeastern region, while Lima Martins *et al*^[6] reported a prevalence of 38.2 cases per 100000 inhabitants in southeastern Brazil. Until the present study, no Brazilian epidemiological study encompassing the entire national territory had been undertaken^[9-11].

It has been proposed in the hygiene hypothesis that better hygiene conditions would cause less infectious disease during childhood and favor the development of immune-mediated diseases^[12]. The hygiene hypothesis could be explained by the impact of the presence or absence of epitope exposure to humans in a critical phase of immune system maturation, having long-lasting effects on immunity regulation. The incidence and prevalence rates of IBD might vary between countries. This can be explained by the interplay between different gene pools and distinct environmental factor exposure^[2]. Good hygiene and basic sanitation conditions, high degree of industrial development, and absence of population agglomerations have been considered risk factors for the development of IBD^[13].

Brazil is a country with continental dimensions comprising an ethnically diverse population living in different regions with extreme socioeconomic differences. The country is the perfect setting to test the hygiene hypothesis in IBD development. Thus, the aim of this study was to identify IBD environmental risk factors across different geographical regions in Brazil and evaluate if the hygiene hypothesis might explain interregional differences in prevalence/incidence.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study design and inclusion of patients

This was a multicenter case-control study with inclusion of IBD patients from 6 outpatient clinics in different Brazilian states: Federal University of Rio de Janeiro Hospital (Rio de Janeiro), Irmandade Santa Casa da Misericórdia of São Paulo (São Paulo) and Federal University of Juiz de Fora (Minas Gerais) representing the Southeastern region; Federal University of Brasília (Distrito Federal) representing the Central-western region; Federal University of Piauí (Piauí) and Roberto Santos General Hospital (Bahia) representing the Northeastern region. Patients enrolled in the study had an established diagnosis of IBD confirmed by standard clinical, endoscopic, radiologic and histologic criteria^[14,15]. Subjects were between 18-80 years of age, either sex. All patients were included in the study between May 2015 and June 2017.

The control group consisted of individuals who were accompanying the patients

seen at the various outpatient clinics of these hospitals, who were healthy and did not have any kinship with the cases. The diagnosis of psychiatric diseases or disorders that would compromise the level of consciousness or comprehension was considered to be exclusion criteria in both groups. The sample size was determined as a convenience sample, according to the number of cases registered in these outpatient units.

Data collection and definitions

The semi-structured questionnaire was a translated and modified version of a Canadian questionnaire^[13]. It consisted of 87 questions regarding a priori defined risk factors for the development of IBD, such as demographic and socioeconomic characteristics (age at enrolment, age at diagnosis, sex, ethnicity, migration, educational level, monthly income, living conditions, number of cohabitants, and rural or urban origin) and exposure variables (living with domestic animals, breast-feeding for at least 6 mo, consumption of treated water (filtered or boiled), vaccination (complete childhood vaccination card), contact with infectious and parasitic diseases (through laboratory tests), appendectomy, smoking, and family history of IBD with first degree relatives. Some of the variables evaluated referred to both childhood and adulthood before the diagnosis of IBD. Age at enrollment and age at diagnosis (self-reported by the cases) was stratified as follows: 18–39 years (< 40 years) and 40–80 years (> 40 years). The individuals included were divided according to ethnicity into white and non-white. Individuals were considered to be migrants when they moved from other states or country and as non-migrants when they were originated and lived all the time in the state where they were included in the study. In the evaluation of socioeconomic level, the educational level (elementary school, high school, higher education) and monthly family income (up to 3 minimum wages, 3 to 5 minimum wages, more than 5 minimum wages; using the amounts that were currently applicable at the time of the interview) were considered. Living conditions at childhood were defined as adequate when the home was constructed using bricks, had sewage collection, and piped water supply systems; otherwise, the residence was defined as inadequate. The number of cohabitants was evaluated at two times: During the interview (up to 1 cohabitant, 2 to 3, 4 to 8) and during childhood (1 to 3 cohabitants, 4 to 6, 7 or more). According to the 2010 census of the Brazilian Institute for Geography and Statistics^[16], living in an urban area was considered to refer to state capitals, smaller towns, and more isolated urban areas. If these parameters were not met, the home in childhood was considered to be in a rural area. Exposure to tobacco was characterized into three subgroups: Current smokers (individuals who had been smoking more than 1 cigarette/day for at least 6 mo before the diagnosis), former smokers (individuals who had stopped smoking more than 6 mo before the diagnosis), and non-smokers (those who had never smoked) (World Health Organization Tobacco, United States, 2012)^[17]. Appendectomy was taken into account when it had been done before the diagnosis of IBD.

Ethical aspects

Free and informed consent was obtained from each participating individual, and all data were analyzed anonymously; thus, preserving the participants' privacy. The study was approved by the Research Ethics Committee of each participating center and was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and Ordinance No. 196/96 of the Brazilian National Health Council.

Statistical analysis

The study design was a case control study that compared cases (CD and UC separately) versus non-IBD control population. Univariate analyses using multinomial logistic regression were employed to assess the association of environmental risk factors with CD and UC and controls. The covariates assessed in univariate analyses included state of residence, age at diagnosis, sex, ethnicity, migration, educational level, family income, living conditions in childhood, cohabitants at enrollment and in childhood, rurality, exposure to domestic animals in childhood, breastfeeding, consumption of treated water at enrollment and in childhood, vaccination, infection during childhood, history of worm disease, previous bowel infection, appendectomy, and smoking status at diagnosis. All variables that met statistical significance in the univariate analyses ($P < 0.05$) were included in the multiple multinomial logistic regression and were expressed as an odds ratio (OR) and P value < 0.05 . All variables without statistical significance were excluded in the multiple multinomial logistic regression and the results were expressed as an odds ratio (OR) with 95% confidence interval (CI). The data analysis was conducted using the SPSS software, version 21.

Study was conducted in accordance with the Strengthening of Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology statement^[18].

RESULTS

Characteristics of the study population

The study population included 1.456 individuals: 548 with CD (37%), 492 with UC (34%), and 416 controls (29%). **Table 1** shows the frequencies of the CD, UC, and control groups in the different states along with the associations shown by the cases (CD and UC) and controls in relation to the various variables analyzed.

Multinomial logistic regression

In univariate multinomial analysis there was a higher predominance of CD in the southeastern region, as observed in the states of Minas Gerais [odds ratios (OR) = 3.33; $P < 0.001$], São Paulo (OR = 2.99; $P < 0.001$) and Rio de Janeiro (OR = 2.18; $P < 0.001$) in comparison to the Federal District, the only reference center of the central-western region. The results from multiple multinomial analysis showed that there was a predominance of CD in southeastern Minas Gerais (OR = 2.61; P value 0.001) and São Paulo (OR = 2.41; P value 0.002). In univariate and multiple multinomial analysis, IBD family history was associated with a higher risk for CD (OR = 5.00; $P < 0.001$ /OR = 3.03; $P < 0.001$) and UC (OR = 5.26; $P < 0.001$ / OR = 3.33; $P < 0.001$). There was an inverse association for appendectomy, where presence of appendectomy was considered to be a risk factor for CD (OR = 1.78; P value 0.025) and a protective factor in relation to UC (OR = 3.54; P value 0.002). The protective factor in UC was confirmed in the multiple multinomial analysis (OR = 4.89; $P < 0.001$) (**Table 2 and 3**).

Final multiple multinomial analysis

After excluding the variables of ethnicity, migration, number of cohabitants during childhood, exposure to domestic animals, breast-feeding, and history of worm diseases, which were not statistically significant ($P > 0.05$) in the multiple multinomial model, some important associations were detected (**Table 4**). A higher risk for CD was observed in Minas Gerais (OR = 2.68; 95%CI: 1.56-4.58), São Paulo (OR = 2.52; 95%CI: 1.48-4.28) and Rio de Janeiro (OR = 1.86; 95%CI: 1.11-3.07); thus, showing higher risk of CD in the southeastern region (higher socioeconomic status) compared with the other regions analyzed.

Considering the sociodemographic characteristics, patients with CD were predominantly women, (OR = 1.31; 95%CI: 0.56-1.00) and with age at enrollment below 40 years (OR = 1.73; 95%CI: 1.25-2.39). Socioeconomic risk factors were low monthly family income (OR = 1.78; 95%CI: 0.54-1.55) and higher education (OR = 2.22; 95%CI: 0.27-0.73). In UC, there was predominance of female sex (OR = 1.69; 95%CI: 0.44-0.78) and in socioeconomic aspects there was an association with low monthly family income (OR = 1.57; 95%CI: 0.45-1.35).

Regarding the environmental exposure variables for CD, 2-3 cohabitants in adulthood (OR = 1.70, 95%CI: 1.22-2.35), absence of vaccination during childhood (OR = 3.11; 95%CI: 1.82-5.29), absence of infectious childhood diseases (OR = 1.99; 95%CI: 1.20-3.26), consumption of treated water (OR = 1.38; 95%CI: 0.51-0.98) and history of bowel infections (OR = 1.78; 95%CI: 0.42-0.73) were risk factors for disease development. For UC, inadequate living conditions (OR = 1.48; 95%CI: 1.01-2.16), 2-3 cohabitants in adulthood (OR = 1.60; 95%CI: 1.15-2.21), living in an urban area (OR = 1.62; 95%CI: 1.16-2.25), consumption of untreated water (OR = 1.53; 95%CI: 1.11-2.11), absence of vaccination during childhood (OR = 2.51; 95%CI: 1.49-4.21), and history of bowel infections (OR = 1.49; 95%CI: 0.50-0.89) were risk factors for developing UC. Regarding exposure to tobacco, an association of risk between former smokers and CD could be observed (OR = 1.81; 95%CI: 1.06-3.05), but with considerably more significant risk when associated with UC (OR = 3.36; 95%CI: 1.91-5.90). Although not statistically significant, this analysis indicated an association between the risk of development of CD and appendectomy (OR = 1.58; 95%CI: 0.36-1.09) and higher risk of UC when individuals had not undergone appendectomy (OR = 4.79; 95%CI: 2.05-11.11). Family history of IBD showed a significant association with CD (OR = 5.26; 95%CI: 0.20-1.51) and UC (OR = 3.33; 95%CI: 0.14-1.23).

Table 1 Demographic, socioeconomic and environmental aspects of the groups studied (n = 1,456)

Characteristics		CD (n = 548)		UC (n = 492)		Controls (n = 416)	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
State of Brazil	Rio de Janeiro	145	26.5	100	20.3	86	20.7
	São Paulo	102	18.6	78	15.9	44	0.6
	Minas Gerais	98	7.9	57	11.6	38	9.1
	Bahia	59	0.8	69	14.0	76	8.3
	Piauí	82	5.0	92	18.7	92	2.1
	Federal District	62	1.3	96	19.5	80	9.2
Age at enrollment (yr)	< 40	267	8.7	159	32.3	162	8.9
	> 40	281	1.3	333	67.7	254	1.1
Age at Diagnosis (yr)	< 40	462	4.3	299	60.8	Not applicable	
	> 0	86	5.7	193	39.2		
Sex	Male	227	1.4	168	34.1	208	50.0
	Female	321	8.6	324	65.9	208	50.0
Ethnicity	White	263	8.0	189	38.4	143	34.4
	Non-white	285	2.0	303	61.6	273	65.6
Migration	No	348	3.5	297	60.4	266	63.9
	Yes	200	6.5	195	39.6	150	36.1
Educational level	Elementary school	182	3.2	228	46.3	177	42.5
	High school	264	8.2	202	41.1	183	44.0
	Higher education	102	8.6	62	12.6	56	13.5
Monthly family income (minimum wages)	Up to 3	244	4.5	253	51.4	159	38.2
	3 to 5	135	4.6	113	23.0	102	24.5
	5 or more	121	2.1	89	18.1	94	22.6
	Not stated	48	8.8	37	7.5	61	14.7
Living condition	Inadequate	336	61.3	359	73.0	266	63.9
	Adequate	212	8.7	133	27.0	150	36.1
Cohabitants (n) ²	Up to 1	116	1.2	110	22.4	83	20.0
	2 to 3	299	4.6	252	51.2	186	44.7
	4 to 8	133	4.3	130	26.4	147	35.3
Cohabitants (n) ¹	1 to 3	106	9.3	58	11.8	51	12.3
	4 to 6	220	0.1	172	35.0	161	38.7
	7 or more	222	0.5	262	53.3	204	49.0
Rural living	No	356	5.0	266	54.1	223	3.6
	Yes	192	5.0	226	45.9	193	6.4
Exposure to domestic animal ¹	No	75	3.7	64	13.0	61	14.7
	Yes	473	86.3	428	87.0	355	85.3
Breastfeeding (for at least 6 mo)	No	42	7.7	21	4.3	23	5.5
	Yes	472	86.1	421	85.6	362	87.0
	Not stated	34	6.2	50	10.2	31	7.5
Consumption of treated water ¹	No	223	40.7	316	64.2	214	51.4
	Yes	325	59.3	176	35.8	202	48.6

Vaccination	No	62	11.3	71	14.4	26	6.3
	Yes	486	88.7	421	85.6	390	93.8
Infectious diseases ¹	No	65	11.9	41	8.3	29	7.0
	Yes	483	88.1	451	91.7	387	93.0
Worm disease	No	193	35.2	141	28.7	140	33.7
	Yes	355	64.8	351	71.3	276	66.3
Bowel infection	No	225	41.1	218	44.3	229	55.0
	Yes	323	58.9	274	55.7	187	45.0
Appendectomy	No	496	90.5	484	98.4	393	94.5
	Yes	52	9.5	8	1.6	23	5.5
Exposure to tobacco at diagnosis	Never	353	64.4	273	55.5	280	67.3
	Former	145	26.5	191	38.8	91	21.9
	Current	50	9.1	28	5.7	45	0.8
Familial IBD	No	438	79.9	430	87.4	393	94.5
	Yes	80	14.6	46	9.3	14	3.4
	Not stated	30	5.5	16	3.3	09	2.2

¹Childhood.

²Adulthood. IBD: Inflammatory bowel disease; CD: Crohn's disease; UC: Ulcerative colitis.

DISCUSSION

In Brazil, studies on the incidence and prevalence of inflammatory bowel diseases have been regional, and studies investigating risk factors involved in the development of IBD are lacking^[9]. Historically, the incidence and prevalence of IBD in Brazil have been low as compared with Western countries in Europe, North America, and Australia. However, at the turn of the 21st century, the incidence and prevalence of IBD in Brazil have steadily risen; paralleling the incidence of IBD in the West during the second half of the 20th century^[3,9,10]. Our study indicates that environmental IBD risk factors may be driving the rising incidence of IBD in Brazil, some of which share similarities to IBD in the West, whereas others are clearly different. More importantly, the results confirm that the hygiene hypothesis might explain key differences in IBD epidemiology among states with diverse socioeconomic statuses.

This was the first multicenter study in Brazil and Latin America that evaluated potential risk factors associated with IBD development in geographical regions that present very different population and socioeconomic characteristics. For example, the population in the northeastern region presents the worst socioeconomic conditions, with low human socioeconomic development indexes (HDI) compared with the southeastern and central-western regions. Piauí, a state in northeastern Brazil, presents the lowest HDI (0.646 in 2010), in comparison with the southeastern states (HDI 0.783) and central-western states (HDI 0.824)^[6]. The distribution of IBD in Brazil was heterogeneous with predominance of CD in the southeastern region (Minas Gerais, São Paulo and Rio de Janeiro), compared with the northeastern states (Piauí and Bahia), and a central-western state (Federal District). Brazil is a continental country, so this can be correlated with important climatic, sociocultural, and economic variations among different geographical regions.

In the West, sex predominance varies by age at diagnosis such that males have a higher risk of CD during childhood; however, in adolescence and adulthood women are more likely to be diagnosed with CD than men. In contrast, the incidence of UC does not differ between men or women until after the age of 45 whereas men have had a higher incidence of UC than women^[20]. In Brazil, female sex was a risk factor both in CD and in UC in the present study. These data are contrary to Chinese and Hungarian studies yet consistent with Latin American studies and other few Brazilian regional studies^[2,9,10,21,22]. Brazil is an ethnically diverse country, which makes it a unique country to study race within Latin America and its impact on disease. For example, the Northeastern region is a geographical area where African-descendant individuals

Table 2 Significant variables obtained from the comparative univariate and multiple multinomial logistic analysis between Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis, with healthy control as reference

Characteristics		Univariate multinomial logistic model ¹				Multiple multinomial logistic model ¹			
		CD		UC		CD		UC	
		OR	P value	OR	P value	OR	P value	OR	P value
State of Brazil	Rio de Janeiro	2.18	< 0.001	0.97	0.881	1.84	0.022	0.84	0.486
	São Paulo	2.99	< 0.001	1.48	0.107	2.41	0.002	1.27	0.399
	Min Minas Gerais	3.33	< 0.001	1.25	0.388	2.61	0.001	1.28	0.400
	Bahia	1.00	0.994	0.76	0.215	0.98	0.941	0.69	0.156
	Piauí	1.15	0.539	0.83	0.388	0.92	0.736	0.81	0.376
	Federal District	1		1		1		1	
Age at enrollment (yr)	< 40	1.49	0.003	0.75	0.038	1.75	0.001	1.14	0.462
	> 40	1		1		1		1	
Sex	Male	0.71	0.008	0.52	< 0.001	0.75	0.052	0.59	< 0.001
	Female	1		1		1		1	
Ethnicity	White	1.76	< 0.001	1.19	0.208	1.21	0.227	1.08	0.620
	Non-white	1		1		1		1	
Educational level	Elementary school	0.57	0.004	1.16	0.471	0.48	0.004	0.68	0.147
	High school	0.79	0.225	1.00	0.989	0.74	0.187	0.83	0.448
	Higher education	1		1		1		1	
Monthly family income (minimum wages)	Up to 3	1.19	0.304	1.68	0.004	1.79	0.007	1.61	0.032
	3 to 5	1.03	0.884	1.17	0.435	1.25	0.311	1.13	0.587
	5 or more	1		1		1		1	
	Not stated	0.61	0.038	0.64	0.081	0.94	0.826	0.77	0.350
Living condition	Inadequate	0.89	0.404	1.52	0.004	1.17	0.411	1.47	0.046
	Adequate	1		1		1		1	
Cohabitants (n) ³	Up to 1	1.55	0.020	1.50	0.032	1.07	0.764	1.20	0.400
	2 to 3	1.78	< 0.001	1.53	0.006	1.67	0.002	1.57	0.007
	4 to 8	1		1		1		1	
Cohabitants (n) ²	1 a 3	1.91	0.001	0.89	0.569	1.17	0.518	0.99	0.954
	4 a 6	1.26	0.109	0.83	0.201	1.02	0.887	0.90	0.514
	7 or more	1		1		1		1	
Rural living	No	1.61	< 0.001	1.02	0.890	1.37	0.080	1.66	0.004
	Yes	1		1		1		1	
Consumption of treated water ²	No	0.65	0.001	1.70	< 0.001	0.71	0.037	1.52	0.012
	Yes	1		1		1		1	
Vaccination	No	1.91	0.008	2.53	< 0.001	3.08	< 0.001	2.46	0.001
	Yes	1		1		1		1	
Infectious disease ²	No	1.80	0.012	1.21	0.444	1.99	0.007	1.44	0.178
	Yes	1		1		1		1	
Bowel infection	No	0.57	< 0.001	0.65	0.001	0.56	< 0.001	0.68	0.009
	Yes	1		1		1		1	
Appendectomy	No	0.56	0.025	3.54	0.002	0.63	0.103	4.89	< 0.001

	Yes	1		1		1		1	
Exposure to tobacco	Never	1.14	0.567	1.57	0.079	1.05	0.840	1.52	0.132
	Former	1.43	0.141	3.37	< 0.001	1.75	0.039	3.40	< 0.001
	Current	1		1		1		1	
Familial IBD	No	0.20	< 0.001	0.33	< 0.001	0.19	< 0.001	0.30	< 0.001
	Yes	1		1		1		1	
	Not stated	0.58	0.259	0.54	0.234	0.55	0.248	0.41	0.106

¹Category of reference = healthy control.

²Childhood.

³Adulthood. IBD: Inflammatory bowel disease; CD: Crohn's disease; UC: Ulcerative colitis; OR: Odd ratios.

Table 3 Non-significant variables obtained from the comparative univariate and multiple multinomial logistic analysis between Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis, with healthy control as reference

Characteristics		Univariate multinomial logistic model ¹				Multiple multinomial logistic model ¹			
		CD		UC		CD		UC	
		OR	P value	OR	P value	OR	P value	OR	P value
Migration	No	0.98	0.888	0.86	0.269	0.83	0.258	1.04	0.802
	Yes	1		1		1		1	
Exposure to domestic animal ²	No	0.92	0.666	0.87	0.471	0.88	0.542	0.94	0.786
	Yes	1		1		1		1	
Breastfeeding	No	1.40	0.210	0.79	0.435	1.14	0.661	0.60	0.116
	Yes	1		1		1		1	
	Not stated	0.84	0.503	1.39	0.172	0.96	0.897	1.22	0.456
History of worm disease	No	1.07	0.613	0.79	0.105	0.99	0.946	0.81	0.187
	Yes	1		1		1		1	

¹Category of reference = healthy control.

²Childhood. CD: Crohn's disease; UC: Ulcerative colitis; OR: Odd ratios.

predominate. Historically, epidemiological studies have reported higher prevalence of the disease in Caucasians than in black and Asian people^[23-25]. In the present study, univariate analysis showed that white individuals predominated in the CD group; thus, corroborating a previous study conducted by this team in the state of Rio de Janeiro^[19]. However, the results from the multivariate analysis did not show any statistical significance for CD and UC.

A positive association between higher educational and income levels and the development of IBD has already been verified^[26]. However, this association was only partially confirmed in this study. Individuals who had higher educational levels, had also higher risk of developing IBD. However, individuals with lower family monthly incomes (up to 3 minimum wages)^[27] had higher risk of developing IBD. In the present study, several proxy factors of the hygiene hypothesis were associated with the development of IBD. For example, low number of cohabitants during adulthood, living in an urban area, and absence of infectious childhood diseases showed a significant positive association with the development of CD and UC. Also, consumption of treated water during both phases of life was associated with CD, but not in patients with UC. These results corroborate the hygiene hypothesis, which may explain the lower incidence of IBD in South America, Africa, and Asia compared with developed countries^[12,28].

In Brazil, disease prevention and health promotion policies for the population have obtained satisfactory results, with reduction of the prevalence of infectious diseases during childhood. Reassuringly, the results from the present study showed that there

Table 4 Comparative final multiple multinomial logistic model between the Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis groups

Characteristics		Final multiple multinomial logistic model ¹			
		CD		UC	
		OR	95%CI	OR	95%CI
State of Brazil	Rio de Janeiro	1.86	1.11-3.07	0.85	0.52-1.37
	São Paulo	2.52	1.48-4.28	1.27	0.75-2.14
	Minas Gerais	2.68	1.56-4.58	1.30	0.75-2.25
	Bahia	0.86	0.51-1.45	0.71	0.43-1.16
	Piauí	0.88	0.54-1.43	0.84	0.53-1.31
	Federal District	1		1	
Age at enrollment (yr)	18 - 39	1.73	1.25-2.39	1.09	0.78-1.52
	40 - 80	1		1	
Sex	Male	0.76	0.56-1.00	0.59	0.44-0.78
	Female	1		1	
Educational level	Elementary school	0.45	0.27-0.73	0.67	0.39-1.12
	High school	0.70	0.45-1.09	0.84	0.52-1.33
	Higher education	1		1	
Monthly family income (minimum wages)	Up to 3	1.78	0.54-1.55	1.57	0.45-1.35
	3 to 5	1.21	1.16-2.70	1.14	1.02-2.40
	5 or more	1		1	
	Not stated	0.92	0.78-1.86	0.78	0.72-1.77
Living condition	Inadequate	1.15	0.79-1.66	1.48	1.01-2.16
	Adequate	1		1	
Cohabitants (<i>n</i>) ³	Up to 1	1.09	0.72-1.65	1.24	0.82-1.87
	2 to 3	1.70	1.22-2.35	1.60	1.15-2.21
	4 to 8	1		1	
Rural living	No	1.33	0.95-1.86	1.62	1.16-2.25
	Yes	1		1	
Consumption of treated water	No	0.72	0.51-0.98	1.53	1.11-2.11
	Yes	1		1	
Vaccination	No	3.11	1.82-5.29	2.51	1.49-4.21
	Yes	1		1	
Infectious disease ²	No	1.99	1.20-3.26	1.37	0.80-2.32
	Yes	1		1	
Bowel infection	No	0.56	0.42-0.73	0.67	0.50-0.89
	Yes	1		1	
Appendectomy	No	0.63	0.36-1.09	4.79	2.05-11.11
	Yes	1		1	
Exposure to tobacco	Never	1.08	0.66-1.76	1.50	0.87-2.57
	Former	1.81	1.06-3.05	3.36	1.91-5.90
	Current	1		1	
Familial IBD	No	0.19	0.20 -1.51	0.30	0.14-1.23

Yes	1		1	
Not stated	0.56	0.10-0.34	0.42	0.16-0.56

¹After excluding the variables that were not statistically significant ($P > 0.05$) in the multiple model (category of reference = healthy controls).

²Childhood.

³Adulthood. CD: Crohn's disease; UC: Ulcerative colitis; OR: Odd ratios.

was no association between vaccination and higher risk of developing IBD, regardless of the geographical area analyzed. These findings confirm the results from a meta-analysis on 11 studies (with 2400 IBD cases and 34000 controls), which did not show any significant increase in IBD risk after immunization against BCG, diphtheria, tetanus, varicella, pertussis, measles, mumps, and rubella^[29]. Despite improvements in hygiene conditions throughout Brazil, "favelas" (slum dwellings) are still present in urban centers. These "favelas" comprise marginal communities with precarious infrastructure and basic sanitation conditions, especially those in the interior areas of some states. These places favor occurrences of infectious gastroenteritis (*Campylobacter* sp, *Salmonella* sp, *Shigella* sp, *Yersinia* sp), which are possible triggers of IBD^[30]. In the present study, a strong association was detected between infectious gastroenteritis and IBD, especially in relation to CD. However, since intestinal infections are not always confirmed through diagnostic methods, these episodes might possibly represent early symptoms of IBD.

Appendectomy prior to the diagnosis and smoking are considered to be risk factors that impact CD and UC differently. Appendectomy, especially if conducted before 10 years of age, has a negative association with UC^[1,12,31]. This was confirmed in the present study. It has been postulated that appendices are bacterial reservoirs that are involved in regulation of immunological responses to the hosts' microbiota, and that the presence of environmental and microbial factors would promote higher activation of the Th1 pathway, with consequent development of appendicitis. This would explain the lower risk of developing UC, because the predominating immunological pathway is Th2^[32]. Regarding CD, the results from the present study showed that there was a significant positive association with appendectomy. This finding, however, could be due to interpretation bias, since a diagnosis of CD that is made during the short-term postoperative period may lead to an erroneous initial diagnosis of appendicitis in cases of CD involving the appendicular or ileocecal region^[33].

Smoking is a well-established environmental risk factor for IBD in the West. Smoking increases the risk of developing CD, whereas never smokers and those who quit smoking are more likely to develop UC. Smoking may modulate the risk of IBD by promoting epigenetic alterations that modify the genic expression that occurs in innate and adaptive immune responses and in alterations to the gut microbiome composition^[34]. In the present study, smoking was negatively associated with UC, with a higher association among former smokers, which is consistent with data from the West^[35] and studies from Asia^[36]. In contrast, former and current smokers were not associated with the development of CD. This finding is inconsistent with studies from the West; however, an environmental risk factor study from the Asia-Pacific Crohn's and Colitis Epidemiology Study also showed that smoking was not associated with CD in Asian countries^[37]. Taken together smoking may not be associated with CD in newly industrialized countries outside the Western world. Future studies are necessary to corroborate these findings in other developing countries.

An inherent methodological limitation of epidemiological studies is the information bias, a common occurrence in case-control studies. In this study, however, information on the exposure to risk factors was obtained through a structured questionnaire, with data collection standardization by the researchers. These practices tend to minimize this possibility. Regarding variables related to childhood, recall bias needs to be taken into consideration. Additionally, numerous environmental risk factors were studied and thus, the findings are limited by multiple comparison errors. The study was carried out in public IBD centers located in urban areas with cases that are usually more severe and are more difficult to diagnose. These cases do not represent the totality of the population with IBD that may be undergoing treatment in the private setting, in secondary care units, and in other regions of the country that were not included.

The IBD burden in South America, including Brazil, is increasing at a rate possibly even greater than other developing regions around the world. However, there is a paucity of high-quality epidemiological studies being necessary more powerful and

representative data to further explore modifiable risk factors and disease phenotypes^[38].

In conclusion, this multicenter study from the southeastern, central-western, and northeastern regions of Brazil supports the hygiene hypothesis. Interestingly, several environmental risk factors are consistent with established risk factors within the West, whereas other environmental factors have distinctly different associations. Brazil is a large heterogeneous region that differs by demography, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, and healthcare support. Therefore, future studies are necessary to confirm the risk factor associations observed in the present study.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

The etiology of inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) is unknown, but it is believed to be multifactorial. The hygiene hypothesis proposes that better hygiene conditions would lead to less infectious disease during childhood and favor the development of immune-mediated diseases.

Research motivation

Brazil is a country with continental dimensions comprising an ethnically diverse population living in different regions with extreme socioeconomic differences. The country is the perfect setting to test the hygiene hypothesis in IBD development.

Research objectives

The aim of this study was to identify IBD environmental risk factors across different geographical regions in Brazil and evaluate if the hygiene hypothesis might explain interregional differences in prevalence/incidence.

Research methods

A multicenter case-control study with 548 Crohn's disease (CD), 492 ulcerative colitis (UC) outpatients, and 416 healthy controls. A semi-structured questionnaire with 87 socioeconomic and environmental questions was applied.

Research results

Predictive variables for both diseases (CD and UC) were women [odds ratios (OR) = 1.31; OR = 1.69], low monthly family income (OR = 1.78; OR = 1.57), lower number of cohabitants (OR = 1.70; OR = 1.60), absence of vaccination (OR = 3.11; OR = 2.51), previous history of bowel infections (OR = 1.78; OR = 1.49), and family history of IBD (OR = 5.26; OR = 3.33). Associated risk factors for CD were age (18-39 years) (OR = 1.73), higher educational level (OR = 2.22), absence of infectious childhood diseases (OR = 1.99). The UC predictive variables were living in an urban area (OR = 1.62), inadequate living conditions (OR = 1.48) and former smokers (OR = 3.36). Appendectomy was a risk factor for CD (OR = 1.58) with inverse association with UC (OR = 4.79). Consumption of treated and untreated water was associated with risk of CD (OR = 1.38) and UC (OR = 1.53), respectively.

Research conclusions

Most of the variables associated with disease risk support the role of the hygiene hypothesis in IBD development.

Research perspectives

Brazil is a large heterogeneous region that differs by demography, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, and healthcare support. Therefore, future studies are necessary to confirm the risk factor associations observed in the present study.

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Retrospective Cohort Study

Predictors of irreversible intestinal resection in patients with acute mesenteric venous thrombosis

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Abstract**BACKGROUND**

Acute mesenteric venous thrombosis (AMVT) can cause a poor prognosis. Prompt transcatheter thrombolysis (TT) can achieve early mesenteric revascularization. However, irreversible intestinal ischemia still occurs and the mechanism is still unclear.

AIM

To evaluate the clinical outcomes of and to identify predictive factors for irreversible intestinal ischemia requiring surgical resection in AMVT patients treated by TT.

METHODS

The records of consecutive patients with AMVT treated by TT from January 2010 to October 2017 were retrospectively analyzed. We compared patients who required resection of irreversible intestinal ischemia to patients who did not require.

RESULTS

Among 58 patients, prompt TT was carried out 28.5 h after admission. A total of 42 (72.4%) patients underwent arteriovenous combined thrombolysis, and 16 (27.6%) underwent arterial thrombolysis alone. The overall 30-d mortality rate was 8.6%. Irreversible intestinal ischemia was indicated in 32 (55.2%) patients, who had a higher 30-d mortality and a longer in-hospital stay than patients without resection. The significant independent predictors of irreversible intestinal ischemia were Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation (APACHE) II score (odds ratio = 2.368, 95% confidence interval: 1.047-5.357, $P = 0.038$) and leukocytosis (odds ratio = 2.058, 95% confidence interval: 1.085-3.903, $P = 0.027$).

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Using the receiver operating characteristic curve, the cutoff values of the APACHE II score and leukocytosis for predicting the onset of irreversible intestinal ischemia were calculated to be 8.5 and $12 \times 10^9/L$, respectively.

CONCLUSION

Prompt TT could achieve a favorable outcome in AMVT patients. High APACHE II score and leukocytosis can significantly predict the occurrence of irreversible intestinal ischemia. Therefore, close monitoring of these factors may help with the early identification of patients with irreversible intestinal ischemia, in whom ultimately surgical resection is required, before the initiation of TT.

Key words: Acute mesenteric venous thrombosis; Transcatheter thrombolysis; Irreversible intestinal ischemia; Surgical resection; Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation II score; Leukocytosis

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Core tip: Prompt transcatheter thrombolysis (TT) can achieve early mesenteric revascularization in acute mesenteric venous thrombosis (AMVT) patients. However, irreversible intestinal ischemia still occurs in many cases. We compared AMVT patients with irreversible intestinal ischemia who underwent TT to patients with reversible intestinal ischemia. We demonstrated that the independent predictors of irreversible intestinal ischemia were Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation II score and leukocytosis and the cutoff values were 8.5 and $12 \times 10^9/L$, respectively. Close monitoring of these factors may help with early identification of irreversible intestinal ischemia, which requires surgical resection, before initiation of TT in AMVT patients.

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INTRODUCTION

Acute mesenteric venous thrombosis (AMVT) accounts for approximately 5% to 15% of cases of acute mesenteric ischemia and has a mortality of up to 10%^[1-3]. AMVT is characterized by an insidious onset, rapid progression, and non-specific abdominal signs in the early stages. The occurrence of irreversible intestinal ischemia impairs the outcomes of AMVT. In the short term, AMVT can cause intestinal necrosis, which predicts a poor outcome^[4]. In the long term, posts ischemic intestinal stenosis (delayed intestinal stricture or non-transmural necrosis) impairs the quality of life^[5].

The early diagnosis of AMVT has increased because of the feasible use of abdominal computed tomography (CT), with a specificity of 100% and sensitivity of 93%^[6]. The main goal of treatment is early recanalization to prevent irreversible intestinal ischemia^[7]. Immediate anticoagulation is the first step and the cornerstone of management strategies. Early anticoagulation has been demonstrated to result in > 80% recanalization and to reduce mortality^[8,9]. However, a previous study also showed that systemic anticoagulation was associated with 25% of cases of extrahepatic portal vein hypertension, 18% of cases of transmural bowel infarction, and an elevated risk of bleeding^[10,11]. Transcatheter thrombolysis (TT) is the mainstream method used, and it is recommended when there is persistent worsening of abdominal symptoms despite systemic anticoagulation or when there is a high risk of bowel infarction at admission^[12]. Prompt recanalization, salvage of additional potentially reversible segments, and decreased intestinal resection can be achieved with endovascular treatment^[12,13]. The use of endovascular therapy has increased significantly in the modern era and has altered the management of ASMVT^[14]. However, damage control laparotomy including intestinal resection and open abdomen may be ultimately warranted for patients with intestinal necrosis and severe sepsis^[15]. Our group previously advocated the establishment of an intestinal stroke center (ISC) and a

multidisciplinary stepwise management strategy for the treatment of AMVT, which have been proven to decrease the mortality and improve the clinical outcomes^[16,17].

The mortality rates associated with intestinal resection ranged between 20% and 60%, and severe disability may result from either intestinal infarction or postischemic intestinal stenosis^[18,19]. Some researchers revealed that aggressive TT could improve the outcomes^[13,17]. However, irreversible intestinal ischemia is still the main reason for poor prognosis. The risk factors for irreversible intestinal ischemia are unknown, especially in AMVT patients treated by TT. The present study aimed to evaluate the clinical outcomes and determine the independent clinical, laboratory, and radiologic factors that can successfully predict irreversible intestinal ischemia leading to resection according to short- and long-term outcomes in AMVT patients treated by TT. The present study also aimed to discriminate patients who develop irreversible intestinal ischemia and who are in need of operative intervention from patients who have reversible bowel ischemia.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients

Prospectively maintained records of patients with AMVT admitted to the ISC during the period from January 2010 to October 2017 were retrospectively reviewed. Ethical approval of the study was obtained from the Institutional Review Board. This study was conducted in accordance with the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki.

The diagnosis of AMVT was based on the following criteria: Acute clinical onset of abdominal symptoms with a duration of less than 4 wk before admission, vascular occlusion of the superior mesenteric vein (SMV) on CT or digital subtraction angiography (DSA) portography, and intestinal wall injury on CT^[5,17]. AMVT patients who were treated by TT were included in the study (Figure 1). We excluded AMVT patients (1) whose symptoms improved after anticoagulation only; (2) with contraindications to thrombolysis; (3) who underwent hybrid emergency operation upon admission without TT; (4) who underwent surgical intervention before admission; (5) who participated in follow-up for < 1 year; and (6) with incomplete records or records missing some of the vital data required for the study.

The primary outcome was the resection of irreversible intestinal ischemic injury, defined by laparotomy and/or pathology assessment of bowel necrosis/infarction and postischemic intestinal stenosis (Figure 2). Patients were divided into two groups according to primary outcomes. Patients who recovered from AMVT after TT with no need for intestinal resection after 12 mo of follow-up were considered not to have irreversible intestinal ischemic injury, considering that irreversible intestinal ischemia could be ruled out at this point in follow-up. For primary outcome assessment, patients were followed until the date of irreversible ischemia diagnosis (for patients who underwent surgery), 1 year of follow-up (for patients who did not undergo surgery), or death, whichever came first.

Treatment strategy

A multidisciplinary stepwise management strategy was followed upon admission, aiming to achieve early mesenteric recanalization as described before^[17]. Immediate anticoagulation, with the initiation of an unfractionated heparin bolus followed by continuous infusion, was initiated soon after the diagnosis was made. In addition, supportive treatment included broad-spectrum antibiotics, bowel rest, microcirculation improvement, and acidosis correction. Intensive care unit (ICU) treatment, including fluid resuscitation, multi-organ function support, and early enteral nutrition, was initiated when indicated.

Endovascular treatment by transcatheter thrombolysis

Endovascular treatment approaches were chosen depending on the location of the thrombus in the portal vein and superior mesenteric vein as described before^[12,17]. For patients with patent or partially patent intrahepatic portal vein branches, a percutaneous transhepatic approach or trans-jugular intrahepatic portosystemic approach was preferred for direct thrombolysis of the portal vein (PV)-SMV thrombosis, and indirect thrombolysis alone *via* the superior mesenteric artery (SMA) was also adopted. Moreover, indirect thrombolysis alone *via* the SMA was adopted for patients with a completely occluded PV or portal vein cavernous transformation associated with superior mesenteric vein thrombosis. A catheter was placed in the vein under the guidance of DSA, and the thrombi were aspirated *via* the venous catheter.

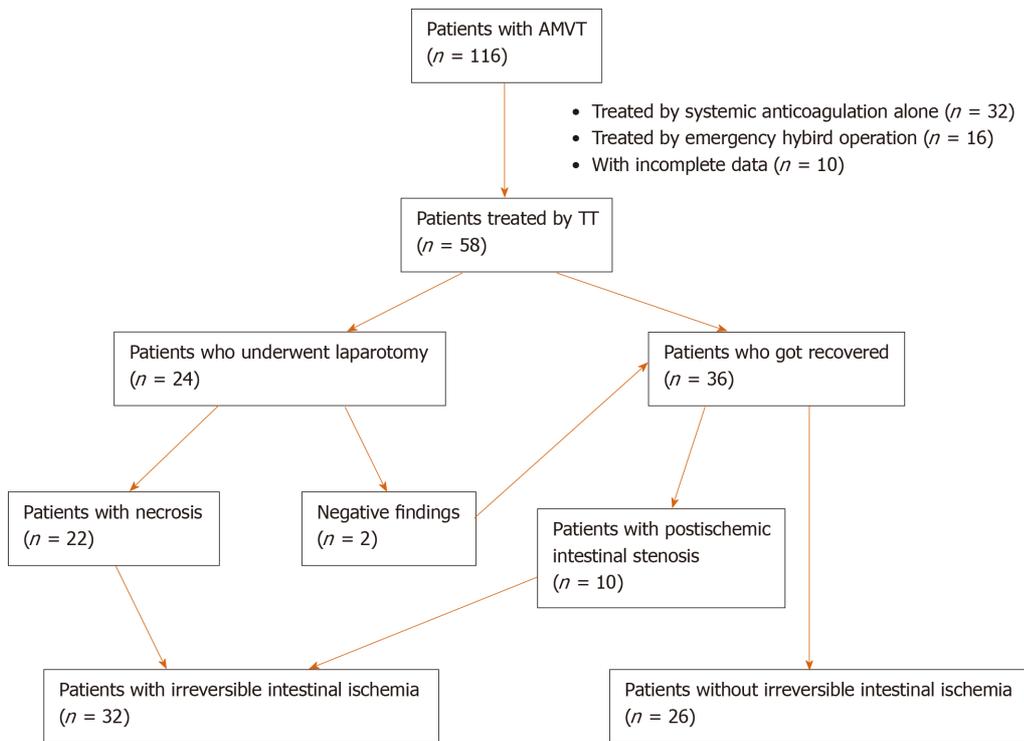


Figure 1 Flow diagram illustrating the management and outcome of patients with acute mesenteric venous thrombosis. AMVT: Acute mesenteric venous thrombosis; TT: Transcatheter thrombolysis.

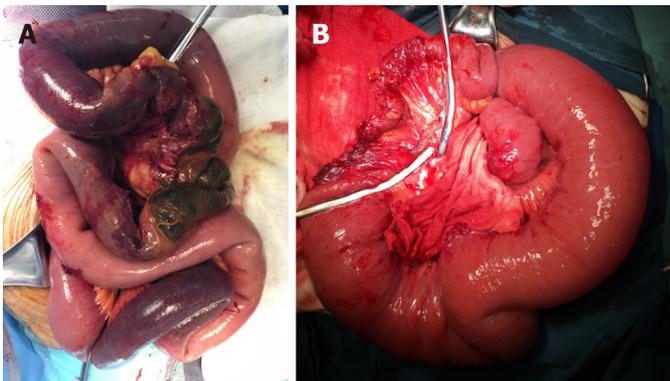


Figure 2 Operative findings of irreversible intestinal ischemia. A: Intestinal necrosis, characterized by gangrenous bowel; B: Postischemic intestinal stenosis, characterized by segmental intestinal stricture.

Low-molecular-weight heparin (4100 U/12 h) was administered as an anticoagulant. Urokinase [(40-60) × 10⁴ IU/d] or recombinant tissue plasminogen activator (20 mg/d) was administered for 5 d for thrombolysis before angiography was repeated. If patients had stable vital signs and improved abdominal signs, thrombolytic treatment was continued for 1 wk. Contrast-enhanced abdominal CT and DSA were repeated to assess the abdominal and intestinal integrity. In patients who developed severe/diffuse peritonitis alongside worsening vital signs and hemodynamic instability, surgical intervention was required.

Surgical resection of irreversible intestinal ischemia

Damage control surgery was indicated during or after transcatheter thrombolytic therapy if there were signs of irreversible intestinal ischemia, including intestinal necrosis and postischemic intestinal stenosis^[20,21](Figure 2).

Intestinal necrosis(Figure 2A): Surgical procedures included resection of the necrotic bowel and reservation of the suspected necrotic small bowel. To determine the patency of the intestine, distal or proximal stomas were created. In the presence of

intraabdominal hypertension, the abdomen was left open. Abdominal closure was performed once the intraabdominal pressure returned to a normal range. Patients were transferred to the ICU following surgery, where patients received organ support therapy to restore homeostatic balance. A definite intestinal anastomosis was performed after the patient completely recovered from the acute phase and was on a full oral diet.

Postischemic intestinal stenosis(Figure 2B): Close monitoring of postischemic intestinal stenosis was carried out in AMVT patients who got symptom alleviation after TT. Intolerance to enteral nutrition or oral diet, symptoms of ileus, and confirmed intestinal stricture by CT and enterography were used to help with the diagnosis. Close follow-up, anticoagulation, and corrections of malnutrition and water and electrolyte imbalance were initiated. Planned laparotomy was indicated, and resection of the irreversible stricture in the intestine was warranted.

Data collection

The collected data were as follows: Sex, age, thrombosis risk factors (*e.g.*, active smoking, history of thrombosis, history of abdominal surgery, and liver cirrhosis), thrombosis distribution, vital signs, hematochezia, results of abdominal examination, Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation (APACHE) II score, laboratory test values, findings of abdominal CT scanning on admission or before TT, length of stay, treatment outcomes (*i.e.*, length of resected bowel and 30-d and 1-year mortality) and complications [*i.e.*, sepsis, anastomotic or parastomal leakage, acute respiratory distress syndrome, acute kidney injury, and multiple organ dysfunction syndrome (MODS)].

Statistical analysis

Quantitative variables are expressed as the mean \pm SD or median and interquartile range according to distributions after Shapiro-Wilk test. Categorical variables are expressed as absolute and relative frequencies. Comparisons between groups of independent quantitative variables were performed using Student's *t*-tests or Mann-Whitney tests. Comparisons between groups of qualitative variables were performed using the χ^2 test or Fisher's exact test when appropriate. A multivariate analysis of variables was conducted using a binary logistic regression test to determine the independent variables that predicted irreversible intestinal ischemia leading to resection, and the results are shown as odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs). The accuracy of this model was further evaluated using a receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve. A *P* value less than 0.05 was considered significant. All analyses were performed using SPSS version 17.0 software (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, United States).

RESULTS

Patient characteristics

From January 2010 to October 2017, a total of 58 consecutive patients [39 (67.2%) males] were included. The mean age of the patients was 45 ± 12.4 years. The patients' baseline characteristics are described in Table 1.

TT was initiated 28.5 h after systemic anticoagulation. A total of 42 (72.4%) patients underwent arteriovenous combined thrombolysis, and 16 (27.6) underwent arterial thrombolysis alone. After recanalization, exploratory laparotomies were performed in 24 patients, and 22 patients underwent resection of the infarcted intestine. In addition, planned laparotomy was also performed in 10 patients with postischemic intestinal stenosis later, and the involved stenosed bowel was resected. Eventually, 32 (55.2%) patients underwent resection of irreversible ischemic intestines, and 26 (44.8%) did not undergo resection.

There were no significant differences in age or sex between patients with and without irreversible intestinal ischemia (Table 1). Moreover, no significant difference was found in the thrombosis distribution or transcatheter thrombolytic therapy (including the initiation time, choice of thrombolytic approach, and duration of thrombolysis). Compared with patients with reversible ischemia, AMVT patients with irreversible intestinal ischemia had higher APACHE II scores (12.5 ± 3.9 vs 8.4 ± 3.5 , $P < 0.001$). In addition, no significant difference was found in the associated morbidities or duration of symptoms from onset to admission between these two groups. In terms

Table 1 Characteristics of acute mesenteric venous thrombosis patients treated by transcatheter thrombolysis

Variable	All patients	Without resection	With resection	P value
	n = 58	n = 26	n = 32	
Age, yr, mean ± SD	45 ± 12.4	44.6 ± 10.4	47.6 ± 13.8	0.366
Male, n (%)	39 (67.2)	16 (61.5)	23 (71.9)	0.404
Location of thrombosis, n (%)				0.752
SMV	12 (20.7)	6 (23.1)	6 (18.8)	
SMV + PV	46 (79.3)	20 (76.9)	26 (81.3)	
Duration of anticoagulation alone before catheter-directed thrombolysis, h, median (IQR)	28.5 (22-54.8)	36 (22.8-72)	27 (18.8-48)	0.143
Thrombolytic approaches, n (%)				0.199
PT/TI-PV-SMV + SMA catheterization	42 (72.4)	21 (80.8)	21 (65.6)	
SMA catheterization alone	16 (27.6)	5 (19.2)	11 (34.4)	
Days of thrombolysis, d, mean ± SD	7.1 ± 2.9	6.7 ± 2.9	7.3 ± 2.8	0.421
APACHE II score, mean ± SD	10.6 ± 4.2	8.4 ± 3.5	12.5 ± 3.9	< 0.001
Associated comorbidities, n (%)				
Liver cirrhosis/portal hypertension	11 (19.0)	7 (26.9)	4 (12.5)	0.163
Splenectomy	10 (17.2)	7 (26.9)	3 (9.4)	0.078
History of other abdominal surgery	9 (15.5)	5 (19.2)	4 (12.5)	0.481
History of thrombosis	9 (15.5)	2 (7.7)	7 (21.9)	0.138
Active smoking	13 (22.4)	6 (23.1)	7 (21.9)	0.913
Alcohol abuse	7 (12.1)	3 (11.5)	4 (12.5)	0.911
Hypertension	6 (10.3)	2 (7.7)	4 (12.5)	0.550
Diabetes mellitus	2 (3.4)	0 (0)	2 (6.3)	0.197
Duration of symptoms from onset to admission, d, median (IQR)	7 (4-13)	7 (4-15)	7 (4-12)	0.333
Clinical presentation, n (%)				
Abdominal pain	53 (91.4)	23 (88.5)	30 (93.8)	0.475
Nausea and vomiting	28 (48.3)	12 (46.2)	16 (50.0)	0.771
Hematochezia	12 (20.7)	6 (23.1)	6 (18.8)	0.686
Local peritonitis	19 (32.8)	5 (19.2)	14 (43.8)	0.048

Quantitative variables are expressed as the mean ± SD or median and interquartile range (IQR). AMVT: Acute mesenteric venous thrombosis; SMV: Superior mesenteric vein; PV: Portal vein; SMA: Superior mesenteric artery; PT: Percutaneous transhepatic; TI: Trans-jugular intrahepatic; APACHE II: Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation II; IQR: Interquartile range.

of the clinical presentation, local peritonitis was significantly more often in patients with irreversible intestinal ischemia than in those with reversible ischemia (43.8% *vs* 19.2%, $P = 0.048$).

According to the results of the laboratory examinations (Table 2), patients with irreversible intestinal ischemia had significantly higher leukocyte counts as well as C-reactive protein, total bilirubin, serum albumin, serum creatinine, and arterial lactate levels than patients without resection ($P < 0.05$). The hemoglobin, platelet, procalcitonin, alanine aminotransferase, aspartate aminotransferase, and D-dimer levels were not significantly different between the groups of patients with and without irreversible intestinal ischemia. Compared to free intraperitoneal fluid, bowel dilation, bowel wall thickening, and misty mesentery, only decreased bowel wall enhancement (28.1% *vs* 7.7%, $P = 0.048$) was seen more frequently in AMVT patients with irreversible ischemia than in patients with reversible intestinal ischemia on the imaging examination.

Table 2 Laboratory and imaging examinations of acute mesenteric venous thrombosis patients treated by transcatheter thrombolysis

Variable	All patients	Without resection	With resection	P value
	n = 58	n = 26	n = 32	
Laboratory examination				
Total leukocyte count, $\times 10^9/L$, mean \pm SD	14.3 \pm 8.9	7.1 \pm 2.2	20.3 \pm 7.9	< 0.001
Hemoglobin, g/L, mean \pm SD	114.3 \pm 29.8	117.7 \pm 27.3	111.5 \pm 31.9	0.451
PLT, $\times 10^9/L$, mean \pm SD	242.5 \pm 160.7	287.8 \pm 182.4	204.8 \pm 131.4	0.056
Procalcitonin, $\mu g/L$, median (IQR)	0.25 (0.09-0.75)	0.14 (0.07-0.62)	0.42 (0.14-0.87)	0.096
CRP, mg/L, median (IQR)	59.8 (17.6-133.2)	19.0 (6.4-40.6)	120 (62.6-148.6)	< 0.001
Total bilirubin, $\mu mol/L$, mean \pm SD	18.3 \pm 15.5	13.6 \pm 9.4	22.1 \pm 18.4	0.035
ALT, U/L, median (IQR)	27 (36.3-51.9)	28 (17-43)	26 (14.5-38)	0.748
AST, U/L, median (IQR)	28 (20-38.8)	31 (21-42)	25 (19-36)	0.260
Serum albumin, g/L, mean \pm SD	33.3 \pm 5.2	35.8 \pm 5.2	31.2 \pm 4.2	0.001
D-dimer, $\mu g/L$, median (IQR)	5.6 (3.5-9.5)	3.9 (2.2-7.0)	6.5 (4.1-9.9)	0.081
Creatinine, $\mu mol/L$, mean \pm SD	67.9 \pm 35.6	57.3 \pm 28.8	76.5 \pm 38.7	0.040
Arterial lactate, mmol/L, mean \pm SD	2.8 \pm 0.9	2.1 \pm 0.5	3.3 \pm 0.8	< 0.001
Imaging Examination, n (%)				
Free peritoneal fluid	35 (60.3)	13 (50.0)	22 (68.8)	0.147
Bowel loop dilation	25 (43.1)	9 (34.6)	16 (50.0)	0.239
Decreased bowel wall enhancement	11 (19.0)	2 (7.7)	9 (28.1)	0.048
Bowel wall thickening	32 (55.2)	12 (45.2)	20 (62.5)	0.213
Misty mesentery	23 (39.7)	8 (30.8)	15 (46.9)	0.212

Quantitative variables are expressed as the mean \pm SD or median and interquartile range (IQR). AMVT: Acute mesenteric venous thrombosis; PLT: Platelet count; CRP: C-reactive protein; ALT: Alanine aminotransferase; AST: Aspartate aminotransferase; IQR: Interquartile range.

Clinical outcomes and follow-up

The outcomes of these two groups according to the crude analysis are summarized in Table 3. Five patients died due to sepsis induced MODS during hospitalization and two died from cardiovascular accidents during follow-up. The following poor prognostic indicators demonstrated significantly higher rates in patients with intestinal resection than in those without: Sepsis and MODS ($P < 0.05$). Patients with reversible intestinal ischemia had shorter ICU stays (5.2 ± 3.9 vs 12.1 ± 7.7 , $P < 0.001$) and hospital stays (16.6 ± 4.7 vs 31.9 ± 16.7 , $P < 0.001$) than patients with irreversible intestinal ischemia. Although no significant difference was found in 1-year mortality, 30-d mortality showed a trend of higher mortality in patients with irreversible intestinal ischemia than in those without intestinal resection (15.6% vs 0 ; $P = 0.035$).

Predictors of irreversible intestinal ischemia leading to resection

Multivariable analysis using binary logistic regression showed that the significant independent predictors for irreversible intestinal ischemia leading to resection in AMVT patients treated by TT were leukocytosis (higher leukocyte count) (OR = 2.058, 95%CI: 1.085-3.903, $P = 0.027$) and APACHE II score (OR = 2.368, 95%CI: 1.047-5.357, $P = 0.038$) (Table 4). The overall area under the ROC curve of the model was 0.975 (95%CI: 0.936-1.000). Using the ROC curve, the cutoff values of the leukocyte count and APACHE II score for predicting the onset of irreversible intestinal ischemia were $12 \times 10^9/L$ and 8.5, respectively (Table 5).

Table 3 Outcome and complications of acute mesenteric venous thrombosis patients treated by transcatheter thrombolysis

Variable	All patients	Without resection	With resection	P value
	n = 58	n = 26	n = 32	
Recanalization rate of SMV, n (%)				
Complete recanalization	33 (56.9)	16 (61.5)	17 (53.1)	0.520
Partial recanalization	13 (22.4)	6 (23.1)	7 (21.9)	0.913
Invalid	5 (8.6)	0 (0)	5 (15.6)	0.035
Cavernous transformation	7 (12.1)	4 (15.4)	3 (9.4)	0.485
Length of bowel resection, cm, median (IQR)	100 (60-150)	ND	100 (60-150)	ND
Short bowel syndrome, n (%)	1 (1.7)	0 (0)	1 (3.1)	0.552
Surgical site infection, n (%)	3 (5.2)	0 (0)	3 (9.4)	0.161
Sepsis, n (%)	9 (15.5)	1 (3.8)	8 (25.0)	0.028
Hemorrhage, n (%)	2 (3.4)	1 (3.8)	1 (3.1)	0.700
Anastomotic or parastomal leakage, n (%)	2 (3.4)	0 (0)	2 (6.3)	0.497
AKI, n (%)	2 (3.4)	0 (0)	2 (6.3)	0.497
ARDS, n (%)	2 (3.4)	0 (0)	2 (6.3)	0.497
Liver dysfunction, n (%)	2 (3.4)	0 (0)	2 (6.3)	0.497
MODS, n (%)	6 (10.3)	0 (0)	6 (18.8)	0.022
Time of ICU stay, d, mean ± SD	9.1 ± 7.2	5.2 ± 3.9	12.1 ± 7.7	< 0.001
Time of hospital stay, d, mean ± SD	25.2 ± 14.9	16.6 ± 4.7	31.9 ± 16.7	< 0.001
30-d mortality, n (%)	5 (8.6)	0 (0)	5 (15.6)	0.035
1-yr mortality, n (%)	7 (12.1)	1 (3.8)	6 (18.8)	0.090

Quantitative variables are expressed as the mean ± SD or median and interquartile range (IQR). ND: No data; AMVT: Acute mesenteric venous thrombosis; SMV: Superior mesenteric vein; AKI: Acute kidney injury; ARDS: Acute respiratory distress syndrome; MODS: Multiple organ dysfunction syndrome; ICU: Intensive care unit; IQR: Interquartile range.

Table 4 Binary logistic regression analysis of risk factors associated with irreversible intestinal ischemia leading to resection in acute mesenteric venous thrombosis patients treated by transcatheter thrombolysis

Variable	P value	ORs	95%CI
APACHE II score	0.038	2.368	1.047-5.357
Leukocyte count	0.027	2.058	1.085-3.903
C-reactive protein	0.875	-	-
Arterial lactate	0.661	-	-
Serum albumin	0.547	-	-

AMVT: Acute mesenteric venous thrombosis; APACHE II: Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation II; ORs: Odds ratio; CI: Confidence interval.

DISCUSSION

Acute mesenteric ischemia is an acute vascular emergency of the intestine that can also extend to involved parts of the colon^[22]. Although AMVT is the least common form, accounting for 6% to 9% of acute mesenteric ischemia (AMI), mainly involving the SMV^[5,23,24], the distinction between irreversible ischemia and a viable bowel is more difficult than in arterial mesenteric ischemia, and different pathophysiology is involved in these two diseases despite ultimately involving intestinal necrosis^[7,21].

Table 5 Diagnostic value of the risk factors for diagnosis of irreversible intestinal ischemia in acute mesenteric venous thrombosis patients treated by transcatheter thrombolysis

Variable	AUC	Cut-off value	Sensitivity	Specificity	PPV	NPV	Youden index
APACHE II score	0.728	8.5	0.933	0.440	0.682	0.833	0.373
Leukocyte count	0.947	12×10^9	0.900	1	1	0.893	0.900

AMVT: Acute mesenteric venous thrombosis; APACHE II: Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation II; AUC: Area under curve; PPV: Positive predictive value; NPV: Negative predictive value.

Thus, the factors predictive of poor prognosis in AMVT should be distinguished from those in arterial mesenteric ischemia. However, limited to the rarity and the small number of AMI patients, predictors have often been generally analyzed in a large group of AMI patients^[25-27]. Moreover, prompt treatment and early recognition of patients who need surgical intervention may help achieve a better outcome^[13]. In this study, acute intestinal ischemia was reversed by TT in 26 (44.8%) patients, and the 30-d survival rate was 91.4%. Furthermore, we identified two factors from a multivariate analysis that were independent and easy to assess during the initial workup and were predictive of irreversible intestinal injury and the requirement of surgical resection (APACHE II > 8.5 and leukocytosis > $12 \times 10^9/L$). Close monitoring of these factors may help evaluate whether surgical resection of irreversible intestinal ischemia is ultimately required upon admission.

Patients with persistent symptoms, worsened abdominal pain after anticoagulation therapy, the development of signs of peritonitis, or a high risk of bowel infarction should initiate the multidisciplinary stepwise management^[7,12]. According to the multidisciplinary stepwise management strategy in our ISC, initial catheter-directed thrombolysis was a preferred alternative for patients with local peritonitis^[17]. A high risk of bleeding, confirmed intestinal necrosis or perforation, recent stroke, and primary or metastatic central nervous system malignancies are contraindications to thrombolysis^[17]. Despite the beneficial effect of TT, emerging research has revealed the efficiency of preventing intestinal necrosis or salvaging more ischemic segments. Hollingshead *et al*^[28] reported 20 patients treated by TT with symptom resolution in 85% of patients, and no patients required bowel resection^[28]. In addition, in a series of pilot studies published by the intestinal stroke center in China, prompt endovascular treatment combined with damage control could improve the outcome^[11,13,17]. In this research, among all AMVT patients, only those who were treated by TT were included. Although 32 (55.2%) patients, including 22 (37.9%) patients with intestinal necrosis and 10 (17.24%) with postischemic intestinal stenosis, required intestinal resection and approximately 100 cm-long segments of ischemic bowel were irreversibly resected, short bowel syndrome occurred only in 1 (1.7%) patient. Furthermore, the 30-d mortality and 1-year mortality rates were 8.6% and 12.1%, respectively.

The initiation of endovascular treatment is often suggested after 48-72 h of systemic anticoagulation^[12]. The conditions of approximately 5% of AMVT patients who receive conservative treatment will deteriorate, and endovascular treatment should be initiated^[29]. However, in this research, systemic anticoagulation could not improve conditions in 50% of patients, and TT was initiated 28.5 h after systemic anticoagulation. This may mainly be attributed to the severe conditions in most patients (32.8% of patients with local peritonitis). Signs of peritonitis have traditionally been considered an indication for prompt surgery^[10]. However, in our research, we found that patients with local peritonitis could avoid surgical intervention. Patients with irreversible intestinal ischemia showed a significantly higher rate of peritonitis than patients with reversible intestinal injuries, but this higher rate was not independently associated with irreversible intestinal ischemia.

The APACHE II score is a severity-of-disease classification system and was designed to measure the severity of disease and predict mortality in adult patients admitted to the ICU. Fluid resuscitation, multi-organ function support, early enteral nutrition, and other special treatments in the ICU play pivotal roles in AMI treatment. In AMVT patients, the APACHE II score can also be used to evaluate the severity of illness. Wu *et al*^[30] reported that a high APACHE II score was significantly associated with a poor prognosis in patients with necrotic bowel-induced hepatic portal venous gas^[30]. Hsu *et al*^[31] also reported that a high APACHE II score was significantly associated with a poor prognosis in AMI patients^[31]. Similar findings in AMVT patients were also reported by Yang *et al*^[17]. In this research, we found that a high score

was an independent predictive factor for irreversible intestinal ischemia leading to resection. Clinical awareness should be implemented in AMVT patients with a high APACHE II score (> 8.5) upon admission, even when TT is initiated; ultimately, surgical intervention may also be warranted in these patients.

In terms of the laboratory tests, patients with irreversible intestinal ischemia had higher total leukocyte counts as well as levels of C-reactive protein, total bilirubin, lactate, and creatinine. These results revealed that irreversible intestinal ischemia caused severe tissue hypoxia and that a systemic inflammatory response to irreversible ischemia and organ injury was initiated^[25,27]. Moreover, intestinal dysfunction also impairs nutrition, which was reflected by decreased serum albumin levels in patients with irreversible intestinal ischemia. However, only leukocytosis independently predicted the onset of irreversible bowel ischemia in patients with AMVT treated by TT. A similar result was also reported by Emile^[27]. Moreover, the onset of bowel ischemia, in general, is associated with profound leukocytosis^[32], and a recent study found a total leukocyte count of more than 18000 as a cut-off point for bowel necrosis, as a significant predictor of mortality in AMI^[33]. In this research, the cut-off point for irreversible intestinal ischemia was $12 \times 10^9/L$.

Although prompt TT can help achieve a better outcome, surgical intervention was still performed in 32 (55.2%) patients. Operative intervention is reserved for patients with severe and diffuse peritonitis and transmural bowel infarction or perforation^[34]. In such severe cases, damage control surgery, such as bowel resection with open abdomen, is preferred over complex definitive procedures in order to reduce the second hit phenomenon^[12,17,35]. In patients with intestinal necrosis, double-barrel enterostomy allows the observation of the color and vitality of the stoma, which provides an indirect assessment of the intestinal blood supply and avoids a second-look operation. Sometimes, temporary abdominal closure may be applied when there is severe bowel edema with a risk of intra-abdominal hypertension or abdominal compartment syndrome^[15,36]. In the long term, AMVT can cause postischemic intestinal stenosis^[37]. It tends to progressively worsen and ultimately result in total occlusion^[38,39]. Correction of malnutrition and anticoagulation as well as surgical resection can be initiated in patients with postischemic intestinal stenosis^[20,38,40]. In this study, 27 (84.4%) patients were discharged and the 1-year survival rate was 81.3%.

This study had some limitations. With regard to the rareness of this disease, a large randomized clinical trial seems difficult but is expected. This study, involving a total of 58 AMVT patients treated by TT, is a relatively large-scale study in the current literature. However, a multicenter prospective study is still warranted. Second, there is a lack of useful parameters that may also predict the onset of irreversible intestinal ischemia leading to resection in these patients. Third, checking for inherited or acquired thrombophilia is also warranted. For the two predictive factors, confirmation by further validation cohorts is necessary to allow clinicians and surgeons to draw generalizable conclusions.

Prompt TT can improve outcomes of AMVT. However, patients with irreversible intestinal ischemia manifest a higher risk of poor prognosis than patients with reversible injuries. The two independent predictors of irreversible intestinal ischemia leading to resection are an APACHE II score > 8.5 and a total leukocyte count > $12 \times 10^9/L$. When TT is promptly initiated, close monitoring of these factors can help discriminate AMVT patients in need of ultimately bowel resection from those who can be managed with conservative measures.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

Acute mesenteric venous thrombosis (AMVT) can cause a poor prognosis as a result of irreversible intestinal ischemia. Emerging studies revealed that prompt transcatheter thrombolysis (TT) can achieve early mesenteric revascularization and reverse early intestinal injury. However, irreversible intestinal ischemia still occurs in some cases.

Research motivation

Previous studies always involved both arterial and venous mesenteric ischemia. However, compared to arterial mesenteric ischemia, different pathophysiology is involved and it is more difficult to distinguish irreversible ischemia from viable bowels in venous mesenteric ischemia. What's more, AMVT can not only cause intestinal necrosis in the short term but also result in intestinal stenosis in the long

term, requiring intestinal resection. Limited to the rarity of AMVT, few studies have explored the predictive factors for irreversible intestinal ischemia, requiring surgical resection, in AMVT patients treated by TT.

Research objectives

This study aimed to identify predictive factors for irreversible intestinal ischemia in AMVT patients treated by TT.

Research methods

We retrospectively analyzed the data of 58 AMVT patients who underwent TT. To identify the predictive factors, AMVT patients treated by TT were divided into two groups: Patients with irreversible intestinal ischemia and those with reversible intestinal ischemia. Then, group comparisons and a multivariate binary logistic regression analysis were performed.

Research results

Thirty-two (55.2%) patients with irreversible intestinal ischemia had a higher 30-d mortality and a longer in-hospital stay than patients with reversible intestinal injuries. The significant independent predictors of irreversible intestinal ischemia were Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation (APACHE) II score (odds ratio = 2.368, 95% confidence interval: 1.047-5.357, $P = 0.038$) and leukocytosis (odds ratio = 2.058, 95% confidence interval: 1.085-3.903, $P = 0.027$). Using the receiver operating characteristic curve, the cutoff values of the APACHE II score and leukocytosis for predicting the onset of irreversible intestinal ischemia were calculated to be 8.5 and $12 \times 10^9/L$, respectively.

Research conclusions

Both total leukocyte count and APACHE II score are prognostic factors for irreversible intestinal ischemia in AMVT patients after initiation of TT.

Research perspectives

Both total leukocyte count and APACHE II score are common clinical parameters that are easily available to clinicians upon admission, and may be valuable predictors to discriminate AMVT patients treated by TT who will suffer from irreversible intestinal ischemia from those who can be managed with conservative measures.

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Retrospective Cohort Study

Functionality is not an independent prognostic factor for pancreatic neuroendocrine tumors

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Abstract

BACKGROUND

Pancreatic neuroendocrine neoplasms (pNENs) that produce hormones leading to symptoms are classified as functional tumors, while others are classified as nonfunctional tumors. The traditional view is that functionality is a factor that affects the prognosis of pNEN patients. However, as the sample sizes of studies have increased, researches in recent years have proposed new viewpoints.

AIM

To assess whether functionality is an independent factor for predicting the prognosis of pNEN patients.

METHODS

From January 2004 to December 2016, data of patients who underwent surgery at the primary site for the treatment of pNENs from the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) database and West China Hospital database were retrospectively analyzed.

RESULTS

Contemporaneous data from the two databases were analyzed separately as two cohorts and then merged as the third cohort to create a large sample that was suitable for multivariate analysis. From the SEER database, age ($P = 0.006$) and T stage ($P < 0.001$) were independent risk factors affecting the survival. From the West China Hospital database, independent prognostic factors were age ($P = 0.034$), sex ($P = 0.032$), and grade ($P = 0.039$). The result of the cohort consisting of the combined populations from the two databases showed that race ($P = 0.015$), age ($P = 0.002$), sex ($P = 0.032$) and T stage ($P < 0.001$) were independent prognostic factors. In the West China Hospital database and in the total

Board.

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population, nonfunctional pNETs and other functional pNETs tended to have poorer prognoses than insulinoma. However, functionality was not associated with the survival time of patients with pNETs in the multivariate analysis.

CONCLUSION

Functionality is not associated with prognosis. Race, age, sex, and T stage are independent factors for predicting the survival of patients with pNETs.

Key words: Neuroendocrine tumors; Pancreatic neoplasms; Prognosis; Paraneoplastic endocrine syndromes; Multivariate analysis; Neoplasm staging

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Core tip: Pancreatic neuroendocrine tumors (pNETs) are classified into functional and nonfunctional tumors according to the existence of hormones related symptoms or not. The traditional view is that functionality is correlated with the prognosis of pNET patients, which remains a controversial opinion. In this study, we retrospectively analyzed the clinicopathological data of 426 patients from the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results database and 205 patients from the West China Hospital database. The results indicated that functionality is not associated with prognosis. Race, age, sex, and T stage are independent factors for predicting the survival of patients with pNETs.

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INTRODUCTION

Pancreatic neuroendocrine neoplasms (pNENs) account for approximately 10% of primary pancreatic tumors and the incidence of pNENs has been increasing in recent decades^[1]. Compared with pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma, pNENs are generally considered a less aggressive tumor, which occur in relatively younger patients. Neuroendocrine neoplasms (NENs) include a heterogeneous group of neoplasms, and those which produce hormones leading to symptoms (*e.g.*, Whipple triad, Zollinger-Ellison syndrome, and carcinoid syndrome) are classified as functional tumors^[2], while others that produce a series of substances without hormone related symptoms are classified as nonfunctional tumors^[2,3].

The traditional view is that functionality is a factor that affects the prognosis of pNEN patients. Patients with functional tumors had a longer survival than those with nonfunctional tumors^[4-6]. Tumors that secrete insulin and cause endogenous hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia, namely, insulinomas, are believed to have a better prognosis among functional tumors, especially in the early stage^[7], while patients with somatostatinoma and vipoma have been reported to have a relatively shorter survival^[8].

However, as the sample sizes of studies have increased, researches in recent years have proposed new viewpoints. Due to the lack of specific symptoms, the majority of pNEN cases are diagnosed at a relatively advanced stage^[1]. Therefore, nonfunctional pNENs are more likely to present with aggressive clinical manifestations^[9,10], such as large diameter, increased age, high mitotic count, presence of neural invasion, extrapancreatic organ invasion or metastases, and advanced stage, which may lead to a poor prognosis^[10,11]. Because of the rarity of pNENs and the low proportion of functional tumors, few studies have performed multivariate Cox regression analysis to show the effect of functionality on survival.

In the present study, we collected data from pNEN patients who underwent surgery at the primary site from the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) database and the West China Hospital database. The purpose of this study was to assess whether functionality is an independent factor to predict the prognosis of pNEN patients and explore the factors that influence the survival of these patients.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

SEER database

From January 2004 to December 2016, demographic, clinicopathological, and follow-up data of patients who underwent surgery for the treatment of pNENs were extracted from the SEER database using SEER*Stat software (version 8.3.5). The demographic data included age, race, and sex. The clinicopathological data included ICD-10 code, histology code, primary tumor location, tumor size, T, N, and M stages, pathologic grade, and surgery of the primary site. Survival data included survival months and vital status. Patients who underwent surgery other than pancreatectomy (local/partial resection, pancreaticoduodenectomy, or total pancreatectomy) were excluded.

West China Hospital database

Patients who underwent surgery with curative intent in West China Hospital between January 2004 and December 2016 with pathologically confirmed pNEN were included. Demographic, clinicopathological, and follow-up data of patients were retrospectively retrieved from the West China Hospital database. Patients with mixed neuroendocrine-non neuroendocrine neoplasms were not included. Patients were excluded if there was not enough information to determine the functionality of the tumor ($n = 16$). The follow-up deadline was August 2, 2019.

This study was approved by the West China Hospital Review Board under registration No. 2019 (124).

Pathologic grade and stage

The pathologic grade was evaluated using mitotic count and Ki-67 index according to the World Health Organization (WHO) 2017 classification^[12]. The TNM stage of tumor was assessed following the 8th edition of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC) Cancer Staging Manual^[13]. Patients with pathologic grade unavailable and patients with G3 pancreatic neuroendocrine tumors (pNETs) or pancreatic neuroendocrine carcinomas (pNECs) (mitotic count > 20, Ki-67 index > 20%, and/or previously diagnosed G3 tumor) were excluded from further analysis.

Functionality

Functionality was assessed according to whether hormone-related symptoms existed, regardless of the immunohistochemistry features. In addition to the nonfunctional pNEN group (N), functional pNENs were divided into two groups for further analysis: Insulinomas (I) and other functional pNENs (O).

Statistical analysis

SPSS version 23.0 (IBM Corporation, Chicago, IL) was employed to perform statistical analyses, and $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant. Continuous variables are reported in the form of the mean \pm SE and were compared using the Student's *t*-test. Nominal data (race, primary site of tumor, sex, *etc.*) are presented as frequencies and percentages and were compared using χ^2 tests or Fisher's exact tests. The primary end point of this study was overall survival, which was measured from the date of tumor diagnosis to the date of last follow-up or death. Patients with (1) primary tumor unevaluated (Tx), (2) grade unevaluated (Gx), and/or (3) mitotic count higher than 20 or Ki-67 index higher than 20% (NET G3 or NEC) were not involved in the subsequent statistical analysis. After verification of the proportional hazard assumption, Cox proportional hazard models were constructed to identify factors that predicted the prognosis. All variables with a P value < 0.1 in the univariate analysis were used as input variables for the multivariate analysis which was performed using a forward stepwise method.

RESULTS

Patient characteristics

From the SEER database, a total of 426 patients were enrolled in this study. The baseline data are shown in Table 1. The mean age was 56.74 ± 0.67 years, and the male:female ratio was 221:205. There were 100 functional tumors (23.5%), including 52 insulinomas, 32 gastrinomas, 12 glucagonomas, 2 vipomas, and 2 somatostatinomas.

From the West China Hospital database, the mean age of the 205 patients was 48.16 ± 0.93 years. There were 88 males (42.9%) and 117 females (57.1%). One hundred and

Table 1 Characteristics of patients in the two databases, *n* (%)

Database	SEER database (<i>n</i> = 426)	West China Hospital database (<i>n</i> = 205)	<i>P</i> value
Race			NC
White	357 (83.8)	0 (0.0)	
Asian ¹	25 (5.9)	205 (100)	
Others ²	44 (10.3)	0 (0.0)	
Tumor site			< 0.001
Head	104 (24.4)	85 (41.5)	
Body	51 (12)	55 (26.8)	
Tail	168 (39.4)	44 (21.5)	
Unknown	103 (24.2)	21 (10.2)	
Age (yr)			< 0.001
0-55	193 (45.3)	138 (67.3)	
56-	233 (54.7)	67 (32.7)	
Sex			0.035
Male	221 (51.9)	88 (42.9)	
Female	205 (48.1)	117 (57.1)	
Primary tumor			0.030 ³
T1	121 (28.4)	80 (39)	
T2	135 (31.7)	72 (35.1)	
T3	94 (22.1)	44 (21.5)	
T4	41 (9.6)	9 (4.4)	
Tx	35 (8.2)	0 (0)	
Regional lymph node metastasis			0.171 ³
N0	188 (44.1)	41 (20)	
N1	149 (35)	22 (10.7)	
Nx	89 (20.9)	142 (69.3)	
Distant metastasis			0.044 ³
M0	143 (33.6)	193 (94.1)	
M1	19 (4.5)	12 (5.9)	
Mx	264 (62)	0 (0)	
Grade			< 0.001 ³
pNET G1	229 (53.8)	90 (43.9)	
pNET G2	45 (10.6)	96 (46.8)	
pNET G3 or pNEC	16 (3.8)	9 (4.4)	
Gx	136 (31.9)	10 (4.9)	
Functionality			< 0.001
N	326 (76.5)	101 (49.3)	
I	52 (12.2)	85 (41.5)	
O	48 (11.3)	19 (9.3)	
Surgery			< 0.001 ³
Pancreaticoduodenectomy	143 (33.6)	39 (19)	

Total pancreatectomy	39 (9.2)	6 (2.9)
Partial pancreatectomy	203 (47.7)	88 (42.9)
Local excision	38 (8.9)	72 (35.1)
Other surgeries	3 (0.7)	0 (0)

¹Consisting of Asian and Pacific Islander patients.

²Consisting of Black and American Indian patients and patients whose races were unknown.

³Rows with the title Tx, Nx, Mx, Gx, and other surgeries were not involved in the χ^2 test. SEER: Surveillance, epidemiology, and end results; NC: Not comparable; pNET: Pancreatic neuroendocrine tumor; pNEC: Pancreatic neuroendocrine carcinoma; I: Insulinoma; N: Nonfunctional pNEN; O: Other functional pNEN.

four (50.7%) patients had functional tumors including 85 insulinomas, 9 gastrinomas, 7 glucagonomas, 1 vipoma, 1 somatostatinoma, and 1 rare pNEN secreting adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH)^[14]. Compared with the SEER database, patients in the West China Hospital database had fewer tumors of the pancreatic tail, were younger, had a lower T stage, fewer G2 tumors, and fewer distant metastases, and had more female patients ($P < 0.05$). Although the N stage was comparable in the two databases, the West China Hospital database had more patients with unevaluated N stage (Nx).

When we compared the characteristics of patients of different races (Table 2), the difference between the White and Asian populations was similar to the difference between the two datasets. In the other races, the ratio of male patients was higher, and the proportion of G3 pNETs or pNECs was higher than the respective values in the White and Asian populations. Survival curves of patients of different races from the two databases are shown in Figure 1.

Prognostic factors

Contemporaneous data from the two databases were analyzed separately as two cohorts and then merged as the third cohort to create a larger sample that was suitable for the univariate and multivariate analyses. Patients of races other than White or Asian and Pacific Islander, patients with primary tumor not assessed (Tx) or pathologic grade unevaluated (Gx), and patients who had G3 pNETs or pNECs were not enrolled in the subsequent analysis due to the limitations of the Cox regression model.

The univariate and multivariate analyses of the SEER cohort and the West China Hospital cohort are shown in Table 3. The two cohorts displayed similarities in the hazard ratios (HRs) of age, sex, T stage, regional lymph node metastasis, and distant metastasis, but showed differences in the HRs of primary site, grade, and functionality. In the multivariate analysis, the results of the SEER cohort showed that age (HR = 2.203, 95%CI: 1.249-3.884, $P = 0.006$) and T stage (HR = 2.589, 95%CI: 1.533-4.371, $P < 0.001$) were independent risk factors for predicting prognosis. The results of the West China Hospital cohort showed that age (HR = 4.558, 95%CI: 1.122-18.521, $P = 0.034$), sex (HR = 5.707, 95%CI: 1.161-28.057, $P = 0.032$), and grade (HR = 9.039, 95%CI: 1.118-73.051, $P = 0.039$) were independent prognostic factors.

In the cohort consisting of the combined populations from the two databases, factors that affected prognosis in the univariate analysis included country ($P = 0.002$), race ($P = 0.001$), age ($P < 0.001$), sex ($P = 0.005$), T stage ($P < 0.001$), regional lymph node metastasis (N1, $P = 0.036$), distant metastasis ($P < 0.001$), and functionality (nonfunctional pNETs, $P = 0.031$; other functional pNETs, $P = 0.012$). The multivariate proportional hazard model contained only race (HR = 0.438, 95%CI: 0.225-0.851, $P = 0.015$), age (HR = 2.315, 95%CI: 1.362-3.935, $P = 0.002$), sex (HR = 1.744, 95%CI: 1.049-2.899, $P = 0.032$), and T stage (HR = 2.612, 95%CI: 1.603-4.254, $P < 0.001$).

Effect of functionality on survival

In the West China Hospital database and in the total population, nonfunctional pNETs (West China Hospital database: HR = 1.473, 95%CI: 0.268-8.092, $P = 0.656$; total population: HR = 2.544, 95%CI: 1.090-5.938, $P = 0.031$) and other functional pNETs (West China Hospital database: HR = 7.913, 95%CI: 1.314-47.670, $P = 0.024$; total population: HR = 3.925, 95%CI: 1.359-11.337, $P = 0.012$) tended to have poorer prognoses than insulinoma. However, as shown in the multivariate analysis, functionality was not associated with the survival time of patients with pNETs since it was not selected into the model.

Table 2 Characteristics of patients of different races, n (%)

Race	White (n = 357)	Asian ¹ (n = 230)	Others ² (n = 44)	P value
Tumor site				< 0.001
Head	80 (22.4)	94 (40.9)	15 (34.1)	
Body	40 (11.2)	59 (25.7)	7 (15.9)	
Tail	153 (42.9)	48 (20.9)	11 (25)	
Unknown	84 (23.5)	29 (12.6)	11 (25)	
Age (yr)				< 0.001
0-55	156 (43.7)	150 (65.2)	25 (56.8)	
56-	201 (56.3)	80 (34.8)	19 (43.2)	
Sex				0.002
Male	162 (45.4)	130 (56.5)	30 (68.2)	
Female	195 (54.6)	100 (43.5)	14 (31.8)	
Primary tumor				0.073 ³
T1	98 (27.5)	89 (38.7)	14 (31.8)	
T2	117 (32.8)	79 (34.3)	11 (25)	
T3	79 (22.1)	51 (22.2)	8 (18.2)	
T4	35 (9.8)	10 (4.3)	5 (11.4)	
Tx	28 (7.8)	1 (0.4)	6 (13.6)	
Regional lymph node metastasis				0.094 ³
N0	157 (44)	53 (23)	19 (43.2)	
N1	128 (35.9)	25 (10.9)	18 (40.9)	
Nx	72 (20.2)	152 (66.1)	7 (15.9)	
Distant metastasis				0.054 ³
M0	119 (33.3)	202 (87.8)	15 (34.1)	
M1	16 (4.5)	12 (5.2)	3 (6.8)	
Mx	222 (62.2)	16 (7)	26 (59.1)	
Grade				< 0.001 ³
pNET G1	192 (53.8)	105 (45.7)	22 (50)	
pNET G2	42 (11.8)	98 (42.6)	1 (2.3)	
pNET G3 or pNEC	13 (3.6)	9 (3.9)	3 (6.8)	
Gx	110 (30.8)	18 (7.8)	18 (40.9)	
Functionality				< 0.001
N	277 (77.6)	117 (50.9)	33 (75)	
I	40 (11.2)	93 (40.4)	4 (9.1)	
O	40 (11.2)	20 (8.7)	7 (15.9)	
Surgery				< 0.001 ³
Pancreaticoduodenectomy	111 (31.1)	51 (22.2)	20 (45.5)	
Total pancreatectomy	33 (9.2)	7 (3)	5 (11.4)	
Partial pancreatectomy	179 (50.1)	96 (41.7)	16 (36.4)	
Local excision	31 (8.7)	76 (33)	3 (6.8)	
Other surgeries	3 (0.8)	0 (0)	0 (0)	

¹Consisting of Asian and Pacific Islander patients.²Consisting of Black and American Indian patients and patients whose races were unknown.³Rows with the title Tx, Nx, Mx, Gx and other surgeries were not involved in the chi-square test. pNET: Pancreatic neuroendocrine tumor; pNEC: Pancreatic neuroendocrine carcinoma; I: Insulinoma; N: Nonfunctional pNEN; O: Other functional pNEN.

DISCUSSION

Compared with pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma, pNETs are characterized by a lower incidence, younger age, and better prognosis^[1]. According to morphological features, the WHO 2017 guidelines divide pNENs into biologically different groups, pNETs and pNECs. pNET cells have a fairly uniform, solid, trabecular, spiral or glandular patterned nucleus with pepper-salt chromatin and granular cytoplasm, while pNECs are similar to small or large cell neuroendocrine carcinomas of the lung^[15]. Only pNETs can be divided into three different prognostic groups (G1, G2, and G3) according to mitotic count and Ki-67 index. Subsequently, the AJCC updated the staging system of pancreatic tumors^[13]. pNET G1 and G2 are staged in a scheme that is similar to the European Neuroendocrine Tumor Society Consensus Guidelines staging system^[16,17], while G3 pNETs and pNECs share the same staging system as pancreatic exocrine tumors.

pNENs were previously classified into several groups according to the existence and type of hormone related symptoms. The group, or rather, functionality was believed to be associated with the survival of patients with pNEN. Cienfuegos *et al*^[4] performed a log-rank survival analysis on pNEN patients, and the results showed that the nonfunctioning tumor group had a relatively poor prognosis compared with the functioning tumor group ($P = 0.052$). Studies have indicated that functionality is positively related to the expression of somatostatin receptor 2^[18] and negatively related to aurora kinase B^[19], which may contribute to the improvement in survival. Wang *et al*^[5] and Nanno *et al*^[6] found that functionality is a prognostic factor affecting overall survival and disease-free survival in the results of univariate Cox regression analysis. However, the multivariate analysis was not carried out in the study by Wang *et al*^[5] (due to the small sample size) and did not include functionality as a factor in the model in the study by Nanno *et al*^[6] (only venous invasion and grade were used as input variables).

In recent years, studies have proposed new viewpoints. Studies^[20,21] that included patients with NENs in almost all the locations suggested that functionality is not associated with progression-free survival¹³ or disease-free survival^[14]. However, there are differences in biological characteristics between NENs of lung origin and gastroenteropancreatic NENs: The majority of the functional NENs are carcinoid syndrome^[20], while the functional tumors of gastroenteropancreatic NENs, especially pNENs, are mainly insulinomas^[10].

Our results indicated that race, age, sex, and T stage were independent factors for predicting the survival of patients with pNETs. Although no significant differences were found in the effects of some factors on survival in the small sample cohorts, it does not mean that there is no relationship between these factors and survival. Only a sample that is large enough can reveal the real prognostic factor.

Functionality was correlated with survival in the univariate analysis, but was not associated with prognosis in the multivariate analysis. The prognosis of patients with nonfunctional tumors is generally considered to be poorer than that of patients with insulinoma. However, this is more likely related to the late diagnosis of patients with nonfunctional tumors, rather than the difference in biological properties between functional and nonfunctional tumors or the effect of hormones secreted by functional tumors. Hormone related syndrome is the only basis to distinguish between the nonfunctional neuroendocrine neoplasm and several types of functional neuroendocrine neoplasm. However, immunohistochemical staining also shows the expression of insulin/glucagon/gastrin/somatostatin in non-functional tumors. The reasonability of classification based on symptoms rather than gene expression needs to be further explored.

According to WHO guidelines, the assessment of grade depends on mitotic count and Ki-67 index, with a cutoff value of 2/10 high power fields and 3%, respectively. However, the cutoff values that make the most sense are still debatable. Some studies support that Ki-67 and mitotic count is correlated with prognosis^[6,11], while there are also some studies that do not support this viewpoint^[18]. In the Western China Hospital database, grade is an independent risk factor for prognosis. But in the SEER database, grade is not related to prognosis.

Table 3 Univariate and multivariate Cox proportional hazard regression analyses of predictors of survival in patients

Study population	SEER database		West China Hospital database		All population	
Variables	HR (95CI)	P value	HR (95%CI)	P value	HR (95%CI)	P value
Univariate analysis						
Country						
United States					1.000	
China					0.326 (0.159, 0.665)	0.002
Race						
White	1.000				1.000	
Asian	0.402 (0.098, 1.652)	0.206			0.326 (0.169, 0.626)	0.001
Age (yr)						
Below 55	1.000		1.000		1.000	
Over 56	2.121 (1.204, 3.738)	0.009	4.224 (1.055, 16.919)	0.042	2.710 (1.606, 4.574)	< 0.001
Sex						
Female	1.000		1.000		1.000	
Male	1.822 (1.065, 3.119)	0.029	4.262 (0.878, 20.686)	0.072	2.067 (1.251, 3.415)	0.005
Primary site						
Head	1.000		1.000		1.000	
Body	2.077 (0.899, 4.800)	0.087	0.801 (0.146, 4.398)	0.799	1.651 (0.784, 3.479)	0.187
Tail	1.259 (0.616, 2.573)	0.527	1.193 (0.266, 5.349)	0.817	1.445 (0.769, 2.718)	0.253
Unknown	1.359 (0.598, 3.085)	0.464	0.000	0.987	1.491 (0.698, 3.187)	0.303
Primary tumor						
T1-2	1.000		1.000		1.000	
T3-4	2.515 (1.490, 4.246)	0.001	3.663 (0.980, 13.688)	0.054	2.858 (1.756, 4.651)	< 0.001
Regional lymph node metastasis						
N0	1.000		1.000		1.000	
N1	1.602 (0.918, 2.795)	0.097	2.757 (0.387, 19.630)	0.311	1.775 (1.040, 3.032)	0.036
Nx	0.911 (0.407, 2.038)	0.820	0.981 (0.186, 5.170)	0.982	0.585 (0.293, 1.167)	0.128
Distant metastasis						
M0	1.000		1.000		1.000	
M1	5.295 (1.804, 15.543)	0.002	3.423 (0.423, 27.705)	0.249	5.726 (2.269, 14.450)	< 0.001
Mx	1.993 (0.973, 4.079)	0.059			2.773 (1.551, 4.960)	0.001
Grade						
G1	1.000		1.000		1.000	
G2	1.418 (0.734, 2.739)	0.298	9.823 (1.224, 78.806)	0.032	1.266 (0.740, 2.166)	0.388
Functionality						
I	1.000		1.000		1.000	
N	1.924 (0.691, 5.353)	0.210	1.473 (0.268, 8.092)	0.656	2.544 (1.090, 5.938)	0.031
O	2.247 (0.600, 8.423)	0.230	7.913 (1.314, 47.670)	0.024	3.925 (1.359, 11.337)	0.012
Multivariate analysis						
Race						
White					1.000	
Asian					0.438 (0.225, 0.851)	0.015

Age									
Below 55	1.000			1.000			1.000		
Over 56	2.203	(1.249, 3.884)	0.006	4.558	(1.122, 18.521)	0.034	2.315	(1.362, 3.935)	0.002
Sex									
Female				1.000			1.000		
Male				5.707	(1.161, 28.057)	0.032	1.744	(1.049, 2.899)	0.032
Primary tumor									
T1-2	1.000						1.000		
T3-4	2.589	(1.533, 4.371)	< 0.001				2.612	(1.603, 4.254)	< 0.001
Grade									
G1				1.000					
G2				9.039	(1.118, 73.051)	0.039			

SEER: Surveillance, epidemiology, and end results; I: Insulinoma; N: Nonfunctional pNEN; O: Other functional pNEN.

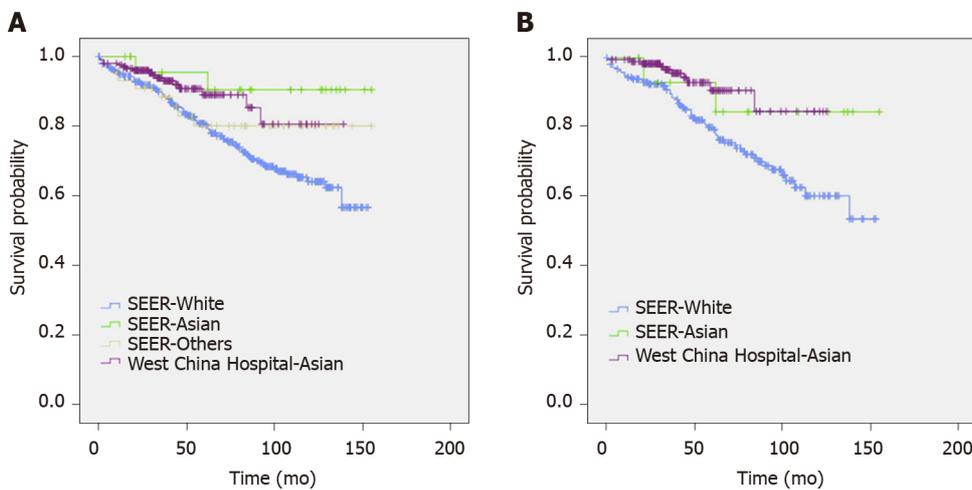


Figure 1 Survival functions of patients by database and race. A: Survival of patients enrolled; B: Survival of patients analyzed. SEER: Surveillance, epidemiology, and end results.

There was a trend of shorter survival time for patients with higher T stage in our small-sample cohort ($n = 205$), and T stage turned out to be an independent prognostic factor in large-sample cohorts (SEER, $n = 426$; total, $n = 631$), which is similar to the results of other studies^[6,21]. On one hand, it indicated that T stage is indeed a factor that affects the prognoses of patients with pNETs; on the other hand, the results showed the importance of sample size in cohort study.

Data of the same period from the two databases were included in the analyses above. The distributions of N stage were comparable between the two datasets, but the populations from the two databases had differences in the distributions of primary tumor location, age, sex, T stage, M stage, grade, functionality, and surgery. Compared with the data in the SEER database (Table 1) and the results from other studies^[4,5], the proportion of nonfunctional tumors was only approximately 50% in the West China Hospital database, indicating that some patients were not diagnosed and treated and that there is a need to advance the screening and early diagnosis of nonfunctional pNENs. Insulinomas accounted for only half of the functional tumors in the SEER database, while insulinomas accounted for the vast majority of functional pNENs in the West China Hospital database, which is similar to the results of Wang *et al*^[9]. Local excision was performed more commonly in the West China Hospital database, especially before 2010, which led to a higher proportion of patients with no lymph nodes examined (Nx).

There were some limitations to this study: (1) Patients of the same time period were

enrolled from the two databases, and the inclusion/exclusion criteria were the same. However, SEER is a multicenter database, while the West China Hospital database is a single center database. The baseline data of the two datasets had differences in the distributions of some variables. Most of the data were demographic data or objective clinical data (such as tumor size and lymph node metastasis). The tumor grade depends on the mitotic count and Ki-67 index whose implementation may vary in different centers. Cox regression of the combined dataset may not represent the relationship between grade and prognosis; and (2) This study collected data from 2004 to 2016 retrospectively, and there is not sufficient information to separate poorly-differentiated pNECs from well-differentiated G3 pNETs in the SEER database. The TNM stages of G3 pNETs and pNECs may not have the same effect on survival as those of G1 and G2 tumors since they are completely different stage systems. Therefore, we excluded all tumors with mitotic counts higher than 20 or Ki-67 indexes higher than 20% (G3 pNETs and pNECs).

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

Pancreatic neuroendocrine neoplasms (pNENs) that produce hormones leading to symptoms are classified as functional tumors, while others are classified as nonfunctional tumors.

Research motivation

The traditional view is that functionality affects the prognosis of pNEN patients. However, recent studies have proposed new viewpoints. Because of the rarity of pNENs and the low proportion of functional tumors, few studies have performed multivariate Cox regression to show the effect of functionality on survival.

Research objectives

To assess whether functionality is an independent factor for predicting the prognosis of pNEN patients.

Research methods

From January 2004 to December 2016, data of patients who underwent surgery at the primary site for the treatment of pNENs from the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) database and West China Hospital database were retrospectively analyzed.

Research results

From the SEER database, age and T stage were independent risk factors affecting the survival. From the West China Hospital database, independent prognostic factors were age, sex, and grade. The result of the cohort consisting of the combined populations from the two databases showed that race, age, sex, and T stage were independent prognostic factors. In the West China Hospital database and in the total population, nonfunctional pNETs and other functional pNETs tended to have poorer prognoses than insulinomas. However, functionality was not associated with the survival time of patients with pNETs in the multivariate analysis.

Research conclusions

Race, age, sex, and T stage are independent factors for predicting the survival of patients with pNETs. The results of this study do not support the opinion that hormone related syndrome is an efficacious tool to classify tumors into groups with different prognoses.

Research perspectives

Hormone related syndrome is the only basis to assess the functionality of neuroendocrine neoplasms. Nonfunctional tumors and functional tumors were reported to have different prognoses. However, they do not have much difference in pathologic feature or gene expression. Immunohistochemical staining also displays the expression of insulin/glucagon/gastrin/somatostatin in non-functional tumors. The reasonability of classification based on symptoms rather than gene expression needs to be further explored.

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Retrospective Study

Chronic atrophic gastritis detection with a convolutional neural network considering stomach regions

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Institutional review board statement: The study was reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board of The University of Tokyo Hospital.

Informed consent statement: Patients were not required to give informed consent to the study because the analysis used anonymous data that were obtained after each patient agreed to inspections by written consent.

Conflict-of-interest statement: The authors have no conflict of interest.

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Abstract

BACKGROUND

The risk of gastric cancer increases in patients with *Helicobacter pylori*-associated chronic atrophic gastritis (CAG). X-ray examination can evaluate the condition of the stomach, and it can be used for gastric cancer mass screening. However, skilled doctors for interpretation of X-ray examination are decreasing due to the diverse of inspections.

AIM

To evaluate the effectiveness of stomach regions that are automatically estimated by a deep learning-based model for CAG detection.

METHODS

We used 815 gastric X-ray images (GXIs) obtained from 815 subjects. The ground truth of this study was the diagnostic results in X-ray and endoscopic examinations. For a part of GXIs for training, the stomach regions are manually annotated. A model for automatic estimation of the stomach regions is trained with the GXIs. For the rest of them, the stomach regions are automatically estimated. Finally, a model for automatic CAG detection is trained with all GXIs for training.

RESULTS

In the case that the stomach regions were manually annotated for only 10 GXIs and 30 GXIs, the harmonic mean of sensitivity and specificity of CAG detection

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were 0.955 ± 0.002 and 0.963 ± 0.004 , respectively.

CONCLUSION

By estimating stomach regions automatically, our method contributes to the reduction of the workload of manual annotation and the accurate detection of the CAG.

Key words: Gastric cancer risk; Chronic atrophic gastritis; *Helicobacter pylori*; Gastric X-ray images; Deep learning; Convolutional neural network; Computer-aided diagnosis

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Core tip: To construct a computer-aided diagnosis system, a method to detect chronic atrophic gastritis from gastric X-ray images (GXIs) with a patch-based convolutional neural network is presented in this paper. The proposed method utilizes two GXI groups for training: a manual annotation group and an automatic annotation group. The manual annotation group consists of GXIs for which we manually annotate the stomach regions, and the automatic annotation group consists of GXIs for which we automatically estimate the stomach regions. By utilizing GXIs with the stomach regions for training, the proposed method enables chronic atrophic gastritis detection that automatically eliminates the negative effect of the outside regions.

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INTRODUCTION

Gastric cancer is the third leading cause of death in all types of malignancies behind lung cancer and colorectal cancer^[1]. One of the major risk factors of gastric cancer is *Helicobacter pylori* (*H. pylori*) infection^[2-4]. Chronic atrophic gastritis (CAG) induced by *H. pylori* leads to atrophic mucosa^[5], which increases the risk of gastric cancer^[6]. Moreover, it has been revealed that *H. pylori* eradication therapy is effective for the reduction of the risk of gastric cancer^[7-9].

According to the International Agency for Research on Cancer, the number of new cases of gastric cancer in Eastern Asia accounts for more than half of those in the world. For the reduction of gastric cancer mortality, population-based screening for gastric cancer has been conducted through endoscopic and X-ray examinations in Japan^[10]. Although the detection rate of early gastric cancer by endoscopic examination is higher than that by X-ray examination^[11], mass screening using endoscopic examination has some problems, *e.g.*, a limit to the number of patients who can be examined^[12]. Therefore, in Japan, endoscopic examination is often performed for cases in which something unusual is found by X-ray examination^[13]. However, the interpretation of gastric X-ray images (GXIs) requires sufficient experience and knowledge, and there is a shortage of doctors who are skilled in diagnosis^[10]. The development of computer-aided diagnosis (CAD) systems is needed to help doctors who do not have sufficient experience and knowledge.

For realizing CAD systems, researchers have been exploring methods for CAG detection from GXIs^[14-17]. In early works, attempts were made to describe the visual features of CAG with mathematical models^[14,15]. For more accurate detection, in the papers^[16,17], we have tried to introduce convolutional neural networks (CNNs)^[18] since it has been reported that CNNs outperform methods with hand-crafted features in various tasks^[19-21]. We adopted a CNN that was trained on patches obtained by dividing original images, *i.e.*, a patch-based CNN, to preserve detailed textures of GXIs since they had high resolutions. In our previous investigation^[17], we focused on the outside patches of the stomach since textures of these patches do not depend on the image-level ground truth (GT), *i.e.*, CAG or non-CAG. In clinical settings, GXIs generally have only the image-level GT. Therefore, we introduced manual annotation

of stomach regions for all GXIs used in training and assigned the patch-level class labels based on the image-level GT and the stomach regions. Although the previously reported method already achieved high detection performance (sensitivity: 0.986, specificity: 0.945), there remains a problem. In general, CNNs require a large number of labeled images for training to determine millions of parameters that can capture the semantic contents of images. However, manually annotating stomach regions for a large number of GXIs is time- and labor-consuming. In other words, the previous method can practically utilize only a small number of GXIs even in the case of numerous GXIs being available for training.

In this paper, we propose a novel CAG detection method that requires manual annotation of stomach regions for only a small number of GXIs. The main contribution of this paper is the effective use of stomach regions that are manually annotated for a part of GXIs used in training. We assume that distinguishing the inside and outside patches of the stomach is much easier for patch-based CNNs than distinguishing whether the patches are extracted from CAG images or non-CAG images. Therefore, we newly introduce the automatic estimation of stomach regions for non-annotated GXIs. Herewith, we can reduce the workload of manual annotation and train a patch-based CNN that considers stomach regions with all GXIs even when we manually annotate stomach regions for some of the GXIs used in training.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The proposed method that requires manual annotation of stomach regions for only a small number of GXIs to detect CAG is presented in this section. This study was reviewed and approved by the institutional review board. Patients were not required to give informed consent to this study since the analysis used anonymous data that were obtained after each patient agreed to inspections by written consent. In this study, Kanai M from Graduate School of Information Science and Technology, Hokkaido University, Togo R from Education and Research Center for Mathematical and Data Science, Hokkaido University, Ogawa T and Haseyama M from Faculty of Information Science and Technology, Hokkaido University, took charge of the statistical analysis since they have an advanced knowledge of statistical analysis.

Study subjects

The GXIs used in this study were obtained from 815 subjects. Each subject underwent a gastric X-ray examination and an endoscopic examination at The University of Tokyo Hospital in 2010, and GXIs that had the same diagnostic results in both examinations were used in this study. Criteria for exclusion were the usage history of gastric acid suppressants, a history of *H. pylori* eradication therapy, and insufficient image data. The ground truth for this study was the diagnostic results in X-ray and endoscopic examinations. In the X-ray evaluation, subjects were classified into four categories, *i.e.*, “normal”, “mild”, “moderate” and “severe”, based on atrophic levels^[22]. It should be noted that the stomach with non-CAG has straight and fine fold distributions and fine mucosal surfaces, and the stomach with CAG has non-straight and snaked folds and coarse mucosal surfaces. X-ray examination can visualize these atrophic characteristics by barium contrast medium. We show that these differences can be trained on a chronic atrophic gastritis detection model with a small number of training images in this paper. We regarded subjects whose diagnosis results were “normal” as non-CAG subjects and the other subjects as CAG subjects. In contrast, in the endoscopic examination, subjects were classified into seven categories, *i.e.*, no atrophic change (C0), three closed types of atrophic gastritis (C1, C2, C3) and three open types of atrophic gastritis (O1, O2, O3) based on the Kimura-Takemoto seven-grade classification^[23]. Since C1 is defined as the atrophic borderline, we excluded subjects whose diagnosis results were C1 from the dataset. We regarded subjects whose diagnosis results were C0 as non-CAG subjects and the other subjects as CAG subjects. As a result, we regarded 240 subjects as CAG subjects and 575 subjects as non-CAG subjects.

According to the specific condition of GXIs, the size of GXIs used in this study was 2048 × 2048 pixels with an 8-bit grayscale. Technique of fluoroscopy was a digital radiography system. Exposure was controlled by an automatic exposure control mechanism. To realize the learning of our model at the patch level, GXIs taken from the double-contrast frontal view of the stomach in the supine position were used in this study.

Preparation of dataset for training

For more accurate detection, we focus on the outside patches of the stomach since textures of these patches do not depend on the image-level GT at all. Although stomach regions can be easily determined without highly dedicated knowledge, manually annotating stomach regions for a large number of GXIs is not practical. In order to overcome this problem, we split GXIs for training into the following two groups.

- (1) Manual annotation group (MAG): This group consists of GXIs for which we manually annotate the stomach regions. It is ideal for the number of GXIs in this group to be small since annotation for a large number of GXIs is time-and labor-consuming;
- (2) Automatic annotation group (AAG): This group consists of GXIs for which we automatically estimate the stomach regions with a CNN. By estimating the stomach regions automatically, a large number of GXIs can be used for training without the large burden of manual annotation.

An overview of the preparation of the dataset is shown in [Figure 1](#). The preparation of the dataset for training consists of two steps. In the first step, we annotate the stomach regions for GXIs in the MAG manually and select patches for training from GXIs in the MAG. In the second step, we estimate the stomach regions for GXIs in the AAG automatically and select patches for training from GXIs in the AAG.

First step - Patch selection for training from the MAG: Each GXI in the MAG is divided into patches. To separate the inside and outside patches of the stomach, we categorize the patches with the following three kinds of patch-level class labels (P, N, U): P: inside patches of the stomach in CAG images, *i.e.*, positive patches; N: inside patches of the stomach in non-CAG images, *i.e.*, negative patches; U: outside patches of the stomach in both CAG and non-CAG images, *i.e.*, unrelated patches.

Note that if more than 80% regions within patches are included in the inside of the stomach, they were annotated as P or N. Furthermore, if less than 1% regions within patches are included in the inside of the stomach, they were annotated as U. Otherwise, we discard such patches from the training dataset. We denote a set of patches with each patch-level class label (P, N, U) as P_{MAG} , N_{MAG} , and U_{MAG} . By setting the class label U, we can train a patch-based CNN that can distinguish the inside and outside patches of the stomach.

Second step - Patch selection for training from the AAG: For estimating the stomach regions for GXIs in the AAG, we introduce a fine-tuning technique that is effective when only a small number of images for training are available^[24]. First, we prepare a CNN whose weights are transferred from a CNN pre-trained for image classification with a large number of labeled natural images. The number of nodes on the last fully connected layer in the CNN is altered to the number of the patch-level class labels (P, N, U). Due to this alteration, we initialize weights of the last fully connected layer with random values sampled from a uniform distribution. Next, the CNN is fine-tuned with the patches obtained in the first step to calculate the probabilities p_c (c belong to {P,N,U}, $\sum_c p_c = 1$) of belonging to the patch-level class label c . By transferring the weights from the pre-trained CNN, accurate prediction of the patch-level class labels is realized even when the number of GXIs in the MAG is small. Second, we estimate the stomach regions for GXIs in the AAG. We divide each GXI in the AAG into patches. By inputting the patches into the fine-tuned CNN, we calculate the probabilities p_c . We can regard $p_P + p_N$ and p_U as the probability of the inside of the stomach and the probability of the outside of the stomach, respectively. Therefore, we handle the patches that satisfy $p_P + p_N \geq \alpha$ ($0.5 < \alpha \leq 1$) and the patches that satisfy $p_U \geq \alpha$ as the inside and outside patches of the stomach, respectively. Finally, we assign three kinds of patch-level class labels (P, N, U) for the patches based on the estimated results and the image-level GT. We denote a set of selected patches with patch-level class labels (P, N, U) as P_{AAG} , N_{AAG} and U_{AAG} respectively. By estimating the stomach regions for the AAG, we can add P_{AAG} , N_{AAG} and U_{AAG} to the dataset for training even in the case of manual annotation of the stomach regions only for the MAG.

Chronic atrophic gastritis detection

With all selected patches ($P = P_{MAG} + P_{AAG}$, $N = N_{MAG} + N_{AAG}$, $U = U_{MAG} + U_{AAG}$), we retrain the fine-tuned CNN to predict the patch-level class labels. For a GXI X^{test} whose stomach regions and GT are unknown, we estimate an image-level class label y^{test} belong to {1,0} that indicates CAG or non-CAG. First, we divide the target image X^{test} into patches. We denote the patch-level class label predicted by the retrained CNN as c^{pred} belong to {P,N,U}. In order to eliminate the influence of patches outside the stomach, we select patches that satisfy $c^{\text{pred}} = P$ or $c^{\text{pred}} = N$ for estimating the image-

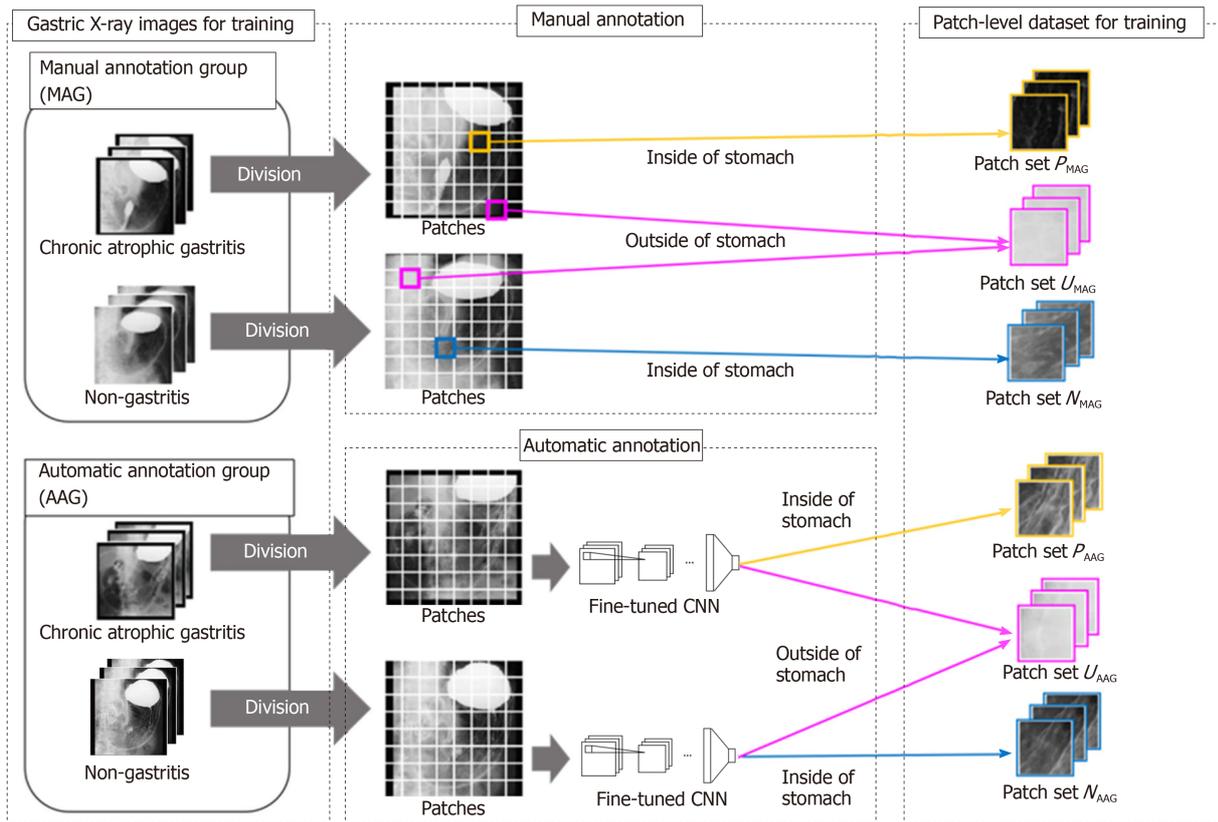


Figure 1 Overview of preparation of the dataset. CNN: Convolutional neural network; MAG: Manual annotation group; AAG: Automatic annotation group.

level class label. We calculate the ratio R with the selected patches as follows: $R = M_p / (M_p + M_n)$, where M_p and M_n are the numbers of patches that satisfy $c^{pred} = P$ and $c^{pred} = N$, respectively. Finally, the image-level estimation result y^{test} for the target image X^{test} is obtained as follows: $y^{test} = 1$ if $R < \beta$, otherwise, $y^{test} = 0$, where β is a predefined threshold. By selecting patches that satisfy $c^{pred} = P$ or $c^{pred} = N$, estimating the image-level class label without the negative effect of regions outside the stomach is feasible.

Evaluation of chronic atrophic gastritis detection results

A total of 815 GXIs including 200 images (100 CAG and 100 non-CAG images) for training and 615 images (140 CAG and 475 non-CAG images) for evaluation were used in this experiment. We set the number of GXIs in the MAG N_{MAG} to $\{10, 20, \dots, 50\}$. Note that the numbers of CAG and non-CAG images in the MAG were both set to $N_{MAG}/2$. We randomly sampled GXIs for the MAG from those for training, and the rest of them were used for the AAG. For an accurate evaluation, random sampling and calculating the performance of CAG detection were repeated five times at each N_{MAG} . It took approximately 24 h to perform each trial. Note that all networks were computed on a single NVIDIA GeForce RTX 2080 Ti GPU. In this study, we extracted patches of 299×299 pixels in size from GXIs at intervals of 50 pixels. The following parameters were used for training of the CNN model: Batch size = 32, learning rate = 0.0001, momentum = 0.9, and the number of epochs = 50. The threshold for estimating stomach regions α was set to 0.9.

The TensorFlow framework^[25] was utilized for training CNNs. We utilized the Inception-v3^[26] model with weights trained on ImageNet^[27] for fine-tuning. To confirm the effectiveness of utilizing not only the MAG but also the AAG for training, we compared the proposed method utilizing only the MAG with the proposed method utilizing the MAG and AAG. Hereinafter, (MAG only) denotes the proposed method utilizing only the MAG, and (MAG + AAG) denotes the proposed method utilizing both the MAG and AAG.

The performance was measured by the following harmonic mean (HM) of sensitivity and specificity: $HM = (2 \times Sensitivity \times Specificity) / (Sensitivity + Specificity)$.

Note that HM was obtained at threshold β providing the highest HM.

RESULTS

Our experimental results are shown in this section. Examples of GXIs for evaluation are shown in [Figure 2](#). First, we evaluate the performance of the fine-tuned CNN to select patches from the AAG. Note that the fine-tuned CNN doesn't have to distinguish with high accuracy whether the patches are extracted from CAG images or non-CAG images since we utilize the fine-tuned CNN only for estimating the stomach regions. [Figure 3](#) shows the visualization results obtained by applying the fine-tuned CNN to the CAG image shown in [Figure 2A](#).

Specifically, the estimated patches of the inside and outside of the stomach and visualization of p_P and p_N (*i.e.*, calculated probabilities of belonging to the patch-level class labels P and N) are shown in [Figure 3](#). It is notable that the inside and outside regions of the stomach partially overlapped since GXIs were divided into patches with the overlap in this experiment. As shown in [Figure 3](#), regions whose probabilities p_P and p_N are high tend to increase and decrease, respectively, as N_{MAG} (*i.e.*, the number of GXIs in the MAG) increases. In contrast, the stomach regions were estimated with high accuracy and the estimated stomach regions do not depend on the change of N_{MAG} . Therefore, it is worth utilizing the fine-tuned CNN for estimating the stomach regions.

Next, we evaluate the performance of CAG detection. To confirm the effectiveness of considering stomach regions, we evaluated the detection performance of a baseline method that did not consider the stomach regions by setting patch-level class labels to the same as the image-level GT. As a result of utilizing 200 GXIs for the training, HM of the baseline method was 0.945. We show the detection performance of methods that considered the stomach regions. The detection performance of (MAG only) and that of (MAG + AAG) are shown in [Figure 4](#). In [Figure 4](#), HMs are shown as means \pm SD of five trials. As shown in [Figure 4](#), the mean of HM by (MAG + AAG) is higher than that by (MAG only) at each N_{MAG} . The standard deviation of HM by (MAG + AAG) is smaller than that by (MAG only) at each N_{MAG} . Therefore, the effectiveness of utilizing not only the MAG but also the AAG for the training is confirmed when the stomach regions are manually annotated for the same number of GXIs. Besides, to confirm the effect of reducing the workload of the manual annotation on detection performance, we evaluated the detection performance of a method that manually annotated the stomach regions for all GXIs used in the training (*i.e.*, $N_{MAG} = 200$). As a result, the HM of this method was 0.965. The negative effect of reducing the workload of manual annotation is small since the mean the HM of (MAG + AAG) approaches the HM of this method even when N_{MAG} is small.

DISCUSSION

This study demonstrated that highly accurate detection of CAG was feasible even when we manually annotated the stomach regions for a small number of GXIs. [Figure 4](#) (MAG only) indicates that a larger number of GXIs with annotation of the stomach regions are required to realize highly accurate detection. In contrast, a highly accurate estimation of the stomach regions is feasible even when the number of manually annotated images is limited. Therefore, highly accurate detection of CAG and reduction of the labor required for manually annotating the stomach regions are simultaneously realized by the proposed method when a large number of GXIs with the image-level GT are available for training.

The proposed method can be applied to other tasks in the field of medical image analysis since regions outside a target organ in medical images adversely affect the performance of the tasks. With only a simple annotation of regions of the target organ for a small number of medical images, the proposed method will enable accurate analysis that excludes the effect of regions outside the target organ.

In general, endoscopic examination is superior to an X-ray examination for the evaluation of CAG in imaging inspections^[28]. The endoscopic examination has been recommended for gastric cancer mass screening programs in East Asian countries in recent years. For example, South Korea has started the endoscopic examination-based gastric cancer screening program since 2002, and the proportion of individuals who underwent endoscopic examination greatly increased from 31.15% in 2002 to 72.55% in 2011^[28]. Also, Japan has started the endoscopic examination-based gastric cancer mass screening program in addition to an X-ray examination since 2016. However, there remains the problem that the number of individuals who can be examined in a day is limited. Hence, X-ray examination still plays an important role in gastric cancer mass screening.

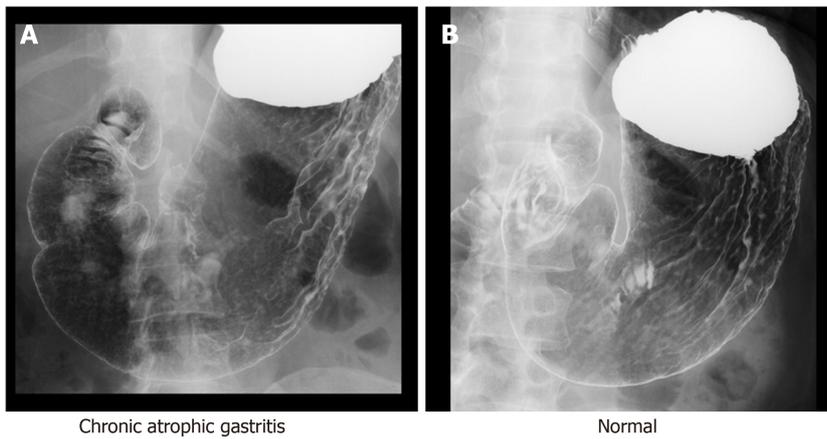


Figure 2 Examples of gastric X-ray images for evaluation.

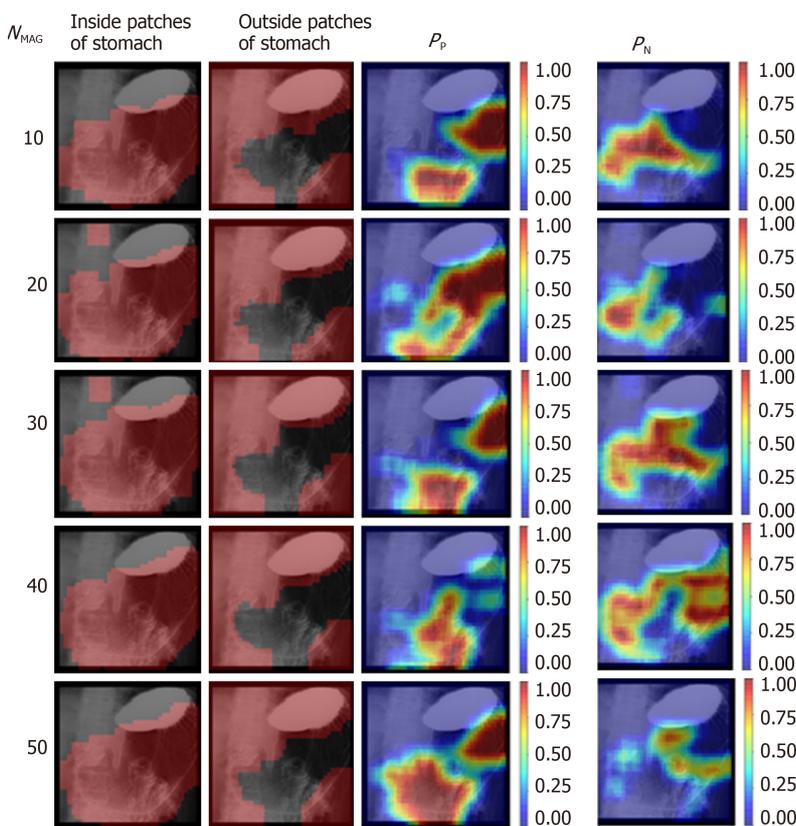


Figure 3 Visualization of the results estimated by the fine-tuned convolutional neural network to select patches from the automatic annotation group at each N_{MAG} for the chronic atrophic gastritis image shown in Figure 2A. The inside and outside regions of the stomach overlapped since gastric X-ray images were divided into patches with the overlap in this experiment.

To realize effective gastric cancer mass screening, it is crucial to narrow down individuals who need endoscopic examination by evaluating the condition of the stomach. Then CAD systems that can provide additional information to doctors will be helpful. Particularly, our approach presented in this paper realized the construction of machine learning-based CAG detection with a small number of training images. This suggests that the CAG detection method can be trained with data from a small-scale or medium-scale hospital without a large number of medical images for training.

This study has a few limitations. First, GXIs taken from only a single angle were analyzed in this study. In general X-ray examinations, GXIs are taken from multiple angles for each patient to examine the inside of the stomach thoroughly. Therefore, the detection performance will be improved by applying the proposed method to GXIs

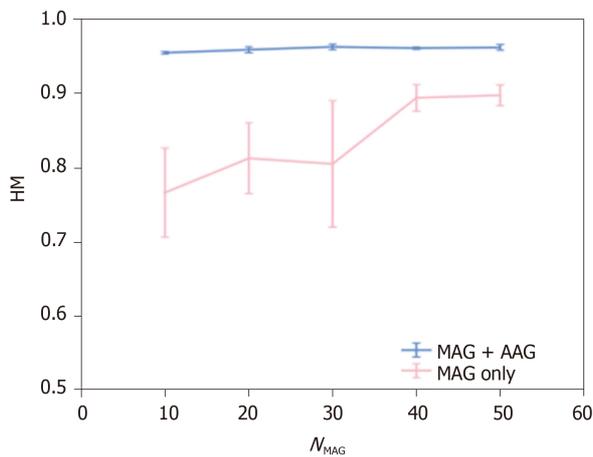


Figure 4 Harmonic mean of the detection results obtained by changing N_{MAG} . Results are shown as means \pm SD of five trials. AAG: Automatic annotation group; MAG: Manual annotation group; HM: Harmonic mean.

taken from multiple angles. Furthermore, the GXIs analyzed in this study were obtained in a single medical facility. To verify versatility, the proposed method should be applied to GXIs obtained in various medical facilities.

In this paper, a method for CAG detection from GXIs is presented. In the proposed method, we manually annotate the stomach regions for some of the GXIs used in training and automatically estimate the stomach regions for the rest of the GXIs. By using GXIs with the stomach regions for training, the proposed method realizes accurate CAG detection that automatically excludes the effect of regions outside the stomach. Experimental results showed the effectiveness of the proposed method.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

It has been reported that chronic atrophic gastritis (CAG) induced by *Helicobacter pylori* infection increases the risk of gastric cancer. X-ray examination can evaluate the condition of the stomach for mass screening. On the other hand, there remains a problem that skilled doctors are decreasing.

Research motivation

Researches for the detection of CAG have been conducted, especially, deep learning-based techniques have achieved high recognition performance in general image datasets. However, early works need a large number of labeled images for training.

Research objectives

The study aimed to evaluate the effectiveness of a deep learning technique with a small number of training images with the stomach region annotation.

Research methods

A total of 815 gastric X-ray images (GXIs) were used in our analysis. The ground truth of this study was the diagnostic results in X-ray and endoscopic examinations. For a part of GXIs for training, the stomach regions are manually annotated. A deep learning model is trained with the stomach region annotations. For the rest of them, the stomach regions are automatically estimated by the learned model. Finally, a model for automatic CAG detection is trained with all GXIs for training.

Research results

In the case that the stomach regions were manually annotated for only 10 GXIs and 30 GXIs, the harmonic mean of sensitivity and specificity of CAG detection were 0.955 ± 0.002 and 0.963 ± 0.004 , respectively.

Research conclusions

By estimating stomach regions automatically, our method contributes to the reduction

of the workload of manual annotation and the accurate detection of the CAG.

Research perspectives

Our CAG detection method can be trained with data from a small-scale or medium-scale hospital without medical data sharing that having the risk of leakage of personal information.

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Retrospective Study

Multiphase convolutional dense network for the classification of focal liver lesions on dynamic contrast-enhanced computed tomography

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Abstract

BACKGROUND

The accurate classification of focal liver lesions (FLLs) is essential to properly guide treatment options and predict prognosis. Dynamic contrast-enhanced computed tomography (DCE-CT) is still the cornerstone in the exact classification of FLLs due to its noninvasive nature, high scanning speed, and high-density resolution. Since their recent development, convolutional neural network-based deep learning techniques has been recognized to have high potential for image recognition tasks.

AIM

To develop and evaluate an automated multiphase convolutional dense network (MP-CDN) to classify FLLs on multiphase CT.

METHODS

A total of 517 FLLs scanned on a 320-detector CT scanner using a four-phase DCE-CT imaging protocol (including precontrast phase, arterial phase, portal venous phase, and delayed phase) from 2012 to 2017 were retrospectively enrolled. FLLs were classified into four categories: Category A, hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC); category B, liver metastases; category C, benign non-inflammatory FLLs including hemangiomas, focal nodular hyperplasias and adenomas; and category D, hepatic abscesses. Each category was split into a training set and test set in an

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Informed consent statement: All study participants or their legal guardian provided informed written consent about personal and medical data collection prior to study enrolment.

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approximate 8:2 ratio. An MP-CDN classifier with a sequential input of the four-phase CT images was developed to automatically classify FLLs. The classification performance of the model was evaluated on the test set; the accuracy and specificity were calculated from the confusion matrix, and the area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC) was calculated from the SoftMax probability outputted from the last layer of the MP-CDN.

RESULTS

A total of 410 FLLs were used for training and 107 FLLs were used for testing. The mean classification accuracy of the test set was 81.3% (87/107). The accuracy/specificity of distinguishing each category from the others were 0.916/0.964, 0.925/0.905, 0.860/0.918, and 0.925/0.963 for HCC, metastases, benign non-inflammatory FLLs, and abscesses on the test set, respectively. The AUC (95% confidence interval) for differentiating each category from the others was 0.92 (0.837-0.992), 0.99 (0.967-1.00), 0.88 (0.795-0.955) and 0.96 (0.914-0.996) for HCC, metastases, benign non-inflammatory FLLs, and abscesses on the test set, respectively.

CONCLUSION

MP-CDN accurately classified FLLs detected on four-phase CT as HCC, metastases, benign non-inflammatory FLLs and hepatic abscesses and may assist radiologists in identifying the different types of FLLs.

Key words: Deep learning; Convolutional neural networks; Focal liver lesions; Classification; Multiphase computed tomography; Dynamic enhancement pattern

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Core tip: We developed and evaluated a deep learning-based convolutional neural network (CNN) to classify focal liver lesions (FLLs) on multiphase computed tomography. The most important highlight of the current study is that, to the best of our knowledge, this study is the first to employ four-channel input data to preserve the dynamic enhancement properties. The combination of the lesion's dynamic enhancement pattern with a CNN can imitate the image diagnosis of radiologists and is expected to improve diagnostic accuracy. It was interesting to note that the accuracy and specificity of differentiating each category from others were high. This model may become an efficient tool to assist radiologists in the classification of FLLs.

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INTRODUCTION

The frequency of detection of focal liver lesions (FLLs) has increased due to the widespread application of imaging techniques^[1,2]. Because the treatment of FLLs depends on the nature of the lesion, the ability to accurately distinguish the types of FLLs is an important step in the management of these patients. Currently, dynamic contrast-enhanced computed tomography (DCE-CT) is commonly used for the noninvasive detection and characterization of FLLs due to its high scanning speed and high-density resolution^[3,4]. The appearances, especially the dynamic enhancement patterns of FLLs on CT imaging, are essential for categorizing lesions. With the careful evaluation of CT images, diagnosis with a relatively high accuracy can be achieved for most liver lesions. However, in current clinical practice, the evaluation of CT images is mainly performed by radiologists. The results are influenced by the radiologist's experience and are generally subjective. Radiologists have begun investigating the potential of computer-aided diagnostic systems to overcome these limitations. Rather



than using qualitative reasoning, artificial intelligence (AI) conducts quantitative assessments by automatically identifying imaging information^[5]. Therefore, AI can assist radiologists in making more accurate imaging diagnoses and substantially reduces the radiologists' workload.

Traditional machine learning algorithms need features to be predefined and require the placement of complexly shaped regions of interest (ROIs) on images^[6-8]. The predefined features are applied in various combinations to effectively determine the diagnosis using traditional machine learning algorithms, but the combinations are usually incomprehensive and result in low accuracy. Today, deep learning-based algorithms are widely used due to their automatic feature generation and image classification abilities^[9,10]. A convolutional neural network (CNN) is considered the first truly successful deep-learning method based on a multilayer hierarchical network, and shows high performance in the image analysis field^[9-11]. CNN has been successfully applied to analyze the medical images of patients with many diseases such as pulmonary tuberculosis, breast cancer, brain tumors, and some hepatic diseases^[12-19]. However, few studies have attempted to apply CNN in the differential diagnosis of FLLs, and these studies have limited value. The dynamic enhancement pattern of FLLs is essential for making differential diagnoses and may have a complementary role to CNN in the diagnostic workup of FLLs.

Hence, we developed and evaluated an automated multiphase convolutional dense network (MP-CDN) that uses four channels of input data to classify FLLs on four-phase CT.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients

The retrospective study was reviewed and approved by our institutional review board, and written informed consent was obtained from the patients whose data were analyzed. Two radiologists (Cao SE and Shi WQ, both with 5 years of experience in imaging diagnosis) searched for patients with FLLs in the picture archiving and communication system (PACS). The images of patients who underwent a four-phase DCE-CT examination and for whom FLLs were confirmed by histopathological evaluation or were diagnosed based on a combination of clinical and radiological findings with follow-up were collected for further screening. The exclusion criteria were as follows: Lesions larger than 10 cm; images with prominent artifacts; and prior local-regional therapy prior to the CT examination.

Standard of classification

The lesions were classified into four categories according to different pathological types and treatment decisions. (1) Category A was hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), which was confirmed by histopathologic evaluation after surgery or biopsy. (2) Category B represents liver metastases derived from different primary sites such as colorectal cancer, gastric carcinoma, breast cancer, lung cancer, thyroid cancer, malignant jejunal stromal tumor, duodenal papillary carcinoma, and laryngocarcinoma. The primary lesions were confirmed by a pathological examination, but the metastatic lesions were diagnosed based on the clinical data, patient history, other follow-up CT, magnetic resonance imaging, and positron emission tomography/CT scans. For liver metastases, the follow-up time was 60 d to 1230 d, and the median was 300 d. (3) Category C was defined as benign non-inflammatory FLLs, including hemangiomas, focal nodular hyperplasias (FNHs), and adenomas. A total of 27 lesions, including all adenomas, were confirmed by a histopathological evaluation after surgery, while the remaining 135 lesions were diagnosed based on imaging diagnostic criteria from the CT scan in combination with the clinical information and follow-up MRI; the follow-up time was 90 d to 1800 d, and the median was 330 d. And (4) Category D was hepatic abscesses. The diagnosis of hepatic abscess was based on typical imaging findings, clinical aspects, laboratory findings, and microbiology on blood or aspirate culture results. While all patients received early empirical antibiotic treatment, 37% patients underwent percutaneous or surgical drainage. A longer follow-up with a median time of 100 d (range, 60-365 d) confirmed the remission or absence of signs and symptoms together with imaging studies without findings compatible with hepatic abscess after treatment.

Finally, a total of 375 patients with 517 lesions were enrolled in this study from 2012 to 2017. Each category was split into a training set and test set. Patients who underwent CT scan before June 2016 were used for training, while those after June

2016 were used for testing. The ratio between training set and test set was approximately 8:2.

Basic information about the patients was obtained from the hospital information system, including gender, age, surgical and pathological reports, lesion size, and follow-up time.

Input data: CT imaging protocol

A 320-detector CT scanner (Aquilion ONE; Toshiba Medical Systems, Otawara, Japan) was used to acquire four-phase DCE-CT imaging protocols including precontrast phase (PP), arterial phase (AP), portal venous phase (PVP), and delayed phase (DP). The following scan parameters were used: A peak tube voltage of 120 kV, a tube rotation time of 0.5 s per rotation, a pitch factor of 0.828, a field of view of 35 cm × 35 cm, a matrix of 512 × 512, and automatic tube current modulation.

The first phase was PP to cover the whole liver. The next three phases were contrast-enhanced phases with the same scanning range after the intravenous injection of low osmolar nonionic contrast medium (Ioversol-350; Tyco Healthcare, Montreal, Quebec, Canada and Isovue-370, Bracco Diagnostics, Guangzhou, China) into the right antecubital vein at an injection rate of 3 mL/s and a dose of 1.5 mL/kg body weight, followed by a 20-mL saline chaser.

The AP was acquired by performing a bolus tracking technique. The AP was scanned 15 s after CT attenuation of the aorta at the level of the diaphragm had reached 200 Hounsfield Units. For the PVP, images were acquired 30 s after the AP. The DP was scanned 45 s after the PVP. All images were reconstructed in the axial plane with a slice thickness of 5 mm and interval of 5 mm using a kernel for the evaluation of soft tissues (FC19) and then sent to the PACS.

Input data: CT imaging annotation

The CT imaging annotation was manually and independently performed by four radiologists (all had at least 4 years of imaging experience), and the results were reviewed by a radiologist with 20 years of imaging experience. For each patient, the four-phase CT images were manually loaded into 3D Slicer (<https://www.slicer.org>). The boundary of each lesion was manually drawn slice-by-slice along the visible borders of the lesion using the annotation module available in 3D Slicer. The classification of the type of each lesion was manually annotated using a home-developed lesion annotation module in 3D Slicer.

Input data: CT imaging processing pipeline

The four phases were organized in a sequence according to the acquisition time and fed into the image processing pipeline, as shown in [Figure 1](#). The inner-phase registration and normalization were used to achieve volume-wise processing. The inner-phase registration was performed by using a nonrigid registration module implemented in Elastix (<http://elastix.isi.uu.nl>) with PVP as the reference phase, and then each phase was linearly normalized to (-1, 1) with a corresponding HU of (0, 300). Cropping and resizing were performed for lesion-wise processing using the Python library scikit-image 0.15.0 (<https://scikit-image.org/scikit-image-0.15.0>). For each lesion, a three-dimensional bounding box was generated to cover the lesion boundary and extended with a spare boundary of 10 mm along each direction. After extracting the bounding box of the lesion, ROIs were cropped from the PVP. The ROI was a square on each axial plane, the length of the side was 1.5 times the value of the longest side of the bounding box on the axial plane, and the center point was the projection of the center point of the bounding box on each axial plane. Then the bounding boxes were propagated on other phases to crop the lesion. Following lesion cropping, each cropped ROI was resized into an identical shape in the size of 128 × 128. ROIs from five slices centered at the lesion were extracted and stacked together to form a (128, 128, 5) tensor as the input data for each phase.

Deep convolutional network architecture

The deep convolutional network was designed following the concept of the automatic extraction of useful features from each phase and then the sequential combination of each phase's features to achieve classification, as detailed in [Figure 2](#). Each phase's automatic feature extraction was implemented using a densely connected stack of two-dimensional convolutional, center-cropping and max-pooling layers, where the convolutional kernel size was 3 × 3; the cropping and pooling size was 2 × 2; and the activation layer used the "ReLU" activation function. Then, the four-phase convolutional layers were flattened and sequentially connected to the last dense layer

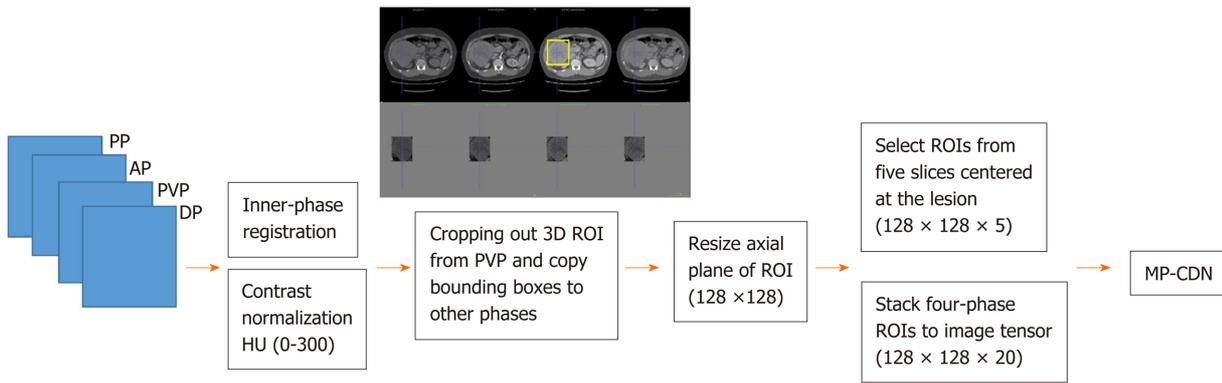


Figure 1 Four-phase images processing pipeline for multiphase convolutional dense network. AP: Arterial phase; DP: Delayed phase; HU: Hounsfield unit; MD-CDN: Multiphase convolutional dense network; PP: Precontrast phase; PVP: Portal venous phase; ROI: Region of interest.

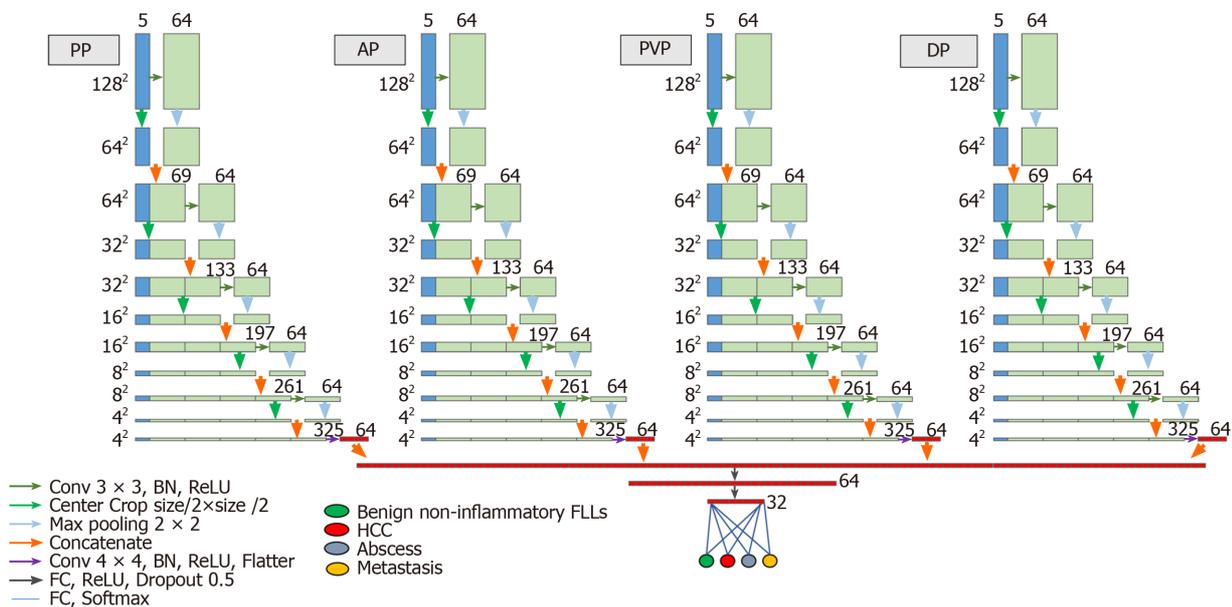


Figure 2 Architecture of the proposed multiphase convolutional dense network. AP: Arterial phase; DP: Delayed phase; FLLs: Focal liver lesions; HCC: Hepatocellular carcinoma; PP: Precontrast phase; PVP: Portal venous phase.

with SoftMax activation for classification purposes. The sequential connection of each phase's CNN network block was designed to preserve the dynamic enhancement properties.

The deep convolutional network was a 2.5 D MP-CDN with the four phases of resized multichannel images as the input (the slice was used as the channel dimension in this network). The classification tasks consisted of training and testing, in which the training task was performed with a batch size of 100 and the test task was performed once for each lesion.

Training and evaluation

For the training set, data augmentation options, which include scaling and rotation, were applied to each ROI. An augmented training dataset with a size 21 times greater than the raw dataset was used to train the model. The test set without augmentation was directly used to assess the model.

During the training phase, the category label was converted to 0.0 or 1.0 as the SoftMax probability to train the model. During the testing phase, the category label included the binary label and probability label, where the binary label was 1.0 or 0.0 corresponding to the class with the largest or non-largest probability from the SoftMax layer. In terms of probability label, the result was derived from the SoftMax probability outputted from the last layer of the MP-CDN.

Model implementation

The model was programmed using Python3.7 (<https://www.python.org/>) under the deep learning model development framework of Keras (<https://keras.io>) with the TensorFlow (<https://www.tensorflow.org>) backend. The network weights were optimized using the Adam optimizer, the learning rate was 0.00001 and the loss function was categorical cross-entropy. A graphics processing unit (GPU) (NVIDIA TITAN 1080Ti) was used to accelerate the model training and testing phases.

Statistics

The distributions of age, sex, and lesion size in each of the sets (training and test sets) were compared using SPSS 17.0 software (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, United States). Quantitative variables were compared using the Wilcoxon rank sum test or *t*-test, and qualitative variables were compared using the chi-squared test.

The classification performance of the model was assessed on the test set: The accuracy, specificity, and sensitivity for differentiating each category from the others were calculated from the confusion matrix from the confusion matrix, and the area under the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve (AUC) was calculated from the SoftMax probability outputted from the last layer of the MP-CDN using SPSS 17.0 Software.

The model was further evaluated by applying a “phase cheating” experiment on the test set. The “phase cheating” experiment was implemented by eliminating one or more phases from the four phases and replacing it with the wrong phase(s) before feeding it into the model. The design idea of this experiment was based on the following concepts: (1) The liver lesion's dynamic enhancement pattern is vital in differential diagnosis; (2) Our model was designed to accommodate the correct sequence of four phases, which preserved the dynamic enhancement properties; and (3) The “phase cheating” experiment was used to test whether our model had learned this important dynamic enhancement pattern. If the phases were replaced by a certain phase (the so-called “phase cheating” experiment), its dynamic enhancement pattern might be different and may result in an incorrect category prediction. We re-evaluated the classification performance by comparing the AUCs between the model in the normal set and that in the “phase cheating” sets by using MedCalc Software (version 11.4.2 for Windows, MedCalc Software bvba).

Statistical significance was defined as $P < 0.05$.

RESULTS

Of the 15680 patients with FLLs treated at our hospital from 2012 to 2017, 375 patients with 517 lesions met the inclusion criteria. Of the 517 FLLs, 410 FLLs (88 HCCs, 89 metastases, 128 benign non-inflammatory FLLs, and 105 abscesses) were used for training, and 107 FLLs (23 HCCs, 23 metastases, 34 benign non-inflammatory FLLs, and 27 abscesses) were used for testing. [Table 1](#) presents the basic and detailed information of each dataset.

The confusion matrix analysis on the test set is shown in [Table 2](#). Of the 23 HCCs, 17 lesions were correctly classified, 4 lesions were misclassified as benign non-inflammatory FLLs, and the remaining 2 lesions were misclassified as metastases. It was interesting to note that all metastases (23 lesions) were correctly classified. Of the 34 benign non-inflammatory FLLs, 25 lesions were correctly classified, 3 lesions were misclassified as HCC, 3 lesions were misclassified as metastases, and the remaining 3 lesions were misclassified as hepatic abscesses. Of the 27 hepatic abscesses, 22 lesions were correctly classified, 3 lesions were misclassified as metastases, and the remaining 2 lesions were misclassified as benign non-inflammatory FLLs. The representative correctly classified and misclassified examples of each category are shown in [Figure 3](#). The accuracy/specificity/sensitivity of differentiating each category from others were 0.916/0.964/0.739, 0.925/0.905/1.0, 0.860/0.918/0.735 and 0.925/0.963/0.815 for HCC, metastases, benign non-inflammatory FLLs, and abscesses, respectively.

ROC analysis was performed on the test set. The AUC (95% confidence interval [CI]) for differentiating each category from the others was 0.92 (0.837-0.992), 0.99 (0.967-1.00), 0.88 (0.795-0.955) and 0.96 (0.914-0.996) for HCC, metastases, benign non-inflammatory FLLs, and abscesses, respectively ([Figure 4A](#)). The model's classification probability was calibrated for each category, as shown in [Figure 4B](#), and the Brier scores were 0.104, 0.080, 0.124, and 0.074 for HCC, metastases, benign non-inflammatory FLLs, and hepatic abscesses, respectively.

[Table 3](#) shows the AUC and *P* value when using the “phase cheating” sets

Table 1 The basic information and detail distribution of each dataset

		Training set	Test set	P value	
Category A: HCC	No. of lesions/No. of patients	88/79	23/22		
	Age (median [range]) in yr	49 (24-81)	49.5 (33-70)	0.726	
	Sex (percentage of women)	6/79 (7.6%)	5/22 (22.7%)	0.044	
	Size of lesion (mean \pm SD) in mm	60.6 \pm 36.3	63.0 \pm 45.4	0.789	
	Histopathologic diagnosis (No. of lesions/No. of patients)				
	Surgery	79/70	20/19		
	Biopsy	9/9	3/3		
Category B: Metastases	No. of lesions/No. of patients	89/34	23/14		
	Age (Median [range]) (yr)	58.5 (23-79)	58 (23-79)	0.937	
	Sex (Percentage of women)	8/34 (23.5%)	6/14 (42.9%)	0.181	
	Size of lesion (mean \pm SD) in mm	23.0 \pm 13.9	22.7 \pm 11.5	0.937	
	Primary tumors (No. of lesions/No. of patients)				
	Colorectal cancer	40/20	10/6		
	Gastric carcinoma	13/3	3/2		
	Breast cancer	2/1	0/0		
	Lung cancer	14/4	4/2		
	Thyroid cancer	16/4	4/2		
	Malignant jejunal stromal tumor	2/1	1/1		
	Duodenal papillary carcinoma	0/0	1/1		
	Laryngocarcinoma	2/1	0/0		
	Category C: Benign non-inflammatory FLLs	No. of lesions/No. of patients	128/97	34/32	
Age (median [range]) in yr		34 (17-82)	34 (10-74)	0.729	
Sex (percentage of women)		52/97 (53.6%)	16/32 (50.0%)	0.723	
Size of lesion (mean \pm SD) in mm		41.9 \pm 30.5	52.9 \pm 28.4	0.060	
Histological type (No. of lesions/No. of patients)					
Hemangioma		55/35	15/15		
FNH		67/58	17/15		
Adenoma		6/4	2/2		
Category D: Hepatic abscesses	No. of lesions/No. of patients	105/77	27/20		
	Age (median [range]) in yr	54 (4-82)	55 (25-82)	0.936	
	Sex (percentage of women)	24/77 (31.2%)	7/20 (35.0%)	0.743	
	Size of lesion (mean \pm SD) in mm	64.5 \pm 34.9	63.8 \pm 24.2	0.916	

FLLs: Focal liver lesions; FNH: Focal nodular hyperplasias.

compared to the normal set. The AUCs were lower for the “phase cheating” set with eliminating AP and/or PVP than for the normal set in differentiating HCC from the others ($P < 0.05$). When we replaced PP with AP, there was no significant difference between the AUCs of the normal set and “phase cheating” sets in differentiating HCC from the others ($P > 0.05$). **Figure 5** shows the heatmaps of the predicted category when using the “phase cheating” sets compared to the normal set.

Table 2 The confusion matrix analysis on test set

		Ground truth				Positive predictive value
		Benign non-inflammatory FLLs	Metastases	HCCs	Hepatic abscesses	
Prediction	Benign non-inflammatory FLLs	25	0	4	2	0.806
	Metastases	3	23	2	3	0.742
	HCCs	3	0	17	0	0.85
	Hepatic abscesses	3	0	0	22	0.88
	Sensitivity	0.735	1	0.739	0.815	
	Specificity	0.918	0.905	0.964	0.963	
	Accuracy	0.86	0.925	0.916	0.925	
	Mean accuracy	0.813				

HCCs: Hepatocellular carcinomas; FLLs: Focal liver lesions.

Table 3 The model's performance comparison between the normal set and "phase cheating" sets

Policy	HCCs (AUC [95%CI]/P value)	Metastases (AUC [95%CI]/P value)	Benign non-inflammatory (AUC [95%CI]/P value)	Hepatic Abscesses (AUC [95%CI]/P value)
PP + AP + PVP + DP	0.92 (0.837-0.992)	0.99 (0.967-1.00)	0.88 (0.795-0.955)	0.96 (0.914-0.996)
AP + AP + PVP + DP	0.820 (0.705-0.905)/0.0699	0.901 (0.805- 0.960)/0.0289	0.893 (0.809-0.949)/0.2502	0.924 (0.823-0.977)/0.3387
PP + PVP + PVP + DP	0.704 (0.565-0.821)/0.0017	0.930 (0.832- 0.981)/0.2573	0.799 (0.701- 0.877)/0.0924	0.938 (0.846-0.984)/0.4317
PP + AP + AP + DP	0.768 (0.643-0.866)/0.0013	0.833 (0.714 -0.916)/0.0120	0.864 (0.774-0.929)/0.9720	0.935 (0.846-0.981)/0.4047
PP + AP+ PVP + PVP	0.911 (0.815-0.967)/0.6404	0.959 (0.882- 0.992)/0.4066	0.913 (0.832-0.963)/0.7877	0.831 (0.716- 0.914)/0.0184
PP + AP + AP + AP	0.672 (0.542-0.785)/< 0.0001	0.758 (0.692- 0.909)/0.0079	0.863 (0.773-0.927)/0.3188	0.806 (0.690- 0.893)/0.0475
PP + PVP + PVP + PVP	0.721 (0.584-0.834)/0.0019	0.913 (0.807-0.972)/0.1165	0.775 (0.675-0.857)/ 0.0247	0.900 (0.796- 0.962)/0.7491
PP + DP+ DP+ DP	0.652 (0.513-0.774)/0.0002	0.818 (0.692-0.909)/0.0079	0.790 (0.688-0.870)/0.0356	0.904 (0.802-0.964)/0.7911
AP + AP + AP + AP	0.573 (0.443- 0.696)/< 0.0001	0.674 (0.548-0.785)/< 0.0001	0.833 (0.739- 0.904)/0.3375	0.697 (0.567- 0.807)/0.0019
PVP + PVP + PVP+ PVP	0.697 (0.554-0.817)/0.0029	0.859 (0.748- 0.934)/0.0101	0.794 (0.693- 0.874)/0.1144	0.782 (0.650-0.882)/0.0278
DP + DP + DP + DP	0.697 (0.562- 0.811)/0.0007	0.787 (0.666- 0.880)/0.0008	0.751 (0.646-0.838)/0.0387	0.873 (0.760-0.946)/0.1805

AP: Arterial phase; AUC: Area under the receiver operating characteristic curve; CI: Confidence interval; DP: Delayed phase; FLLs: Focal liver lesions; HCC: Hepatocellular carcinoma; PP: Precontrast phase; PVP: Portal venous phase.

DISCUSSION

The correct diagnosis of liver lesions before treatment is of great significance. In our study, a classification system was proposed based on the features derived from the four-phase DCE-CT images. The AUC (95%CI) for differentiating each category from the others was 0.92 (0.837-0.992), 0.99 (0.967-1.00), 0.88 (0.795-0.955), and 0.96 (0.914-0.996) for HCC, metastases, benign non-inflammatory FLLs, and hepatic abscesses, respectively, indicating that the classification system is highly capable of distinguishing one lesion type from the others.

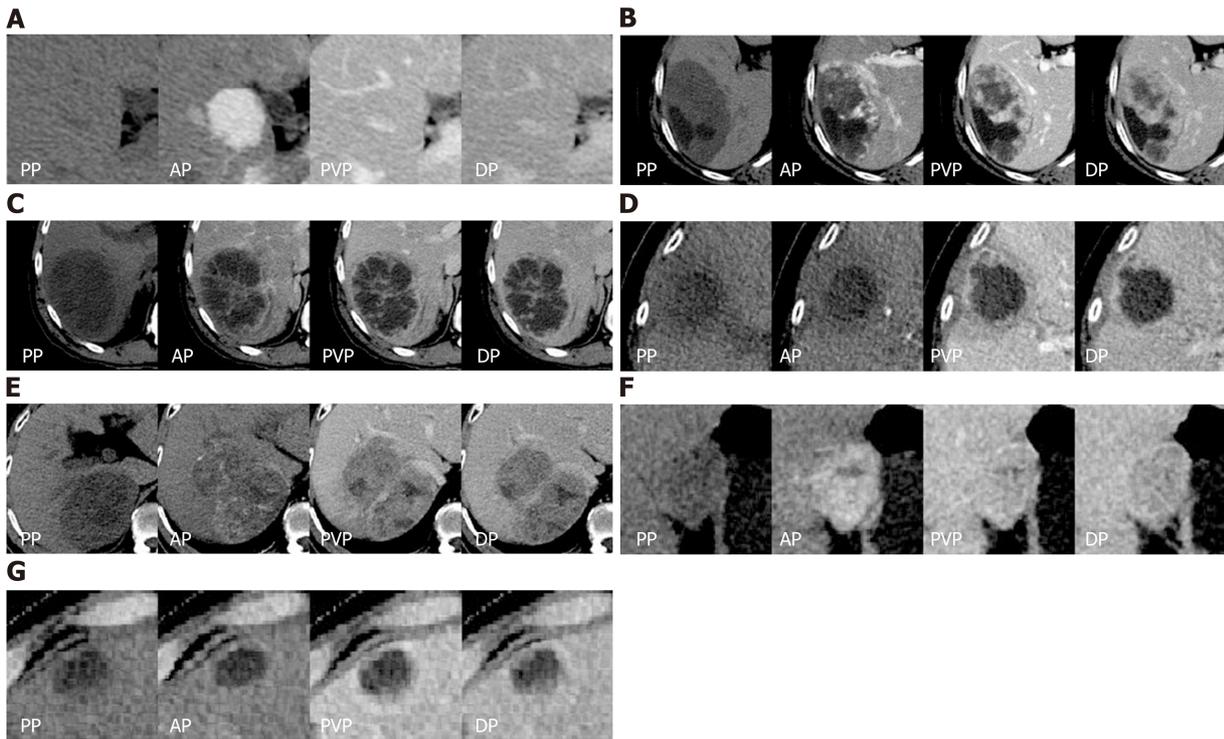


Figure 3 The representative correctly classified and misclassified categories. For each patient, axial four-phase (PP, AP, PVP, DP) computed tomography images were obtained and focal liver lesions were diagnosed by histopathologic evaluation after biopsy or surgery. A: A 33-year-old man with focal nodular hyperplasia was correctly classified as category C; B: A 54-year-old woman with hemangioma was misclassified as category D; C: A 52-year-old man with hepatic abscess was correctly classified as category B; D: An 82-year-old woman with hepatic abscess was misclassified as category B; E: A 55-year-old man with HCC was correctly classified as category A; F: A 38-year-old woman with HCC was misclassified as category C; G: A 75-year-old man with liver metastases derived from colorectal cancer was correctly classified as category B. And there was no misclassification for the metastasis group. AP: Arterial phase; DP: Delayed phase; PP: Precontrast phase; PVP: Portal venous phase.

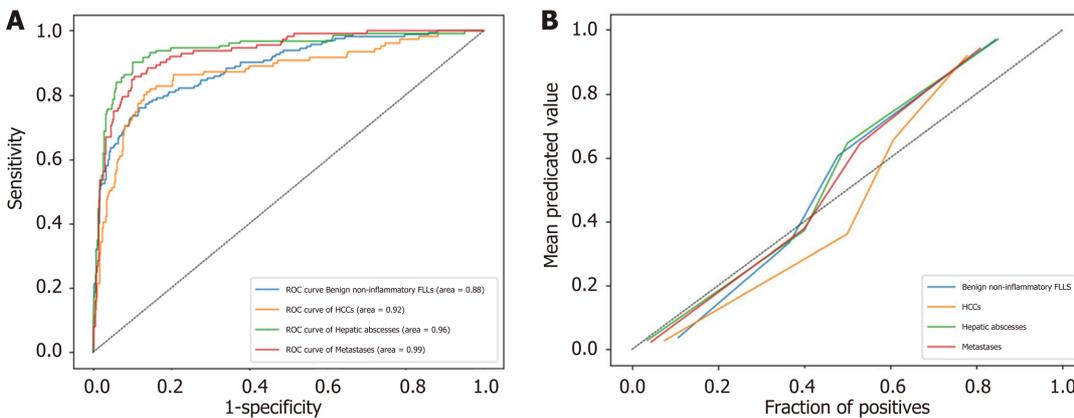


Figure 4 The receiver operating characteristic analysis of model's classification performance on test set and calibration curve of model's classification probability for each category. A: The receiver operating characteristic analysis of model's classification performance on test set; B: Calibration curve of model's classification probability for each category. FLLs: Focal liver lesions; HCC: Hepatocellular carcinoma; ROC: Receiver operating characteristic.

Since the different types of FLLs have different outcomes and require different clinical interventions, the current challenge in determining an accurate diagnosis involves not only effectively differentiating between benign and malignant FLLs according to the medical image but also accurately recognizing the different types of FLLs. A previous study^[20] proposed a novel two-stage multiview learning framework for the ultrasound-based computer-aided diagnosis of benign and malignant liver tumors. Although both HCC and metastases are malignant liver tumors, their treatment strategies are completely different; thus, more accurate classification is

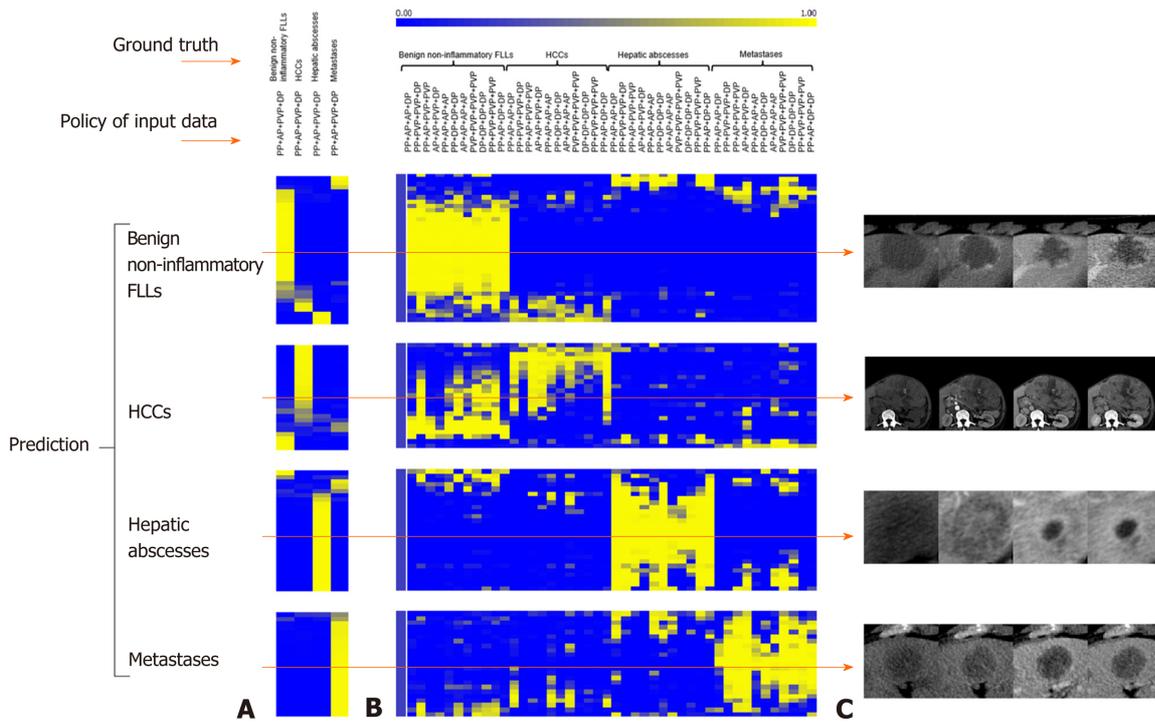


Figure 5 Predicted probability heatmaps. The top color bar represents the classification probability of the model from 0 to 1, which corresponds to dark blue to bright yellow. A: Shows the results from normal four-phase input; B: Shows the results from different “phase cheating” sets as indicated in the policy of input data; C: Shows the representative examples. AP: Arterial phase; DP: Delayed phase; PP: Precontrast phase; PVP: Portal venous phase.

needed. Yasaka *et al*^[15] investigated the feasibility of applying deep learning models for liver lesion classification using CT images and showed good model performance. However, their standard of classification was based on the radiologic features. HCC is treated differently from metastases, as are abscesses and FNHs. In our study, the category label obtained from the combination of contemporaneous histology and treatment decisions should have more practically applicable value.

Notably, the sensitivity for distinguishing HCC was not high (0.739) in our study, similar to that of previous studies. The range of sensitivities reported in the literature for the detection of HCC on DCE-CT is 50%-75%^[21-24]. However, the diagnosis of the lesions may vary depending on the imaging modality. Hamm *et al*^[18] developed a CNN model based on MRI images for liver lesion classification, demonstrating high sensitivity. Previous studies^[24,25] also reported the superiority of MRI over CT. However, in clinical practice, CT is more accessible and more inexpensive than MRI. Those patients who have a contraindication for MRI due to a comprehensive past history and clinical evaluation are candidates for the CT examination. Our model should be made available to these patients.

The interpretation of how neural networks, particularly deep neural networks, obtain the conclusion is difficult, and these networks are criticized as black boxes^[26]. To evaluate whether our model correctly learned useful features from the four-phase CT images, we applied a “phase cheating” experiment on the test set. Compared to the normal set, the performance of the deep-learning network in differentiating HCC from others was dramatically degraded once the placeholder on AP and/or PVP was occluded ($P < 0.05$). This finding probably indicates that the networks make decisions by using accurate distinguishing features, AP hypervascularity and washout in the PVP, which is consistent with the clinical diagnostic criteria for HCC^[26]. However, there was no significant difference in the AUCs for differentiating HCC from others between the normal set and the “phase cheating” set when PP was replaced by AP. This result was likely because most lesions are hypodense in the PP^[27,28] and the normal hepatic parenchyma shows only minimal enhancement during the AP. The degree of enhancement of lesions in the AP was obtained by comparing the normal hepatic parenchyma around the lesions. In addition, the enhanced scans and the PP have the same value in the diagnosis of calcium, necrosis and gas in the lesion.

One issue for supervised learning is overfitting^[29], which normally shows good fit on training data but performs poorly on unseen test data. When the size of training set

is small, this phenomenon becomes more apparent. To avoid overfitting, we applied various regulation techniques in the model during training, such as adding normalization layers to generalize the model, applying L2 regulation to the filters, adding a dropout layer, and augmenting the data to accommodate data variation. The Brier scores for HCCs, metastases, benign non-inflammatory FLLs and hepatic abscesses also suggest that our model is accurate and reasonable.

Our study had several limitations. First, we only evaluated the four-phase CT images and did not consider the clinical information, such as an increased alpha-fetoprotein level and a history of hepatitis B, C infection or liver cirrhosis, which might suggest HCC^[29]. Second, we only trained and evaluated the model in a single center setting using a single CT scanner, where there might be a data bias that may lead to model bias. The model should display better generality if more variable data are analyzed. Third, the sample size of the test set was relatively small. Therefore, a larger sample is needed for further studies. Finally, we did not include lesions larger than 10 cm due to the balance among network depth, input matrix size, receptive field size, and memory load. For larger lesions, a higher matrix input size and a deeper network depth are needed, causing a rapid increase in memory requirement, which exceeds the capacity of the current GPUs.

In conclusion, the MP-CDN showed a high differential diagnostic performance for classifying FLLs as HCC, metastases, benign non-inflammatory FLLs and hepatic abscesses in four-phase CT images. If trained on a larger sample or a diverse cohort imaged with a variety of CT scanners, the MP-CDN could become an efficient tool to assist radiologists in accurate identification of the different types of FLLs. However, further evaluation of this model in a multicenter setting is necessary to evaluate its clinical utility.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

The accurate classification of focal liver lesions (FLLs) is essential to properly guide treatment options and predict prognosis. Dynamic contrast-enhanced computed tomography (DCE-CT) is commonly used for the noninvasive detection and exact classification of FLLs due to its high scanning speed and high-density resolution. Since their recent development, convolutional neural network (CNN)-based deep learning techniques have been recognized to have high potential for image recognition tasks.

Research motivation

Since the different types of FLLs have different outcomes and require different clinical interventions, the current challenge in determining an accurate diagnosis involves not only effectively differentiating between benign and malignant FLLs according to the medical image but also accurately recognizing the different types of FLLs. Our purpose was to develop and evaluate a deep learning-based CNN to classify FLLs on multiphase CT. Our CNN model is expected to become an efficient tool to assist radiologists in accurately identifying the different types of FLLs.

Research objectives

The appearances, especially the dynamic enhancement patterns of FLLs on CT imaging, are essential for categorizing lesions. We employed a four-channel input data to preserve the dynamic enhancement properties. The combination of the lesion's dynamic enhancement pattern with a CNN can imitate the image diagnosis of radiologists and is expected to improve diagnostic accuracy.

Research methods

A total of 517 FLLs scanned on a 320-detector CT scanner using a four-phase DCE-CT imaging protocol (including precontrast phase, arterial phase, portal venous phase, and delayed phase) from 2012 to 2017 were retrospectively enrolled. FLLs were classified into four categories: Category A, hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC); category B, liver metastases; category C, benign non-inflammatory FLLs including hemangiomas, focal nodular hyperplasias and adenomas; and category D, hepatic abscesses. Each category was split into a training set and test set in an approximately 8:2 ratio. The CNN model with a sequential input of the four-phase CT images was developed to automatically classify FLLs. The classification performance of CNN model was evaluated on the test set: The accuracy, specificity and sensitivity were

calculated from the confusion matrix, and the area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC) was calculated from the SoftMax probability outputted from the last layer of the CNN model.

Research results

A total of 410 FLLs were used for training and 107 FLLs were used for testing. The accuracy/specificity/sensitivity of differentiating each category from others were 0.916/0.964/0.739, 0.925/0.905/1.0, 0.860/0.918/0.735 and 0.925/0.963/0.815 for HCC, metastases, benign non-inflammatory FLLs, and abscesses on the test set, respectively. The AUC (95% confidence interval) for differentiating each category from others was 0.92 (0.837-0.992), 0.99 (0.967-1.00), 0.88 (0.795-0.955) and 0.96 (0.914-0.996) for HCC, metastases, benign non-inflammatory FLLs, and abscesses on the test set, respectively. Also, for this study, we only trained and evaluated the CNN model in a single center setting using a single CT scanner, where there might be a data bias that may lead to model bias. Further evaluation of this model in a multicenter setting is needed to evaluate its clinical utility.

Research conclusions

Overall, our CNN model showed a high differential diagnostic performance for classification FLLs as HCC, metastases, benign non-inflammatory FLLs and hepatic abscesses in four-phase CT image and could become an efficient tool to assist radiologists in accurate identification of the different types of FLLs.

Research perspectives

Further multicenter studies are necessary to evaluate the clinical utility of our CNN model. In addition, it's worth to evaluate the clinical information whether can further improve the perform of CNN model.

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Observational Study

Type I and type II *Helicobacter pylori* infection status and their impact on gastrin and pepsinogen level in a gastric cancer prevalent area

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Abstract**BACKGROUND**

Type I *Helicobacter pylori* (*H. pylori*) infection causes severe gastric inflammation and is a predisposing factor for gastric carcinogenesis. However, its infection status in stepwise gastric disease progression in this gastric cancer prevalent area has not been evaluated; it is also not known its impact on commonly used epidemiological gastric cancer risk markers such as gastrin-17 (G-17) and pepsinogens (PGs) during clinical practice.

AIM

To explore the prevalence of type I and type II *H. pylori* infection status and their impact on G-17 and PG levels in clinical practice.

METHODS

Thirty-five hundred and seventy-two hospital admitted patients with upper gastrointestinal symptoms were examined, and 523 patients were enrolled in this study. *H. pylori* infection was confirmed by both ¹³C-urea breath test and

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Authors declare no competing interests.

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serological assay. Patients were divided into non-atrophic gastritis (NAG), non-atrophic gastritis with erosion (NAGE), chronic atrophic gastritis (CAG), peptic ulcers (PU) and gastric cancer (GC) groups. Their serological G-17, PG I and PG II values and PG I/PG II ratio were also measured.

RESULTS

A total *H. pylori* infection rate of 3572 examined patients was 75.9%, the infection rate of 523 enrolled patients was 76.9%, among which type I *H. pylori* infection accounted for 72.4% (291/402) and type II was 27.6%; 88.4% of GC patients were *H. pylori* positive, and 84.2% of them were type I infection, only 11.6% of GC patients were *H. pylori* negative. Infection rates of type I *H. pylori* in NAG, NAGE, CAG, PU and GC groups were 67.9%, 62.7%, 79.7%, 77.6% and 84.2%, respectively. *H. pylori* infection resulted in significantly higher G-17 and PG II values and decreased PG I/PG II ratio. Both types of *H. pylori* induced higher G-17 level, but type I strain infection resulted in an increased PG II level and decreased PG I/PG II ratio in NAG, NAGE and CAG groups over uninfected controls. Overall PG I levels showed no difference among all disease groups and in the presence or absence of *H. pylori*; in stratified analysis, its level was increased in GC and PU patients in *H. pylori* and type I *H. pylori*-positive groups.

CONCLUSION

Type I *H. pylori* infection is the major form of infection in this geographic region, and a very low percentage (11.6%) of GC patients are not infected by *H. pylori*. Both types of *H. pylori* induce an increase in G-17 level, while type I *H. pylori* is the major strain that affects PG I and PG IIs level and PG I/PG II ratio in stepwise chronic gastric disease. The data provide insights into *H. pylori* infection status and indicate the necessity and urgency for bacteria eradication and disease prevention in clinical practice.

Key words: *Helicobacter pylori*; Chronic gastric diseases; Gastrin-17; Pepsinogen; Gastric cancer

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Core tip: Type I and type II *Helicobacter pylori* (*H. pylori*) infection status and their impact on gastrin-17 and pepsinogen level in chronic gastric diseases have not been studied in this high gastric cancer risk area. Our results show that type I *H. pylori* infection is the major form of infection, and a very low percentage (11.6%) of gastric cancer patients are not infected by *H. pylori*. Both type I and type II *H. pylori* induce an increase in gastrin-17 level, while type I *H. pylori* is the major strain that affects pepsinogen (PG) I, PG II level and PG I/PG II ratio in stepwise gastric disease in this geographic area.

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INTRODUCTION

Helicobacter pylori (*H. pylori*) infection is the major cause of chronic gastritis, peptic ulcers, gastric cancer and mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue lymphoma, it is also associated with many extra gastrointestinal diseases^[1-3]. *H. pylori* cytotoxin CagA and VacA are major virulence factors and molecular basis for disease pathogenesis. *H. pylori* strains that carry *cagPAI* with CagA-, VacA-positive cause severe gastric inflammation, which contributes to either tissue damage or neoplastic transformation, are high-risk strains of gastric cancer, and the role of CagA protein is critical in these processes^[4]. Studies have shown that there is both genotypic and geographic diversity of *H. pylori* infection, which can trigger different inflammatory processes and result in

various degrees of pathological consequences^[4-6].

Type I *H. pylori* expresses CagA and VacA protein; type II strain does not express CagA and VacA^[7]. CagA-, VacA-positive strains are the major forms of *H. pylori* infection in many areas globally, corresponding to their high prevalence in pre-cancerous lesions and gastric cancer incidences^[4]. However, their infection status and roles in the stepwise gastric disease progression in this high gastric cancer prevalent area has not been studied^[8].

Serological detection of pepsinogen (PG) I, II, PG I/PG II ratio and gastrin-17 (G-17) provide valuable information on the status of gastric mucosa, and they have been used as epidemiological markers for gastric cancer risk investigation^[9-12]. Studies have indicated that low concentrations of PG I and PG I/PG II ratios are indicators of gastric atrophy, which are linked with elevated gastric cancer risk^[9,10]. However, others have indicated that the results are not consistent and not sensitive enough to replace endoscopy^[11,12]. PG I/PG II ratio also should not be used as a biomarker of gastric neoplasia as recommended^[1]. It is therefore uncertain if they might be suitable to evaluate stepwise gastric disease progression and development of mucosal precancerous conditions in the presence or absence of *H. pylori* infection in clinical practice.

In the present study, we investigated the prevalence of type I and type II *H. pylori* infection in stepwise chronic gastric diseases and the clinical implications. Their impact on G-17 and PGs levels was also evaluated. The results indicated that there is a stepwise increase in type I *H. pylori* infection rate as disease progress from chronic gastritis to gastric cancer. Both types of *H. pylori* induce an increase in G-17 level, while type I *H. pylori* is the major strains that affects PG I, PG II levels and PG I/PG II ratio in chronic gastric diseases in this geographic region. The results provide insight on the subtypes of *H. pylori* infection status and their impact on G-17 and PGs, which will be helpful to guide *H. pylori* eradication and application of G-17 and PGs assay in clinical practice.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study population

This cross-section study was conducted at the Department of Gastroenterology, People's Hospital of Zhengzhou University, Zhengzhou, Henan, China. From March 2018 to March 2019, a total of 3572 consecutively ward admitted patients with upper gastrointestinal symptoms were examined. Exclusion criteria were as follows: (1) Taking proton pump inhibitors, bismuth salts, H₂-receptor blockers or other medications that could affect test results over the past 2 wk, taking antibiotics over the past 1 mo; (2) Severe concomitant diseases such as liver, kidney, nervous system or cardiac dysfunction; (3) People with active upper gastrointestinal bleeding; (4) Patients with a history of gastrointestinal surgery for gastric cancer, esophageal cancer or gastric adenoma; and (5) People with mental illness or severe neurosis, affecting correct expression or study. The study finally enrolled 523 patients, the flow chart of patient screening is summarized in [Figure 1](#).

All 523 enrolled patients were examined by upper-endoscopy to get pathological confirmation. Based on histopathologic types, subjects were categorized into five groups: Non-atrophic gastritis (NAG), non-atrophic gastritis with erosion (NAGE), chronic atrophic gastritis (CAG), peptic ulcers (PU) and gastric cancer (GC). Demographic data of patients including age and gender were recorded, and *H. pylori* CagA, VacA status, G-17, PG I, II levels and PG I/PG II ratio were analyzed. The research protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of People's Hospital of Zhengzhou University (2019-KY-No. 10); informed consents were obtained from all participating patients.

Measurement of *H. pylori* infection

The status of *H. pylori* infection was confirmed by both ¹³C-urea breath test (UBT) and serological *H. pylori* antibody test, patients were considered not infected when both tests were negative; when patients were either ¹³C-UBT or serological *H. pylori* antibody positive, but not both, they were not enrolled to avoid false-positive or -negative results. ¹³C-UBT was performed after overnight fasting, a baseline breath sample was obtained by blowing gas into a bag container, and a powder capsule containing 50 mg of ¹³C-urea was given to patients with 80-100 mL water. The second breath sample was collected after 30 min of meditation. Patients were considered *H. pylori* positive if the difference between baseline sample and 30-min sample exceeded

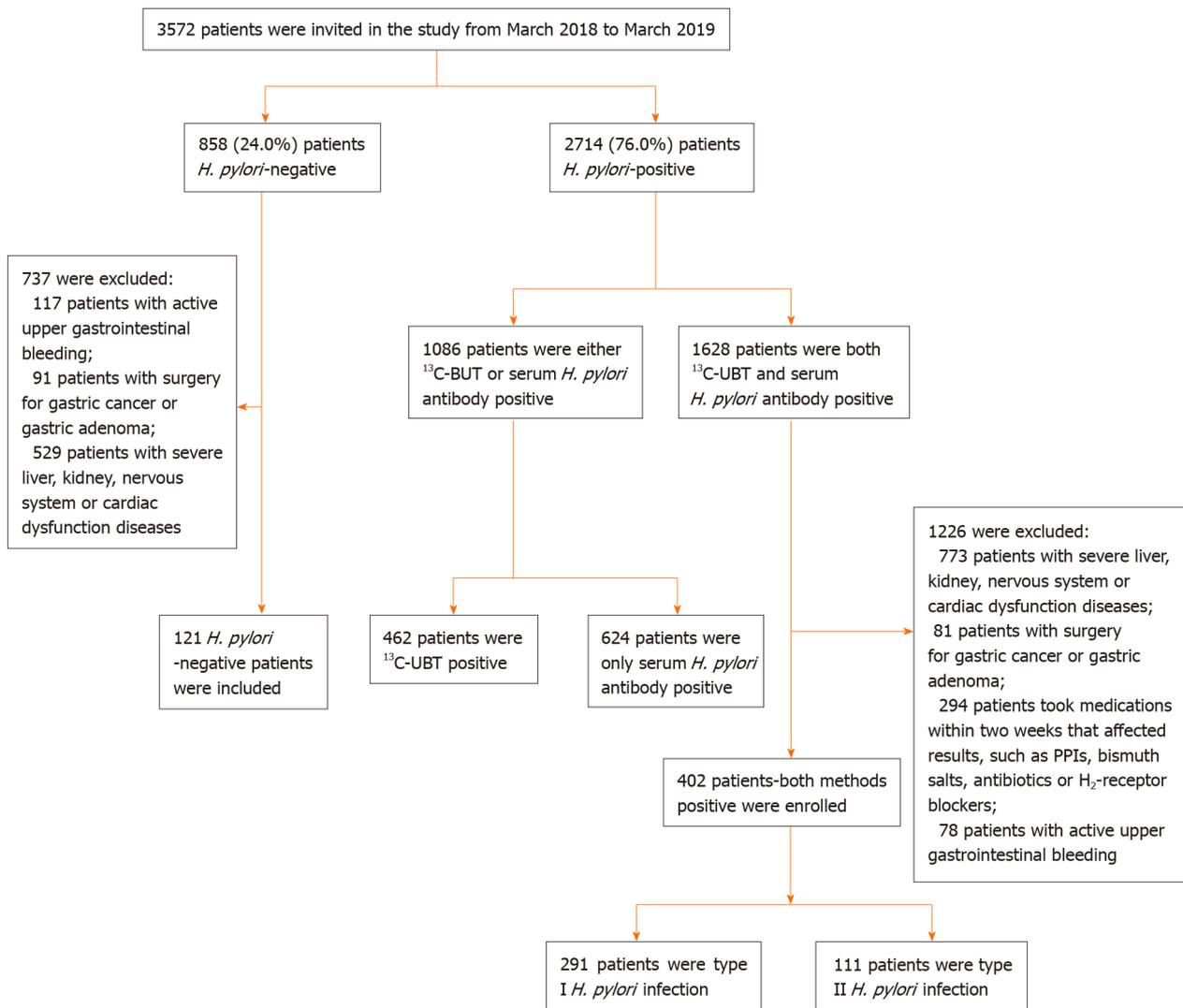


Figure 1 Flowchart of enrolled patients—screening program. *H. pylori*: *Helicobacter pylori*.

4.0 arbitrary units by ¹³C-breath test (HY-IREXC 16 channel; Huayou Mingkang Photoelectric Technology Co., Ltd, Guangzhou, China).

Serological measurements of *H. pylori* antibody, G-17 and PGs

Five milliliters of fasting venous blood sample was collected from each participant. All samples were centrifuged at 1500 × *g* for 5 min and analyzed within 2 h of blood collection. Serum anti-*H. pylori* antibody, G-17, PG I, PG II levels, and PG I/PG II ratio were measured by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kit (*Helicobacter pylori* ELISA kit, Blot Biotech Co., Ltd, Shenzhen, China; PG I, PG II, G-17 ELISA kits, Biohit Biotechnology Co., Ltd. Anhui, China). The procedure followed manufacturers' instructions; quality control analysis showed that the coefficient of variation in intra-batch and inter-batch sample tests was less than 10%.

Determination of *H. pylori* positivity from blood samples: (1) Type I *H. pylori* antibody positive: either or both CagA and VacA bands were present; (2) Type II *H. pylori* antibody positive: only one of urease (Ure) A and UreB bands or both appeared, no CagA, VacA bands were present; and (3) *H. pylori* antibody negative: Only control band appeared in the color-developing zone, and no positive zone was observed. Representative *H. pylori* serological test blot pictures are provided in [Supplementary Figure 1](#).

Endoscopic and histopathological evaluation

Histopathological diagnosis was available in all enrolled 523 patients. Two pieces of biopsy specimen were obtained from the lesion area, antrum and angulus during endoscopic examination. The biopsies were oriented, fixed in formalin, embedded in

paraffin blocks and then sectioned and stained with hematoxylin and eosin for histopathological analysis. For histologic sections where there was initial disagreement on histopathologic interpretation, the final results were determined through adjudication among two pathologists and a third pathologist.

Statistical analysis

Data were analyzed using SPSS for Windows Version 22 (Armonk, NY, United States). Continuous variables were described as mean \pm standard deviation, while categorical variables were described as percentages or frequencies. All data were tested for normal distribution by Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and homogeneity of variances by Levene's test. Data of normal distribution and similar variances were tested by Student's "t" test for two independent samples comparison, and analysis of variance for multiple comparisons among different groups. A comparison of ratios was made by the χ^2 test. A *P* value less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant, which was derived from two-tailed tests. Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves were used to calculate the overall diagnostic performance of G-17, PG I, PG II, and PG I/PG II ratio in PU, CAG and GC patients to determine the best cutoff values, sensitivity and specificity.

RESULTS

Overall *H. pylori* infection status of patients

H. pylori infection status of 3572 patients is presented in Figure 1. Among which, 2714 (76.0%) patients were positive either by UBT test, serological test or both, and 858 (24.0%) patients were negative. Among *H. pylori*-positive patients, 1226 were excluded due to either surgery, medication or bleeding reasons, and 1086 patients were excluded due to either only ¹³C-BUT or serum antibody test positive but not both; the final enrolled patient number was 402 with both tests being positive. In 858 *H. pylori*-negative patients, 737 patients were excluded either due to bleeding, surgery or severe organ diseases; this resulted in only 121 patients being enrolled with both tests being negative. Interestingly, we noticed almost identical *H. pylori* infection rates when comparing the prior- and post-excluded non-enrolled patients. The infection rates of the final enrolled patients were 76.9% positive and 23.1% negative (Figure 1).

Patient clinical data and *H. pylori* infection status

Among the 523 enrolled patients, 305 were male and 218 were female, with an average age of 53.4 ± 11.6 years (range from 28 to 79). Their clinical characteristics and *H. pylori* infection status are presented in Table 1. Patients in 51-60 and 61-80 years age groups had the highest *H. pylori* infection rates of 78.5% (150/191) and 78.4% (116/148), respectively. The average age of patients in the GC group was significantly higher than that in NAG, NAGE and PU groups (*P* < 0.05). The mean age of the CAG group was higher than that in the NAG group (*P* < 0.001). There was no significant difference in *H. pylori* infection status between male and female gender. *H. pylori* infection in male and female genders were mainly type I *H. pylori* strains (54.8%, 56.9% respectively), which were significantly higher than that of type II and *H. pylori* negative patient groups (range from 20.2%-23.3%). There was a significant male dominance in CAG, PU and GC groups (*P* < 0.05). Among 77 CAG patients, 48 (62.3%) patients were antrum atrophic gastritis and 29 (33.8%) were corpus atrophic gastritis, and all 43 gastric cancer patients were intestinal type.

Prevalence of Type I and Type II *H. pylori* infection in stepwise chronic gastric diseases

Total *H. pylori* infection rate of 523 patients was 76.9% (402/523), of which type I *H. pylori* infection rate was 72.4% (291/402), and type II infection rate was 27.6% (111/402). Overall, 88.4% of GC patients were *H. pylori* positive, and 84.2% of them were type I infection, only 11.6% of GC were *H. pylori* negative. As the disease progressed, *H. pylori* infection rate was gradually increased in NAG, NAGE, PU, CAG and GC groups; among which *H. pylori*-positive rate reached the highest level in PU group, accounting for 90.4% (85/94) of the patients. Infection rates of type I *H. pylori* in NAG, NAGE, PU, CAG and GC groups were 67.9%, 62.7%, 77.6%, 79.7%, 84.2%, respectively; and was significantly higher than the corresponding type II *H. pylori* groups; and type I *H. pylori* infection rates were also higher in PU, CAG, and GC groups when compared with the NAG group (Table 2).

Table 1 Patient clinical data and *Helicobacter pylori* infection status

Groups	Total patients, n = 523	NAG, n = 213	NAGE, n = 96	PU, n = 94	CAG, n = 77	GC, n = 43	<i>Hp</i> (+), n = 402	Type I <i>Hp</i> (+), n = 291	Type II <i>Hp</i> (+), n = 111	<i>Hp</i> (-), n = 121
Age in yr										
mean ± SD	53.4 ± 11.6	50.3 ± 11.3 ^a	53.7 ± 11.3	53.5 ± 13.1	58.0 ± 9.4 ^a	59.6 ± 7.8 ^c	53.7 ± 11.4	53.6 ± 11.3	53.9 ± 11.7	52.5 ± 12.1
28-40	76	57 (26.8%)	13 (13.5%)	16 (17.0%)	4 (5.2%)	0	57 (75.0%)	43 (56.6%) ^e	15 (19.7%)	18 (23.7%)
41-50	108	71 (33.3%)	21 (21.9%)	17 (18.1%)	7 (9.1%)	6 (14.0%)	78 (72.2%)	55 (50.9%) ^e	23 (21.3%)	30 (27.8%)
51-60	191	54 (25.3%)	36 (37.5%)	30 (31.9%)	32 (41.6%)	21 (48.8%)	150 (78.5%)	108 (56.5%) ^e	42 (22.0%)	41 (21.5%)
61-80	148	31 (14.6%)	26 (27.1%)	31 (33.0%)	34 (44.2%)	16 (37.2%)	116 (78.4%)	85 (57.5%) ^e	31 (20.9%)	32 (21.6%)
Gender										
Male	305	105 (49.3%)	52 (54.2%)	68 (70.2%) ^g	53 (68.8%) ^g	27 (58.3%) ^g	234 (76.7%)	167 (54.8%) ⁱ	67 (22.0%)	71 (23.3%)
Female	218	108 (50.7%)	44 (45.8%)	26 (27.7%)	24 (31.2%)	16 (37.3%)	168 (77.1%)	124 (56.9%) ⁱ	44 (20.2%)	50 (22.9%)

Data are presented as *n* (%), unless otherwise indicated.

^a*P* < 0.05, mean age in CAG group was compared with NAG group;

^c*P* < 0.05, mean age in GC group was compared with NAG, NAGE groups;

^e*P* < 0.05, infection rate of type I *H. pylori* patients was compared with type II and *H. pylori*-negative patients in the same age groups;

^g*P* < 0.05, percentage in male groups was compared with female groups among PU, CAG, and GC groups;

ⁱ*P* < 0.05, infection rate of type I *H. pylori* patients was compared with type II and *Hp*-negative patients in the same gender groups. CAG: Chronic atrophic gastritis; GC: Gastric cancer; *H. pylori*: *Helicobacter pylori*; NAG: Non-atrophic gastritis; NAGE: Non-atrophic gastritis with erosion; PU: Peptic ulcer; SD: Standard deviation.

Table 2 Infection rates of type I and type II *Helicobacter pylori* in stepwise chronic gastric diseases

Groups	Total	<i>H. pylori</i> (+)	<i>H. pylori</i> (-)	Type I <i>H. pylori</i> (+)	Type II <i>H. pylori</i> (+)
NAG	213	140 (65.7)	73 (34.3)	95 (67.9) ^a	45 (32.1)
NAGE	96	75 (78.1) ^c	21 (21.9)	47 (62.7) ^a	28 (37.3)
PU	94	85 (90.4) ^c	9 (9.6)	66 (77.6) ^{ac}	19 (22.4)
CAG	77	64 (83.1) ^c	13 (16.9)	51 (79.7) ^{ac}	13 (20.3)
GC	43	38 (88.4) ^c	5 (11.6)	32 (84.2) ^{ac}	6 (15.8)
Total	523	402 (76.9)	121 (23.1)	291 (72.4)	111 (27.6)

Data are presented as *n* (%).

^a*P* < 0.05, when type I *H. pylori* infection rate was compared with type II *H. pylori* infection rate in the same disease groups;

^c*P* < 0.05, when *H. pylori* infection rate was compared with the rate of control [non-atrophic gastritis (NAG)] group;

^e*P* < 0.05, when type I *H. pylori* infection rate was compared with the rate of NAG group. CAG: Chronic atrophic gastritis; GC: Gastric cancer; *H. pylori*: *Helicobacter pylori*; NAG: Non-atrophic gastritis; NAGE: Non-atrophic gastritis with erosion; PU: Peptic ulcer.

Distribution of *H. pylori* CagA, VacA, UreA and UreB in stepwise chronic gastric diseases

Positive rates of CagA, VacA, UreA and UreB antibodies are described in Table 3. In 402 infected samples, the percentage of CagA, VacA, UreA and UreB were 70.1%, 61.9%, 70.6% and 98.8%, respectively. CagA antibody was detected in 63.3%, 60.0%, 76.5%, 79.7% and 84.2% in NAG, NAGE, PU, CAG and GC groups, respectively. The positive rates of CagA and VacA were highest in GC group and lowest in NAGE group. UreB antibodies were present in 98.8% of patients with *H. pylori* infection, and there was no statistical differences between disease groups (*P* > 0.05).

Effects of *H. pylori* infection on overall G-17, PG I, PG II levels and PG I/PG II ratio

Overall serum G-17, PG I, PG II values and PG I/PG II ratio at different *H. pylori* infection status are shown in Table 4. G-17 and PG II values in *H. pylori* infected

Table 3 Distribution of CagA, VacA, UreA and UreB serological antibodies in stepwise chronic gastric disease

Groups	CagA	VacA	UreA	UreB
NAG, <i>n</i> = 140	89 (63.6)	82 (55.6)	93 (66.4)	138 (98.6)
NAGE, <i>n</i> = 75	45 (60.0)	36 (48.0)	44 (58.7)	74 (98.7)
PU, <i>n</i> = 85	65 (76.5)	57 (67.0)	67 (78.8)	83 (97.6)
CAG, <i>n</i> = 64	51 (79.7)	43 (67.2)	49 (76.6)	64 (100.0)
GC, <i>n</i> = 38	32 (84.2)	28 (73.7)	31 (81.6)	38 (100.0)
Total, <i>n</i> = 402	282 (70.1)	249 (61.9)	284 (70.6)	397 (98.8)

Data are presented as *n* (%). CAG: Chronic atrophic gastritis; GC: Gastric cancer; NAG: Non-atrophic gastritis; NAGE: Non-atrophic gastritis with erosion; PU: Peptic ulcer.

Table 4 Effects of *Helicobacter pylori* infection on gastric gastrin-17, pepsinogen I, pepsinogen II levels and pepsinogen I/II ratios

<i>H. pylori</i> status	<i>n</i>	G-17, pmol/L	PG I, µg/L	PG II, µg/L	PG I/PG II
<i>H. pylori</i> (+)	402	7.9 ± 8.9 ^a	131.4 ± 86.6	17.3 ± 13.2 ^a	8.4 ± 4.8 ^a
<i>H. pylori</i> (-)	121	3.6 ± 5.2	117.0 ± 76.7	10.5 ± 9.2	12.8 ± 6.5
Type I <i>H. pylori</i> (+)	291	8.5 ± 9.5 ^{ac}	134.2 ± 86.4	18.7 ± 13.7 ^{ac}	7.7 ± 4.2 ^{ac}
Type II <i>H. pylori</i> (+)	111	6.1 ± 6.5 ^a	123.9 ± 86.9	13.9 ± 11.0	10.5 ± 5.6 ^a

Data are presented as mean ± standard deviation.

^a*P* < 0.05, when compared with *H. pylori*-negative group;

^c*P* < 0.05, when compared between type I and type II *H. pylori*-infected groups. G-17: Gastrin-17; *H. pylori*: *Helicobacter pylori*; PG I: Pepsinogen I; PG I/PG II: Pepsinogen I/II ratio; PG II: Pepsinogen II.

groups were significantly higher and PG I/PG II ratio were lower than those in *H. pylori*-negative patients (*P* < 0.05); while PG I level was not different between *H. pylori*-positive and -negative groups (*P* > 0.05). There was also no significant difference in PG I levels between type I and II *H. pylori*-infected patients. G-17 and PG II levels were significantly increased and PG I/PG II ratio were decreased only in patients with type I *H. pylori* infection when compared with type II and *H. pylori*-negative patients (*P* < 0.05).

Receiver operating characteristic curves for G-17, PG I, PG II and PG I / PG II in the prediction of CAG, PU and GC patients

Figure 2 shows ROC curves for G-17, PG I, PG II and PG I/PG II in the prediction of CAG, PU and GC patients. ROC curves for predicting PU based on G-17, PG I, PG II and PG I/PG II ratio are listed in Figure 2 a1-2. Area under the receiver operating characteristic curves (AUROC) were 0.579 (95% confidence interval (CI): 0.514-0.643), 0.663 (95% CI: 0.599-0.729) and 0.653 (95% CI: 0.593-0.713), and 0.529 (95% CI: 0.460-0.598); cut-off values of Youden index were 5.91 pmol/L, 146.20 µg/L, 13.31 µg/L and 9.49, respectively; the sensitivity was 45.7%, 52.1%, 62.8% and 55.3%, respectively; and specificity was 69.4%, 76.9%, 64.5% and 54.0%, respectively.

ROC curves for predicting CAG based on G-17, PG I, PG II and PG I/PG II ratio are listed in Figure 2 b1-2. AUROC were 0.550 (95% CI: 0.474-0.626), 0.531 (95% CI: 0.455-0.607), 0.610 (95% CI: 0.535-0.684) and 0.623 (95% CI: 0.552-0.694), respectively; the cut-off values of Youden index were 4.63 pmol/L, 110.7 µg/L, 7.41 µg/L and 9.37, respectively; the sensitivity was 71.4%, 68.8%, 50.5% and 68.8%, respectively; and specificity was 39.4%, 46.0%, 70.9% and 49.8%, respectively.

ROC curves for predicting GC based on G-17, PG I, PG II and PG I/PG II ratio are listed in Figure 2 c1-2, AUROC were 0.786 (95% CI: 0.737-0.834), 0.634 (95% CI: 0.533-0.735), 0.719 (95% CI: 0.646-0.792) and 0.760 (95% CI: 0.684-0.836), respectively; cut-off values of Youden index: 6.21 pmol/L, 174.49 µg/L, 14.83 µg/L and 6.47, respectively; the sensitivity was 88.4%, 53.5%, 68.8% and 67.4%, respectively; and specificity was 68.3%, 81.0%, 64.4% and 72.7%, respectively.

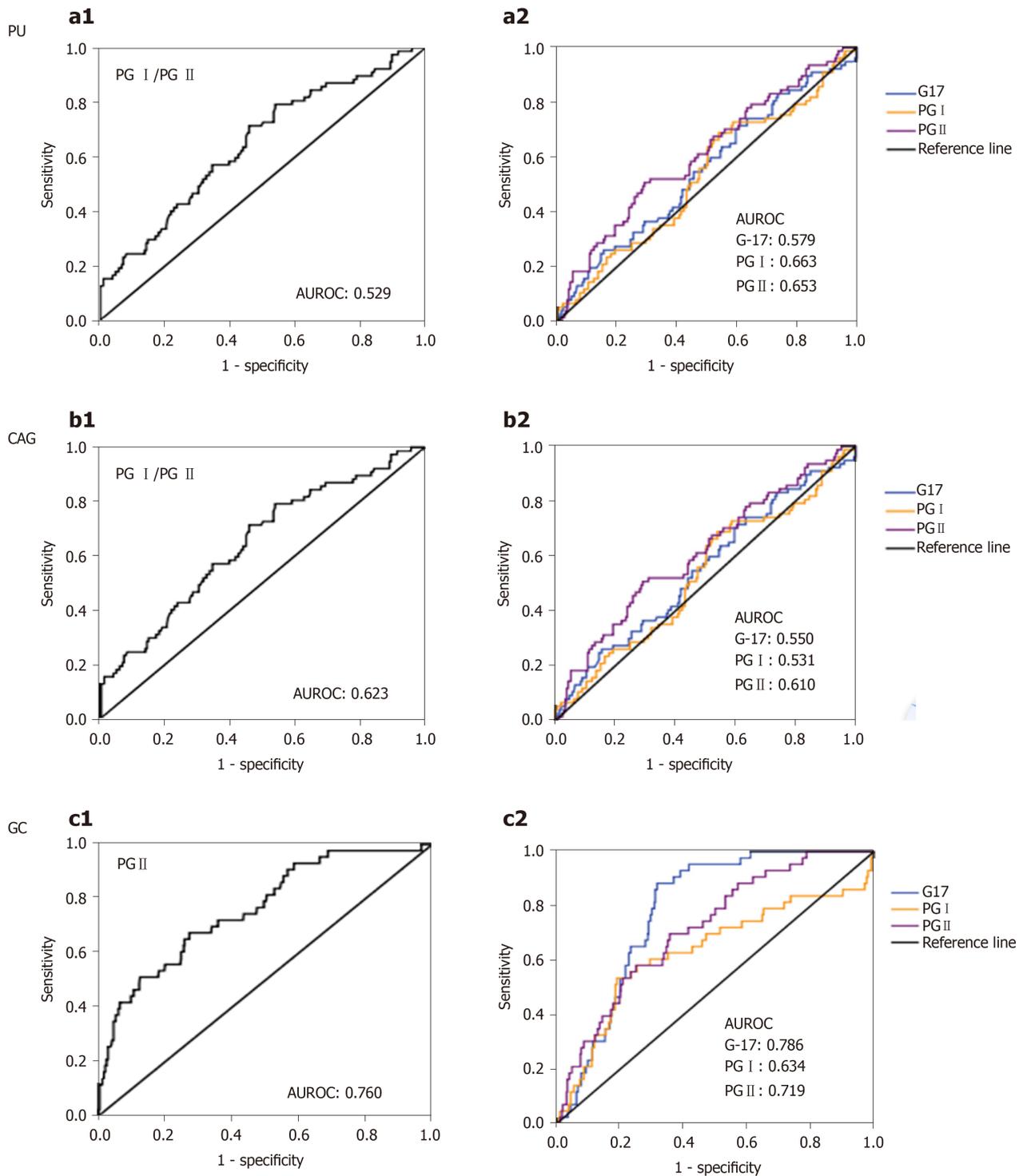


Figure 2 Receiver operating characteristic curves for gastrin-17, pepsinogen I, pepsinogen II and pepsinogen I / pepsinogen II in prediction of chronic atrophic gastritis, peptic ulcers and gastric cancer patients. Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves of gastrin-17 (G-17), pepsinogen (PG) I, PG II level and PG I/PG II ratio in predicting chronic atrophic gastritis (CAG), peptic ulcers (PU) and gastric cancer (GC) patients. a1-2: ROC curves of PG I/PG II ratio, G-17, PG I and PG II values for predicting PU; b1-2: ROC of PG I/PG II ratio, G-17, PG I and PG II values for predicting CAG; c1-2: ROC of PG I/PG II ratio, G-17, PG I and PG II values for predicting GC. PG: Pepsinogen; PU: Peptic ulcers; AUROC: Area under receiver operating characteristic curve; CAG: Chronic atrophic gastritis; G-17: Gastrin-17; GC: Gastric cancer.

Effects of type I and type II *H. pylori* infection on G-17, PG I, PG II levels and PG I/PG II ratio in gastric diseases

Table 5 shows the stratified disease group analysis results. G-17 levels in NAG, NAGE and GC groups in *H. pylori*-infected patients were significantly higher than that of *H. pylori*-negative patients ($P < 0.05$), and this effect was mostly from type I infection, as type II *H. pylori* infection and *H. pylori*-negative group did not show a difference across

Table 5 Effects of *Helicobacter pylori* infection on gastric gastrin 17, pepsinogens levels in stepwise chronic gastric diseases

	NAG	NAGE	PU	CAG	GC
G-17 pmol/L level in different groups,					
mean ± SD	5.6 ± 6.2 ^a	6.7 ± 8.3 ^a	9.1 ± 12.2	5.1 ± 6.5 ^a	12.2 ± 7.6
<i>H. pylori</i> (+)	6.9 ± 6.5 ^{ac}	7.5 ± 8.5 ^{ac}	9.5 ± 12.6	5.2 ± 6.8 ^a	13.0 ± 7.6 ^c
<i>H. pylori</i> (-)	3.0 ± 4.6	3.9 ± 6.6	5.5 ± 7.4	4.4 ± 5.5	6.0 ± 2.5
Type I <i>H. pylori</i> (+)	7.3 ± 6.7 ^{ac}	7.6 ± 8.4 ^{ac}	10.9 ± 13.8 ^e	25.3 ± 7.4 ^a	13.8 ± 7.9 ^c
Type II <i>H. pylori</i> (+)	6.0 ± 6.2 ^c	7.3 ± 9.0	4.6 ± 4.9	4.8 ± 3.2	8.9 ± 4.5
PG I µg/L level in different groups,					
mean ± SD	116.5 ± 72.4 ^{ag}	116.0 ± 74.2 ^{ag}	168.7 ± 103.7	103.1 ± 60.2 ^{ag}	168.6 ± 103.5
<i>H. pylori</i> (+)	117.0 ± 69.8 ^g	117.5 ± 74.8 ^g	172.9 ± 105.0	101.4 ± 64.4 ^{ag}	169.4 ± 104.9
<i>H. pylori</i> (-)	115.4 ± 77.6	110.7 ± 73.6	128.8 ± 86.2	110.3 ± 64.3	162.0 ± 103.7
Type I <i>H. pylori</i> (+)	118.4 ± 67.5 ^{ag}	113.9 ± 62.6 ^{ag}	178.1 ± 109.6	100.6 ± 65.0 ^{ag}	170.8 ± 96.3
Type II <i>H. pylori</i> (+)	114.0 ± 75.1	123.4 ± 92.9	154.9 ± 87.2	105.9 ± 78.6	162.1 ± 154.5
PG II µg/L level in different groups,					
mean ± SD	13.7 ± 11.2 ^{ag}	14.4 ± 12.1 ^a	19.5 ± 14.3	13.8 ± 10.1 ^{ag}	24.5 ± 15.9
<i>H. pylori</i> (+)	15.3 ± 11.3 ^{ac}	15.9 ± 13.0 ^{ac}	20.4 ± 14.7 ^c	14.8 ± 11.0 ^{ac}	25.1 ± 15.9
<i>H. pylori</i> (-)	10.5 ± 10.2	8.9 ± 5.5	10.8 ± 4.8	8.7 ± 4.3	20.6 ± 16.5
Type I <i>H. pylori</i> (+)	17.1 ± 12.0 ^{ce}	16.5 ± 11.3 ^c	21.9 ± 16.0 ^{ce}	14.7 ± 11.3 ^{ac}	25.5 ± 16.3
Type II <i>H. pylori</i> (+)	11.5 ± 8.6	14.9 ± 15.5	15.1 ± 6.8	15.4 ± 9.6 ^c	22.8 ± 15.3
PG I/PG II ratios in different groups,					
mean ± SD	10.6 ± 6.3 ^{ai}	9.6 ± 5.4 ^a	9.7 ± 4.3 ^a	7.9 ± 4.4 ^a	5.6 ± 3.8
<i>H. pylori</i> (+)	9.3 ± 5.6 ^{aci}	8.7 ± 4.6 ^{ac}	9.5 ± 4.4 ^{ai}	6.8 ± 3.3 ^c	5.1 ± 3.0
<i>H. pylori</i> (-)	13.2 ± 7.0	13.1 ± 6.7	11.8 ± 3.7	12.8 ± 4.7	9.1 ± 7.3
Type I <i>H. pylori</i> (+)	8.2 ± 4.9 ^{ace}	7.8 ± 3.3 ^{ace}	9.2 ± 4.2 ^a	6.5 ± 3.2 ^c	4.7 ± 2.9 ^c
Type II <i>H. pylori</i> (+)	11.4 ± 6.3	10.3 ± 5.9	10.7 ± 4.9	8.8 ± 3.4 ^c	7.6 ± 2.1

^a*P* < 0.05, vs gastric cancer patients;^c*P* < 0.05, vs *H. pylori*-negative patients in the same disease groups;^e*P* < 0.05, type I and type II *H. pylori*-positive patients were compared in the same disease groups;^g*P* < 0.05, vs peptic ulcer patients;ⁱ*P* < 0.05, vs chronic atrophic gastritis patients. CAG: Chronic atrophic gastritis; G-17: Gastrin 17; GC: Gastric cancer; *H. pylori*: *Helicobacter pylori*; NAG: Non-atrophic gastritis; NAGE: Non-atrophic gastritis with erosion; PU: Peptic ulcer; PG I: Pepsinogen I; PG II: Pepsinogen II; PG I/PG II: Pepsinogen I /pepsinogen II ratio.

disease groups. In PU patients, the level of G-17 in type I *H. pylori*-positive patients was significantly higher than that in type II *H. pylori*-infected patients (*P*<0.05). G-17 levels in the GC group were significantly higher when compared with NAG, NAGE and CAG groups in both *H. pylori*- and type I *H. pylori*-infected patients.

PG I levels in type II *H. pylori*-positive and *H. pylori*-negative patients showed no difference among all disease groups, while PG I level in GC group was significantly higher when compared with NAG, NAGE and CAG groups only in both type I and *H. pylori*-positive patients (*P*<0.05).

PG II levels in *H. pylori*- and type I *H. pylori*-infected patients were significantly higher in NAG, NAGE, PU and CAG groups when compared with *H. pylori*-negative patients (*P* < 0.05) except in the GC group, which showed no difference. PG II levels in *H. pylori*-negative and type II *H. pylori*-infected patients had no difference among all disease groups. In *H. pylori*-infected patients, PG II level was significantly higher in the GC group than that in NAG, NAGE and CAG groups. PG II level was also higher in the GC group over the CAG group in type I *H. pylori*-infected patients.

PG I/PG II ratios of *H. pylori*- and type I *H. pylori*-positive patients were lower when

compared with *H. pylori*-negative patients in NAG, NAGE and CAG groups ($P < 0.05$). Except for the CAG group, PG I/PG II ratios in type II *H. pylori*-infected groups were not significantly different from those in *H. pylori*-negative groups ($P > 0.05$). In type II and *H. pylori*-negative patients, PG I/PG II ratios showed no difference across different disease groups ($P > 0.05$); while PG I/PG II ratio of both *H. pylori*- and type I *H. pylori*-positive patients was significantly lower in the GC group when compared with the NAG, NAGE and PU groups ($P < 0.05$) (Table 5).

DISCUSSION

H. pylori cytotoxins CagA and VacA are major virulence factors and pathogenic mechanisms. Virulent strains are associated with increased risk of gastroduodenal disorders, but virulence varied among different strains of *H. pylori*^[4-6,13]. Clinical relevance of type I *H. pylori* infection in gastric disease and gastric cancer has been very well defined, but the mechanism of type II *H. pylori*-induced gastric disease needs further exploration. The present results have demonstrated that type I *H. pylori* is the major form of infection in stepwise gastric diseases in present region, which is a high gastric cancer risk area^[8].

Meta-analyses^[4,14] have shown that CagA seropositivity are correlated with the occurrence of gastric cancer among *H. pylori*-infected patients. Sheikh *et al*^[15] examined 201 patients infected by *H. pylori* and found that *cagA* gene was detected in 66.7% of the isolates; positive rates of *cagA* gene in gastric cancer and peptic ulcer patients were 68.2% and 71%, respectively. Kim *et al*^[16] found that *H. pylori* infection in South Koreans was closely related to highly virulent strains [*vacA* s1/i1/m1, *cagA* (+), *iceA1* (+), and *oipA* (+)] and has an intimate association with the progression of peptic ulcer diseases. A recent survey of the high gastric cancer incidence area in Shandong Province, China showed^[17] that seroprevalences of CagA, VacA antibodies in 573 *H. pylori*-infected patients were 83.9%, 38.9%, respectively; suggesting that CagA-positive strains are the dominant form of infection in Chinese population and are associated with progression of gastric mucosal lesions.

Here, we noted a high infection rate of *H. pylori* in GC patients, where 88.4% of GC are *H. pylori* positive, 84.2% of them are type I infection, and only 11.6% of GC are *H. pylori* negative. Such a high rate of *H. pylori* infection in GC patients has not been reported in this area previously. A Japanese study in 2011 indicated that *H. pylori* negative gastric cancers are rare in Japan^[18], and both intestinal type and diffuse type of gastric cancer are closely related to *H. pylori* infection^[19]. The current results are in line with these results, and indicate an important role of type I *H. pylori* in the development of upper gastrointestinal diseases and gastric cancer. It is also worth exploring further the mechanism of *H. pylori*-negative and type II *H. pylori*-infected GC patients.

PG I is produced by chief cells and mucosal neck cells in the fundic glands, whereas PG II is produced in fundic glands, pyloric glands and Brunner's glands. Gastric inflammation can lead to increased release of both pepsinogens into the bloodstream, with a greater increase in PG II than in PG I^[20]. Other previous studies^[8,9,21] have reported that low PG I levels and/or low PG I/PG II ratios are associated with increased risk of gastric cancer. PG I < 70 $\mu\text{g/L}$ and PG I/PG II ratio < 3.0 have been frequently applied as the thresholds for defining population with high-risk of gastric cancer. *H. pylori* infection causes chronic inflammation of gastric mucosa^[22] and affects the secretion of PGs and gastrin, but very few studies have explored the different effects of type I and type II *H. pylori* on G-17 and PGs levels.

In this study, *H. pylori*-positive patients have high levels serum PG II and G-17 and lower levels of PG I/PG II ratio when compared with *H. pylori*-negative patients. The results are in agreement with previous reports^[20,23]. Our study further found that type I *H. pylori* infection result in a significant increase in PG II levels and a marked decline of PG I/PG II ratios when compared with type II *H. pylori* infection, which is an effect that has not been shown previously. We also noted that PG I levels have no difference in *H. pylori*-negative and type II *H. pylori*-positive patients across different disease groups. PG I levels were significantly increased in GC and PU patients in *H. pylori*- and type I *H. pylori*-infected group over the NAG, NAGE and CAG group patients. The results differ from previous reports that found low PG I level is associated with GC risk^[24], probably due to different analysis methods or patients population involved. Further research is needed to explore the effect of *H. pylori* on PG I level in different gastric diseases.

Hypergastrinemia is more common in patients with *H. pylori*-infected

gastrointestinal diseases, which may be one cause of precancerous lesions or gastric cancer^[25,26]. Gastrin is synthesized and secreted from antral G-cells. *H. pylori*-associated gastritis tends to raise serum gastrin levels, which is possibly due to hyperplasia of antral G-cells and an acid-suppressive effect of chronic gastritis when the corpus mucosa is involved. Our study shows a significant increase in G-17 in *H. pylori*-positive patients, which is consistent with previous results^[25,26], and we further find that the levels of G-17 in type I *H. pylori* infected patients are significantly higher than that in type II *H. pylori*-infected patients ($P < 0.05$). The response of G-17 to *H. pylori* appears to be disease stage dependent, as in PU and CAG patients; there is no difference when compared with *H. pylori*-negative controls. Further studies are required to elucidate its pathogenesis in *H. pylori*-induced carcinogenesis.

In the current study, as the disease progresses, the levels of G-17, PG I, PG II and PG I/PG II ratios do not show differences in all *H. pylori*-negative and type II *H. pylori*-positive groups. In contrast, in type I *H. pylori*-positive groups, G-17, PG I and PG II levels are significantly higher and PG I/PG II ratios are lower in GC patients when compared with NAG, NAGE and CAG patients. The explanation of the results is probably due to the presence of CagA-, VacA-proteins, which are major *H. pylori* virulence factors that cause greater epithelial injury and mucosal inflammation, including the release of inflammatory mediators or cytokines that affect epithelial cell homeostasis, therefore resulting in disturbed secretion of PGs and gastrin^[27,28].

Application of G-17, PG I, PG II levels and PG I/PG II ratios in gastric cancer epidemiology study have been reported extensively, although their predicative values in stepwise gastric disease in clinical studies have not been very well defined. Previous investigations have generated inconsistent conclusions^[9-12], and our results using AUROC analysis (Figure 2) indicated relatively low predictive value range from 0.529-0.786 for PU, CAG and GC patients, and type I *H. pylori* infection is the major factor that affects their levels as the disease progresses. These data provide insight to evaluate their application during clinical practice and are helpful in explaining the results.

In CAG patients, we also noticed that our PGI level and PG I/PG II ratios are slightly higher when compared with other reports^[9-12], and as all the CAG patients have histological confirmation, we therefore consider this effect could be due to patient population- or region-based variations, or might be due to variations from the degrees of atrophy itself. Future studies are required to explain these discrepancies.

Results of this study also show that *H. pylori* infection rate in our hospitalized patients is 76.9%, which is higher than that in the general population^[1,2]. This could be because all patients enrolled in this study have gastrointestinal symptoms, so the infection rate of *H. pylori* is reasonably higher. One important difference between the current investigation and previous studies is that screening criteria for patients with *H. pylori* infection is more strict, as patients with only both ¹³C-BUT and serological *H. pylori* antibody positive were enrolled. This selection makes our research results more accurate and reliable, allowing for the true status of *H. pylori* infection and reducing the possibility of false-positives and -negatives. Moreover, the fact that the proportions of *H. pylori* infection rates prior- and post-patient selections are almost identical indicates that the data analyses are reliable and not biased.

In conclusion, the present study evaluated type I and type II *H. pylori* infection status in chronic gastric disease and their impact on commonly used gastric cancer risk markers, such as PG I and PG II levels and PG I/PG II ratio in this high gastric cancer risk area. We noted that *H. pylori* infection rate is high in our gastric cancer patients, and only about 11.6% of gastric cancers were *H. pylori* negative. Type I *H. pylori* was the major form of infection. Our results also reveal that the effects of *H. pylori* on PG I, PG II and PG I/PG II ratio are mostly from type I strain infection and not from type II strain infection. The data provide insight in *H. pylori*-induced carcinogenesis and will be helpful to guide clinical practice for *H. pylori* eradication, to explain G-17 and PGs clinical results and for disease prevention.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

Type I *Helicobacter pylori* (*H. pylori*) is the major form of *H. pylori* infection in many areas globally. However, its infection status and role in stepwise gastric disease in this gastric cancer prevalent area have not been studied. Its impact on the commonly used gastric cancer risk markers such as gastrin-17 (G-17) and pepsinogens (PGs) is also not known.

Research objectives

We investigated the prevalence of type I and type II *H. pylori* infection in stepwise gastric diseases and the clinical implications; their impact on G-17 and PGs levels during routine clinical practice were also evaluated.

Research methods

Five hundred and twenty-three hospital admitted patients were enrolled in this study. *H. pylori* infection was confirmed by both ¹³C-urea breath test and serological assay. Their serological G-17, PG I, PG II values and PG I/PG II ratio were also measured. Receiver operating characteristic curves were used to calculate the overall diagnostic performance of G-17, PG I, PG II and PG I/PG II ratio in peptic ulcers (PU), chronic atrophic gastritis (CAG) and gastric cancer (GC) patients to determine the best cutoff values, sensitivity and specificity.

Research results

The infection rate of 523 enrolled patients was 76.9%, among which type I *H. pylori* infection accounted for 72.4%, and type II was 27.6%. Overall, 88.4% of GC patients were *H. pylori* positive, 84.2% of them were type I infection, and only 11.6% of GC patients were *H. pylori* negative. *H. pylori* infection resulted in significantly higher G-17 and PG II values and decreased PG I/PG II ratio. Both types of *H. pylori* induced higher G-17 level, but type I strain infection resulted in an increased PG II level and decreased PG I/PG II ratio in NAG, NAGE and CAG patients. PG I levels showed no difference among disease groups, and only showed a difference in stratified analysis in GC and PU patients. The diagnostic performance of G-17, PG I, PG II and PG I/PG II ratio in PU, CAG and GC patients indicated relatively low predictive value.

Research conclusions

Type I *H. pylori* infection is the major form of infection in this geographic region, and a very low percentage (11.6%) of GC patients are not infected by *H. pylori*. Both types of *H. pylori* induce an increased G-17 level, while type I *H. pylori* is the major strain that affects PG I, PG II levels and PG I/PG II ratio in stepwise chronic gastric diseases.

Research perspectives

The results provide insight on *H. pylori* infection status in hospital admitted patients, and their impact on G-17 and PGs levels, which will be helpful to guide *H. pylori* eradication and explain G-17 and PGs assay results in clinical practice.

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Quality of life in patients with gastroenteropancreatic tumours: A systematic literature review

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Abstract

BACKGROUND

Gastroenteropancreatic neuroendocrine tumours (GEP-NETs) are slow-growing cancers that arise from diffuse endocrine cells in the gastrointestinal tract (GI-NETs) or the pancreas (P-NETs). They are relatively uncommon, accounting for 2% of all gastrointestinal malignancies. The usual treatment options in advanced GEP-NET patients with metastatic disease include chemotherapy, biological therapies, and peptide receptor radionuclide therapy. Understanding the impact of treatment on GEP-NET patients is paramount given the nature of the disease. Health-related quality of life (HRQoL) is increasingly important as a concept reflecting the patients' perspective in conjunction with the disease presentation, severity and treatment.

AIM

To conduct a systematic literature review to identify literature reporting HRQoL data in patients with GEP-NETs between January 1985 and November 2019.

METHODS

The PRISMA guiding principles were applied. MEDLINE, Embase and the Cochrane library were searched. Data extracted from the publications included type of study, patient population data (mid-gut/hind-gut/GI-NET/P-NET), sample size, intervention/comparators, HRQoL instruments, average and data spread of overall and sub-scores, and follow-up time for data collection.

RESULTS

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Forty-three publications met the inclusion criteria. The heterogeneous nature of the different study populations was evident; the percentage of female participants ranged between 30%-60%, whilst average age ranged from 53.8 to 67.0 years. Eight studies investigated GI-NET patients only, six studies focused exclusively on P-NET patients and the remaining studies involved both patient populations or did not report the location of the primary tumour. The most commonly used instrument was the European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer Quality of Life Questionnaire-C30 ($n = 28$) with consistent results across studies; the GI-NET-specific module Quality of Life Questionnaire-GINET21 was used in six of these studies. A number of randomised trials demonstrated no HRQoL changes between active treatment and placebo arms. The Phase III NETTER-1 study provides the best data available for advanced GEP-NET patients; it shows that peptide receptor radionuclide therapy can significantly improve GEP-NET patients' HRQoL.

CONCLUSION

HRQoL instruments offer a means to monitor patients' general disease condition, disease progression and their physical and mental well-being. Instruments including the commonly used European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer Quality of Life Questionnaire-C30 and GINET21 lack, however, validation and a defined minimal clinically important difference specifically for GI-NET and P-NET patients.

Key words: Gastroenteropancreatic neuroendocrine tumours; Health-related quality of life; Systematic literature review; Chemotherapy; Biological therapies; Peptide receptor radionuclide therapy

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Core tip: Gastroenteropancreatic neuroendocrine tumours (GEP-NETs) are slow-growing cancers that arise from diffuse endocrine cells in the gastrointestinal tract and pancreas. An increased emphasis has been placed on health-related quality of life assessment in clinical studies, using reliable and validated patient-reported outcome instruments. Long-term therapeutic options provide symptomatic relief for patients with GEP-NETs, and can slow down or stabilise disease progression, but are not curative. Thus, understanding the impact of the long-term treatment options is particularly important. The aim of this study was to perform a systematic review to assess health-related quality of life focusing on patients with inoperable metastatic GEP-NETs undergoing different treatments in order to uncover areas for future research.

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INTRODUCTION

Gastroenteropancreatic tumours (GEP-NETs) account for 2% of all gastrointestinal malignancies, with a United Kingdom age-standardised incidence rate of 8.6/100000/year^[1]. GEP-NETs tend to be slow-growing cancers arising from diffuse endocrine cells in the gastrointestinal tract (GI-NETs) or pancreas (P-NETs). GEP-NETs are categorised as “functioning” or “non-functioning”. Functioning tumours cause symptoms due to the hypersecretion of peptides and hormones^[2,3], whilst non-functioning tumours have no hormone-related clinical features. Specific symptoms vary by primary tumour location^[4,5]. Around 3 in 10 patients with GI-NET develop symptoms of diarrhoea, abdominal pain and flushing due to increased serotonin production^[6], known as carcinoid syndrome (CS). P-NETs can produce a variety of hormones, the most common of which are insulin and gastrin. Other abnormal

hormone production associated with GEP-NETs include glucagon, vasoactive intestinal peptide, adrenocorticotrophic hormone, somatostatin, and parathyroid hormone-related protein^[7].

Surgery is the only curative treatment for GEP-NETs and can be performed when tumours are localised and resectable. The majority of GEP-NET patients, however, are diagnosed with metastatic disease requiring systemic treatment^[8,9], including chemotherapy, biological therapies, and peptide receptor radionuclide therapy (PRRT)^[10]. These long-term therapeutic options provide symptomatic relief, and can slow down or stabilise disease progression, but are not curative. The 5-year survival rate for patients with metastatic GI-NETs is approximately 75% and the 5-year survival rate for patient with metastatic P-NETs is > 60%, whilst the prevalence of GEP-NETs has been on the rise in the recent decades^[2,11]. For instance, the median overall time of survival from the date of diagnosis of distant metastatic disease was reported to be 103 mo (8.5 years) in patients with metastatic midgut GI-NETs^[12]. It is therefore vital to assess the patient's health-related quality of life (HRQoL) in general and related to the disease whilst taking treatments which can have a marked impact on well-being.

In oncology, an increased emphasis has been placed on HRQoL assessment as a secondary endpoint in clinical studies, using reliable and thoroughly validated patient-reported outcome (PRO) instruments for which the minimal important difference for improvement/worsening has been defined^[13-17]. High-quality information on HRQoL serves a variety of purposes such as the development of targeted interventions, informed decision making about treatment options and allocation of healthcare resources^[18]. Indeed, the United States Food and Drug Administration and European Medicines Agency have published guidance on the use of PRO measures in oncology studies emphasising the value of patient perspective when evaluating medicinal products^[19,20].

To date, systematic assessments of HRQoL in patients with GEP-NETs have been performed to a limited extent. In the past, where the literature was systematically evaluated, the review focused on the methodological quality of the identified studies^[18]. To our knowledge, there has been no systematic literature review published to provide a comprehensive overview of the different treatment options and associated impact on the patients' HRQoL. The aim of our study was to perform a systematic review to assess HRQoL focusing on patients with inoperable metastatic GEP-NETs undergoing different treatments in order to uncover areas for future research.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Search strategy and study selection

This systematic review adheres to the established international guidelines for conducting systematic reviews, such as those provided by the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses report (PRISMA Statement^[21]), and the Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions^[22]. Methods of analysis and inclusion criteria were defined in advance and outlined in a designated protocol.

An extensive search of MEDLINE, Embase and the Cochrane library was performed by an experienced information specialist to identify relevant studies. We examined articles published in English between January 1985 and November 2019. The protocol outlined the electronic search strategy in full; searches were supplemented by manual searches of relevant review journals.

After de-duplication, article titles and abstracts were independently reviewed by two analysts, with discrepancies resolved *via* discussion with a third reviewer. Full-text articles were then obtained for records that met the inclusion criteria to re-evaluate eligibility.

Eligibility criteria

Eligibility for this systematic review was defined according to the PICOS^[21]. Participants were adult patients (≥ 18 years) with inoperable GEP-NETs. Outcome measures included HRQoL, PROs, utility estimates, validity, and minimally important difference. The study design incorporated studies reporting utility estimates and HRQoL data, including economic evaluations, observational studies, and relevant randomised control trials. Cross-sectional studies were included, as they can provide useful HRQoL data at a specific point in time, although not providing longitudinal changes due to treatment over time. Studies were also required to report at least one relevant outcome for ≥ 15 patients. There were no limits defined in terms of

intervention or comparator PICOS elements.

Articles were excluded if patients were diagnosed with neuroendocrine tumours that did not originate in the gastrointestinal tract or the pancreas, and when the HRQoL data for patients with GEP-NETs were not separated by sub-analysis (*e.g.*, the population included patients with lung and/or thyroid neuroendocrine tumours). Studies indexed as case reports, case series, editorials and letters, conference abstracts, systematic reviews and non-human studies were also excluded. Finally, studies where the treatment applied did not target the malignancies specifically, such as psychotherapeutic interventions, were excluded.

Data extraction

A dedicated data extraction sheet was devised to capture all relevant data, including publication details, study design, country, intervention(s), comparator(s), eligibility, population description (including any specific sub-groups), sample size, age (average and range), sex ratio, tumour location, description of HRQoL measure (including valuation technique, method of elicitation, timepoints, follow-up duration, response rates), utility tool assessment (including disease state, timepoint, average utility) and HRQoL assessment (including scale domain where relevant, timepoint, average score, data spread). Disagreements were resolved by discussion between the two reviewers, with third reviewer involvement as required.

Quality assessment

The quality and relevance of HRQoL studies were assessed based on the key criteria described by Papaioannou *et al*^[23] and Brazier *et al*^[24], where applicable. Papers reporting insufficient information to assess study methods and populate the data extraction sheet were considered lower quality and were excluded on this basis.

RESULTS

Identified literature

A total of 42 studies published between 1985 and 2019 met the inclusion criteria of this study, of which 32 were found electronically and 10 were found by handsearching the reference lists of relevant articles (Figure 1). Of these studies, 6 can be classed as cross-sectional studies. There was a combined total of 3552 participants in the 42 studies, excluding healthy participants used for comparisons and the duplicate patients taken from the same data, with study sample sizes ranging from 17 to 253 patients. The heterogeneous nature of the different study populations was evident; the percentage of female participants ranged between 30%-60%, whilst average age ranged from 53.8 to 67.0 years (Table 1). In terms of disease location, 8 studies focused on GI-NET patients only and 6 studies focused on P-NET patients; the remaining studies were either a combination of both populations or did not report the specific disease location.

Of the total studies, 14 included somatostatin analogues as the intervention, including octreotide ($n = 7$), lanreotide ($n = 3$), pasireotide ($n = 1$), and undefined ($n = 3$). Such treatments slow down the production of hormones, such as serotonin, and thus reduce the symptoms of CS. In two studies, somatostatin analogues were combined with immunotherapy drugs such as interferon^[25,26]. Three studies compared somatostatin analogues with placebos, allocated within the context of a randomised controlled trial^[16,27,28]. Five studies used somatostatin analogues as comparators for an alternative somatostatin therapy, ¹⁷⁷Lu-DOTATATE or octreotide combined with interferon alpha^[17,29-32].

In PRRT, a radioactive substance can be combined with a relevant peptide (or its analogue), such as somatostatin, so that it preferentially binds with a high affinity to the tumour. Nine studies considered PRRT as the intervention: ²²⁵Ac-DOTATATE ($n = 1$), ¹⁷⁷Lu-DOTATATE ($n = 5$), ⁹⁰Y-DOTATOC ($n = 2$) and/or ¹⁷⁷Lu-DOTATOC ($n = 3$) (Table 1). ¹⁷⁷Lu-DOTATATE was compared with octreotide administered at a high dose in one prospective study^[17]. One retrospective study considered PRRT as the comparator^[33], with somatostatin analogues or interferon therapy as the intervention.

Everolimus, sunitinib and erythropoietin were studied as interventions in three, three and one studies, respectively. Two studies compared sunitinib with a placebo within the context of randomised control trials^[34,35]. Sunitinib was investigated as a comparator of everolimus in an additional study^[36]. In some studies, interferon was used within the populations^[25,31,33,37,38], but this was not applied to a specific subgroup.

Six studies used chemotherapy as the intervention: These combined bevacizumab with 5-FU/streptozocin ($n = 2$), capecitabine and streptozocin plus cisplatin ($n = 1$),

Table 1 Extracted literature

Ref.	Intervention	Comparator(s)	Study design, "Open" Label / "Blinded" / "Double blinded"	Total sample size	Patient sub-group	Pt sub-group sample size	Sex (% female)	Average age (yr)	Mean/median	Total GI-NET, %	P-NET, %	Functioning /Non-functioning, "function"	Additional information about disease ¹ : "Stage (TNM)" "progressive" "stable", ("advanced" "metastatic/metastases" "spread") ("grow" "grade" "differentiated")
Zandee <i>et al</i> ^[58] , 2019	¹⁷⁷ Lu-DOTATATE	NA	Retrospective study	34	NA	NA	50	59	Mean	NA	100	Functioning (100%)	Grade 1 or 2 tumours with metastases (stage IV). Metastatic disease sites: Liver (97%), bone (21%), lung (6%)
Ramage <i>et al</i> ^[54] , 2019	Everolimus	NA	Phase IV, open	48	All Patients	46	30	64.3	Median	NR	100	NR	Advanced and/or metastatic, well-differentiated, grade 1 and 2
					Continuing treatment at month 6	30	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR		
Ballal <i>et al</i> ^[8] , 2019	²²⁵ Ac-DOTATATE	NA	Prospective study, open	21	NA	NA	57	54	Median	38	57	NR	Metastatic GEP-NETs with stable disease after completing ¹⁷⁷ Lu-PRRT (57%) or progressive disease on ¹⁷⁷ Lu-PRRT (43%). Grades 1 (<i>n</i> = 9), 2 (<i>n</i> = 11), and 3 (<i>n</i> = 1). Metastatic disease sites: Liver (86%), lymph node (71%), bone (33%)
Marinova <i>et al</i> ^[61] , 2019	¹⁷⁷ Lu-DOTATATE	NA	Retrospective study	70	NA	NA	44.3	64.2	Mean	100	NR	Functioning (83%), non-functioning (17%)	Metastatic. Grade 1 (50%), grade 2 (35.7%), unknown (14.3%). Morphological or clinical progression prior to 1 st cycle PRRT (78.6%)
Rinke <i>et al</i> ^[16] , 2019	Long-acting octreotide	Placebo (sodium chloride)	Clinical trial (RCT), Phase IIIb trial, double blind, placebo controlled	85	Long-acting octreotide	42	49.4	62.4	Mean	NR	NR	Functioning (39%), non-functioning (61%)	Metastatic, liver metastases (86%)
					Placebo	43		60.3	Mean	NR	NR		
					NA	NA		NR	NA	NR	NR		
Martini <i>et al</i> ^[59] , 2018	DOTATATE or ⁹⁰ Y-DOTATOC	General population norms	Retrospective study	61	Small intestine NET patients	37	40.5	62.8	Mean	100	0	NR	No brain metastases; otherwise not defined
					P-NET patients	24	37.5	61.0	Mean	0	100		
Lewis <i>et al</i> ^[3] , 2018	Not defined	Patients with CS <i>vs</i> patients without CS	Prospective study	50	Without CS (CS)	25	48.0	62.0	Median	60.0	40.0	NR	Advanced, well-differentiated, with liver metastases
					With CS (CS)	25	36.0	67.0	Median	96.0	4.0	NR	

Strosberg <i>et al</i> ^[17] , 2018	¹⁷⁷ Lu-DOTATATE	High-dose octreotide	Clinical trial (RCT), phase III, open	231	¹⁷⁷ Lu-DOTATATE	117	NR	NR	NR	100	NR	NR	Advanced, progressive, low- or intermediate-grade
					octreotide LAR	114	NR	NR	NR	100	NR		
Karppinen <i>et al</i> ^[46] , 2018	NA	Control population	Cross-sectional	134	Impaired excretion	87	55	66.8	Mean	100	NR	Flushing (31%), diarrhoea (63%)	Locally advanced or metastatic disease (91%), grade 1 (54.1%), grade 2 (45.9%)
Cella <i>et al</i> ^[44] , 2018	Telotristat ethyl	Placebo	Clinical trial (RCT), phase III trial, double blind	135	NA	135	48.1	63.6	Mean	NR	NR	NR	Well-differentiated, metastatic NETs and CS inadequately controlled by somatostatin analogues (for ≥ 3 mo)
					Durable responders (DR)	48	52.1	63.4	Mean	NR	NR		
					Non-durable responders (DR)	87	46	63.6	Mean	NR	NR		
Meng <i>et al</i> ^[28] , 2017	Somatostatin analogue lanreotide	Placebo	Clinical trial (RCT), phase III trial, double blind	204	Lanreotide	101	48	62.1	Mean	NR	NR	Non-functioning	Advanced, well-differentiated or moderately differentiated, somatostatin receptor-positive NETs of grade 1 or 2
					Placebo	103				NR	NR		
					Overall	204				NR	NR		
Vinik <i>et al</i> ^[35] , 2016	Sunitinib plus best supportive care	Placebo plus best supportive care	Clinical trial (RCT), phase III trial, double blind	171	NA	NA	NR	NR	NR	NA	100	NR	Advanced and/or metastatic, pathologically confirmed, well-differentiated P-NETs with disease progression as assessed by RECIST
Haugland <i>et al</i> ^[9] , 2016	None	None	Cross-sectional	196	None	NA	50.5	65.0	Mean	100.0	0.0	NR	NR
Pavel <i>et al</i> ^[56] , 2016	Everolimus	NA	Clinical trial, Phase IIIb, open, expanded access study	246	P-NET	126	46	61	Median	NR	100	Functioning (<i>n</i> = 38), non-functioning (<i>n</i> = 88)	Metastatic, well differentiated (<i>n</i> = 81), moderately differentiated (<i>n</i> = 26), poorly differentiated (<i>n</i> = 1), unknown (<i>n</i> = 16), missing (<i>n</i> = 2)
					Non P-NET	120	50.8	66	Median	NR	0	Functioning (<i>n</i> = 66), non-functioning (<i>n</i> = 55)	Metastatic, well differentiated (<i>n</i> = 65), moderately differentiated (<i>n</i> = 34), poorly differentiated (<i>n</i> = 2), unknown (<i>n</i> = 19)
Delpassand <i>et al</i> ^[66] , 2014	¹⁷⁷ Lu-DOTATATE	NA	Clinical trial, phase II, open	37	Patients with available data participated in quality of life questionnaire	27	56.8	63.4	Mean	43.2	37.8	NR	Grade 1 and grade 2, disseminated, progressive, somatostatin receptor-positive. Multiple metastases in the liver: grade 2 (<i>n</i> = 4), grade 3 (<i>n</i> = 26), grade 4 (<i>n</i> = 7). Metastatic disease sites: Liver (<i>n</i> = 34), lymph nodes (<i>n</i> = 16), bone (<i>n</i> = 11), pancreas (<i>n</i> = 8), lung (<i>n</i> = 3)
Ducreux <i>et al</i> ^[41] , 2014	Bevacizumab combined with 5-FU/ streptozocin (Mitry <i>et al</i> ^[40])	Capecitabine plus bevacizumab	Clinical trial, phase II, open	34	NA	NA	35	55	Median	NR	100	Functioning (<i>n</i> = 7): CS (<i>n</i> = 3), Zollinger-Ellison syndrome (<i>n</i> = 1), other	Progressive, metastatic disease. Metastatic disease sites: Liver (<i>n</i> = 33), lymph node (<i>n</i> = 14), peritoneum (<i>n</i> = 2), lung (<i>n</i> = 3),

	2014)										(n = 3)	bone (n = 2), other (n = 2)	
Mitry <i>et al</i> ^[40] , 2014	Bevacizumab combined with 5-FU/ streptozocin (reported in a companion paper focusing on P-NET patients (Ducreux <i>et al</i> ^[41] , 2014)	Capecitabine plus bevacizumab	Clinical trial, phase II, open	49	NA	NA	47	60	Median	100	NA	NR	Progressive, metastatic well-differentiated. Metastatic disease sites: Liver (n = 46), lymph node (n = 24), peritoneum (n = 23), lung (n = 7), bone (n = 7), other (n = 5)
Meyer <i>et al</i> ^[42] , 2014	Capecitabine and streptozocin plus cisplatin (stratified)	Capecitabine and streptozocin (stratified)	Clinical trial (RCT), Phase II	86	Capecitabine and streptozocin	44	39	57	Median	21	46.0	Functioning (n = 31; 36%)	Advanced and/or metastatic. Metastatic disease sites: Local/regional (n = 2), distant (n = 42), liver (included in distant; n = 41)
					Capecitabine and streptozocin plus cisplatin	42	45	59	Median	19	50.0		
Yadegarfar <i>et al</i> ^[33] , 2013	Somatostatin analogues or interferon therapy (88 patients)	Peptide-receptor radiotherapy (102 patients), chemotherapy (23 patients), surgery (20 patients) or ablative/ other therapies (20 patients)	Phase IV, open	253	P-NET	70	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR	Functioning: Secreting 5-hydroxy-indoloacetic acid (n = 111), gastrin (n = 4), glucagon (n = 3), insulin (n = 5), vasoactive intestinal peptide (n = 1). Non-functioning (secreting only chromogranin-A; n = 124)	Any gut-primary with metastases, lung-primary with liver/abdominal metastases and pancreas with/without metastases
Casciano <i>et al</i> ^[36] , 2012	Everolimus (Afinitor)	Sunitinib (Sutent)	Economic analysis of phase III studies	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NR	Advanced, progressive
Kvols <i>et al</i> ^[29] , 2012	Pasireotide	Octreotide	Prospective study, phase II, open	44	Pasireotide responders	12 (Baseline), 12 (Month 1), 10 (Month 2), 11 (Month 3)	44	61	Mean	NR	NR	NR	Advanced, metastatic (symptoms refractory or resistant to octreotide LAR therapy). Metastatic disease sites: Liver (87%), lymph node (n = 16), peritoneum (n = 8), lung (n = 5), bone (n = 3), abdomen (n = 3), pleura (n = 3), retroperitoneal (n = 2), pancreas (n = 2), kidney (n = 1)
					Pasireotide non responders	13 (Baseline), 13 (Month 1), 13 (Month 2), 13 (Month 3)				NR	NR		
					Patients who discontinued treatment before	19 (Baseline), 15 (Month				NR	NR		

Raymond <i>et al</i> ^[34] , 2011	Sunitinib plus Best Supportive Care	Placebo plus Best Supportive Care	Clinical trial (RCT), phase III, double blind	171	3 mo	1), 8 (Month 2)								
					sunitinib	86	51	56	Median	NR	100	Sunitinib Arm: Functioning: Gastrinoma (<i>n</i> = 9), glucagonoma (<i>n</i> = 3), insulinoma (<i>n</i> = 2), somatostatinoma (<i>n</i> = 1), other, multisecretory, or unknown (<i>n</i> = 10). Non-functioning (<i>n</i> = 42)	Advanced and/or metastatic, progressive, well-differentiated	
					Placebo	85	53	57	Median	NR	100	Placebo Arm: Functioning: Gastrinoma (<i>n</i> = 10), glucagonoma (<i>n</i> = 2), insulinoma (<i>n</i> = 2), vasoactive intestinal peptide-secreting tumour (<i>n</i> = 2), other, multisecretory, or unknown (<i>n</i> = 5). Non-functioning (<i>n</i> = 44)		
Pezzilli <i>et al</i> ^[49] , 2009	NA	NA	Prospective study	51	NA	NA	58.8	61	Mean	NR	100	NR	Advanced disease (lymph node involvement/liver metastases) (<i>n</i> = 22)	
Rinke <i>et al</i> ^[27] , 2009	Octreotide LAR	Placebo	Clinical trial (RCT), phase IIIb, double blind	85	Octreotide LAR	42	52.4	63.5	Median	100	NR	Octreotide LAR arm: Functioning: CS (<i>n</i> = 17) 40.5%	Well-differentiated, metastatic. Metastatic disease sites: Liver (<i>n</i> = 73), regional lymph node involvement (<i>n</i> = 6)	
					Placebo	43	46.5	61	Median	100	NR	Placebo arm: Functioning: CS (<i>n</i> = 16) 37.2%		
Korse <i>et al</i> ^[30] , 2009	Long-acting sandostatin LAR	Short-acting Sandostatin	Clinical trial, phase II	39	NA	NA	51.3	61	Mean	51.3	NR	Functioning: CS (<i>n</i> = 39)	Metastatic: Liver metastases (<i>n</i> = 35)	
van der Horst-Schrivers <i>et al</i> ^[67] , 2009	NA	NA	Prospective study	43	NA	NA	37.2	60.6	Mean	NR	NR	NR	Metastatic midgut carcinoid tumours: Liver metastases (<i>n</i> = 37)	
Haugland <i>et al</i> ^[47] , 2009	NA	NA	Cross-sectional	5341	NET patients	189	50	65	Mean	100	NR	NR	GI-NET patients (excluded radical surgery that may have been curative), otherwise undefined	
					General population	5152	48.8	NR	NR	NA	NA			
Larsson and Janson ^[50] ,	Erythropoietin	None	Pilot study	18	None	NA	50.0	63.0	Mean	100	NR	NR	NR	

2008													
Kulke <i>et al</i> ^[55] , 2008	Sunitinib	NA	Clinical trial, phase II, open	107	NA	NA	40.2	Carcinoid tumour = 58, P-NET= 56	Median	37.3	61.7	P-NET: Functioning: Gastrinoma <i>n</i> = 5 (7.6%), insulinoma <i>n</i> = 3 (4.5%), VIPoma <i>n</i> = 2 (3.0%), glucagonoma <i>n</i> = 4 (6.1%), other <i>n</i> = 5 (7.6%). Non-functioning <i>n</i> = 46 (69.7%)	Advanced carcinoid or P-NET
Fröjd <i>et al</i> ^[37] , 2007	Various included	None	Longitudinal, prospective, comparative study	59	T1-T4 successful	36	47.0	60.0	Mean	NR	NR	NR	Metastatic (70% metastatic at start; 78% metastatic at end)
Davies <i>et al</i> ^[68] , 2006	NA	NA	Cross-sectional, open	50	Patients	35	42.9	60	Mean	NR	NR	NR	Metastatic
					Healthcare workers	15	NR	NR	NR	NA	NA		
Frilling <i>et al</i> ^[48] , 2006	⁹⁰ Y-DOTATOC then ¹⁷⁷ Lu-DOTATOC	NA	Prospective study	20	Excluding pt (no 3) with Paraganglioma-neck	19	30	53.8	Median	NR	NR	NR	Advanced, progressive, and metastatic
Arnold <i>et al</i> ^[31] , 2005	Octreotide plus interferon alpha	Octreotide monotherapy	Clinical trial (RCT), open	114	Octreotide monotherapy	51	47.1	58	Median	NR	NR	Octreotide: Functioning (<i>n</i> = 23), non-functioning (<i>n</i> = 28). Octreotide plus Interferon-alpha: functioning (<i>n</i> = 24), non-functioning (<i>n</i> = 30)	Metastatic or locally advanced disease without curative therapeutic option
					Octreotide plus interferon alpha	54	44.4	57	Median	NR	NR		
					Nonrandomised	9	33.3	60	Median	NR	NR		
Teunissen <i>et al</i> ^[62] , 2004	¹⁷⁷ Lu-DOTATOC	None	Clinical trial	50	None	NA	56.0	58.3	Mean	NR	26.0	NR	Metastatic
Pasieka <i>et al</i> ^[43] , 2004	I-MIBG	NA	Clinical trial, open	19	I-MIBG	10	40	59	Mean	90	10	NR	Progressive
					Octreotide	9	55.6	55.6	Mean	66.6	33.3		
Kwekkeboom <i>et al</i> ^[60] , 2003	Somatostatin analogue ¹⁷⁷ Lu-DOTATOC	NA	Clinical trial, open	35	None	NA	60	54	Mean	NR	NR	NR	Metastatic
Larsson <i>et al</i> ^[25] , 2001	Interferon, somatostatin analogue, interferon, and a somatostatin	None	Prospective study	24	None	NA	42.0	62.0	Median	100	NR	NR	NR
O'Toole	Octreotide	Lanreotide	Clinical trial	33	Patients received	16	50	63	NR	62.5	0		

<i>et al</i> ^[32] , 2000	followed by lanreotide	followed by octreotide	(RTC), double blind		octreotide followed by Lanreotide									
					Patients received lanreotide followed by octreotide	17	53	64	NR	76	5.9	NR		NR
Wymenga <i>et al</i> ^[37] , 1999	Lanreotide prolonged release	NA	Clinical trial, phase II, open	55	NA	NA	49.1	59.7	Mean	NR	5.5	NR		Advanced (Stage IV), metastatic. Metastatic disease sites: Lymph nodes (<i>n</i> = 39), distant organs (<i>n</i> = 44)
Larsson <i>et al</i> ^[26] , 1999	Ongoing treatment: interferon and octreotide, other	NA	Cross-sectional	119	Patients with carcinoid tumours	64	43.7	64	Median	53.8	NA	NR		NR
					Patients with EPT	55	37.5	54	Median	NR	46.20			
					Overall	119	43.7	61	Median	53.8	46.20			
Larsson <i>et al</i> ^[38] , 1999	Interferon and/or a somatostatin analogue	NA	Clinical trial	99	NA	NA	39.4	59	Mean	NR	NR	NR		Stage = not terminal, no other status provided.
					HADS Anxiety (cases)	19	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR			
					HADS Depression (cases)	13	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR			
Larsson <i>et al</i> ^[69] , 1998	Interferon and/or a somatostatin analogue	NA	Cross-sectional	17	NA	NA	47	58	Mean	NR	NR	NR		NR

¹Disease description provided in each reference. NA: Not available; P-NET: Pancreas-neuroendocrine tumours; CS: Carcinoid syndrome; NR: Not relevant; HADS: Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale; PRRT: Peptide receptor radionuclide therapy.

and bevacizumab plus capecitabine (*n* = 1). Two studies followed patients with various ongoing treatments^[37,39]. Three studies used chemotherapy treatments as the comparators to chemotherapeutic interventions; two studies combined capecitabine with the anti-angiogenic drug bevacizumab and used the same population data^[40,41], whilst one study combined capecitabine and streptozocin as the comparator^[42].

Two additional studies identified within the scope of this review focused on meta-iodobenzylguanidine (MIBG) therapy and telotristat ethyl^[43,44], respectively. MIBG is a radiometabolic therapy with limited antitumor effect on GEP-NETs. Telotristat ethyl is used to inhibit L-tryptophan hydroxylases TPH-1 and TPH-2 and reduce the production of serotonin, thereby alleviating CS symptoms^[44]; this was assessed in the context of a randomised controlled trial, randomised 1:1:1 to receive 250 mg TID, 500 mg TID, and placebo.

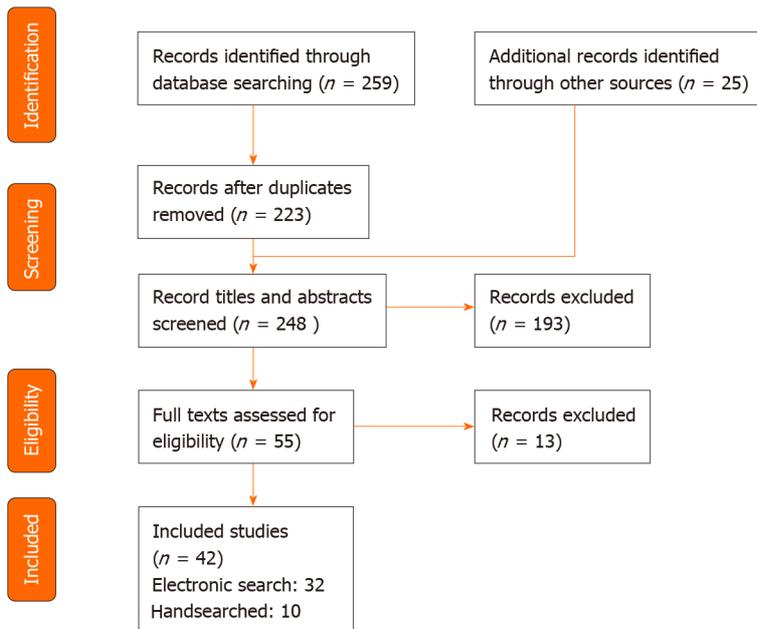


Figure 1 PRISMA diagram of included and excluded studies; the number of studies propagating to each stage of the process are included.

HRQoL assessment

In total, 30 studies employed a version of the European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer Quality of Life Questionnaire (EORTC QLQ), in which linear transformation is used to standardise the raw score, so that scores range from 0 to 100. The majority of these studies utilised the EORTC QLQ-C30 HRQoL measure ($n = 28$). One study developed a disease-specific quality of life score questionnaire for patients with GI-NETs to supplement EORTC QLQ-C30. Six studies employed the GI-NET specific module QLQ-GI.NET21, of which one study apparently did not use the HRQoL measure in conjunction with EORTC QLQ-C30^[6], thus will not show valid data. Others administered the EQ-5D or EQ-VAS to assess patient utilities and/or the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS) (Although HADS is not strictly a HRQoL measure, it provides insight into the anxiety and depressive symptoms of GEP-NET patients' underlying HRQoL) in addition to the EORTC measures ($n = 5$)^[45]. Larsson *et al*^[25] reported mean baseline HADS anxiety and depression scores of 4.6 (SD: 4.0) and 3.2 (SD: 2.7), respectively. Four studies applied the Short Form-36 (SF-36) questionnaire^[9,46-48], three of which were cross-sectional studies. Other measures used include the SF-12^[49], the Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy-Anaemia^[50] and the Functional Assessment of Chronic Illness Therapy-Diarrhoea (FACIT-D). Pezzilli *et al*^[49] reported no significant difference between P-NET patients and a sample of age- and sex-matched subjects in terms of physical domain (44.7 ± 11.0 vs 46.1 ± 9.9 , $P = 0.610$), but a significantly lower mental score in the same patients compared to the normative population (42.4 ± 13.0 vs 48.2 ± 9.8 , $P = 0.036$).

The average HRQoL global health score at baseline and at different timepoints during each trial, obtained by asking patients to rate their overall health, have been reported for the EORTC QLQ-C30 (Table 2). A higher score represents a higher ("better") level of functioning, including the global health score. This particular tool became the primary focus of this manuscript, as EORTC QLQ-C30 was the single most commonly cited HRQoL dimension ($n = 24$), with global health score providing a single HRQoL dimension for comparison between studies. The average value for the baseline global health score had a range of 56–70. A higher score for symptoms represents a "worse" level of symptoms. Lowest average score ranges were observed for baseline EORTC QLQ-C30 scores in the following symptoms: nausea and vomiting (4.1–20), insomnia (11.0–38.6), appetite loss (9.2–27.8), constipation (0–24.4) and financial difficulties (6–23.6). Diarrhoea demonstrated a wide range of mean values (16.7–78.3), which can be attributed to the heterogeneity of disease symptoms in GI-NET and P-NET patients, indicating that diarrhoea in GEP-NET patients is multifactorial and very variable. Considering disease location, the average baseline global health scores were comparable, ranging from 56–68 for GI-NETs (4 studies) and

Table 2 Literature reporting scores for health-related quality of life average global health score for gastroenteropancreatic neuroendocrine tumours patients using European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer Quality of Life Questionnaire-C30

Ref.	Intervention/comparator	Time point	Global health score	Statistical analysis and <i>P</i> values, as presented in the literature
Arnold <i>et al</i> ^[31] , 2005	Octreotide plus interferon alpha	Baseline	57.9	0.04 (between treatment arms at 3 mo)
		3 mo	51.2	
	Octreotide monotherapy	Baseline	63	
		3 mo	74.4	
Cella <i>et al</i> ^[44] , 2018	Telotristat ethyl	-	Overall: 55.4; Durable responders: 40; Non-durable responders: 66	NR (NS)
Fröjd <i>et al</i> ^[37] , 2007	Various (<i>i.e.</i> interferon, octreotide, chemotherapy and other)	Timepoint 1	58	NR
		Timepoint 2	61	NR
		Timepoint 3	58	NR
		Timepoint 4	58	NR
van der Horst-Schrivers <i>et al</i> ^[67] , 2009	NA	-	61.8	NR
Korse <i>et al</i> ^[30] , 2009	Long-acting sandostatin LAR	Baseline	70	0.275 (repeated measurement analysis using mixed linear models)
		3 mo	71	
		6 mo	67	
		9 mo	68	
		12 mo	64	
Larsson <i>et al</i> ^[50] , 2008	Erythropoietin	Baseline	56	NR (NS)
		4 mo	55	
		8 mo	66	
		2 yr	70	
Larsson <i>et al</i> ^[25] , 2001	Interferon, somatostatin analogue, interferon, and a somatostatin.	Baseline	68	NR (NS)
		3 mo	59	
		6 mo	58	
		9 mo	50	

		12 mo	63	
Larsson <i>et al.</i> ^[26] , 1999	Interferon and/or a somatostatin analogue for at least 4 weeks - Five patients were treated with interferon, three with a somatostatin analogue, and nine with a combination	-	64.71	NR
Larsson <i>et al.</i> ^[38] , 1999	Interferon and/or a somatostatin analogue	-	Overall: 66.7; HADS Anxiety (cases): 46; HADS Anxiety (non-cases): 71.6; HADS Depression (cases): 43; HADS Depression (non-cases): 70.2	< 0.001 between HADS anxiety "cases" (<i>n</i> = 19) and "non-cases" (<i>n</i> = 80) and 0.001 between HADS depression "cases" (<i>n</i> = 13) and "non-cases" (<i>n</i> = 86)
Larsson <i>et al.</i> ^[69] , 1998	Interferon and/or a somatostatin analogue and/or a combination	-	64.71	NR
Lewis <i>et al.</i> ^[3] , 2018	NA	-	Without CS: 63.0; With CS: 61.7	0.04 (between subpopulations)
Marinova <i>et al.</i> ^[61] , 2019	¹⁷⁷ Lu-DOTATATE	Baseline	62.6	
		3 mo	66.7	< 0.05 (compared to baseline using mixed longitudinal model)
		6 mo	69.6	< 0.01 (compared to baseline using mixed longitudinal model)
		9 mo	69.4	< 0.01 (compared to baseline using mixed longitudinal model)
Meyer <i>et al.</i> ^[42] , 2014	Capecitabine and streptozocin plus cisplatin.	Baseline	69.3	
		≤ 9 wk - after 3 × 3 weekly cycles	52.2	0.052 (compared to baseline)
		6 mo	56	0.68 (compared to baseline)
	Capecitabine and streptozocin	Baseline	67	
		≤ 9 wk - after 3 × 3 weekly cycles	62.2	0.5 (compared to baseline)
		6 mo	68.9	0.75 (compared to baseline)
Mitry <i>et al.</i> ^[40] , 2014	Bevacizumab plus capecitabine	Baseline	67	
		6 mo	63	NR (NS)
		12 mo	71	NR (NS)
Pavel <i>et al.</i> ^[56] , 2016	Everolimus	End of treatment (compared to baseline)	P-NET: -3.9; non P-NET: -13	NR
Ramage <i>et al.</i> ^[54] , 2019	Everolimus	1 mo	FAS Population (paired scores baseline and 1 m): 58	NR (NS)
			Continuing tx at 6m (paired scores baseline and 1 m): 56.9	NR (NS)

		2 mo	FAS Population (paired scores baseline and 2 m): 57.6	NR (NS)
			Continuing tx at 6m (paired scores baseline and 2 m): 56.9	NR (NS)
		3 mo	FAS Population (paired scores baseline and 3 m): 56.7	NR (NS)
			Continuing tx at 6m (paired scores baseline and 3 m): 56.3	NR (NS)
		4 mo	FAS Population (paired scores baseline and 4 m): 56	NR (NS)
			Continuing tx at 6 m (paired scores baseline and 4 m): 56.8	NR (NS)
		5 mo	FAS Population (paired scores baseline and 5 m): 56.6	NR (NS)
			Continuing tx at 6 m (paired scores baseline and 5 m): 58.6	NR (NS)
		6 mo	FAS Population (paired scores baseline and 6 m): 56.9	NR (NS)
			Continuing tx at 6 m (paired scores baseline and 6 m): 56.9	NR (NS)
Raymond <i>et al</i> ^[34] , 2011	Sunitinib	Baseline	67	
		"post-baseline"	62.4	NR
	Placebo	Baseline	64	
		"post-baseline"	61.3	NR
Rinke <i>et al</i> ^[16] , 2019	Long-acting octreotide	Baseline	64	
	Placebo	Baseline	65.7	
		12 wk	+4.13 (difference in global health score compared to placebo)	NR
		24 wk	+5.05 (difference in global health score compared to placebo)	NR
		36 wk	+1.85 (difference in global health score compared to placebo)	NR
Strosberg <i>et al</i> ^[17] , 2018	¹⁷⁷ Lu-DOTATATE	Baseline	67	NR
	High-dose octreotide	Baseline	64	NR
Teunissen <i>et al</i> ^[62] , 2004	¹⁷⁷ Lu-DOTATOC	Baseline	69	
		6 wk	78.2	< 0.01 (Analysis of variance (two-sided) compared to baseline)

Vinik <i>et al</i> ^[35] , 2016	Sunitinib	Baseline	67	NR (NS difference between arms)
		Up to cycle 10 (about 9 mo)	60.4	
	Placebo	Baseline	64	
		Up to cycle 10 (about 9 mo)	61.3	
Wymenga <i>et al</i> ^[57] , 1999	Lanreotide prolonged release	Baseline	60.4	0.001 (compared to baseline using t tests or Wilcoxon signed rank)
		1 mo	69.7	
		End of treatment	65.5	
Yadegarfar <i>et al</i> ^[33] , 2013	Somatostatin analogues or interferon therapy	Baseline	61	NR
		3 mo	67	
		6 mo	67	
Zandee <i>et al</i> ^[58] , 2019	¹⁷⁷ Lu-DOTATATE	Baseline	61.7	0.002 (compared to baseline using paired t test)
		3 mo (after final PRRT cycle)	79.5	

NA: Not available; NET: Neuroendocrine tumours; CS: Carcinoid syndrome; NR: Not relevant; PRRT: Peptide receptor radionuclide therapy; NS: Not significant.

56–67 for P-NETs (5 studies).

Whilst the most popular HRQoL measure was EORTC QLQ-C30, studies that employed the QLQ-GI.NET21 module provided domain scores specific to the disease that is the focus of this report, including: endocrine systems, gastrointestinal systems, disease-related worries, bone/muscle pain *etc.* Table 3 presents the scores given for these domains. The average HRQoL score ranges for body image (13.3–29.1), weight gain (9–27.8) information/communication (1.1–16.0) and treatment-related symptoms (6.5–26.24) showed that these were only minor problems experienced by patients with GI-NETS. Other domains displayed a wide range of scores, *e.g.* sexual function (28.2–68.4), social function (30.0–72.9) and disease-related worries (37.6–84.2), making these some of the most important problems experienced by many patients. The QLQ-GI.NET21 module has been validated as a responsive tool for assessing HRQoL of patients with GEP-NETs^[33], although it is accepted that numbers were too small for a proper validation in patients with P-NETs alone. This is of relevance, as P-NET patients often present with a more aggressive disease and concomitant treatments may be used.

In addition, a 10-point change in an EORTC domain score is frequently considered a minimal clinically important difference and, using Kaplan-Meier methodology, time to

Table 3 The specific domain scores reported in the literature for gastroenteropancreatic neuroendocrine tumours patients using QLQ-GI.NET21

Ref.	Intervention/comparator	Time point	Endocrine Symptoms	Gastrointestinal Symptoms	Social function	Disease related worries	Muscle/bone pain symptom	Weight gain	Information/Communication function	Body Image	Sexual function	Treatment related symptoms scale
Ramage <i>et al</i> ^[54] , 2019	Everolimus	Baseline (paired scores with 3 mo)	14.8	24.4	44.1	51.1	35.2	NR	1.9	25.9	37	NA
		3 mo	12.3	20.2	42.6	44.8	35.2	NR	4.6	24.1	42.6	22
		Baseline (paired scores with 6 mo)	14.4	25.8	44.8	50.9	33.3	NR	1.1	20	35.6	NA
		6 mo	12.6	21.8	34.4	43.7	30	NR	1.1	21.1	37.8	14.1
Lewis <i>et al</i> ^[6] , 2018	NA	Single timepoint (patients without CS)	16.7	18.9	60.0	56.9	41.3	18.7	10.7	15.3	60.8	17.5
		Single timepoint (patients with CS)	28.4	24.0	68.4	38.7	46.7	13.3	16.0	13.3	68.4	10.1
Yadegarfar <i>et al</i> ^[33] , 2013	Various	Baseline (P-NETs)	22	26	39	56	25	11	10	25	32	18
		3 mo (P-NETs)	16	18	33	44	31	9	4	21	31	22
		6 mo (P-NETs)	18	22	30	50	32	13	10	19	31	23
Ballal <i>et al</i> ^[8] , 2019	²²⁵ Ac-DOTATATE TAT	Baseline	21.4	40.2	64.3	61.2	38.8	25	NR	28.8	40	6.53
		End of assessment	3.57	22.8	72.9	84.2	26.8	27.8	NR	15.6	45	26.24
Strosberg <i>et al</i> ^[17] , 2018	¹⁷⁷ Lu-DOTATATE	Baseline	NR	22.8	33.4	43.7	29	NR	5.4	20	30.6	11.6
	High-dose octreotide	Baseline	NR	23.8	37.1	43.8	34.6	NR	12.3	20.3	28.2	11.9
Cella <i>et al</i> ^[44] , 2018	Telotristat ethyl	Baseline (Durable responders)	37.8	33.8	46.7	41.1	35	NR	5	29.1	47.2	18.1
		Baseline (Nondurable responders)	29.5	28.5	38.5	37.6	30.3	NR	7	26.9	32.6	12.8
		Difference in change from baseline between subpopulations	-1.9	-9.6	-2.8	1.9	-4.5	NR	3.9	1	-1.6	-3.4

NA: Not available; P-NET: Pancreas-neuroendocrine tumours; CS: Carcinoid syndrome; NR: Not relevant.

deterioration (TTD) can be measured using a 10-point decline in analogy with time to event curves^[51,52]. Two studies identified in the literature search applied the use of minimal important difference in the change in HRQoL domains as a means of assessing the impact of interventions using TTD, and time until definitive deterioration (TUDD), *i.e.* ≥ 10 point worsening of a HRQoL domain score from baseline without further improvement^[16,17].

The SF-36 measures eight dimensions of HRQoL, where item scores are linearly transformed into scales ranging from 0 to 100, with higher scores indicating better HRQoL. In cross-sectional studies, HRQoL has been shown to be significantly reduced in patients with GEP-NETs compared to the general population in every SF-36 dimension^[46,47]: 77.9 *vs* 70.0 for physical functioning, 65.0 *vs* 40.2 for role physical, 69.1 *vs* 64.3 for bodily pain, 74.3 *vs* 54.8 for general health, 60.9 *vs* 49.5 for vitality, 83.9 *vs* 75.5 for social functioning, 77.4 *vs* 64.4 for role emotional and 80.6 *vs* 74.9 for mental health. Mean scores for each scale were consistently worse in a sub-population of patients with impaired bowel/bladder function, which was strongly correlated with high scores for diarrhoea^[46], a symptom of CS which reduces patient HRQoL. Elsewhere, Haugland *et al*^[9] reported only the physical component (39.6) and the mental component (45.9) scores; these were similar to baseline scores previously reported^[53]. Frilling *et al*^[48] reported improved HRQoL (assessed using SF-36) in 50% of patients in their prospective study of ⁹⁰Y-DOTATOC therapy followed by ¹⁷⁷Lu-DOTATOC, but sample size was low ($n = 20$).

Various studies used other HRQoL tools to evaluate HRQoL in GEP-NET patients; direct comparisons between these studies were limited by the small number of studies using each tool ($n \leq 2$) and the heterogenous population and treatment interventions. Pezzilli *et al*^[49] was the only identified publication to use SF-12 in a population of P-NET patients, reporting a good physical HRQoL that was not significantly different to the normative population (44.7 ± 11.0 *vs* 46.1 ± 9.9 , $P = 0.610$), but a significantly impaired mental component (42.4 ± 13.0 *vs* 48.2 ± 9.8 , $P = 0.036$). Pezzilli *et al*^[49] was also the only study to employ the Beck Depression Inventory and State Anxiety Inventory Y-1; 8 patients (18.2%) identified with moderate depression, 9 patients (20.5%) with mild moderate depression, and 27 patients (61.4%) with no depression. Anxiety results were similar in the patients and in the normative population. Ramage *et al*^[54] used the EQ-5D-5L (in addition to EORTC QLQ-C30 and GINET21), with no significant difference for the composite health index or self-rated (global) health score noted between baseline and 6-mo treatment with everolimus. The EQ-5D VAS was employed in two studies: Kulke *et al*^[55] examined patients receiving repeated 6-weekly cycles of oral sunitinib, noting no significant difference in VAS scores over the study period, whilst Pavel *et al*^[56] reported a reduced mean VAS from baseline to end of treatment with oral everolimus (10 mg daily, in 28-d cycles) in non-P-NET patients (63.9 ± 19.0 *vs* 55.3 ± 23.0 , respectively) compared to P-NET patients (68.8 ± 19.9 *vs* 66.5

± 20.6, respectively). The FACIT-D measure is a symptom-specific measure used by Kvols *et al.*^[29] in a Phase II, open-label, multicentre prospective study of self-administered pasireotide. Clinical responders were noted to have improved mean scores at the end of treatment compared to baseline. Kulke *et al.*^[55] reported that the mean FACIT-fatigue score remained stable for each treatment cycle of sunitinib with a “modest” score increase during the dosing period. Elsewhere, Larsson *et al.*^[50] used the Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy-Anaemia measure to assess the HRQoL of GEP-NET patients with anaemia being treated with erythropoietin; no significant changes were observed over the study period. Finally, O’Toole *et al.*^[32] showed no significant difference in HRQoL scores between lanreotide and octreotide using the Index de Santé Perceptuel de Nottingham measure. These studies provide a basis for future randomised control trials to test whether interventions improve HRQoL for patients with GEP-NETs.

All studies included in this review reported the HRQoL of patients with inoperable tumours; the majority of which described the disease as metastatic and/or advanced (Table 1), and thus the disease could be categorised as stage IV. Out of these studies, only two provided explicit information regarding disease stage for the entire study population^[57,58]. Notably, no studies investigated how disease stage and tumour functionality affect HRQoL in GEP-NET patients, with HRQoL data most often presented according to treatment comparator.

Treatment impact on HRQoL

Few studies reported a significant difference ($P < 0.05$) in the patients’ global health score between baseline and after a period of treatment (Table 2).

HRQoL was maintained with few deteriorations in patients receiving long-acting octreotide compared to the deterioration observed in patients who received a placebo^[16,27]. Octreotide improved HRQoL scores for the clinically important GEP-NET symptoms such as fatigue, insomnia, diarrhoea and pain; whereas significantly earlier TUDD was observed in the placebo arm for fatigue, pain and insomnia in patients with GI-NETs than those treated with long-acting octreotide ($P < 0.05$)^[16]. An improvement in the EORTC global health score was shown after 3 mo on octreotide but not when octreotide was combined with interferon alpha^[51]. Flushing was shown to be reduced significantly following 12 mo of treatment with long-acting octreotide^[30]. Further studies are deemed necessary to assess the HRQoL of GEP-NET patients treated with pasireotide, who are refractory or resistant to octreotide; symptom-specific scores and total FACIT-D assessments showed some variability and no clear trends but sample size was small ($n = 30$)^[29].

Another somatostatin analogue shown to bring about significant improvement in the global health score of GEP-NET patients was prolonged-release lanreotide^[57], possibly driven by improvements in symptom scales or single-term measures such as fatigue, pain, nausea/vomiting, sleeping problems, appetite, constipation, diarrhoea and financial problems; although dyspnoea became more severe during the 6-mo treatment period. O’Toole *et al.*^[32] found no significant HRQoL differences between lanreotide and octreotide, although most patients prefer lanreotide due to its simplified mode of administration. However, examining evidence from the CLARINET study, and mapping EORTC QLQ-C30 to EQ-5D-based utility values, no significant differences in HRQoL were noted between the lanreotide and placebo arms^[28].

PRRT treatment for GEP-NETs has been shown to result in stable HRQoL scores during and after a 3-mo treatment period, compared to baseline levels using the EORTC QLQ-C30 measure^[59,60]. In more recent studies, treatment with ¹⁷⁷Lu-DOTATATE was shown to be a safe and effective therapy in the treatment of functioning P-NETs^[58] leading to a significant increase in the global health score observed at follow-up compared to baseline (79.5 vs 61.7, $P = 0.002$). Furthermore, significant improvements in the physical functioning, role functioning, emotional functioning, and social functioning were reported. Of all symptom scales, only “fatigue” was found to have significantly decreased (27.3 vs 17.2, $P = 0.02$). These results are consistent with a recent retrospective analysis study conducted by Marinaova^[61]; HRQoL was significantly improved in GI-NET patients receiving ¹⁷⁷Lu-DOTATATE compared to baseline, revealing an increased global health score (3 mo after 1st, 2nd, and 3rd treatment cycle $P = 0.049$, $P = 0.004$, and $P = 0.041$, respectively).

In the Phase III NETTER-1 study, 231 patients were recruited with 117 randomised to the ¹⁷⁷Lu-DOTATATE arm (200 mCi every 8 wk for four treatments) and 114 to the high-dose octreotide long-acting repeatable arm (60 mg every 4 wk)^[17]. HRQoL analysis, conducted on an intention-to-treat basis, demonstrated that ¹⁷⁷Lu-DOTATATE provides a significant and clinically robust HRQoL benefit for patients

with progressive GI-NETs (compared to high-dose octreotide). TTD, defined as the time from randomisation to first HRQoL deterioration of ≥ 10 points from baseline score, was significantly longer in the ^{177}Lu -DOTATATE arm ($P < 0.001$); the hazard ratio was 0.406 for global health status, 0.518 for physical functioning, 0.580 for role functioning, 0.621 for fatigue, 0.566 for pain, 0.473 for diarrhoea, 0.425 for body image and 0.572 for disease-related worries. Differences in median TTD were clinically significant in several domains: 28.8 mo *vs* 6.1 mo for global health status, and 25.2 mo *vs* 11.5 mo for physical functioning. Significant improvements in TUDD were also observed for the global health score ($P < 0.001$), as well as for physical functioning ($P = 0.002$), role functioning ($P < 0.001$), emotional functioning ($P = 0.020$), social functioning ($P = 0.001$), pain ($P = 0.002$), insomnia ($P = 0.026$), appetite loss ($P = 0.009$), constipation ($P = 0.042$), diarrhoea ($P = 0.001$), GI scale ($P = 0.005$), treatment scale ($P = 0.002$), social function scale ($P = 0.011$), disease-related worries scale ($P = 0.001$), and body image ($P = 0.002$).

Other PRRT interventions included the use of ^{177}Lu -DOTATOC^[62], ^{90}Y -DOTATOC^[59] and ^{225}Ac -DOTATATE^[8]. ^{177}Lu -DOTATOC treatment improved functional scales and most single item scores in GEP-NET patients, whilst symptom scale scores for fatigue and pain decreased significantly from 31.9 to 22.8 ($P < 0.01$) and 23.3 to 15.0 ($P < 0.05$), respectively^[62]. Martini *et al*^[59] examined HRQoL following 4–6 cycles of ^{177}Lu -DOTATATE or ^{90}Y -DOTATOC. The most significant domain change for GI-NETs was noted for diarrhoea (-16.3 points, $P = 0.008$). Compared to ^{90}Y -DOTATOC, ^{177}Lu -DOTATATE demonstrated a reduced score for fatigue (-27.7 points, $P = 0.020$) and better physical functioning (+22.4 points, $P = 0.050$), cognitive functioning (+23.1 points, $P = 0.003$) and global health score (+17.3 points, $P = 0.029$) in P-NET patients. ^{225}Ac -DOTATATE therapy has the potential to overcome the resistance of GEP-NET to ^{177}Lu -DOTATATE beta therapy and promote remission with minimal or transient toxicity, whilst reducing endocrine ($P = 0.001$) and gastrointestinal symptoms ($P < 0.001$), although treatment-related symptoms were worsened by the end of the assessment ($P = 0.001$)^[8].

A significant difference in the EORTC QLQ-C30 physical functioning scale was noted by Ramage *et al*^[54] following 6-mo treatment with everolimus, but no other significant differences were noted during this treatment period; in line with what was also shown by analysis conducted in conjunction with the RADIANT trial^[56]. Likewise, sunitinib has no significant impact on global health score of EORTC QLQ-C30, but it has been shown to improve the HRQoL symptom scores of insomnia and diarrhoea compared to placebo in P-NETs^[34,35]. In another study^[55], there was no significant difference in EQ-VAS scores over 6 treatment cycles of sunitinib. There was no significant impact on the HRQoL of patients with GI-NETs when treated with erythropoietin for the anaemia associated with interferon therapy^[50].

Chemotherapy in the BETTER trial was chosen based on NET location; GI-NETs were treated with capecitabine and bevacizumab, whilst P-NETs patients received 5-fluorouracil/streptozocin with bevacizumab. Differences in the EORTC QLQ-C30 global health score between baseline, 3-mo, 6-mo and 12-mo follow-up assessments were not significant^[40,41]. The NET01 trial suggested that the addition of cisplatin to the combined capecitabine and streptozocin regimen worsened HRQoL^[42]. After three cycles, the mean global health score was 67.0 *vs* 62.2 ($P = 0.5$) in the capecitabine and streptozocin arm and 69.3 *vs* 52.2 ($P = 0.052$) in the capecitabine and streptozocin plus cisplatin arm. After 6 cycles, mean global health score remained virtually unchanged in the capecitabine and streptozocin arm from 66.7 *vs* 68.9 ($P = 0.75$) and 59.8 *vs* 56.0 ($P = 0.68$) in the capecitabine and streptozocin plus cisplatin arm. All three studies were based on small HRQoL sample sizes (less than 100).

Of the remaining treatments identified within the scope of this study, the HRQoL was improved or remained the same in all GEP-NET patients treated with MIBG therapy. Three studies used more than one treatment in the populations studied without breaking down HRQoL results into treatment categories^[26,37,38]. Using HADS, Larsson *et al*^[25] noted a lower anxiety rating at 12 mo ($P < 0.05$) following treatment with interferon, somatostatin analogue or a combination of both, whilst the depression score was significantly higher at 9 mo ($P < 0.01$) when compared to baseline. The study by Fröjd *et al*^[37] suggested a slight increase in HADS anxiety over time (timepoints unspecified) in a longitudinal study of octreotide and/or interferon or chemotherapy or no treatment, but sample size was small and significance was not reported. Finally, telotristat ethyl therapy was not shown to be associated with any measurable short-term HRQoL benefits when assessed using the EORTC QLQ-30 measure, beyond diarrhoea^[44].

DISCUSSION

Given the indolent nature and slow progression of disease in most GEP-NET patients, assessment of HRQoL is vital for monitoring impact of treatment. The lack of conclusive data on outcomes in GEP-NETs can be attributed, in part, to the small sample size of clinical trials involving GEP-NETs that makes it difficult to capture clinically meaningful changes or a significant benefit in terms of HRQoL^[6]. Moreover, the work by Martini *et al*^[18] showed that a transfer of HRQoL results into clinical practice is hindered by the scarcity of robust studies and the quality of HRQoL assessment^[18]. To our knowledge, our study is the first to report a systematic review investigating the impact of treatments on the HRQoL of GEP-NET patients and the development status of instruments used in terms of validation and minimal important difference.

Martini *et al*^[18] performed a systematic review examining methodological robustness of HRQoL studies of patients with GEP-NETs. They concluded that heterogeneity and limited methodological quality of considered studies did not permit them to draw conclusions regarding the impact of HRQoL in clinical practice. In agreement, our review confirmed heterogeneity of studies and patient characteristics, including variety in intervention or comparator treatment, disease severity and location of primary tumour, age, gender and other symptoms or comorbidities. Sample size for studies considered eligible for inclusion ranged from 17 to 253 patients, with a median of 57, highlighting the usual small number of study participants. A similar median value of 51 (range 9–663 patients) was reported by Martini *et al*^[18]. Further, where comparator groups were used, HRQoL scores were sometimes reported for the entire study population and not for the respective treatment groups in the study^[29,33,40,41,44]. Due to the wide range of comparators identified and the significant heterogeneity across the studies included in this review, which would violate the assumptions of meta-analysis, HRQoL related to various GEP-NET treatments was assessed in a qualitative manner rather than quantitative (*e.g.* meta-analysis).

In line with Martini *et al*^[18], we identified the well-validated EORTC QLQ-C30 as the most commonly used HRQoL instrument in GEP-NET patients. The EORTC instrument has been used in 30 out of 43 published studies; however, validation and definition of minimal important difference have not been reported to date specifically for GEP-NET patients. The EORTC QLQ-GINET21 module ($n = 6$) and the SF-12/36 tools ($n = 5$) have occasionally been used, with other instruments used in two or less publications.

Where change in the EORTC QLQ-C30 global health score could be calculated from baseline scores (Table 2), six studies demonstrated a trend towards an improved score, three showed a decline, with the remaining studies presenting mixed or inconsistent responses depending on intervention and/or follow-up time point. However, results should be interpreted with caution for the reasons given above. The mixed HRQoL trends are comparable to those reported by Jimenez-Fonseca *et al*^[63], who highlighted the existing evidence for improved treatment efficacy, safety or toxicity for a range of therapies, including somatostatin analogues, sunitinib and everolimus, but with mixed HRQoL response. Jimenez-Fonseca *et al*^[63] suggested the generic EORTC QLQ-C30 has not been developed specifically for GEP-NET patients and, therefore, may lack the sensitivity to detect subtle HRQoL changes in association with disease items that are relevant to GEP-NET patients.

Given the potentially long treatment duration in GEP-NET patients, one challenge of HRQoL analysis is taking the potential occurrence of a response shift into consideration. This can occur as self-assessment of HRQoL is inherently subjective; patients can adapt to their disease and the treatment toxicities resulting in changing standards of HRQoL over time^[51]. Thus, the choice of the reference score to qualify a change such as deterioration is a major concern. With this in mind, it is difficult to determine the change in HRQoL over time in most studies identified in this systematic review. One approach that deals with response shift effect as a concept is evaluation of TTD, making use of minimal important difference as a criterion for signalling deterioration. In the Phase III trial NETTER-1, it was shown that adjusting for significant covariates (HRQoL baseline values, OctreoScan maximum tumour uptake score, and/or age), the impact of treatment remained statistically significant for global health score, physical functioning, diarrhoea, and body image domains^[17]. Osoba *et al*^[52] rated patients' perceived change in EORTC QLQ-C30 in breast cancer or small-cell lung cancer patients, concluding a "moderate" change equated to a 10–20 change in mean scores. Use of a minimal important difference of at least 10 points as a criterion for deterioration yielded TTD curves with a time course similar to that of the curves for centrally reviewed radiological progression^[17]. It should be noted, however,

that the “minimal important difference” was not defined specifically for patients with midgut NETs participating in the NETTER-1 study. Moreover, the TTD and TUDD criterion of a drop in ≥ 10 points in a domain score was used to show more than half of the EORTC QLQ-30 domains improved for patients treated with ^{177}Lu -DOTATATE compared to a control arm; the same TUDD criterion was also applied by Rinke *et al*^[16], who showed long-acting octreotide significantly extended TUDD for fatigue, pain and insomnia HRQoL domains compared to a placebo.

Treatment of GEP-NETs with ^{177}Lu -DOTATATE consistently improved global health score compared to baseline^[58,61,62] and increased TTD. The Phase III NETTER-1 study provides the best information available regarding HRQoL in patients with advanced progressive GEP-NETs not only in terms of benefit but also in terms of TTD^[17]. However, the minimal important difference (and clinically meaningful thresholds) for improvement/worsening has not been defined yet for the EORTC QLQ-C30 specifically in GEP-NET patients, although it has for a number of other common cancers^[64,65]. It is conceivable that the abbreviated version of the EORTC QLQ-C30 (possibly combined with GINET21 and computer adaptive testing) can be developed especially for use in clinical practice. Thus, there is scope for further research in this area and exploration of HRQoL as a potential tool for monitoring disease progression. Longitudinal studies with a long-term follow-up and involving clinical practice patients may provide further insight into the potential role of HRQoL in patient monitoring and management.

In conclusion, study and patient heterogeneity, small sample sizes and limited methodological quality in terms of assessing HRQoL has impaired definitive statements being made regarding the impact of the various treatment options for GEP-NETs in terms of HRQoL^[66-69]. A number of randomised trials demonstrated only small or no HRQoL changes between active treatment and placebo arms. The Phase III NETTER-1 is the only study to have shown more significant and robust differences between active and placebo groups. It demonstrated that PRRT can delay the time to worsening of HRQoL in GEP-NET patients. However, validation of QLQ-C30 and GINET21 specifically for GI-NET and P-NET patients, and definition of minimal important difference and clinical thresholds, are still lacking for these patients. As such, further research is necessary in order to offer a benchmark for interpreting the clinical importance of differences in HRQoL domain scores between groups or changes in these scores over time in conjunction with different treatment modalities.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

Gastroenteropancreatic neuroendocrine tumours (GEP-NETs) are slow-growing cancers that arise from diffuse endocrine cells in the gastrointestinal tract (GI-NETs) and pancreas (P-NETs). The majority of patients who are diagnosed with GEP-NETs have metastatic disease. Despite this, systemic therapies provide a 5-year survival rate of about 75% for patients with GI-NETs and $> 60\%$ for patients with P-NETs.

Research motivation

Health related quality of life (HRQoL) is an increasingly important concept, reflecting the patients’ perspective in conjunction with the disease presentation, severity, and treatment. Although not curative, long-term therapeutic options are available for patients with GEP-NETs to provide symptomatic relief, and these can even slow down and stabilise disease for multiple years. Since patients can live many years by managing their disease in this way, understanding the impact of treatment on GEP-NETs patients’ HRQoL is paramount especially given the indolent course the disease may take in patients.

Research objectives

The aim of this study was to perform a systematic review to assess the HRQoL of patients with inoperable metastatic GEP-NETs undergoing various treatments in order to uncover areas for future research. This systematic literature review is a response to the increased importance of assessing HRQoL with validated patient-reported outcome instruments for which the minimal important difference has been defined.

Research methods

The systematic review performed here adhered to the established international

guidelines for conducting systematic reviews. A search strategy was developed and refined to recover relevant publications reporting HRQoL data for adult patients with GEP-NETs. Data were extracted from every record returned by the literature search that met the inclusion criteria of the study.

Research results

A total of 42 studies met the inclusion criteria of the study. The EORTC QLQ-C30 and gastrointestinal GI-NET module (QLQ-GI.NET21) were the most used HRQoL instruments, exhibiting a range of outcomes compared to baseline for the specific interventions.

The worst HRQoL observed at baseline were related to the following symptoms: Nausea and vomiting (4.1–20.0), insomnia (11.0–38.6), appetite loss (9.2–27.8), constipation (0–24.4) and financial difficulties (6.0–23.6). Diarrhoea demonstrated a wide range of mean values (16.7–78.3), which can be attributed to the heterogeneity of involved GEP-NET patients.

The average value for the baseline global health score had a range of 56–70. Where change in the EORTC QLQ-C30 global health score could be calculated from baseline scores, five studies demonstrated a significant trend towards an improved score. Treatment of GEP-NETs with ¹⁷⁷Lu-DOTATATE consistently improved global health score compared to baseline and increased time-to-deterioration, *i.e.* time until HRQoL worsens by at least 10 points for each domain (*e.g.* global health, physical functioning). The Phase III NETTER-1 study resulted in time-to-deterioration curves consistent with the curves for progression free survival for ¹⁷⁷Lu-DOTATATE. However, the EORTC QLQ-C30 and QLQ-GINET21 have not been validated, and the minimal important differences have not yet been defined, specifically for GI-NET and P-NET patients.

Research conclusions

Study and patient heterogeneity, small sample sizes and limited methodological quality in terms of assessing HRQoL has impaired definitive statements being made regarding the impact of the various treatment options for GEP-NETs in terms of HRQoL. A notable finding was that PRRT can delay the time to worsening of HRQoL in GEP-NET patients. However, validation of EORTC QLQ-C30 and GINET21 specifically for GI-NET and P-NET patients and the definitions of minimal important difference and clinical thresholds are still lacking for these patients. As such, further research is necessary in order to offer a benchmark for interpreting the clinical importance of differences in HRQoL domain scores between treatment groups or changes in these scores over time in conjunction with different treatment modalities.

Research perspectives

Further research is necessary in order to offer a benchmark for interpreting the clinical importance of differences in HRQoL domain scores over time and between treatment groups.

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