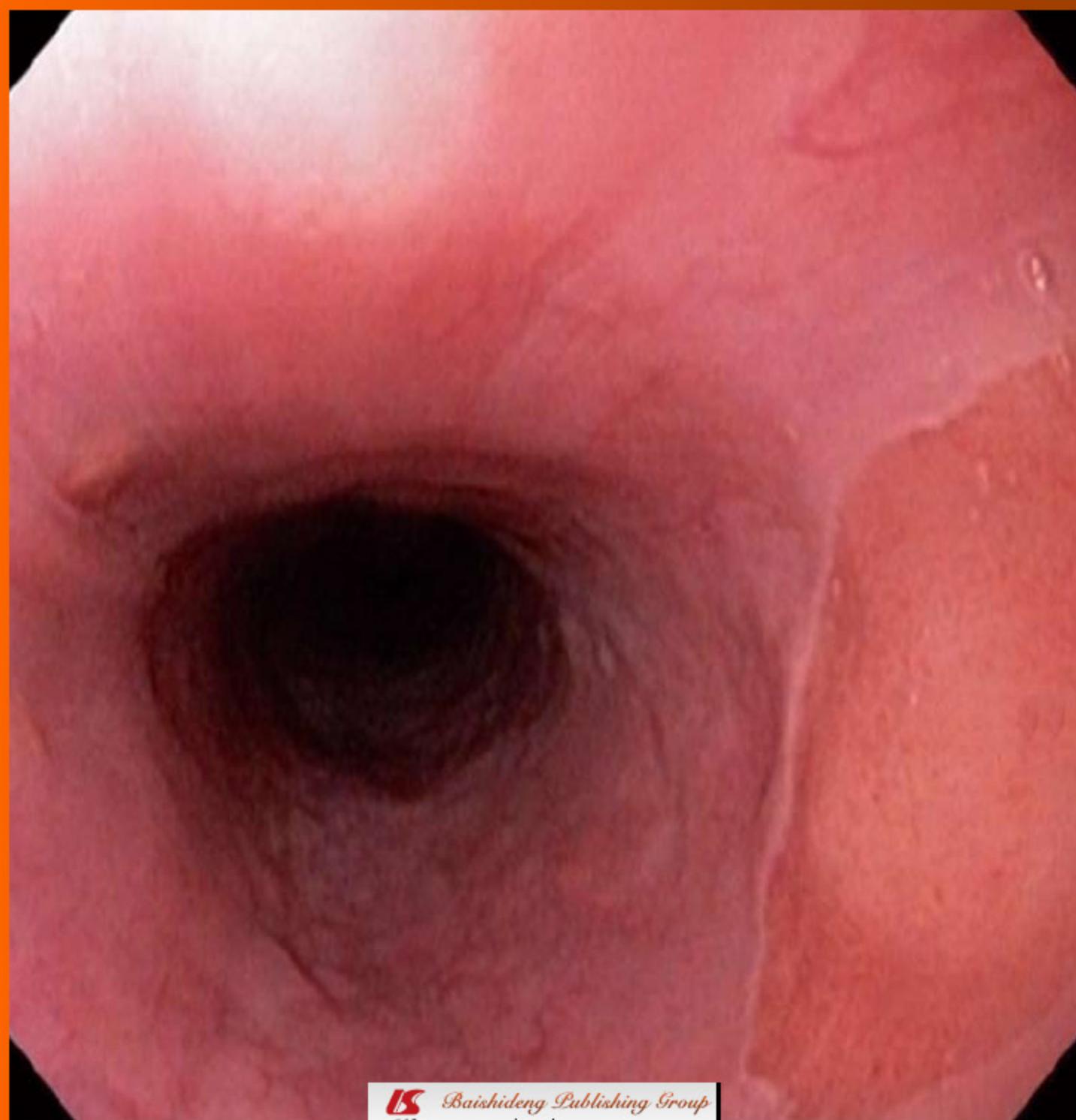


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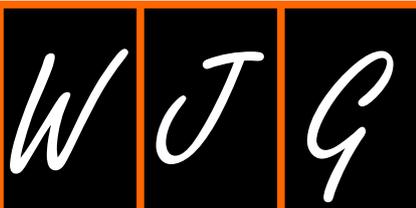
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T cell immunopathogenesis and immunotherapeutic strategies for chronic hepatitis B virus infection

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Abstract

Hepatitis B is caused by the host immune response and T cells play a major role in the immunopathogenesis. More importantly, T cells not only destroy hepatocytes infected by hepatitis B virus (HBV), but also control HBV replication or eradicate HBV in a noncytolytic manner. Therefore, analysis of T cell immune response during acute and chronic HBV infection is important to develop a strategy for successful viral control, which could lead to immunotherapy for terminating persistent HBV infection. There have been many attempts at immunotherapy for chronic HBV infection, and some have shown promising results. High viral load has been shown to suppress antiviral immune responses and immunoinhibitory signals have been recently elucidated, therefore, viral suppression by nucleos(t)ide analogs, stimulation of antiviral immune response, and suppression of the immunoinhibitory signals must be combined to achieve desirable antiviral effects.

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Key words: T cells; Immunopathogenesis; Immunotherapy; Hepatitis B virus infection

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INTRODUCTION

Hepatitis B virus (HBV) is not cytopathic, and hepatitis B is caused by the host immune response, mainly T-cell-mediated, against virus-related peptides expressed on hepatocytes in conjunction with human leukocyte antigens (HLAs). In acute self-limiting hepatitis, a broad T-cell immune response occurs that is strong enough to eradicate the virus or suppress viral replication^[1]. However, there are many mechanisms that hamper the antiviral immune response, leading to persistent infection. To develop an optimal strategy to stimulate antiviral immune response with therapeutic potential, extensive analyses of immune mechanisms for successful viral eradication and immunosuppressive mechanisms induced by viral infection during persistent infection are required. In this review, I focus on T cell immune response during HBV infection, and summarize attempted immunotherapeutic approaches against persistent HBV infection.

T CELL RESPONSE IN ACUTE HBV INFECTION

Immunological analysis has been extensively performed in transgenic and chimpanzee models of acute HBV infection. In one model, transgenic mice, in which infectious HBV virions replicate in the liver with expression of all HBV-related antigens, were injected with hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg)-specific cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs) that had been induced in nontransgenic mice. The injected CTLs produced interferon (IFN)- γ and tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α , which purged viral

RNA and DNA without destroying infected hepatocytes^[2-4]. Importantly, this noncytolytic clearance of intracellular HBV is more efficient at controlling HBV replication than the killing of infected hepatocytes. In this sense, hepatitis is not only a harmful event but also represents an effective mechanism by which CTLs suppress HBV. Noncytolytic viral eradication can account for recovery from acute HBV infection in that most HBV is cleared from hepatocytes with only a fraction of the hepatocytes being destroyed. This was confirmed in a chimpanzee infection model; HBV DNA level was markedly decreased in the liver and blood of acutely infected chimpanzees before peak serum alanine aminotransferase (ALT) concentrations were reached^[5], suggesting that this noncytotoxic T cell effector mechanism results in early viral inhibition or eradication, whereas a cytopathic T cell effector mechanism is required to eliminate the remaining virus by destroying infected hepatocytes.

In humans, the HBV-specific T cell response during incubation phase of acute hepatitis B has been analyzed extensively using HLA class I tetramer and cytokine staining^[6]. The data showed that maximal reduction in HBV DNA in the serum occurred before the peak of ALT elevation; again indicating that suppression of HBV replication occurs without hepatocyte injury. Moreover, infiltration of HBV-specific CD8⁺ T cells into the liver has been observed several weeks before the peak of liver injury, suggesting that HBV-specific T cell infiltration occurs at an early stage of infection, resulting in suppression of HBV replication. Thereafter, recruitment of mostly nonspecific cells induced by cytokines or chemokines produced by HBV-specific T cells contributes to significant liver damage. Interestingly, in the HBV transgenic mouse model of acute hepatitis, administration of antibodies against the chemokines, IFN-inducible protein (IP-10) and monokine induced by interferon-(Mig), reduced the recruitment of mostly antigen-nonspecific mononuclear cells into the liver that had been induced by cytokines and chemokines produced by injected CTLs, leading to a reduction in the severity of hepatitis without affecting the antiviral activity of the CTLs^[7]. These observations have important therapeutic implications, because suppression of antigen-nonspecific mononuclear cell recruitment may suppress hepatitis, while retaining the antiviral function of the CTLs.

The overall data from studies in chimpanzees and humans are essentially the same, and indicate that a sufficient T cell response to HBV at an early phase of infection is important for eradication of virus infection, and that an insufficient T cell response may lead to persistent viral infection.

The contributions of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells to the control of viral infection have been analyzed in a chimpanzee model of acute hepatitis B by depleting either T cell population with monoclonal antibodies. The data show that CD8⁺ T cells are the main effector cells responsible for virus elimination^[8].

Antigen specificity of T cell response in acute HBV infection

The antigen specificity of the T cell response to HBV in acute hepatitis has been analyzed, and it is clear that acute viral hepatitis involves a vigorous CTL response to multiple epitopes in the viral nucleocapsid, envelope, and polymerase proteins, whereas these are not seen in patients with chronic hepatitis^[1]. Although multi-specificity of the CTL response is characteristic in acute hepatitis, there is known to be a hierarchy of epitope-specific CD8⁺ T cell responses determined by cytokine production after peptide stimulation. In acute hepatitis B, CD8⁺ T cell response to HBc18-27 (HLA-A2 restricted epitope) is dominant followed by the response to polymerase epitope (455-463), whereas envelope epitopes are always subdominant^[9]. The hierarchy is clearly distinct from that observed in chronic hepatitis, in which the CD8⁺ T cell response to envelope epitope (183-191) is always dominant. Interestingly, chronic hepatitis patients with lower HBV DNA levels in the serum show greater responses to HBc18-27 than those with high HBV DNA. These findings imply that the T cell response to hepatitis B core antigen (HBcAg) is important for viral control, which is important for designing peptide vaccines for the treatment of chronic HBV infection.

Long-lasting T cell immune response after resolution of acute hepatitis B

In humans, most HBV is cleared after resolution of acute hepatitis. However, it has been shown that trace amounts of HBV DNA can be detected for several years after resolution of acute hepatitis, and the long-lasting memory T cell response is maintained by persistent replication of HBV^[10], indicating that low levels of HBV replication could continue in most patients even in the convalescent phase of acute hepatitis in balance with immunological pressure.

T CELL RESPONSE IN CHRONIC HBV INFECTION

In peripheral blood, HBV-specific helper T lymphocytes and CTLs are barely detectable in patients with chronic hepatitis B (CHB)^[11], possibly due to exhaustion by high viral load or tolerance to HBV.

In contrast, several studies have characterized intrahepatic CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T lymphocytes in CHB. Intrahepatic CD4⁺ T lymphocytes in patients with CHB have been found to contain T helper (Th)0 cells, which produce not only IFN- γ , but also interleukin (IL)-4 and IL-5, thus differing from cells in the livers of patients with chronic hepatitis C, which are mostly Th1 cells^[12]. CD4⁺ T lymphocytes that produce IL-17 infiltrate into the livers of patients with CHB and are involved in liver inflammation^[13].

Livers of patients with low HBV replication contain intralobular CD8⁺ T lymphocytes^[14], and the percent-

ages of virus-specific T lymphocytes in the liver have been clarified by immunohistochemical staining with peptide-MHC tetramer. The proportion of CD8⁺ T lymphocytes in the livers of patients with chronic HBV specific for HBc18-27, a major HBV epitope, has been found to range from 0.18% to 1.28%^[15]. Maini *et al*^[16] have reported that the number of HBc18-27-specific CD8⁺ T cells, detected using tetramers, was the same in livers with low HBV DNA/ALT as in those with high HBV DNA/ALT. Hence, HBV-specific T cells recognize HBV antigens and carry out immune surveillance in the liver. Thus, they have an important role in controlling HBV replication in the liver without causing hepatic necroinflammation in low DNA/ALT anti-HBe⁺ HBV carriers. It remains unknown why HBV-specific T cells fail to control effectively HBV replication in the liver with chronic hepatitis. However, recent advances in immunology have given some insight into the mechanism as described below.

IMMUNOSUPPRESSIVE MECHANISM RESPONSIBLE FOR PERSISTENT HBV INFECTION

Regulatory T cells

Regulatory T (Treg) cells expressing the forkhead family transcription factor, FoxP3, are specialized cells that exert negative control on a variety of physiological and pathological immune responses, resulting in maintenance of immunological self-tolerance^[17]. They show diverse phenotypes, occurring in both CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell subsets, and express CD25 (IL-2 receptor chain) and/or cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4 (CTLA-4) in addition to Foxp3.

In HBV infection, hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg)-positive patients with high HBV DNA levels in the serum show elevated numbers of CD4⁺CD25⁺ Treg cells in the blood compared to patients with acute and chronic hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection^[18]. Significant accumulation of CD4⁺CD25⁺FoxP3⁺ Treg cells in the liver is found in patients with chronic HBV infection. Moreover, patients with high viral load have a higher proportion of Treg cells in the liver^[19], suggesting that intrahepatic Treg cells suppress antiviral immune responses in the liver in chronic HBV infection.

Th cells that produce IL-17 (Th17 cells) have recently been identified as the third subset of effector T cells^[20], which produce IL-17A, IL-17E, IL-22 and IL-21^[21]. Recently, IL-6 has been shown to induce the generation of Th17 cells from naïve T cells together with transforming growth factor (TGF)- β and inhibits TGF-induced Treg cell differentiation^[22]. Importantly, there is a reciprocal relationship between Th17 and Treg cells; not only in development, but also in their effector function, indicating that the Treg/Th17 balance may determine the quality and magnitude of immune responses in the liver^[20]. Unexpectedly, the increases in circulating and intrahepatic Th17 cells are positively correlated with HBV DNA in

the serum, serum ALT levels, and histological activity index of the livers with CHB, suggesting that activation of Th17 cells does not exert antiviral function in CHB^[23].

Programmed death-1

Programmed death-1 (PD-1) is a surface receptor critical for the regulation of T cell function^[24,25]. Binding to PD-1 by its ligands PD-L1 and PD-L2 results in the antigen-specific inhibition of T cell proliferation, cytokine production, and cytolytic function, leading to exhaustion of T cells. In the liver, PD-1 is expressed on lymphocytes; PD-L1 is expressed on lymphocytes, hepatocytes and sinusoidal endothelial cells; and PD-L2 is expressed on Kupffer cells and dendritic cells (DCs)^[26]. HBeAg-positive patients with high HBV DNA levels in the serum show increased PD-1 and CTLA-4 expression on HBV-specific CD8⁺ T cells^[27]. Moreover, PD-1 expression on CD4⁺ T cells is correlated positively with serum HBV DNA load in CHB patients^[28]. Intrahepatic HBV-specific CD8⁺ T cells express higher levels of PD-1, and upregulation of intrahepatic PD-1/PD-L1 is associated with liver inflammation and ALT elevation^[29]. Although the mechanism underlying the upregulation of PD-1 on CD8⁺ T cells in the inflamed liver is unknown, signals from PD-1 inhibit HBV-specific T cells, resulting in insufficient antiviral responses, leading to failure of viral control and persistent liver inflammation. Importantly, PD-1/PD-L1 blockade increased CD8⁺ T cell proliferation and enhanced IFN- γ and IL-2 production by intrahepatic lymphocytes^[29]. These findings suggest that inhibition of PD-1/PD-L1 may have therapeutic potential for the control of hepatitis B.

IL-10

IL-10 is an important cytokine with anti-inflammatory properties, and is produced by activated monocytes/macrophages and T cell subsets, including Treg and Th1 cells^[30]. Immunosuppression by IL-10 is associated with functional exhaustion of memory T cells in chronic lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus (LCMV) infection, and blockade of IL-10 receptors could terminate chronic LCMV infection^[31]. In chronic HBV infection, HBeAg stimulates the production of IL-10, which negatively regulates HBeAg-specific Th17 cell responses in CHB patients^[32].

T cell immunoglobulin- and mucin-domain-containing molecule-3

It has been reported that not all exhausted T cells show upregulation of PD-1 and downregulation of CD127 (IL-7 receptor), and blockade of the PD-1/PD-L1 signaling pathway does not always restore proliferation and cytokine production^[33]. Recently, another inhibitory molecule, T cell immunoglobulin- and mucin-domain-containing molecule-3 (Tim-3), has been reported. A high frequency of Tim3-expressing CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells are found in chronic HBV infection, and the frequency of Tim-3⁺ T cells is positively correlated with the severity of liver inflammation, and negatively correlated with plasma IFN- γ levels^[34].

Table 1 Immunotherapeutic approaches for animal models of hepatitis B virus infection

Animal model	Immunotherapy	Results	Ref.
Peptide vaccination			
HBV transgenic mice	A synthesized fusion peptide, consisting HBcAg18-27 and HIV Tat49-57	Decrease in serum HBV DNA levels and the expression levels of HBsAg and HBcAg in the liver	[40]
Protein vaccination			
HBV transgenic mice	HBsAg vaccine	Most of the mice showed reduction of HBV DNA levels and disappearance of HBeAg and HBsAg	[41]
Woodchuck hepatitis virus infection	Combination of vaccine of HBV large surface protein and clevudine	Restoration of T-cell response to Pre-S and S region	[42]
DNA immunization			
Acute DHBV infection	DNA vaccine expressing DHBc and Pre-S/S and entecavir Boosted with fowl poxvirus vectors expressing DHBc and Pre-S/S	Clearance of DHBV infection at a rate of 100%	[43]
Chronic DHBV infection	DNA vaccine encoding the HBV large envelope and/or core protein with or without lamivudine	Reduction of viremia and liver DHBV cccDNA in 33% of ducks Seroconversion to anti-pre S in 67% of ducks showing cccDNA clearance	[44]
DC immunization			
HBV transgenic mice	Activated bone marrow-derived DCs	Break CTL tolerance to HBsAg	[45]
HBV transgenic mice	Anti-CD40 agonistic monoclonal Ab	Induction of noncytopathic inhibition of HBV replication mediated by antiviral cytokines (IL-12 and TNF- α) produced by activated intrahepatic APCs	[46]
HBV transgenic mice	HBV-specific peptide-pulsed DCs	Reductions in the serum HBsAg and HBV DNA	[47]
Cytokines and adjuvants			
HBV transgenic mice	Recombinant IL-12	Marked inhibition of HBV replication in the liver	[48]
HBV transgenic mice	α -galactosylceramide that can activate NK T cells	Complete inhibition of HBV replication	[49]
HBV transgenic mice	Recombinant IL-18	Inhibition of HBV replication noncytopathically, mediated by activation of resident intrahepatic NK cells and NK T cells	[50]
Gene therapy			
HBsAg transgenic mice	Lentivectors expressing HBsAg and IgFc fusion Ag	Induction of seroconversion to anti-HBs	[51]

HBV: Hepatitis B virus; DHBV: Duck HBV; DC: Dendritic cell; HBsAg: Hepatitis B surface antigen; HBcAg: Hepatitis B core antigen; HIV: Human immunodeficiency virus; APC: Antigen-presenting cell; IL: Interleukin; NK: Natural killer; CTL: Cytotoxic T lymphocyte; TNF: Tumor necrosis factor; cccDNA: Covalently closed circular DNA; Ab: Antibody; Ag: Antigen.

Dysfunction of DCs

DCs are specialized antigen-presenting cells that orchestrate immune responses. They stimulate innate and acquired immune responses, but also act as tolerogenic cells for immune responses in a variety of situations. In viral hepatitis, dysfunction of DCs from peripheral blood has been reported. In patients with CHB, maturation of DCs from peripheral blood of patients after incubation with cytokines is lower than that of normal subjects with lower expression of HLA-DR and co-stimulatory molecules in the former population^[35], leading to low allostimulatory function of DCs from CHB patients. The mechanism of impairment of DC function in patients with CHB is unclear, but both HBV particles and purified HBsAg may have immunomodulatory capacity and may directly contribute to the dysfunction of myeloid DCs^[36]. Interestingly, impaired function of monocyte-derived DCs from patients with CHB could be reversed by inhibiting viral replication with nucleos(t)ide analogs such as lamivudine^[37]. Type 2 precursor plasmacytoid dendritic cells (pDCs), which are the most important cells in antiviral innate immunity, are also reported to have quantitative and qualitative impairment in patients with chronic HBV infection^[38]. Recently, HBV itself was shown to inhibit the functions of pDCs^[39]. These data indicate that DCs in patients with CHB have impaired function leading to insufficient T cell response to HBV, which could be the mechanism

responsible for persistent viral infection.

IMMUNOTHERAPY FOR VIRAL HEPATITIS

In chronic HBV infection, strong long-term viral suppression can now be achieved with various nucleoside or nucleotide analogs. However, there are some problems that must be solved in the near future. One of the problems with treatment with nucleos(t)ide analogs is a low rate of HBe seroconversion even after long-term administration in HBeAg⁺ patients. Moreover, reactivation rate of HBV replication is high in both HBeAg⁺ and HBeAg⁻ patients after cessation of treatment, although drug-free viral controls would be better than long-term administration of the drugs in terms of control of medical costs and avoidance of adverse effects of these agents. It could be possible to achieve long-term viral eradication even after cessation of nucleos(t)ide analogs, if viral suppression with nucleos(t)ide analogs could be combined with efficient immunotherapies.

Previous animal studies and human trials in HBV infection are listed in Tables 1 and 2, respectively.

IMMUNOTHERAPEUTIC APPROACHES FOR HBV INFECTION

Immunotherapeutic strategies for CHB include suppres-

Table 2 Immunotherapeutic trials for chronic hepatitis B virus infection in humans

Immunotherapy	Results	Ref.
Peptide vaccination A vaccine with HBc18-27 peptide comprised of a T-helper cell epitope and two palmitic acid residues	Low levels of CTL activity were induced but no significant changes in liver biochemistry or viral serology were observed	[52]
Protein vaccination PreS2/S (GenHevac B) or S (Recombivax)	HBe/anti-HBe seroconversion in 13% and HBV DNA negativity in 16% of the treated patients	[53]
Intradermal HBsAg vaccine and lamivudine in combination with IL-2	Induction of significant HBV DNA loss in the serum in two of five the treated patients	[54]
Oral administration of HBV envelope proteins (HBsAg + preS1 + preS2)	Induction of histological improvement in 30%, HBeAg negativity in 26.3% and HBsAg-specific T cell proliferation in 78% of the treated patients	[55]
IFN- α -2b monotherapy (9 mo) or IFN- α -2b plus pre-S2/S vaccine	Greater reduction in HBV DNA in patients with combination HBV therapy than those who received IFN- α -2b monotherapy	[56]
The combination with lamivudine and HBsAg vaccine in HBeAg ⁺ cases	No improvement of HBe seroconversion rate in comparison with lamivudine therapy alone	[57]
Combination of lamivudine and HBsAg vaccine	Induction of sustained negativity of HBV DNA in 1/4 of patients	[58]
Combination of lamivudine and HBsAg vaccine	HBV DNA became undetectable in 64% of the patients, and was decreased in the remaining patients	[59]
DNA immunization DNA vaccine encoding HBV envelope protein	Induction of an increase in HBV-specific IFN- γ -secreting T cells in nonresponders to conventional therapies, and HBV DNA levels were transiently decreased in 50% of vaccinated patients	[60]
DNA vaccine encoding PreS and S in patients with lamivudine breakthrough	Development of IFN- γ -producing T cells specific for preS or S antigen; Two of 10 patients showed seroconversion to anti-HBe	[61]
DC immunization Peripheral blood-derived DCs, activated with GM-CSF and IL-4 pulsed with HBsAg	Both patients with normal and elevated ALT responded equally to DC vaccine and 53% of the patients showed induction of HBeAg negativity	[62]
Activated DCs from PBL with GM-CSF and IL-4, pulsed with two peptides, HBc18-27 and PreS2 44-53	Undetectable HBV DNA was achieved in 46.3% and 3.1% of HBeAg ⁻ and HBeAg ⁺ patients, respectively. ALT normalization was observed in 69% and 30.5% of HBeAg ⁻ and HBeAg ⁺ patients, respectively	[63]
Cytokines GM-CSF	Safe and tolerable up to 1.0 μ g/kg body weight, and induced HBV DNA negativity in 4/8 patients	[64]
Combination therapy with GM-CSF and HBsAg vaccine in HBV carrier children	Significant reduction of serum HBV DNA	[65]
High dose of IL-12 (0.5 μ g/kg)	HBV DNA clearance was observed in 25% of the patients	[66]
Combination of IL-12 and lamivudine	Stimulation of T cell response to HBV with IFN- γ production. However, IL-12 was unable to suppress re-elevation of HBV DNA after cessation of lamivudine	[67]
Combination of IL-12 and IL-18	Stimulation of IFN- γ production by CD4 ⁺ T cells isolated from peripheral blood in response to HBsAg, and the effect was greater than those observed with either cytokine alone	[68]
α -galactosylceramide	Poorly tolerated and showed no clear suppressive effect on serum HBV DNA or ALT levels	[69]
T α 1 Combination of T α 1 and IFN- α	No statistically significant differences as compared with IFN- α monotherapy with respect to HBeAg seroconversion, changes in histology, normalization of ALT or loss of HBV DNA	[70]
T α 1 alone	At 12 mo after cessation of therapy, 36.4% of patients treated with 1.6 mg of T α 1 achieved ALT normalization, 15% achieved HBV DNA clearance by transcription-mediated amplification, and 22.8% achieved clearance of HBeAg	[71]
Comparative effect of T α 1 and IFN- α	T α 1 treatment was more effective in achieving ALT normalization and HBV DNA negativity at the end of the follow-up period than IFN- α	[72]
Combination of T α 1 and lamivudine	No any additional antiviral effect compared with lamivudine monotherapy as determined by HBe seroconversion and the emergence of viral breakthrough	[73]
Combination therapy with lamivudine and T α 1	Induction of significantly higher rates of ALT normalization, virological response, and HBeAg seroconversion than lamivudine monotherapy	[74]

HBV: Hepatitis B virus; T α 1: Thymosin α 1; IFN: Interferon; ALT: Alanine aminotransferase; HBeAg: Hepatitis B e antigen; GM-CSF: Granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor; IL: Interleukin; CTL: Cytotoxic T lymphocyte; DC: Dendritic cell; HBsAg: Hepatitis B surface antigen; HBcAg: Hepatitis B core antigen; PBL: Peripheral blood lymphocytes.

sion of viral replication, stimulation of T cell immune response to hepatitis virus, activation of nonspecific cells, and administration of cytokines with antiviral activity (Tables 1 and 2).

Suppression of viral replication

High viral load has been shown to suppress CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells in addition to induction of Treg cells, which could be reversed by antiviral therapy in CHB^[75].

Therefore, immunotherapy followed by restoration of virus-specific T cell response with antiviral therapy could be more efficient in CHB.

Stimulation of immune response to HBV

Peptide immunization: A peptide vaccine containing highly immunogenic HBc18-27 has been developed and administered to CHB patients^[52], but the results were disappointing because there was no induction of a significant antiviral T cell response.

Protein immunization: In a model of HBV in transgenic mice, vaccine on the base of surface antigen in complete Freund's adjuvant once monthly for 1 year induced reduction in HBV DNA, and the disappearance of HBeAg and HBsAg in most mice treated^[41]. Moreover, it is important to note that some mice developed anti-HBs in the sera. However, several human trials with HBsAg vaccine showed limited efficacy if used as monotherapy.

Recently, hepatitis B vaccine containing not only S protein but also preS has been used with increased immunogenicity^[53,55], or has been combined with lamivudine or IFN- α ^[56], leading to potential improvement of clinical efficacy. However, analysis of the T cell epitope hierarchy has indicated that the most important epitope for viral control is HBc18-27, and not the HBsAg epitope in HLA-A2 patients^[9], suggesting the necessity to reconsider antigen selection for vaccination that could lead to better viral control.

DNA immunization: Injection of plasmid DNA has been shown to elicit strongly both cellular and humoral immune responses, and is now known to be safe and well-tolerated both in mice and humans. In a model of duck HBV infection, DNA vaccine encoding HBV large envelope and/or core protein was shown to induce reduction in not only viremia but also covalently closed circular DNA (cccDNA) in the liver in one thirds of ducks receiving DNA monotherapy or combination treatment with lamivudine^[44]. This finding is encouraging because clearance of cccDNA from the liver is the goal of treatment for HBV infection, but is difficult to achieve using IFN- α or nucleos(t)ide analogs. Clinical trials have also been performed in HBV infection with some encouraging results, which remain to be confirmed by future randomized large-scale trials.

DC immunization: DCs are specialized antigen-presenting cells that can induce strong immune responses in T and B cells. We have previously shown that activated bone-marrow-derived DCs can break CTL tolerance to HBsAg in HBV transgenic mice^[45]. Thereafter, several immunotherapies with activated DCs have been applied in both animals and humans. In a recent study performed in HBV transgenic mice, peptide-pulsed DCs were shown to reduce significantly the concentrations of serum HBsAg and HBV DNA^[47], indicating therapeutic

potential in chronic HBV infection. Recently, DCs treated with peptide inhibitors of IL-10 have been shown to induce strong anti-HCV T cell responses in HCV transgenic mice^[76], suggesting a strategy to augment the immunogenic function of DCs. Moreover, when intrahepatic antigen-presenting cells, including DCs, are activated by injection of an anti-CD40 agonistic antibody, HBV replication is inhibited by a noncytopathic mechanism, possibly through production of antiviral cytokines such as TNF- α and IL-12^[46]. Although no CTL response against HBV antigens was reported in this study, the *in vivo* activation of DCs could be an alternative way for inducing antiviral immune responses, including possible activation of CTLs against HBV. In humans, injection of activated DCs loaded with HBV peptide or protein has achieved a reduction in HBV DNA level in some patients^[62,63]. HBeAg negativity was achieved in more than half of the treated patients in one study^[62]. Although preparation of activated and mature DCs incurs financial costs and requires experienced researchers, immunotherapy with DCs is a promising method.

Natural killer T cells: A single injection of α -galactosylceramide abolished HBV replication by activating natural killer (NK) T cells in the liver in HBV transgenic mice^[49]. However, α -galactosylceramide was poorly tolerated in humans and showed no clear antiviral effect^[69], possibly due to smaller numbers of NKT cells in the human liver than in the mouse liver.

Cytokines and thymosin-1: Cytokines such as IL-12^[48] and IL-18^[50] have been shown to inhibit HBV replication noncytopathically in HBV transgenic mice. In humans, granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor^[64,65] and IL-12^[66,67] have been used for treatment with some antiviral effects. They have been used as monotherapy or in combination with hepatitis B vaccine or lamivudine.

Thymosin (T) α 1, a synthetic 28-amino acid peptide, is able to enhance the Th1 immune response and also exerts a direct antiviral mechanism of action. It has been used for the treatment of chronic HBV infection in humans^[70-73], and has shown some antiviral efficacy. Although antiviral effect by the addition of T α 1 to lamivudine or IFN- α therapy was controversial, a meta-analysis has demonstrated that combination therapy with lamivudine and T α 1 shows significantly higher rates of ALT normalization, virological response, and HBeAg seroconversion as compared with lamivudine monotherapy^[74]. It is of note that HBeAg seroconversion rate was 45% in the combination group, which was significantly higher than that with lamivudine monotherapy (15%).

Blockade of immunoinhibitory signals

Recently, there have been several basic attempts to improve the efficacy of immunotherapy. Among these reports, augmentation or restoration of T cell response by blocking the inhibitory signals has been extensively analyzed *in vitro*. It has been demonstrated that exhausted T

cells express not only PD-1, but also CTLA-4^[77], CD244^[78] or Tim-3^[33], and blocking of these molecules in combination could be better than blocking any single molecule to achieve full activation of the exhausted T cells.

CONCLUSION

There have been several attempts to apply immunotherapy for the control of chronic HBV infection, and some of the data are promising. Viral suppression, stimulation of antiviral immune response with cytokines or immunization with peptide, protein, DNA or DCs, and suppression of the immunoinhibitory signals must be combined to achieve desirable antiviral effects, although further studies are required to explore the best protocols and their most efficient combinations.

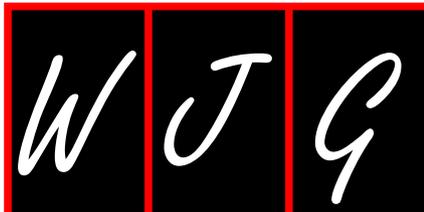
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Serrated polyposis syndrome: Molecular, pathological and clinical aspects

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Abstract

Hyperplastic polyps have traditionally been considered not to have malignant potential. New pathological classification of serrated polyps and recent discoveries about the serrated pathway of carcinogenesis have revolutionized the concepts and revitalized the research in this area. Until recently, it has been thought that most colorectal cancers arise from conventional adenomas *via* the traditional tumor suppressor pathway initiated by a mutation of the *APC* gene, but it has been found that

this pathway accounts for only approximately 70%-80% of colorectal cancer (CRC) cases. The majority of the remaining colorectal cancer cases follow an alternative pathway leading to CpG island methylator phenotype carcinoma with BRAF mutation and with or without microsatellite instability. The mechanism of carcinomas arising from this alternative pathway seems to begin with an activating mutation of the *BRAF* oncogene. Serrated polyposis syndrome is a relatively rare condition characterized by multiple and/or large serrated polyps of the colon. Clinical characteristics, etiology and relationship of serrated polyposis syndrome to CRC have not been clarified yet. Patients with this syndrome show a high risk of CRC and both sporadic and hereditary cases have been described. Clinical criteria have been used for diagnosis and frequent colonoscopy surveillance should be performed in order to prevent colorectal cancer. In this review, we try to gather new insights into the molecular pathogenesis of serrated polyps in order to understand their possible clinical implications and to make an approach to the management of this syndrome.

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Key words: Colorectal cancer; Hyperplastic polyps; CpG island methylator phenotype; Serrated polyposis; Serrated pathway

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INTRODUCTION

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is a common and lethal disease. It is a major health issue in western countries where it represents the second most common fatal malignancy after lung cancer^[1]. Until recently, it has been thought that most CRCs arise from conventional adenomas *via* the traditional tumor suppressor pathway initiated with a mutation of the *APC* gene, but it has been found that this pathway accounts for only approximately 70%-80% of CRC cases^[2-4]. The majority of the remaining CRC cases follow an alternative pathway leading to CpG island methylator phenotype (CIMP+) carcinoma with *BRAF* mutation and with or without microsatellite instability. This pathway is called the serrated pathway of colorectal carcinogenesis^[5]. The mechanism of carcinomas arising from this alternative pathway seems to begin with an activating mutation of the *BRAF* oncogene. This *BRAF* mutation provokes the development of serrated lesions that are mainly microvesicular hyperplastic polyps or sessile serrated polyps^[5]. These lesions are prone to methylation of CpG islands in the promoter regions of genes resulting in their epigenetic silencing. The best characterized gene silenced by this mechanism is *MLH1*. This gene is one of the mismatch repair genes and its epigenetic silencing results in sporadic tumors with microsatellite instability (MSI). However, other genes such as *P16*, *MGMT*, or *IGFBP7* may also be epigenetically inactivated. The serrated polyposis syndrome (SPS) is a relatively rare condition characterized by multiple and/or large serrated polyps of the colon. Diagnosis of this disease is made by the fulfillment of any of the World Health Organization's (WHO) clinical criteria^[6] (Table 1). SPS exhibits an increased risk of CRC^[7], which occurs on average in subjects aged between 50 to 60 years. There is a high incidence of synchronous cancers^[8] and CRC shows a trend to be located in the proximal colon^[9]. These patients and their relatives should receive strict surveillance strategies because of the high risk of CRC. This review focuses on the SPS, its genetics and management.

SERRATED POLYPOSIS SYNDROME

Serrated polyposis syndrome is the paradigm of the serrated pathway of carcinogenesis and an excellent and interesting human model for the study of the features that drive progression from hyperplastic polyps (HP) to serrated carcinoma (Figure 1). These patients show clinical, pathological and molecular features that are very useful for expanding the knowledge of this particular and alternative carcinogenetic pathway.

Diagnostic criteria

Diagnostic criteria of SPS were first defined by Burt and Jass in 2000 for the WHO. These criteria have been recently redefined and this entity is now called Serrated Polyposis^[6]. A patient is diagnosed with SPS if at least one of the following criteria is met: (1) At least five serrated polyps proximal to the sigmoid colon, two of

Table 1 The World Health Organization's clinical criteria for the identification of serrated polyposis

Criterion A	At least five serrated polyps proximal to the sigmoid colon, two of which are greater than 10 mm in diameter
Criterion B	Any number of serrated polyps occurring proximal to the sigmoid colon in an individual who has a first-degree relative with serrated polyposis
Criterion C	More than 20 serrated polyps of any size distributed throughout the colon

A diagnosis of serrated polyposis syndrome can be made if a patient fulfils any of these criteria.

Table 2 Summary findings from publications including patients that fulfil World Health Organization criteria of serrated polyposis syndrome

Author	Patients (n)	Age at diagnosis (median, yr)	CRC (%)	CRC family history (%)
Lage <i>et al</i> ^[12]	14	54	43	36
Ferrández <i>et al</i> ^[10]	15	52	7	0
Rubio <i>et al</i> ^[13]	10	61	70	10
Chow <i>et al</i> ^[9]	38	44	26	50
Boparai <i>et al</i> ^[7]	77	56	35	NR

CRC: Colorectal cancer; NR: Not reported.

which are greater than 10 mm in diameter; (2) Any number of serrated polyps occurring proximal to the sigmoid colon in an individual who has a first-degree relative with serrated polyposis; and (3) More than 20 serrated polyps of any size distributed throughout the colon (Table 1). This arbitrary definition has been considered over the years somewhat restrictive. Moreover, SPS probably comprises a heterogeneous group of patients that includes several phenotypes of serrated polyposis. However, until the molecular basis of this syndrome is better understood, this clinical definition is applicable.

Clinical characteristics

Characteristics of patients with SPS have been defined mainly based on the publication of series of cases^[7,9-13] (Table 2). There is no sex predominance and the mean age at diagnosis is around 55 years. SPS has largely been considered a genetic disease, but the pattern of inheritance remains unknown: both autosomal recessive and autosomal dominant patterns have been suggested. Published case series report that between 10%-50% of patients meeting SPS criteria have a family history of CRC^[9,11-13]. In this way, Boparai *et al*^[14] have recently described an increased risk of CRC [relative risk (RR) = 5.4] and SPS (RR = 39) in first-degree relatives of probands diagnosed with SPS compared to the general population.

It is important to point out that conventional adenomas may coexist with serrated polyps in patients with SPS^[7,9-13]. Some authors have suggested the existence of various phenotypes within the SPS definition. Kalady *et al*^[11] described three phenotypic patterns in a series of 115 patients with multiple serrated polyps: (1) The patients presented a right-sided phenotype with large sessile serrated adenomas (SSAs)

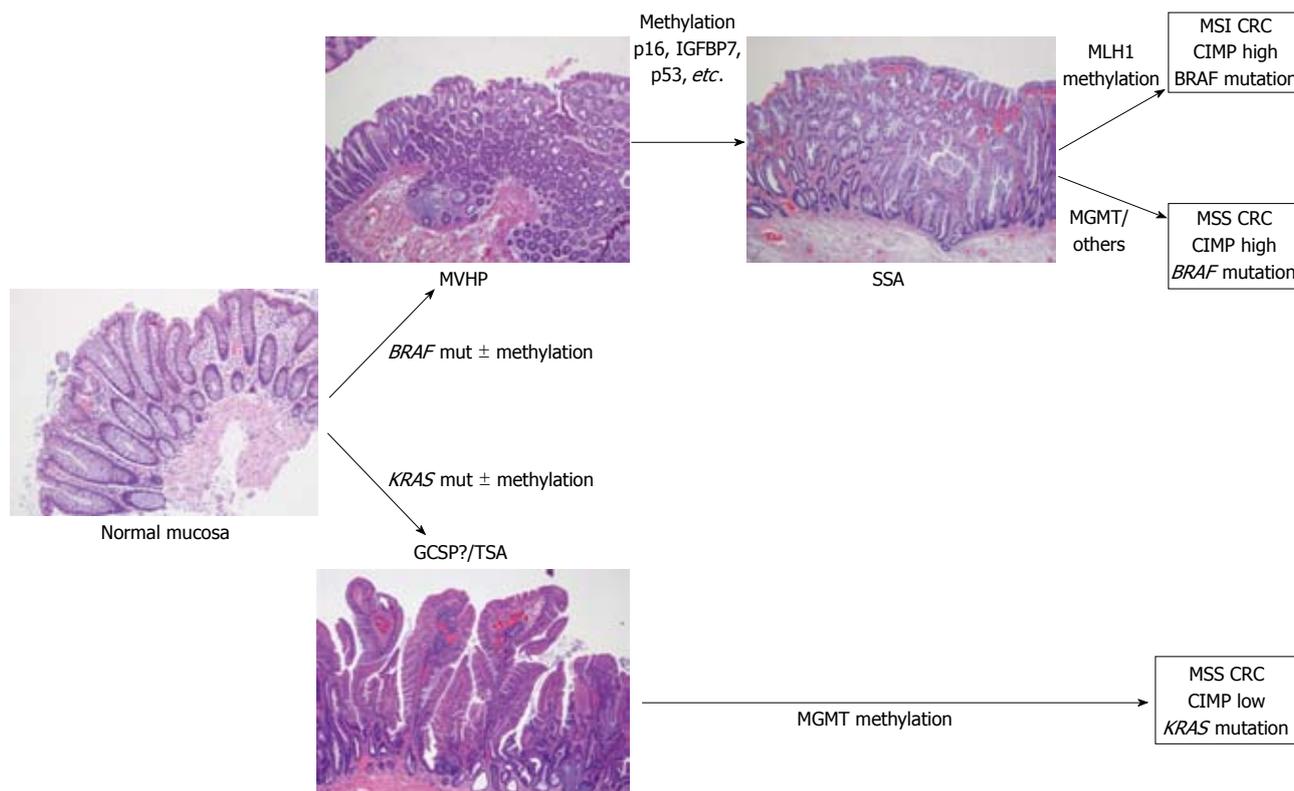


Figure 1 Model of serrated pathway of colorectal carcinogenesis. MVHP: Microvesicular hyperplastic polyp; SSA: Sessile serrated adenoma; MGMT: Methylguanine methyltransferase; MSI: Microsatellite instability; MSS: Microsatellite stable; CRC: Colorectal cancer; CIMP: CpG island methylator phenotype; GCSP: Goblet cell serrated polyp; TSA: Traditional sessile adenomas.

and with a CRC onset in younger individuals (48%); (2) Left-sided phenotype with a greater amount of small polyps (16%); and (3) Mixed phenotype with shared features of the previous phenotypes (37%). These different patterns should be revised in future studies.

Environmental factors could be partially responsible for the phenotypic differences and model the unknown pattern of inheritance. Smoking, being overweight and some drugs have been postulated as potential risk factors of HPs. Samowitz *et al.*^[15] described a statistically significant dose-response association between CIMP+ CRC and smoking. Moreover, Walker *et al.*^[16] found a strong association between cigarette smoking and SPS (odds ratio = 8.3; 95% CI: 3.0-22.9) in a case-control study comparing SPS patients with a population-based registry. Wallace *et al.*^[17], using the data of multicenter chemoprevention trials, came upon the association of some environmental factors with an increased risk of colonic serrated polyps (not necessary SPS criteria). On the one hand, in the left colon, obesity, smoking, increased dietary fat and red meat intake were linked with serrated polyps. On the other hand, in the right colon, the risk factors were folate intake and family history of polyps, whereas aspirin treatment was shown as a protective factor. These results should be confirmed by targeted studies.

Somatic molecular characteristics of polyps in patients with serrated polyposis syndrome

Molecular heterogeneity among polyps from patients

with SPS has been described^[18]. In fact, although a mixed phenotype has been identified^[11], SPS patients can be molecularly classified into two defined groups^[19]. The first group is characterized by the presence of relatively few large right-sided polyps which show *BRAF* mutation while the other group presents with many small left-sided polyps associated with *KRAS* mutation^[11,19]. Mutations in *KRAS* and *BRAF* are more common in HPs from SPS patients as well as in younger cases. The frequency of *BRAF* mutations in SPS patients is higher than *KRAS* mutations^[19].

The combined incidence of *BRAF* and *KRAS* mutations in serrated polyps ranges from 64% to 75%^[19,20]. The presence of epithelial dysplasia is associated with higher rates (90%) of mutation in either *BRAF* or *KRAS*, indicating the importance of the activation of the RAS-RAF-MAP kinase pathway in the pathogenesis of the serrated lesions^[20]. Furthermore, nearly 90% of all CIMP+ CRCs have either *BRAF* or *KRAS* mutations^[21]. Serrated polyps from patients with SPS have different frequencies of *BRAF* mutation and it is higher in those lesions that show typical features of SSA^[21-23]. However, there are differences between studies due to the methodology used for the detection of *BRAF* mutation^[22] or because of the lack of consensus about the diagnostic terms for serrated lesions^[24,25].

Carvajal-Carmona *et al.*^[19] proposed molecular criteria that could complement the clinical WHO criteria for SPS. They recommended that SPS should be diagnosed



Figure 2 Segment of colectomy in a case of serrated polyposis. Polyps are frequently small (arrows) and flat, making their endoscopic detection difficult.

if *BRAF* or *KRAS* mutations are present at a significantly higher frequency in a patient's polyps than in sporadic HPs. In addition, SPS could be excluded if both *BRAF* and *KRAS* mutations are present in less than 10% of HPs from one patient, or if less than 5% of HPs are MSI.

Genetic predisposition in patients with serrated polyposis syndrome

SPS is a very heterogeneous condition^[26] and it has been suggested that each phenotype may result from different underlying genetic causes^[11]. Familial cases of SPS have been reported^[19,26]. Although the genetic basis of SPS remains unknown, both recessive and dominant transmission patterns have been proposed^[19,23,26]. Young *et al.*^[27] provided evidence for a syndrome of familial CRC distinct from hereditary nonpolyposis colorectal cancer by describing 11 families, of which 6 met the Amsterdam I criteria, with multiple members across several generations with CRC with variable MSI phenotype, *BRAF* mutation in 70% and hypermethylation of *MINT31* in 80%. Moreover CRCs showed early age at diagnosis and were more likely to show a serrated architecture. Frazier *et al.*^[28] observed that patients whose CRC show methylation in *p16*, *MINT1*, *MINT31* and *MLH1* are 14 times more likely to have a family history of cancer than patients with methylation at none of the four loci. Taking into account these studies and the fact that extensive DNA methylation in normal colorectal mucosa has been described in patients with SPS^[19,29,30], it has been postulated that the hypermethylation of gene promoters is due to genetic predisposition^[23].

On the other hand, patients meeting criteria for hereditary nonpolyposis colorectal cancer may also fulfil criteria of SPS^[31]. Occasional HPs have also been described in MYH-associated polyposis (MAP) patients and some of them met the criteria for SPS. Moreover HPs and SSAs can also be considered a phenotypic expression of MAP^[32] and pathogenic biallelic *MYH* mutations were detected in 1 patient with SPS^[9]. For that reason *MYH* mutations should be studied in SPS patients, especially when adenomas occur simultaneously with HPs in the same patient^[9]. *PTEN* mutations have also been identified in patients with a combination of hyperplastic and adenomatous polyps^[33].

A recent study from Roberts *et al.*^[34] has showed linkage to 2q32.2-q33.3 in approximately half of the SPS families studied. Sequencing of coding regions and exon-intron boundaries of five potential candidate genes in this region did not reveal any variants segregating with disease.

Together these data support the existence of more than one genetic cause of SPS. Identification of the underlying genetic defect of SPS will help to improve management of these patients and may identify therapeutic targets for the treatment of CRC associated with this disease.

Risk of cancer in serrated polyposis syndrome

Serrated polyposis syndrome has been associated with an increased incidence of CRC. In the published series^[7,9,10,12,13], about 25%-70% of patients with SPS had CRC at time of diagnosis or during follow-up. In the largest series with patients meeting WHO criteria for SPS^[7], 35% of patients had CRC (28.5% at initial endoscopy and 6.5% during the mean follow-up of 5.6 years). In this study, increased number of polyps and the presence of serrated adenomas were associated with CRC. The results of the larger published series are summarized in Table 2. In addition, first degree relatives of SPS patients have an increased risk for both CRC and SPS compared to the general population^[14].

Recommendations for treatment and surveillance

The management of patients with SPS should be based on regular screening colonoscopies in order to remove potential premalignant lesions. It is important to point out that it could be difficult to detect these serrated polyps and colonoscopy should be done under high quality conditions (Figure 2). Serrated polyps are less likely than adenomas to bleed, so fecal occult blood test could be less suitable for an early diagnosis. Surveillance recommendations can be done as follows^[4]: (1) Colonoscopy with pancolonoscopic chromoendoscopy every 1-2 years with removal of all polyps. It is recommended that this resection be performed at a tertiary centre, if possible; (2) If colonoscopy does not allow the total control of colonic polyps because of their size or number or the patient does not wish to have such frequent colonoscopies or cancer is detected, colectomy with ileorectal anastomosis should be indicated; and (3) First-degree relatives should be offered 1-2 years screening colonoscopy from 10 years younger than the index case and if it is possible by pancolonoscopic chromoendoscopy.

Pedunculated polyps can be removed by conventional electrocautery snare polypectomy. The technique of choice for removal of flat and large HPs is endoscopic mucosal resection. Besides, it may be advisable to apply argon plasma coagulation in the lesion borders in order to reduce the risk of recurrence^[35].

SERRATED PATHWAY OF CARCINOGENESIS

In 1999, Iino *et al.*^[36] suggested that a proportion of

hyperplastic polyps may serve as precursors of some CRC cases. Now, there is increasing evidence showing that, in some conditions, hyperplastic polyps can be the initial premalignant lesion in the serrated pathway of carcinogenesis. Some studies have reported the existence of *BRAF* mutations in sporadic MSI CRCs which show CIMP^[21,23,27,37-41] suggesting the existence of this alternative pathway. *BRAF* mutations and DNA methylation would be early events in this pathway with serrated polyps as precursor lesions^[4,21,27,41]. The lack of adenoma-specific mutations such as *APC*, *KRAS* and *TP53* in sporadic MSI CRCs, and the fact that *BRAF* mutation and methylation of CpG islands are exceptional in classic adenomas^[42] supports the existence of this pathway^[43]. Tumors following this pathway show some specific characteristics, being more frequent in females and located in the right colon^[4]. Moreover, some preliminary studies suggest that these tumors could be unresponsive to 5-fluorouracil chemotherapy^[44].

Molecular characteristics of serrated polyps

As mentioned above, *BRAF* mutations and DNA methylation would be early events in this pathway. In fact, epigenetic changes in normal mucosa in patients with SPS have been described^[29]. The first role of *BRAF* in the serrated pathway is probably to allow the apoptosis evasion^[21,45]. Then, under normal conditions, these cells are eliminated by regular senescence. However, the silencing of key cell cycle regulatory genes such as *p16*, *IGFBP7* or *p53* through promoter methylation allows the cell to escape from senescence^[4], facilitating its proliferation (Figure 1). When cells acquire other mutations, activated *BRAF* itself could also drive proliferation^[21] and facilitate the maintenance of an invasive phenotype^[45]. *BRAF* mutation has even been observed in serrated hyperplastic aberrant crypt foci, suggesting that these lesions are probably the earliest histological evident lesions in the serrated pathway^[4,46].

There are several lines of evidence suggesting the existence of two parallel serrated pathways depending on the oncogene involved: *BRAF* or *KRAS* (Figure 1). The serrated pathway that involves *BRAF* mutations usually leads to CIMP tumors^[4,29,43,47] and tumors are located in the proximal colon^[38,47,48]. These tumors will be MSI or microsatellite stable (MSS) depending on the involvement of *MLH1*. As has been already stated, SSA seems to be the precursor lesion in the *BRAF* serrated pathway. In contrast, serrated tumors with *KRAS* mutations are more frequently MSI-low or MSS and are frequently associated with *MGMT* silencing^[47,49]. These tumors are predominantly located in the left colorectum^[4,29,47,48]. Differently, traditional sessile adenomas (TSA) would be the intermediate lesion in the *KRAS* serrated pathway.

CpG island methylator phenotype in colorectal cancer

CpG islands are 0.5- to 2-kb regions rich in cytosine guanine dinucleotides and are present in the 5' region of approximately 50% of human genes^[21,29]. CIMP is

characterized by methylation of CpG islands within the promoter regions of multiple genes resulting in the silencing of gene expression^[18,21,29,45]. It might be assumed that methylation of CpG islands in most cancers arises stochastically^[18,23,50]. This phenomenon can alter the expression of genes which are known to be important in neoplastic development, such as *p16*, *MGMT*, and the mismatch repair gene *MLH1*. However, the role of some genes affected by hypermethylation is not associated with colorectal carcinogenesis suggesting that not all de novo events are subject to growth selection. Taking into account that particular sequence motifs are significantly overrepresented among promoters vulnerable to CIMP, it is not surprising that some CpG islands are more likely to undergo hypermethylation than others^[23]. The balance between DNA methyltransferases and the transcriptional machinery will determine the extent of methylation. Moreover, an active transcription may provide protection from de novo methylation^[50]. The CIMP pathway is heterogeneous with respect to MSI status^[27] and appears to be responsible for approximately 30% of all sporadic CRC^[27,39].

There are different studies showing that a high proportion of polyps in SPS are CIMP+^[18,29]. Chan *et al*^[29] also observed that 75% of serrated polyps from patients with SPS showed CIMP frequently and had methylation of the *p16* gene. Moreover, extensive DNA methylation in normal colorectal mucosa has been described in patients with SPS^[19,29,30], suggesting a field defect in epigenetic regulation and, consequently, a possible underlying genetic predisposition to extensive and early onset of DNA methylation. Furthermore, this phenomenon would be associated with a predisposition to CRC that would arise through the serrated pathway^[51].

Endoscopic characteristics of serrated polyps

Serrated and hyperplastic polyps present endoscopic features that could help to differentiate them from adenomatous polyps. HPs appear pale, glistening, and very similar to the surrounding mucosa and usually covered by mucus. The vascular network is weak, in contrast to that of hypervascular adenomas. In addition, serrated polyps, mainly SSAs, are typically sessile or flat, making their detection even more difficult^[48] (Figures 2 and 3, panels A and B). Since the malignant potential of these lesions, particularly in the context of SPS, has been shown, early endoscopic detection becomes more important. In this regard, the new advanced endoscopic techniques such as chromoendoscopy and narrow-band imaging (NBI) (Figure 3, panels C and D) become significant.

Chromoendoscopy in the SPS should be carried out by spraying contrast over the entire surface of the colon and using a magnification endoscope. The most widely used contrast is indigo carmine, which accumulates in pits and innominate grooves of the colonic mucosa, outlining the limits of flat lesions and drawing the described Kudo patterns^[52]. Hyperplastic and serrated polyps typically show Kudo type I (normal) or type II ("stellate" or

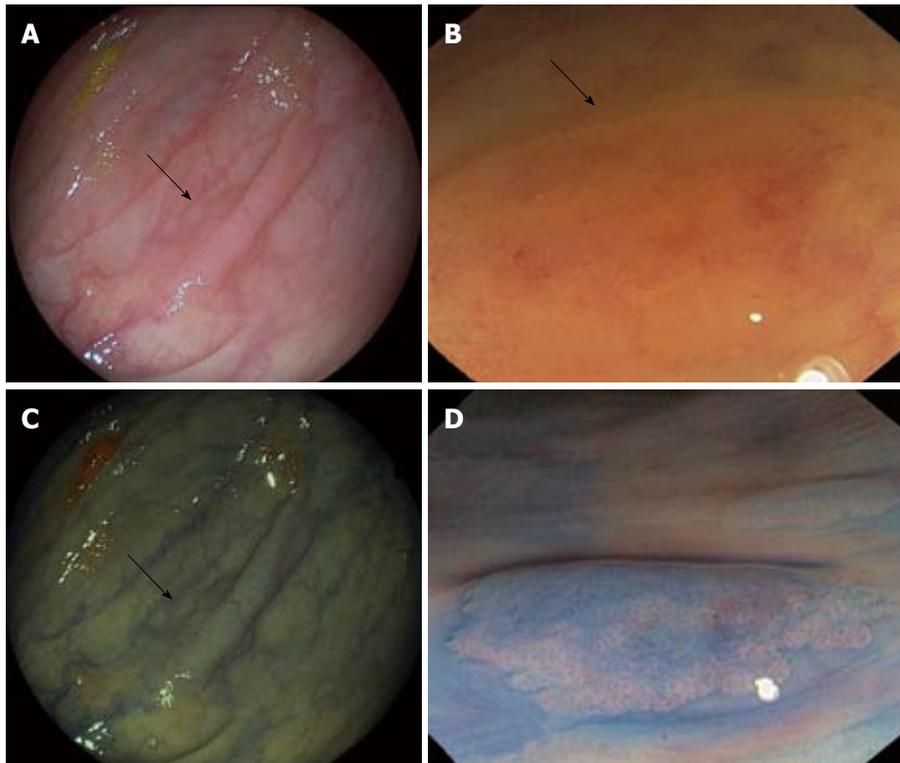


Figure 3 Endoscopic appearance of serrated polyps. A and B: Sessile serrated adenoma (SSA) (arrows) as flat polyp on conventional optical colonoscopy; C: Narrow-band imaging appearance of polyp (arrow) seen in panel A; D: Chromoendoscopy image of SSA revealing Kudo II pattern (Images courtesy of Dr. Adolfo Parra, Hospital Central de Asturias, Oviedo, Spain).

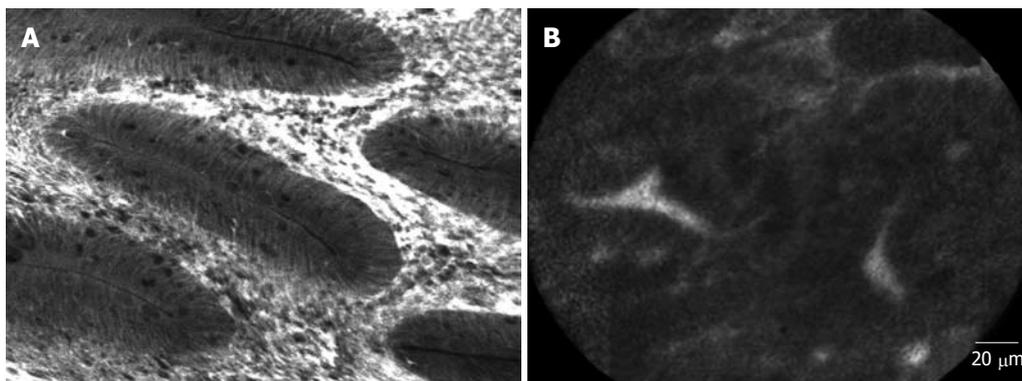


Figure 4 Confocal endomicroscopy of (A) tubular adenoma, low-grade dysplasia and (B) serrated polyp. Both types of polyps show different shape as well as differences in the cellular structures (Images courtesy of Dr. Maria Pellisé, Hospital Clinic, Barcelona, Spain).

“papillary”) (Figure 3, panel D). Published randomized trials have shown that pancolonic chromoendoscopy almost doubles the rate of detection of sporadic serrated polyps compared to conventional endoscopy^[53-56]. In these studies, HPs were found in 20% of patients using chromoendoscopy *vs* 10% of patients with conventional endoscopy, and this difference was statistically significant. New endoscopic technologies, such as NBI and confocal laser endomicroscopy (CLE) should also be taken into consideration (Figure 4).

It is accepted that the vascular pattern evaluation by chromoendoscopy or NBI could be an appropriate method to differentiate adenomas from HPs^[57,58], but it has not been specifically studied in the SPS. In this way, Boparai *et al.*^[59] ran a prospective series including 7 patients with SPS who underwent a colonoscopy with trimodal imaging (high resolution, AFI and NBI): they obtained an unsatisfactory diagnostic accuracy for differentiate between HPs and SSAs but distinguishing adeno-

mas from HPs was possible with NBI (accuracy 94%). Highest accuracy (76%) was achieved by the combination of a size of 3 mm or larger and a proximal location. Comparing CLE with virtual chromoendoscopy, it was shown that CLE demonstrated higher sensitivity (91% *vs* 77%; $P = 0.010$) with similar specificity in histological classification of colorectal polyps. However, further studies are needed to implement the CLE in clinical practice. The limited field of view and the horizontal sections of CLE hinder the detection of architectural distortion of sessile polyps (Figure 4).

Pathological characteristics of serrated polyps

Confirmation of the serrated character of polyps can only be made by pathological study. Serrated polyps are defined as epithelial lesions that show serrated appearance on histological section due to infolding of crypt epithelium. There are different types of serrated polyps (Table 3). HPs, considered for a long time as a benign and non-

Polyp name	Alternative terminology	Morphology and significance	Predominant location	Molecular features
Hyperplastic polyp, goblet type	Type 1 hyperplastic polyp	Subtype of hyperplastic polyp with conspicuous goblet cells and showing the least morphologic deviation from normal; Described as goblet-cell rich type	Distal colon: Sigmoid and rectum	Frequent <i>KRAS</i> mutation (54%)
Hyperplastic polyp, microvesicular type	Type 2 hyperplastic polyp	Variant of hyperplastic polyp in which columnar cells have mucin-filled vesicles within the apical cytoplasm and goblet cells are relatively inconspicuous	Right colon and distal colon	Frequent <i>BRAF</i> mutation (76%) and CIMP (68%)
Sessile serrated adenoma	Sessile serrated polyp; Serrated polyp with atypical proliferation	Advanced type of serrated polyp with abnormalities of architecture and proliferation but lacking the classic features of epithelial dysplasia (intraepithelial neoplasia)	Right colon	Frequent <i>BRAF</i> mutation (75%-82%) and CIMP (92%)
Sessile serrated adenoma with cytological dysplasia	Mixed polyp	Rare serrated polyp that includes two separate components: Nondysplastic (usually SSA) and either traditional adenoma or serrated adenoma	Right and left colon	Frequent <i>BRAF</i> mutation, (89%)
Serrated adenoma	Mixed hyperplastic adenomatous polyp; Atypical hyperplastic polyp; TSA	Relatively rare neoplastic polyp having a serrated architecture reminiscent of hyperplastic polyp but with unequivocal traditional adenomatous dysplasia; Comprises < 5% of serrated polyps	Left colon	Marked molecular heterogeneity; May have either <i>KRAS</i> or <i>BRAF</i> mutation

SSA: Sessile serrated adenoma; TSA: Traditional serrated adenoma; CIMP: CpG island methylator phenotype.

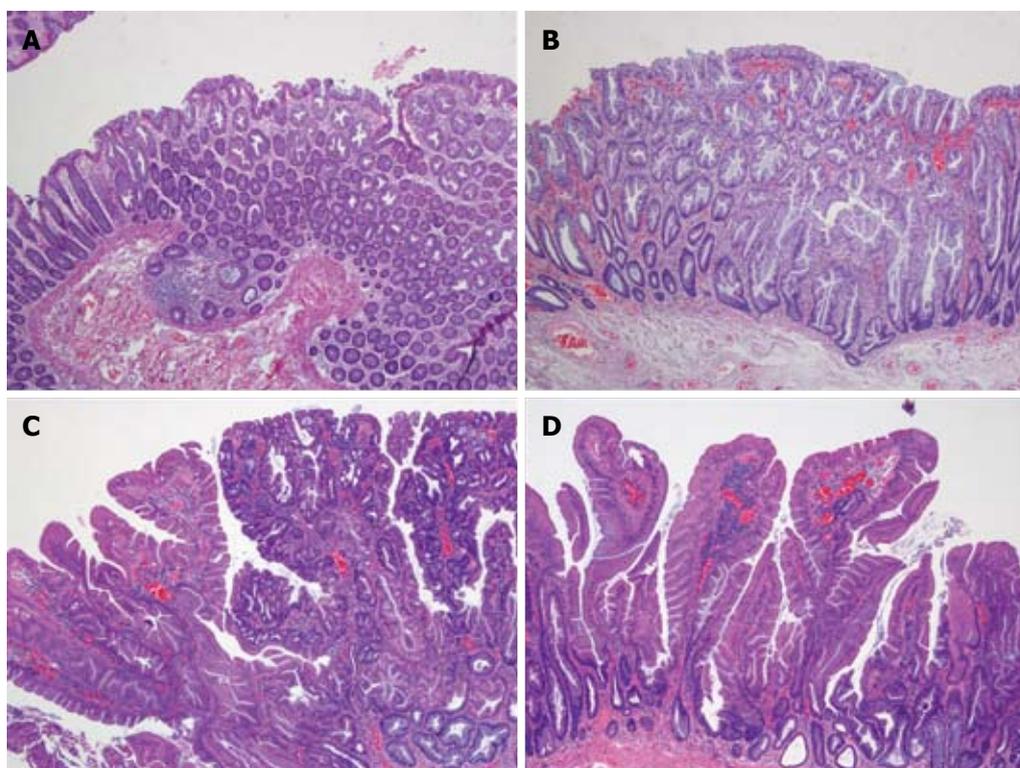


Figure 5 Pathological types of serrated polyps. A: Microvesicular serrated polyp; B: Sessile serrated adenomas; C: Traditional serrated adenoma; D: Mixed polyp.

pre-malignant colorectal lesion, SSA, mixed polyps (MP), and TSA are included in this group^[4,48,60,61] (Figure 5).

HPs are the most common colorectal polyps. Sporadic HPs are usually small (2-5 mm)^[10], multiple and mainly distributed in the rectum and sigmoid colon^[10,47]. HPs have been divided into two main histological subtypes: microvesicular serrated polyps (MVSPs) (Figure 5, panel A), in which columnar cells have mucin-filled vesicles within atypical cytoplasm, and goblet cell serrated polyps (GCSPs) with conspicuous goblet cells that are predominantly found in the distal colon^[4,23,47]. MVSPs seem to be the precursor lesion of SSA, especially when located in the right colon. In fact, both have the same molecular

genetic abnormalities such as mutations in *BRAF* and CIMP. MVSPs show large and regular stellate pit openings. However, the large GCSPs are likely to have *KRAS* mutation, which is infrequently found in SSA. There is some evidence that large GCSPs are potential precursors of dysplastic serrated polyps which show *KRAS* mutations^[47,61,62]. A third type of HP has been added, mucin poor type, but its frequency and importance is lower than the two main HP types^[6].

SSA is an atypical HP variant described by Torlakovic and Snover in 1996^[63]. SSAs are larger than (usually greater than 1 cm) HPs and more frequently located in the right colon^[10]. Histologically, SSAs are distinguished from

typical HPs by the presence of inverted T- or L-shaped crypt bases that reflect disordered proliferation (Figure 5, panel B). Other features include dilated crypts and serration extending into the lower third of the crypt. Focal nuclear stratification, mild nuclear atypia, or dystrophic goblet cells may be seen in the crypt bases^[47,60,61]. Moreover, SSAs show increased mucin production, absence of enteroendocrine cells, and absence of a thickened basement membrane under the surface^[43]. Other less common features include small foci of pseudostratification and eosinophilic change (identical to that seen in TSAs) of the surface epithelium. Small prominent nucleoli, open chromatin, and irregular nuclear contours also might be present, along with mitoses in the upper third of the crypts or on the surface itself^[61]. SSAs are thought to represent approximately 2% of all colonoscopically removed polyps, over 8% of all polyps that were previously diagnosed as HPs and around 18% of all serrated polyps^[60].

MP, also called SSA with cytological dysplasia include two separate hyperplastic and adenomatous components (Figure 5, panel C)^[21,23]. One component is usually SSA (nondysplastic) whereas the second dysplastic component is either adenoma or TSA.

TSAs, usually present on distal location, are dysplastic serrated polyps which lack SSA patterns and more closely resemble conventional adenoma with tubulovillous architecture (Figure 5, panel D)^[4,24,47,60]. Ectopic crypt formation, defined by the presence of crypts with bases not seated adjacent to the muscularis mucosae, is a feature that makes it possible to distinguish between TSAs and SSAs^[4]. Columnar cells from the epithelium show eosinophilic cytoplasm, centrally placed elongated nuclei that are hyperchromatic and display pseudostratification^[46].

There is no strong morphological evidence suggesting that SSAs are the precursor of TSAs, otherwise there are some histological and epidemiologic differences for keeping these lesions apart in different categories^[4,61]. SSAs have been associated with proximal CRCs, high level of CIMP, *BRAF* mutations and MSI-high^[47,48]. TSAs have been associated with distal location and MSS, CIMP-low CRCs with *KRAS* mutations^[48]. SSAs, TSAs and MPs are described as “advanced serrated polyps” and represent approximately 5%-15% of all serrated polyps found in colonoscopy patients^[23].

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Advances in the knowledge about the serrated pathway of carcinogenesis are making it possible to differentiate a new type of CRC with different natural history, prognosis and response to chemotherapy treatment. For this reason it is important to be able to easily identify this kind of colorectal tumor and its precursors. Identification of molecular markers in both polyps and cancers that follow this pathway will provide the opportunity of a better understanding of how these tumours grow and how we could explain differences in clinical presentation, evolution and symptoms in different types of CRC. These molecular markers will also allow improvement

in the identification of patients with serrated polyposis, moving forward the currently used clinical criteria, and will give us better rationale for appropriate management and surveillance intervals for patients and their relatives.

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Globus pharyngeus: A review of its etiology, diagnosis and treatment

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nometry should be considered. Speech and language therapy, anti-depressants, and cognitive-behavioral therapy can be helpful in patients whose symptoms persist despite negative investigations.

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Key words: Diagnosis; Gastroesophageal reflux disease; Globus; Proton pump inhibitor; Treatment

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Abstract

Globus is a persistent or intermittent non-painful sensation of a lump or foreign body in the throat. It is a commonly encountered clinical condition that is usually long-lasting, difficult to treat, and has a tendency to recur. Furthermore, due to the uncertain etiology of globus, it remains difficult to establish standard investigation and treatment strategies for affected patients. As a first step for managing globus, careful history taking and nasolaryngoscopy are essential. Given the benign nature of the condition and the recent notion that gastroesophageal reflux disease is a major cause of globus, empirical therapy with a high dose of proton pump inhibitors is reasonable for patients with typical globus. If patients are nonresponsive to this therapy, definitive assessments such as endoscopy, multichannel intraluminal impedance/pH monitoring, and ma-

INTRODUCTION

Globus, a persistent or intermittent non-painful sensation of a lump or foreign body in the throat, is a well-defined clinical symptom that is usually long-lasting, difficult to treat, and has a tendency to recur. This symptom frequently improves with eating and is generally unaccompanied by dysphagia or odynophagia^[1]. It is a common condition that accounts for approximately 4% of new referrals to ear, nose and throat (ENT) clinics, and it is reported by up to 46% of apparently healthy individuals, with a peak incidence in middle age^[2,3]. This condition is equally prevalent in men and women, though the latter are more likely to seek health care for

this symptom^[4].

Hippocrates first noted globus pharyngeus approximately 2500 years ago^[5]. In 1707, Purcell^[6] was the first to accurately describe the condition; he believed that globus resulted from pressure on the thyroid cartilage due to contraction of the strap muscles of the neck. In the past, globus was described as “globus hystericus” because of its frequent association with menopause or psychogenic factors. However, Malcomson^[7] coined the more accurate term “globus pharyngeus” in 1968 after discovering that most patients experiencing globus did not have a hysterical personality. The etiology of globus is still unknown but appears to be multifactorial (Table 1). Although data are limited, recent studies have focused on gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD), abnormalities of the upper esophageal sphincter (UES), psychological and psychiatric disorders, and stress as major factors contributing to the globus sensation. The variety of potential etiologies has made it difficult to establish standard investigation and treatment strategies for affected patients.

The aim of this review is to present the current literature on globus and to discuss its natural history and potential causes, current trends in its diagnosis, and methods for its treatment.

NATURAL HISTORY

Since few long-term follow-up studies have been conducted on patients with globus, the natural history of this condition has not been fully elucidated. In one study that followed 74 globus patients for an average of 7 years and 7 mo, 45% of the patients had persistent symptoms during the follow-up period^[8]. An in-depth analysis of the features at clinical presentation failed to reveal any reliable prognostic indicators. In another long-term follow-up study, 60% of the patients had improved or resolved symptoms over a 5-year period, and the male patients with a history of globus less than 3 mo and who did not complain of any associated throat symptoms were reported to have the greatest chance of becoming asymptomatic or symptomatically improved^[9].

POTENTIAL CAUSES OF GLOBUS

Gastroesophageal reflux disease

Although there is still considerable debate about the causative role of GERD in patients with globus, gastroesophageal reflux (GER) has been suggested to be a major etiology of this symptom, potentially accounting for 23%-68% of globus patients^[10-18].

Malcomson^[7] was the first to link GERD to the globus sensation through the use of barium swallow to uncover the presence of reflux in over 60% of patients with globus. Moreover, Koufman^[16] found that 58% of patients with globus had abnormal pH results, and Cherry *et al.*^[19] demonstrated that 10 out of 12 subjects complained of globus when acid was infused into the

Table 1 Potential cause of globus

Gastroesophageal reflux disease
Abnormal upper esophageal sphincter function
Esophageal motor disorders
Pharyngeal inflammatory causes including: pharyngitis, tonsillitis and chronic sinusitis
Upper aerodigestive malignancy
Hypertrophy of the base of the tongue
Retroverted epiglottis
Thyroid diseases
Cervical heterotopic gastric mucosa
Rare laryngopharyngeal tumors
Psychological factors and stress

distal esophagus. In a study that performed 24-h double-probe pH monitoring on 25 patients with globus and hoarseness, 72% of the patients exhibited pathologic reflux^[20], and the globus symptom score was significantly higher in patients with GERD than in those without^[21]. Additionally, globus sensation improved after 8 wk of proton pump inhibitor (PPI) therapy^[22]. Several population-based surveys have supported such a potential link between GERD and the globus symptom by demonstrating an increased risk of globus among patients with GERD symptoms^[23-25]. In a study by Dore *et al.*^[26], 38.7% of patients with GERD had the globus symptom, and the globus sensation was more prevalent in the non-erosive reflux disease group. Discordant data have also been reported^[4,27-31]. However, it is clear that many patients with globus have concomitant GERD and that there is a true association between GERD and globus.

Two basic mechanisms have been proposed to explain the association between GERD and the globus sensation^[14,32,33]: (1) Direct irritation and inflammation of the laryngopharynx by retrograde flow of gastric contents, also known as laryngopharyngeal reflux (LPR)^[15,16,34]; (2) Vagovagal reflex hypertonicity of the UES triggered by acidification or distention of the distal esophagus^[18].

Abnormal upper esophageal sphincter function

Abnormal UES function has also been suggested to be a cause of globus sensation^[20,35-38]. Elevated UES pressure has been found to be much more frequent in patients with globus sensation than in controls (28% *vs* 3%), suggesting that hypertensive UES is a background factor for globus^[30]. Additionally, injection of botulinum toxin into the cricopharyngeal muscle in a patient with both globus and extremely high UES pressure led to a resolution of the globus symptom and a decrease in UES pressure^[35]. In a study of high-resolution manometry in patients with globus sensation, normal controls, and GERD patients without globus, hyperdynamic respiratory UES pressure changes were most prevalent in patients reporting globus^[38]. However, other studies have reported contrary results^[39-41].

Esophageal motor disorders

The prevalence of esophageal motor disorders has been

reported to be 6%-90% in patients with globus, suggesting that esophageal motor disorders are a possible cause of, or a contributing factor in the development of globus^[27,28,31,42]. Esophageal manometry has revealed abnormalities in as many as 67% of globus patients, with nonspecific esophageal motility disorder being the most frequent finding^[31]. Moser *et al*^[43] noted that esophageal motor disorders might, before giving rise to dysphagia, be sensed more vaguely and induce the globus sensation. However, to infer an etiological significance of this disorder in globus, it must be shown that the sensation resolves after treatment for the motor disorder.

Pharyngeal inflammatory causes

Many conditions that cause irritation and inflammation of the pharynx, such as pharyngitis, tonsillitis, and chronic sinusitis with postnasal drip, can be the cause of globus sensation by producing increased local sensitivity^[28,44].

Upper aerodigestive tract malignancy

The presence of pharyngolaryngeal or upper esophageal malignancy must be excluded in patients with globus sensation, particularly in cases with "high risk" symptoms, such as weight loss, dysphagia, throat pain, and lateralization of pathology^[5,45].

Hypertrophy of the tongue base

Globus can be induced by severe hypertrophy of the tongue base, probably due to the follicles touching the posterior wall of the pharynx. Mamede *et al*^[46] demonstrated that hypertrophied follicles were frequent in patients with signs and symptoms of GER and that the symptoms of hypertrophy of the tongue base could be confused with those of GER.

Retroverted epiglottitis

Through contact with the tongue base or the posterior pharyngeal wall, retroverted epiglottitis may cause globus sensation. Symptom relief has been observed after partial epiglottectomy^[47,48].

Thyroid diseases

Impalpable, ultrasound-detectable abnormalities in the thyroid are known to be more common in patients with globus sensation than in controls^[32]. Burns *et al*^[49] noted that as many as one-third of patients with a thyroid mass complained of globus-like symptoms. Post-thyroidectomy patients may also complain of globus pattern symptoms, but these frequently diminish with time. Although the exact mechanism of the association between globus and thyroid diseases is poorly understood, some reports have concluded that a thyroidectomy could improve the globus symptom^[49-51].

Cervical heterotopic gastric mucosa

Globus sensation has also been linked to the presence of cervical heterotopic gastric mucosa (CHGM)^[52-54],

and acid secretion from CHGM appears to cause symptoms similar to those of GERD, including globus sensation. Patients with CHGM who complained of globus sensation and/or sore throat experienced a significant decrease in their symptoms after argon plasma ablation of CHGM^[55,56]. Recently, it has been suggested that the globus symptom may be related to *Helicobacter pylori* infection of the CHGM^[57].

Rare tumors

Smooth muscle tumors of the pharynx and post cricoid lymphangioma, as well as oropharyngeal metastasis of Merkel cell carcinoma, have been reported in patients complaining of globus^[58-60]. These cases illustrate that patients with persistent globus should be further investigated to exclude rare lesions^[32].

Psychological factors and stress

Psychogenic problems have often been thought to cause or trigger the globus sensation. Personality studies have found higher levels of alexithymia, neuroticism, and psychological distress (including anxiety, low mood, and somatic concerns) and lower levels of extraversion in patients presenting with globus^[61,62]. In addition, several studies have reported increased numbers of stressful life events preceding symptom onset, suggesting that life stress might be a cofactor in symptom genesis and in exacerbation. Indeed, up to 96% of patients with globus report symptom exacerbation during periods of high emotional intensity^[63,64]. However, some reports have found no differences in the psychological states of patients with globus compared to normal controls^[4,10,65]. In actuality, psychiatric diagnoses are prevalent in subjects seeking health care for globus, but an explanation distinct from ascertainment bias has not been established, causing the etiological significance of these psychological characteristics to remain uncertain^[1,65]. Two recent studies reported that psychological status might be different between LPR-positive and LPR-negative patients with globus^[15,66]. Globus patients with LPR exhibited weaker psychological symptoms than non-LPR globus patients^[15], and globus patients who did not respond to PPI had significantly higher anxiety scores^[66].

Others

There have been numerous isolated case reports that have suggested an association of globus with cervical osteophytes^[67], temporomandibular joint disorders^[68], hyperviscosity of the nasopharyngeal mucosa^[69], Eagle's syndrome^[70], excessive laryngeal and pharyngeal tension^[61], and salivary hypofunction^[33].

DIAGNOSIS

There has been no consensus regarding how best to diagnose and manage globus. A study of United Kingdom-based ENT specialists found that 14% performed no

tests on globus patients but rather simply prescribed anti-acid medication if clinically indicated^[71]. The remaining 86% investigated globus symptoms in a variety of ways, including rigid endoscopy (61%), barium swallow (56%), or a combination of these methods (17.5%).

Since globus is essentially a benign disorder, investigation is primarily aimed at identifying those few cases with upper aerodigestive malignancy. Thus, the first step of an investigation of globus symptoms should be to take a detailed patient history, paying particular attention to the presence of “high risk” symptoms, associated reflux symptoms, and psychological problems. Additionally, physicians should perform a physical examination of the neck followed by nasolaryngoscopic examination of the laryngopharynx, although the routine use of nasolaryngoscopy in patients with typical globus symptoms remains controversial^[1]. Patients with typical globus symptoms usually require no further investigation beyond an outpatient nasolaryngoscopy^[5]. However, patients with “alarm signs”, such as dysphagia, odynophagia, throat pain, weight loss, hoarseness, and lateralization of pathology, should undergo more extensive evaluation^[1].

Reflux symptom index and reflux finding score

The symptoms and physical findings of LPR are nonspecific and can be confused with other laryngeal conditions caused by smoking, allergies, infections, vocal abuse, postnasal discharge, or neurogenic mechanisms as well as non-pathological variations^[72]. Belafsky *et al*^[73,74] proposed a useful self-administered tool, the reflux symptom index (RSI), for assessing the degree of LPR symptoms and developed the reflux finding score (RFS) based on 8 endolaryngeal signs for documenting the physical findings and severity of LPR. However, Park *et al*^[15] demonstrated that RFS and RSI have low specificity in globus patients, suggesting that these may not be valid diagnostic tools for LPR in patients with globus.

Barium swallow

Barium swallow studies have been reported to identify benign lesions in up to one-third of patients with globus, and the most common findings include hiatal hernia and/or reflux (8%-18%), cervical osteophytes (0.4%-23%), and cricopharyngeal spasm (2.2%)^[27,29,75,76]. However, given the prevalence of these findings in the general population, it is difficult to link these disorders to globus^[45]. Two studies demonstrated that barium swallow did not identify any malignancy in typical globus patients^[5,29]. Additionally, no pharyngeal or esophageal malignancy was found in a study that reviewed 1145 barium swallows in patients presenting with globus, prompting the authors to conclude that barium swallow should not be systematically requested for the exclusion of malignancies in patients with globus^[77]. Thus, this test seems to have limited diagnostic value in the investigation of patients with globus.

Videofluoroscopy

Of 23 globus patients who received videofluoroscopy, 8 patients showed abnormal results; 5 had laryngeal aspiration, 2 had barium stasis in the vallecula and pyriform sinuses, and 4 had poor pharyngeal elevation^[78]. Although it is unlikely that this indicates a causal relationship, videofluoroscopy may help to identify pharyngeal dysfunction in a substantial proportion of globus patients.

24-h dual-probe ambulatory pH monitoring

Whereas dual-probe ambulatory pH monitoring has been widely used in the clinical assessment of supraesophageal GERD, this technology is not yet standardized, and its usefulness in the definition of a clinically relevant association with GERD is under debate. This technique has been used to show abnormal esophageal acid exposure in some globus patients^[4,11]. However, reflux symptoms such as acid regurgitation and/or heartburn were also noted in these study populations. In a study of globus patients without reflux-like symptoms, all 24 focal individuals had normal dual-probe pH results^[78]. Therefore, ambulatory pH monitoring seems to be less helpful for the evaluation of globus without reflux-like symptoms.

24-h multichannel intraluminal impedance monitoring

The results from several trials indicate that the best way to detect GER in patients with extraesophageal manifestations of GERD is to conduct multichannel intraluminal impedance (MII)/pH monitoring. In patients experiencing persistent globus during PPI therapy, MII/pH monitoring increased the diagnostic yield of standard pH testing in the identification of positive symptom indices through the detection of nonacid reflux; furthermore, proximal reflux was a significant predictor of the globus symptom^[79]. In studies investigating the utility of MII/pH monitoring in patients displaying atypical symptoms while “off PPI”, MII/pH monitoring increased the diagnostic yield for objective detection of atypical manifestations of GERD^[80-82]. Thus, this technique appears to be a more promising method of obtaining reliable data for the detection of LPR than 24-h dual probe monitoring, as it can monitor acid as well as nonacid reflux events and can distinguish between liquid and gaseous events. Therefore, MII/pH monitoring appears to be useful for ruling out GERD and for redirecting management of patients with suspected extraesophageal manifestations of GERD.

Flexible esophagogastrosocopy

Endoscopy has been shown to be superior to barium swallow as a principal means of diagnosing upper aerodigestive tract malignancy^[83]. Excellent views of the pyriform fossa and the postcricoid area can be achieved by insufflating air *via* flexible esophagogastrosocopy^[75]. Moreover, this procedure enables full esophageal evalu-

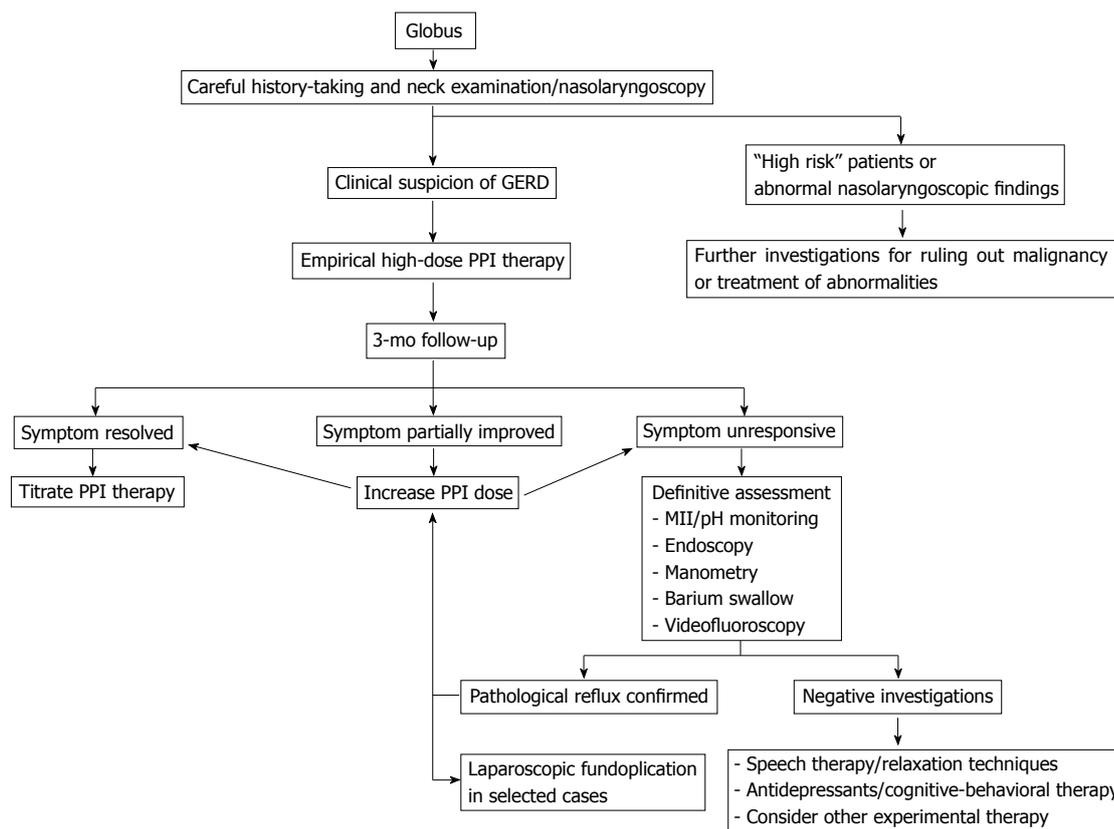


Figure 1 Algorithm for management of globus. GERD: Gastroesophageal reflux disease; PPI: Proton pump inhibitor; MII: Multichannel intraluminal impedance.

ation and diagnosis of reflux esophagitis and/or upper esophageal malignancy as a cause of globus. However, in general, endoscopy is known to have low sensitivity and to be of limited value for the diagnosis of extra-esophageal GERD. A study of 58 patients with pH-documented LPR found that only 19% had esophagitis or Barrett's metaplasia^[84]. In another study of patients with suspected LPR symptoms, esophagitis was generally prevalent^[85] but occurred least in patients with globus and throat symptoms. Due to the association between globus and CGHM, it is necessary to carefully evaluate the cervical esophagus^[54].

Manometry

If abnormal UES function and esophageal motor disorder are suspected to be the potential cause of globus, manometry is a useful tool for assessing UES and lower esophageal sphincter pressure, esophageal body contraction amplitude, and peristaltic sequence. However, the etiological significance of such a disorder is difficult to define.

TREATMENT

A suggested algorithm for the management of globus patients based on available evidence is shown in Figure 1. Since there is a paucity of controlled studies on the treatment of globus, evidence-based treatment concepts are currently not available, and a review of the litera-

ture reveals that there is no single effective treatment. Given the benign nature of the condition, the likelihood of long-term symptom persistence, and the absence of highly effective pharmacotherapy, the mainstays of treatment are explanation and reassurance^[1]. Other established treatment options include anti-reflux therapy, speech and language therapy, anti-depressants, and cognitive-behavioral therapy^[86].

Anti-reflux treatment

Since GER has been suggested to be a major cause of globus^[10-18], it seems practical that anti-reflux treatment should be the first attempted method for managing patients with globus. As diagnostic tests for GERD are somewhat invasive and costly and because a negative study result does not definitively rule out GER, it seems reasonable to use empirical PPI therapy as a combined method of diagnosis and treatment^[87-92]. Although there are no controlled trials looking at the role of PPIs specifically for the treatment of globus, there is a variety of literature addressing the role of PPIs in LPR management^[34,91,93-95]. Current evidence shows that the clinical response to PPIs in LPRD is variable^[96,97] and that LPR symptoms improve more slowly than esophageal symptoms following acid-suppression therapy^[98]. It is now widely accepted that extraesophageal GERD requires more aggressive and more prolonged therapy than typical GERD^[32]. Empirical twice-daily therapy with PPIs for at least 3 mo is recommended; this can be extended

for a maximum period of 6 mo^[87-92,99-102]. A PPI should be taken 30-60 min before meals so that it has reached its highest concentration by the time food intake stimulates the proton pumps. After 3-6 mo, responders can be weaned, whereas non-responders should undergo a definitive assessment, such as endoscopy, pH monitoring, or MII/pH monitoring. If available, MII/pH monitoring is preferable to simple pH monitoring because it facilitates the detection of nonacid reflux. Nocturnal acid breakthrough (NAB) may cause incomplete treatment response^[103,104]. The addition of h.s. histamine-2 receptor antagonists to twice-daily PPI therapy has been suggested to control NAB^[103], but it is currently unclear whether this method offers any additional benefit to the long-term control of LPRD^[105,106]. Prokinetics are utilized when it is necessary to speed up esophageal and gastric emptying; they can be useful when the clinical response to PPIs is unsatisfactory^[106]. Diet and behavioral modification can also decrease the amount of reflux. Recommended dietary modifications include a reduction in the intake of chocolate, fats, citrus fruits, carbonated beverages, spicy tomato-based products, red wines, caffeine, and late-night meals. Additionally, patients should make more general behavioral modifications, including exercising regularly, avoiding smoking and alcohol, elevating the head of the bed (10-15 cm), avoiding tight clothes around the waist, and losing weight. Sleeping on one's left-hand side also helps to decrease reflux. Steward *et al.*^[107] demonstrated that lifestyle modification was an independently significant variable in determining the response to pharmacological therapy. An alternative therapeutic strategy is anti-reflux surgery, with some authors having reported good improvement rates of LPR symptoms after laparoscopic nissen fundoplication^[108-114]. To achieve a better patient outcome, a surgical approach must be taken into consideration in a carefully selected patient population, especially for patients who respond to treatment but are unable to tolerate PPIs due to side effects, those with confirmed pathological GER who do not respond to maximal medical treatment, and those in whom nonacid reflux has been demonstrated by a MII study^[115]. However, if symptoms do not improve in the 4 mo following aggressive acid suppression, laparoscopic fundoplication may be unlikely to yield additional benefits^[116]. Previous clinical responses to pharmacological acid suppression and abnormal pharyngeal pH results are preoperative predictors of relief from atypical symptoms^[117].

Speech and language therapy/relaxation techniques

Speech therapy/relaxation techniques, including neck and shoulder exercises, general relaxation techniques, voice exercises, and voice hygiene to relieve vocal tract discomfort and tension, have successfully been used to treat patients with persistent globus symptoms^[61]. In one uncontrolled study using these techniques on 25 globus patients, 92% experienced improvement following treatment. Khalil *et al.*^[118] randomly allocated 36 globus pa-

tients to either a speech therapy group or a reassurance group. Those in the speech therapy group used a number of exercises to relieve pharyngolaryngeal tension, including yawning, adopting a "giggle posture" (which helps retract the false vocal cords), and a "wet swallow" (as opposed to a "dry" or "check swallow," which patients often perform habitually and which tends to aggravate the globus symptom). Patients also attempted to eliminate throat clearing and promote adequate hydration by avoiding smoking, excess tea, and coffee. At the end of 3 mo, patients in the speech therapy group demonstrated significantly better globus symptom scores compared with those recorded prior to the intervention. Individuals in the speech therapy group also experienced significant improvements in globus symptoms when compared with controls. However, further research is needed to distinguish whether speech therapy has a specific effect or whether patients simply benefit from general attention and reassurance^[119].

Cognitive-behavioral therapy/antidepressants

Globus is the fourth most common symptom of somatization disorder after vomiting, aphonia, and pain in the extremities^[120]. Cognitive-behavioral therapy has emerged as the best treatment for a variety of somatoform disorders and medically unexplained symptoms^[121]. Although there has not yet been a substantial trial of cognitive-behavioral therapy in globus patients, it is likely to be a promising treatment for repeat attenders whose symptoms remain refractory^[76].

A small series of anti-depressants have been found to be beneficial for some globus patients with concomitant psychiatric disorders, such as panic, somatization, major depression, and agoraphobia^[122,123].

Other treatment strategies

Thyroidectomy in patients with thyroid disorder^[49-51] or partial epiglottectomy in selected cases whose retroverted epiglottis made contact with the tongue base^[47,48], were both reported to significantly relieve the globus symptom. In addition, ablation of CHGM by argon plasma coagulation has shown some promise in improving chronic globus symptoms^[55,56]. Although additional research of these techniques is needed, these approaches would provide some benefit to patients with unexplained chronic globus who are refractory to any medical treatments.

CONCLUSION

Although globus is a common clinical condition, its etiology remains uncertain, and there is no standard protocol for its diagnosis and management. The results of recent studies have strongly suggested that GERD is a major cause of globus, though this remains under considerable debate. Numerous other disorders, such as abnormal UES function, esophageal motility disorders, structural head and neck diseases, and psychological factors, have

been suggested as potential causes of globus. However, it has been rather difficult to establish a causal relationship between globus and these disorders because most of the reported studies were uncontrolled, had a small sample size, or were case reports. Currently, careful history taking and nasolaryngoscopy are essential as a first step in managing globus. Given the benign nature of the condition, patients with typical globus do not appear to need further investigation; rather, a 3-mo treatment with high-dose PPIs seems to be a reliable treatment option. If patients are nonresponsive to PPI therapy, they should undergo a definitive assessment, such as endoscopy, pH monitoring, or MII/pH monitoring; MII/pH monitoring in particular may increase the diagnostic yield of GER in globus patients. In cases with negative clinical investigations and consistent globus symptom, other treatment strategies, including speech therapy, antidepressants, and cognitive-behavioral therapy, should be considered. In the future, well-designed, randomized controlled studies are needed to definitively determine the effect of PPI treatment on globus. In addition, it is necessary to ascertain the etiology of globus *via* large-scale studies.

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***Lactobacillus plantarum* B7 inhibits *Helicobacter pylori* growth and attenuates gastric inflammation**

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Abstract

AIM: To determine the anti-*Helicobacter* property of *Lactobacillus plantarum* B7 (*L. plantarum*) B7 supernatants *in vitro* and the protective effects of *L. plantarum* B7 on serum tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α), gastric malondialdehyde (MDA) level, apoptosis, and histopathology in *Helicobacter pylori* (*H. pylori*)-induced gastric inflammation in rats.

METHODS: *In vitro*, the inhibition of *H. pylori* growth was examined using *L. plantarum* B7 supernatants at pH 4 and pH 7 and at the concentration of 1 \times , 5 \times and 10 \times on plates inoculated with *H. pylori*. The inhibitory effect of *H. pylori* was interpreted by the size of the inhibition zone. *In vitro*, male Sprague-Dawley rats

were randomly divided into four groups including group 1 (control group), group 2 (*H. pylori* infected group), group 3 (*H. pylori* infected with *L. plantarum* B7 10⁶ CFUs/mL treated group) and group 4 (*H. pylori* infected with *L. plantarum* B7 10¹⁰ CFUs/mL treated group). One week after *H. pylori* inoculation, *L. plantarum* B7 10⁶ CFUs/mL or 10¹⁰ CFUs/mL were fed once daily to group 3 and group 4, respectively, for one week. Blood and gastric samples were collected at the end of the study.

RESULTS: *In vitro*, at intact pH 4, mean inhibitory zone diameters of 8.5 mm and 13 mm were noted at concentrations of 5 \times and 10 \times of *L. plantarum* B7 supernatant disks, respectively. At adjusted pH 7, *L. plantarum* B7 supernatants at concentrations of 5 \times and 10 \times yielded mean inhibitory zone diameters of 6.5 mm and 11 mm, respectively. In the *in vitro* study, in group 2, stomach histopathology revealed mild to moderate *H. pylori* colonization and inflammation. The level of gastric MDA and epithelial cell apoptosis were significantly increased compared with group 1. The serum TNF- α level was significantly decreased in group 3 compared with group 2 ($P < 0.05$). In addition, *L. plantarum* B7 treatments resulted in a significant improvement in stomach pathology, and decreased gastric MDA level and apoptotic epithelial cells.

CONCLUSION: *L. plantarum* B7 supernatant inhibits *H. pylori* growth. This inhibition was dose-dependent and greater at pH 4. Moreover, *L. plantarum* B7 attenuated *H. pylori*-induced gastric inflammation.

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Key words: Apoptosis; Gastric inflammation; *Helicobacter pylori*; *Lactobacillus plantarum* B7; Lipid peroxidation

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INTRODUCTION

Helicobacter pylori (*H. pylori*) is a gram-negative, spiral shaped bacterium that has the unique ability of being able to colonize the human gastric mucosa and infects more than half of the world's population. *H. pylori* causes chronic gastritis, plays an etiologic role in peptic ulcer disease and is considered a risk factor in the development of gastric cancer and gastric lymphoma^[1]. In 1994, *H. pylori* was classified as a type I carcinogen by the World Health Organization^[2].

H. pylori infection is characterized by enhanced production of proinflammatory mediators such as tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α), interleukin (IL)-1 β , IL-2, IL-6 and IL-8 and the infiltration of lamina propria with inflammatory cells. *H. pylori* lipopolysaccharides (LPS) and released surface proteins stimulate lamina propria mononuclear cells and macrophages to produce proinflammatory cytokines such as TNF- α , IL-1 β , and the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS)^[3]. TNF- α and IL-1 β are potent inducers of IL-8 expression in many cell types. Furthermore, *H. pylori* is capable of interacting with epithelial cell surfaces to produce IL-8. The release of these inflammatory mediators results in the expression of CD11b/CD18 on leukocytes and intercellular adhesion molecule-1 on endothelial cells, the migration of leukocytes to a site of inflammation, and finally the generation of ROS^[4].

ROS can react with the double bonds of polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs), present in the membranes of phospholipids, resulting in lipid peroxidation. One of the major secondary oxidation products of peroxidized PUFAs is malondialdehyde (MDA)^[5]. *H. pylori* also induces gastric epithelial cell apoptosis both *in vitro*^[6] and *in vivo*^[7]. Studies have shown that the *H. pylori* colonized stomach contains more apoptotic epithelial cells than normal epithelial cells. Moreover, the increased numbers of apoptotic epithelial cells decrease to normal after eradication of *H. pylori*^[7].

H. pylori eradication is suboptimal because current treatment regimens result in adverse side effects, poor compliance, and an increasing prevalence of antibiotic resistance^[8]. Therefore, alternative treatments are of interest.

Lactobacilli are probiotics which, when administered in adequate amounts, may confer a benefit to the host^[9]. The most commonly used organisms in probiotic products are *Lactobacillus sp.* and *Bifidobacterium sp.*^[10]. *L. plantarum* is commonly found in the human gastrointestinal tract (GI-tract). It is important in the production of a variety of fermented foods such as sauerkraut, Korean kimchi, cheese,

sausages and stockfish, and is also used as a probiotic. Moreover, there is increasing evidence that *L. plantarum* has anti-*Helicobacter* activity and shows modulatory effects on the immune system^[11,12]. Importantly, *L. plantarum* is acid and bile tolerant, survives passage through the GI-tract, and is safe in humans and animals.

The aim of this study was to examine the *in vitro* anti-*Helicobacter* activity of *L. plantarum* B7 supernatants using the disk diffusion method and the effects of *L. plantarum* B7 on gastric histopathology, serum TNF- α , gastric MDA level, and cell apoptosis in *H. pylori* infection *in vivo*.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

In vitro study

The disk diffusion method was used to assess the anti-*H. pylori* activity of *L. plantarum* B7 supernatants at intact and neutralized pH and various concentrations of 1 \times , 5 \times and 10 \times against *H. pylori*.

Bacterial strains and culture conditions: *H. pylori* ATCC 43504 was grown on Columbia agar (Oxoid, Basingstoke, United Kingdom) containing 7% sheep blood and 7% horse serum. Plates were incubated at 37 °C under microaerophilic conditions (10% CO₂, 5% O₂ and 85% N₂) produced by a gas generating system, Anaero-Pack (MGC, Japan), for 72 h in an anaerobic jar (Oxoid, Basingstoke, United Kingdom).

L. plantarum B7, isolated from Thai dyspeptic patients, was stored in de Man-Rogosa-Sharpe (MRS) broth (Oxoid, Basingstoke, United Kingdom) with 20% glycerol at -80 °C. This strain was recovered from frozen stock and cultivated twice on MRS agar anaerobically (10% CO₂, 10% H₂ and 80% N₂) at 37 °C in an anaerobic jar for 48 h. A single colony of *L. plantarum* B7 was then inoculated into 10 mL of MRS broth and grown at 37 °C under anaerobic conditions for 24 h in a 15 mL conical centrifuge tube (Corning, New York, United States). The OD₆₀₀ of the culture was determined using a spectrophotometer (Bio-Rad Smart Spec™ Plus), adjusted to OD₆₀₀ with 0.1 in 10 mL of MRS broth and incubated for 48 h. After incubation, the culture supernatant was collected by centrifugation at 1000 \times g for 10 min at 4 °C and then filtered using a 0.22 μ m pore size filter unit (Minisart, Germany). The supernatant of *Lactobacillus* without the cell pellet was called the *Lactobacillus* condition media (LCM). The concentration and pH of LCM were adjusted to 1 \times , 5 \times and 10 \times by speed-vacuum drying (speed-vacuum, Savant Instruments, United States) and resuspending in an appropriate volume of intact pH 4 and adjusted pH 7 MRS broth. Sterile 6 mm-membrane disks (Whatman, Maidstone, United Kingdom) were then dipped into the resuspended LCM for at least 1 h at room temperature.

Disk diffusion method: The various concentrations of *L. plantarum* B7 supernatants were evaluated at two pH values, intact pH 4, and adjusted pH 7 with NaOH.

H. pylori was spread on Columbia blood agar plates, and *L. plantarum* B7 (LCM) disks were placed directly on the surface of the agar. The plates were incubated under microaerophilic conditions at 37 °C for 72 h, after which the diameters of the inhibition zones were measured in millimeters. In this study, the MRS broth was used as a negative control. The experiments were carried out in duplicate and mean values of the growth inhibition zones were measured.

In vivo study

Bacteria preparation: *H. pylori* was subcultured twice on Columbia blood agar. Plates were incubated at 37 °C under microaerophilic conditions for 72 h. *L. plantarum* B7 was originally obtained from Thai dyspeptic patients who visited King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital. This strain was cultivated twice on MRS agar anaerobically at 37 °C for 48 h.

Animal preparation: Thirty-two male Sprague-Dawley rats (Salaya Research Animal Center, Mahidol University, Bangkok, Thailand), weighing about 150-250 g at the beginning of the experiment, were used. The experimental protocol was approved by the Ethical Committee of Medicine Faculty, Chulalongkorn University, Thailand. The animals were housed in Macrolon cages (5 animals per cage), given food and tap water *ad libitum* at room temperature (18 °C-22 °C), humidity 55%, and a 12/12 h-light/dark cycle.

Experimental protocol: The rats were randomly divided into four experimental groups (eight rats each group) as follows. Group 1: Rats were fed phosphate buffered saline (PBS) 1 mL/rat by gavage twice a day at an interval of four hours for three consecutive days. Then, they were housed with free access to water and standard food for 1 wk. After that, the animals were treated with PBS 1 mL/rat by gavage once daily for 1 wk. Group 2: Rats were inoculated with *H. pylori* using the method of Thong-Ngam *et al.*^[13]. Briefly, the rats were pre-treated with streptomycin suspended in tap water (5 mg/mL) for three days before *H. pylori* inoculation. The *H. pylori* suspension (5×10^{10} CFUs/mL) in PBS was administered (1 mL/rat) by gavage twice daily at an interval of four hours for three consecutive days. One week after the inoculation, the animals were treated with PBS (1 mL/rat) by gavage once daily for one week. Group 3: One week after *H. pylori* inoculation, the rats were treated by gavage with *L. plantarum* B7 10^6 CFUs/mL suspended in PBS once daily for 1 wk. Group 4: One week after *H. pylori* inoculation, the rats were treated by gavage with *L. plantarum* B7 10^{10} CFUs/mL suspended in PBS once daily for 1 wk.

At the end of the experiment, animals were sacrificed by an overdose of intraperitoneal thiopental sodium. Blood samples were then collected for TNF- α determination using enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA). The stomach was removed. One-half of

the stomach was frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80 °C for MDA analysis. The remainder of the stomach was fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in phosphate buffer solution to determine histopathology and epithelial cell apoptosis.

Determination of serum cytokine levels: Blood samples were taken by cardiac puncture, allowed to clot for two hours at room temperature before centrifuging for 20 min at approximately $1000 \times g$. Then, the serum was removed and stored at -80 °C for determination of TNF- α level using an ELISA kit (R and D Systems, United States).

Assessment of *H. pylori* infection and examination of histopathology: The presence of *H. pylori* infection in the rats was determined by the urease test and histopathological examination by a blinded pathologist. After completing the experiment, the rats were sacrificed. The stomach was removed and 2 mm² of gastric mucosa from the antrum was immediately dissected and placed in the urease tube to examine urease activity.

The remaining tissue from the gastric antrum biopsy was fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in phosphate buffer solution at pH 7.4 and room temperature. The tissue was processed and stained with hematoxylin-eosin. The slides were observed by light microscopy and the presence of *H. pylori* was detected by Warthin-Starry staining in unclear cases. The level of bacterial colonization was evaluated using a grading system as follows. Score 0: No bacteria detected; Score 1: Mild colonization in some gastric crypts; Score 2: Mild colonization in most gastric crypts; Score 3: Moderate colonization in all gastric crypts. The results are presented as the bacterial colonization scores for each group. In addition to *H. pylori* colonization, the gastric inflammation level was estimated and scored following the updated Sydney System^[14]. The infiltration of polymorphonuclear leukocytes in the gastric mucosa, defining the inflammatory scores, was recorded. Scores from 0 to 3 represented normal, mild, moderate and marked histopathological changes, respectively.

Determination of gastric malondialdehyde: Gastric MDA level was measured using the thiobarbituric acid (TBA) reactive substances assay kit (Cayman, United States). The principle is that the reaction of one molecule of MDA and two molecules of TBA form a red MDA-TBA complex under high temperature (90 °C -100 °C) and acidic conditions, which can be quantitated using a spectrophotometer at 532 nm. The assay procedures were performed as described. The content of MDA was expressed in terms of nmol/mg protein.

Determination of gastric epithelial cell apoptosis: Apoptosis was measured by the identification of apoptotic nuclei in sections of stomach using fragment end labeling of DNA (Apoptosis detection kit, Chemicon, United States). In brief, the DNA fragments were al-

Table 1 Inhibition zone diameters (mm) of all *Lactobacillus plantarum* B7 supernatant concentrations at intact pH 4 and adjusted pH 7 (mean \pm SD) ($n = 2$)

Concentration of <i>L. plantarum</i> B7 supernatant	Diameters of inhibition zone (mm)	
	Intact pH 4	Adjusted pH 7
MRS (negative control)	0	0
1 \times	0	0
5 \times	8.5 \pm 0.7	6.5 \pm 0.7
10 \times	13 \pm 0	11 \pm 1.4

L. plantarum: *Lactobacillus plantarum*; MRS: Man-Rogosa-Sharpe.

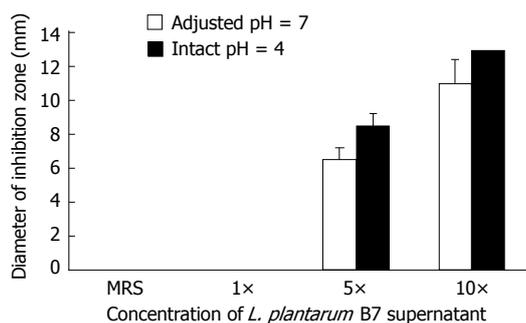


Figure 1 A bar graph shows the mean \pm SD of inhibitory zone diameters (mm) of all *Lactobacillus plantarum* B7 supernatant concentrations at intact pH 4 and adjusted pH 7 ($n = 2$). *L. plantarum*: *Lactobacillus plantarum*; MRS: Man-Rogosa-Sharpe.

lowed to bind an antidigoxigenin antibody that was conjugated to a peroxidase. Diaminobenzidine was applied to develop a dark brown color and the slides were counterstained with hematoxylin. The positive stained cells showed dark brown nuclei under light microscopy. To verify the incidence of apoptosis, the dark brown-stained cells were counted. One thousand gastric epithelial cells were counted for each rat. The data were shown as a percentage (%) of apoptotic cells calculated as: the percentage of apoptotic cells (%) = (numbers of positive stained cells \times 100)/1000.

Statistical analysis

All data are presented as mean \pm SD. The means were compared by one-way analysis of variance followed by least significant different post hoc test. All statistical tests were performed using SPSS for Windows version 13.0 (SPSS Inc, Chicago, IL, United States). Differences were considered statistically significant at $P < 0.05$.

RESULTS

In vitro study

Disk diffusion method: At intact pH 4, mean inhibitory zone diameters of 8.5 \pm 0.7 mm and 13 \pm 0 mm were noted at the concentrations of 5 \times and 10 \times of *L. plantarum* B7 supernatant disks, respectively. At adjusted pH 7, mean inhibitory zone diameters of 6.5 \pm 0.7 mm and 11 \pm 1.4 mm were noted at the concentrations of 5 \times and 10 \times of *L. plantarum* B7 supernatant disks, respec-

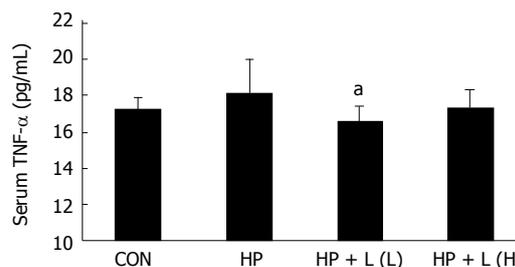


Figure 2 A bar graph shows the mean \pm SD of serum tumor necrosis factor-alpha level (pg/mL) in all groups. CON: Control group; HP: *Helicobacter pylori* (*H. pylori*) infected group; HP + L (L): *Lactobacillus plantarum* (*L. plantarum*) B7 10⁶ CFUs/mL treated group; HP + L (H): *L. plantarum* B7 10¹⁰ CFUs/mL treated group. Each group is represented by the mean of 8 rats. ^a $P < 0.05$ vs *H. pylori* infected group. TNF- α : Tumor necrosis factor-alpha.

tively (Table 1). Both intact pH 4 and adjusted pH 7 of *L. plantarum* B7 supernatants showed dose-dependent anti-*H. pylori* activity. The supernatant of pH 4 *L. plantarum* B7 at the concentration of 10 \times showed the clearest inhibition (Figure 1).

In vivo study

Changes in TNF- α level: The serum TNF- α level was not significantly different between the control group and *H. pylori* infected group. However, in the *L. plantarum* B7 10⁶ CFUs/mL treated group, a significant decrease in serum TNF- α level was noted compared with the *H. pylori* infected group ($P = 0.019$). The average concentrations of serum TNF- α were 17.22 \pm 0.63 pg/mL, 18.05 \pm 1.94 pg/mL, and 16.52 \pm 0.84 pg/mL in the control, *H. pylori* infected, and in the *L. plantarum* B7 10⁶ CFUs/mL treated group, respectively. The average serum TNF- α levels in all groups are shown in Figure 2.

Histopathological examination: *H. pylori* infection in rats was determined by the urease test and histopathology. Histopathology in the control group was normal, while in the *H. pylori* infected group there was moderate *H. pylori* colonization and inflammation. The *L. plantarum* B7 10⁶ CFUs/mL treated and *L. plantarum* B7 10¹⁰ CFUs/mL treated groups showed reduced *H. pylori* colonization and improved stomach inflammation (Figures 3 and 4). The histology scores for *H. pylori* colonization and gastric inflammation are summarized in Table 2.

Determination of gastric malondialdehyde: The level of gastric MDA increased significantly in the *H. pylori* infected compared with the control group (3.46 \pm 1.25 nmol/mg vs 1.05 \pm 0.41 nmol/mg protein, $P = 0.000$, respectively). After one week of 10⁶ CFUs/mL or 10¹⁰ CFUs/mL of *L. plantarum* B7 suspension, there was a significant decrease in elevated gastric MDA level in both *L. plantarum* B7 treated groups compared with the *H. pylori* infected group (1.28 \pm 0.69, 1.37 \pm 0.66 nmol/mg vs 3.46 \pm 1.25 nmol/mg protein, $P = 0.000$, respectively) (Figure 5).

Determination of gastric epithelial cell apoptosis: The percentage of apoptotic cells was significantly in-

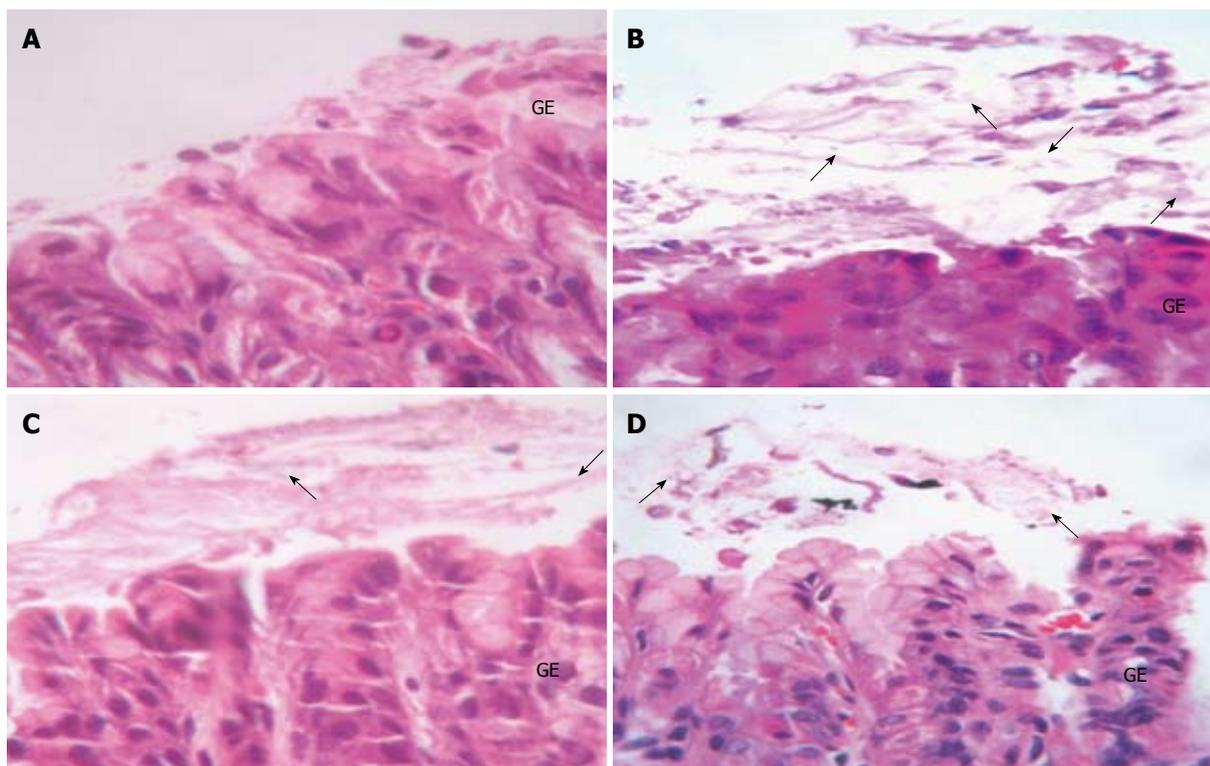


Figure 3 Hematoxylin-eosin stained gastric sections ($\times 40$). A: Control group showed no *Helicobacter pylori* (*H. pylori*); B: *H. pylori* infected group showed colonization (arrows) of *H. pylori*; C and D: *Lactobacillus plantarum* (*L. plantarum*) B7 10^6 CFUs/mL treated and *L. plantarum* B7 10^{10} CFUs/mL treated groups showed decreased *H. pylori* colonization. GE: Gastric epithelium.

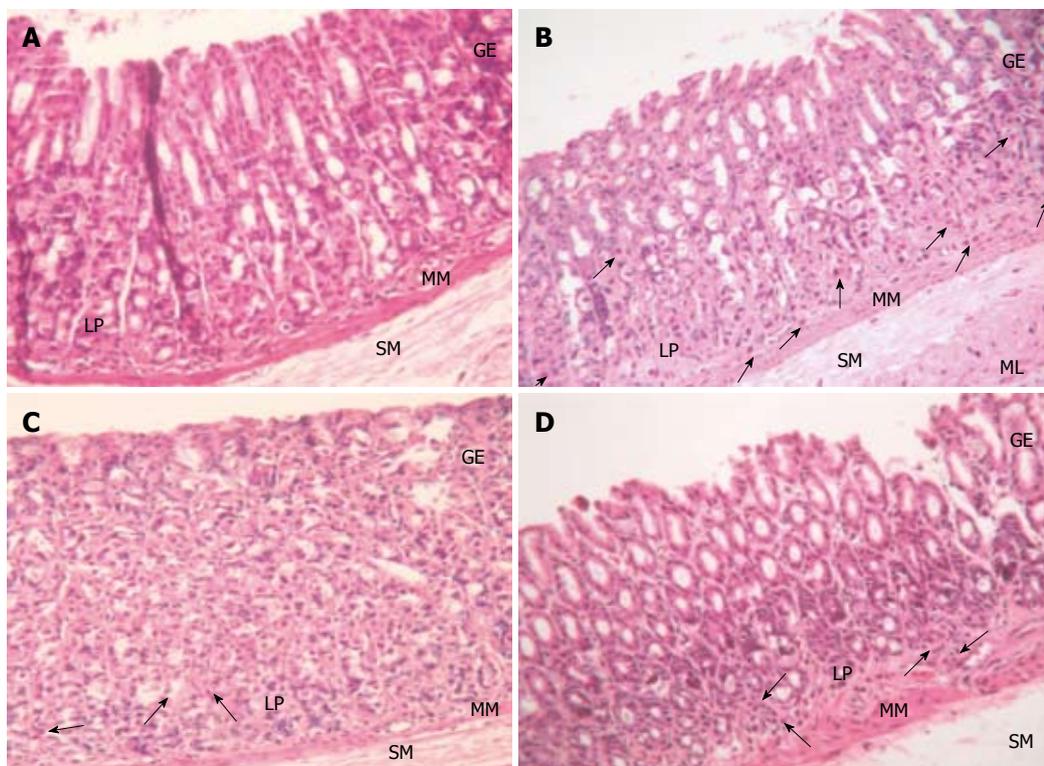


Figure 4 Hematoxylin-eosin stained gastric sections ($\times 20$). A: Control group showed normal gastric histopathology; B: *Helicobacter pylori* infected group showed infiltration of inflammatory cells (arrows); C and D: *Lactobacillus plantarum* (*L. plantarum*) B7 10^6 CFUs/mL treated and *L. plantarum* B7 10^{10} CFUs/mL treated groups showed improvements in gastric inflammation. GE: Gastric epithelium; LP: Lamina propria; MM: Muscularis mucosae; SM: Submucosa; ML: Muscularis.

Table 2 Summary of the scores for bacterial colonization levels and gastric inflammation in all groups

Group	Number	Level of <i>H. pylori</i> colonization ¹				Gastric inflammation ²			
		0	1	2	3	0	1	2	3
Control group	8	8	-	-	-	8	-	-	-
<i>H. pylori</i> infected group	8	1	5	2	-	-	3	5	-
<i>L. plantarum</i> B7 10 ⁶ CFUs/mL treated group	8	4	4	-	-	-	8	-	-
<i>L. plantarum</i> B7 10 ¹⁰ CFUs/mL treated group	8	3	5	-	-	-	8	-	-

¹The stomach samples were evaluated for *Helicobacter pylori* (*H. pylori*) colonization by the pathologist using the following scoring system. Score 0: No bacteria detected; Score 1: Mild colonization in some gastric crypts; Score 2: Mild colonization in most gastric crypts; Score 3: Moderate colonization in all gastric crypts. ²The gastric inflammation level was estimated and scored by the pathologist following the updated Sydney System^[16]. The infiltration of polymorphonuclear leucocytes in the gastric mucosa defining the inflammatory scores was recorded. Scores from 0 to 3 represented normal, mild, moderate and marked histopathology changes, respectively. *L. plantarum*: *Lactobacillus plantarum*.

creased in the *H. pylori* infected group when compared with the control group (7.44 ± 2.65 vs 0.58 ± 0.13 , $P = 0.0001$, respectively). After treatment with 10⁶ CFUs/mL or 10¹⁰ CFUs/mL of *L. plantarum* B7 suspension, the percentage of apoptotic cells was significantly decreased at 10⁶ CFUs/mL ($P = 0.027$) and 10¹⁰ CFUs/mL ($P = 0.038$) compared with the *H. pylori* infected group. The average percentages of apoptotic cells in all the groups are shown in Figure 6. Figure 7 shows gastric sections processed for apoptosis by the terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase-mediated dUTP nick-end labeling (TUNEL) reaction.

DISCUSSION

The *in vitro* study with intact pH 4 and adjusted pH 7 of *L. plantarum* B7 supernatants showed concentration-dependent anti-*H. pylori* activity, however, the culture supernatants of intact pH 4 *L. plantarum* B7 supernatant showed higher inhibition. This implied that low pH values are important for anti-*H. pylori* activity. In a study by Boyanova et al^[15], the anti-*Helicobacter* activity of *L. delbrueckii* subsp. *bulgaricus* cultures was strain-dependent and better at their native pH.

It is known that *Lactobacillus* secretes metabolic products such as lactic acid which exerts activity against *H. pylori*^[16]. Lactic acid inhibits the urease activity and viability of *H. pylori*. Several studies have reported that bacteriocin, peroxide, proteinase, exopolysaccharide and cell wall components, called *Lactobacillus*-inhibitory factors, have antibacterial effects^[17,18]. In addition, Coconnier et al^[19] showed that a heat-stable antimicrobial substance secreted by *L. acidophilus* LB was active against *H. pylori* infection.

In summary, our *in vitro* study found that *L. plantarum* B7 supernatant inhibited *H. pylori* growth in a dose-dependent manner and was better at intact pH 4 indicating that the amount of antimicrobial substance released by

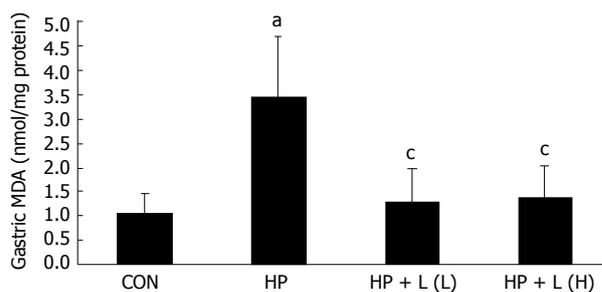


Figure 5 A bar graph shows the mean \pm SD of gastric malondialdehyde levels (nmol/mg protein) in all groups. CON: Control group; HP: *Helicobacter pylori* (*H. pylori*) infected group; HP + L (L): *Lactobacillus plantarum* (*L. plantarum*) B7 10⁶ CFUs/mL treated group; HP + L (H): *L. plantarum* B7 10¹⁰ CFUs/mL treated group. Each group is represented by the mean of 8 rats. ^a $P < 0.05$ vs control group; ^c $P < 0.05$ vs *H. pylori* infected group. MDA: Malondialdehyde.

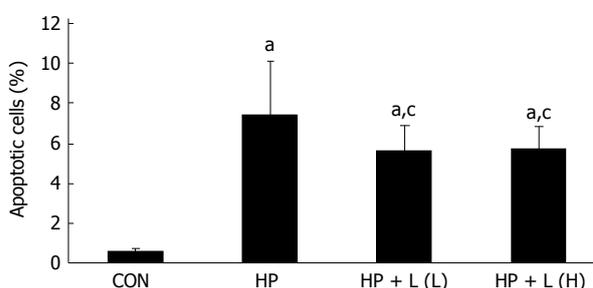


Figure 6 A bar graph shows the mean \pm SD of apoptotic cells (%) in all groups. CON: Control group; HP: *Helicobacter pylori* (*H. pylori*) infected group; HP + L (L): *Lactobacillus plantarum* (*L. plantarum*) B7 10⁶ CFUs/mL treated group; HP + L (H): *L. plantarum* B7 10¹⁰ CFUs/mL treated group. Each group is represented by the mean of 8 rats. ^a $P < 0.05$ vs control group; ^c $P < 0.05$ vs *H. pylori* infected group.

L. plantarum B7 correlated with the intensity of the inhibitory effect against *H. pylori*. Furthermore, the anti-*H. pylori* activity of this substance was supported by low pH values.

The present *in vivo* study showed that the gastric histopathology in the *H. pylori* infected group revealed mild to moderate *H. pylori* colonization and inflammation as well as increased gastric MDA and gastric epithelial cell apoptosis.

H. pylori induces a host inflammatory response including production of cytokines, resulting in mucosal damage. The produced cytokines lead to infiltration of inflammatory cells, namely polymorphonuclear neutrophils (PMNs), lymphocytes and macrophages, at the site of infection. These inflammatory cells then release large amounts of ROS, causing tissue injury. Wilson et al^[20] showed that the gastric mucosal levels of proinflammatory cytokines, such as TNF- α , IL-1 β , IL-6 and IL-8, were significantly higher in *H. pylori* positive patients than in *H. pylori* negative patients. Crabtree et al^[21] showed that increased gastric mucosal production of TNF- α and IL-6 was associated with *H. pylori* gastritis. Moreover, they implied that inflammatory cytokines generated locally within the gastric mucosa can be relevant to the gastric physiology of *H. pylori* infection.

As mentioned above, infection with *H. pylori* in the

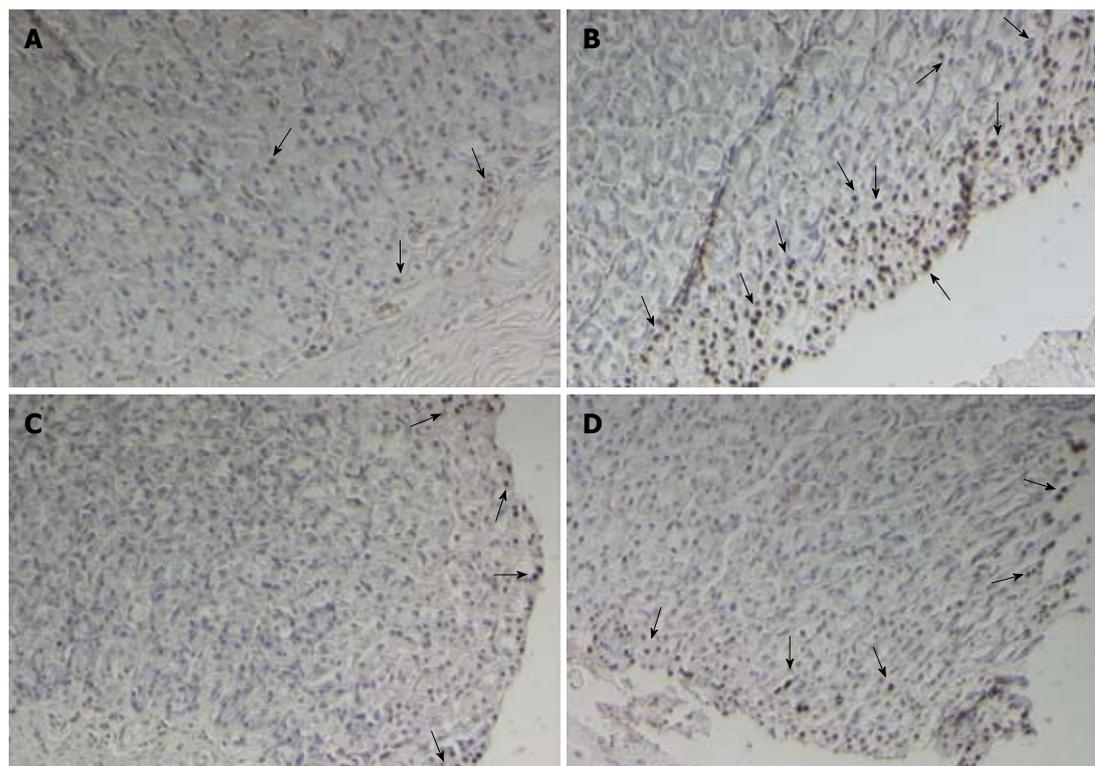


Figure 7 Representative gastric sections processed for the apoptosis assay by terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase-mediated dUTP nick-end labeling reaction ($\times 20$). A: Control group; B: *Helicobacter pylori* infected group; C and D: *Lactobacillus plantarum* (*L. plantarum*) B7 10^6 CFUs/mL treated and *L. plantarum* B7 10^{10} CFUs/mL treated groups showed a decrease in gastric epithelium apoptosis. The arrows indicate terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase-mediated dUTP nick-end labeling-positive gastric epithelial cell apoptosis.

gastric mucosa is known to activate the production of many proinflammatory cytokines including TNF- α , IL-1 β , IL-6 and IL-8. The production of these proinflammatory cytokines is not limited to the local site of infection, as these cytokines are produced in numbers and contribute to the systemic circulation. In 2006, Prabjone *et al*^[22] investigated the effects of chronic *H. pylori* infection on serum TNF- α level in rats. They found a significant increase in serum TNF- α in the *H. pylori* infected groups compared with the control groups. In the present study, no significant increase in serum TNF- α level was observed in the *H. pylori* infected group.

Several studies have shown that *H. pylori* strains with the *cagA*⁺/*vacAs1* genotype are more virulent than strains with other genotypes^[23]. Similarly, Azuma *et al*^[24] reported that *H. pylori cagA*⁺ strains were involved in more intense tissue responses than *cagA* strains. Moreover, epidemiological studies have shown that colonization with *cagA*⁺ *H. pylori* is associated with an increased risk for the development of both peptic ulcer disease and gastric cancer. In an *in vitro* study, Zhang *et al*^[25] demonstrated that *H. pylori cagA*⁺ strains induced an increased oxidative burst in PMNs with higher ROS production. Recently, studies have shown that ROS production in gastric mucosa is enhanced by infection with *cagA*⁺ *H. pylori* species with an extensive accumulation of neutrophils in both patients with chronic gastritis and gastric ulcer^[4,5]. In this study, rats infected with *H. pylori cagA*⁺, *vacA*⁺ strains were found to have significantly increased gastric MDA levels,

suggesting that oxidative stress may be associated with the *cagA*⁺ status of *H. pylori*.

Furthermore, we demonstrated that *H. pylori cagA*⁺, *vacA*⁺ strains can induce epithelial cell apoptosis in rats. The *cagA* gene or expression of VacA might be involved in gastroduodenal diseases by affecting apoptosis. The *cagA* gene is a marker of the presence of the pathogenicity island that encodes disease-associated virulence factors and is associated with the expression of VacA^[26]. In 2006, Cabral *et al*^[27] showed that the expression of pro-apoptotic proteins such as Bax and Bak was higher than anti-apoptotic proteins including Bcl-2 and Bcl-XL in most gastric biopsies from patients with *H. pylori* gastritis and was significantly higher in patients infected by *cagA*⁺ strains than in those infected by *cagA*. Moreover, they found that Bak expression was higher at the lesser curvature (antrum and incisura) than in the other regions and was correlated with atrophy. These results suggest that in addition to *cagA*, *vacA* plays a crucial role in the induction of apoptosis. In the present study, our data also showed that infection with *H. pylori cagA*⁺, *vacA*⁺ strains leads to elevated gastric MDA levels, as previously mentioned. MDA, a major product of lipid peroxidation, can react with DNA to form MDA-DNA adducts, resulting in DNA damage.

Several previous investigations have shown the anti-inflammatory properties of *Lactobacillus*. A study by Johnson-Henry *et al*^[28] found that the probiotic combination containing *L. rhamnosus* R0011 and *L. acidophilus*

R0052 decreased the effects of *H. pylori* infection in a C57BL/6 mouse model of infection by reducing *H. pylori* colonization and alleviating *H. pylori*-induced gastric mucosa inflammation. In 2003, Peña *et al.*²⁹¹ showed that *L. rhamnosus* GG was able to antagonize *H. pylori* LPS-induced TNF- α production in murine macrophages *in vitro* by a contact-independent mechanism. Ko *et al.*¹²¹ reported that *L. plantarum* was capable of inhibiting epithelial barrier dysfunction and reducing IL-8 secretion induced by TNF- α . In addition to anti-inflammatory activity, several studies have shown that *Lactobacillus* also has effective antioxidative and anti-apoptotic properties. Truusalu *et al.*³⁰¹ found that *L. fermentum* ME-3 suppressed excessive oxidative stress-associated inflammation induced by *S. typhimurium* infection in a mouse model. Using the same experimental typhoid fever model, they also showed that treatment with *L. fermentum* ME-3 alone or in combination with an antimicrobial quinolone (ofloxacin) leads to a significant decrease in lipid peroxidation and the glutathione redox ratio (GSSG/GSH). In 2010, Zhang *et al.*³¹¹ reported that oral *L. plantarum* treatment in rats with obstructive jaundice increased GSH levels in the liver and stimulated GSH biosynthesis, resulting in attenuated oxidative damage. Using the TUNEL assay, they also showed that treatment with *L. plantarum* significantly decreased hepatic apoptosis. In addition, Lam *et al.*³²¹ showed that pre-treatment of rats with *L. rhamnosus* GG markedly reduced ethanol-induced mucosal lesion area and gastric cell apoptosis.

Interestingly, all of these studies were concordant with our results. In the current study, we found that *L. plantarum* B7 treatment resulted in improved stomach pathology, and decreased serum TNF- α level, gastric MDA level, and apoptotic epithelial cells. However, the mechanisms of action are unclear and require further investigation.

In conclusion, the present study showed that *H. pylori* infection induced gastric injury by increasing levels of *H. pylori* colonization and inflammation, gastric MDA and epithelial cell apoptosis. *L. plantarum* B7 may have anti-*H. pylori* activity *in vitro* and anti-inflammatory effects on *H. pylori* infection by improving stomach histopathology, and reducing serum TNF- α levels, gastric MDA and epithelial cell apoptosis.

COMMENTS

Background

Helicobacter pylori (*H. pylori*) infection induces the production of proinflammatory mediators such as tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α), interleukin (IL)-1 β , IL-2, IL-6 and IL-8, and infiltration of the lamina propria with inflammatory cells as well as the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS). However, these *H. pylori*-induced inflammatory responses do not appear to confer protective immunity, and may lead to the excess production of ROS, oxidative bursts caused by phagocytic cells, and gastric tissue damage. *Lactobacillus plantarum* (*L. plantarum*) B7 has anti-*H. pylori* activity *in vitro* and anti-inflammatory properties resulting in the alleviation of gastric injury in *H. pylori*-induced gastritis in rats.

Research frontiers

L. plantarum is a non-pathogenic gram-positive bacterium that exerts anti-*H.*

pylori activity and immunomodulatory effects. *H. pylori* infection can cause gastric mucosal damage by increasing *H. pylori* colonization and inflammation levels, gastric malondialdehyde (MDA) and epithelial cell apoptosis. The hallmark of this study was the interesting results which showed an inhibitory effect of *L. plantarum* B7 supernatant on *H. pylori* growth *in vitro*, and an improvement in stomach pathology, reduction in serum TNF- α level, gastric MDA and epithelial cell apoptosis following treatment with *L. plantarum* B7.

Innovations and breakthroughs

A previous study showed that *L. plantarum* B7 has anti-inflammatory properties *in vitro*. However, it is not clear whether *L. plantarum* B7 has *in vivo* effects on *H. pylori*-induced gastric inflammation. Therefore, in this study, the authors examined the anti-inflammatory effect of *L. plantarum* B7 in rats and found that *L. plantarum* B7 ameliorated *H. pylori*-induced gastritis by improving stomach pathology, and decreasing TNF- α production, gastric MDA level and epithelial cell apoptosis. Moreover, supernatants of *L. plantarum* B7 showed anti-*H. pylori* activity *in vitro*.

Applications

L. plantarum B7 may be beneficial in clinical application, and can be used as an adjunct to antibiotics to decrease *H. pylori*-induced gastric inflammation and reduce side effects of triple therapy.

Peer review

This is an experimental study on the effect of *H. pylori* infection in gastric inflammation. This study shows the efficacy of *L. plantarum* B7 in treatment of *H. pylori*-induced gastritis reflects in attenuated levels of *H. pylori* colonization, gastric inflammation, cytokine production, gastric MDA, and apoptotic cells. Also, the results from *in vitro* study demonstrates the inhibitory effect of *L. plantarum* B7 supernatants on *H. pylori* growth.

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Key factors in developing the trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid-induced post-inflammatory irritable bowel syndrome model in rats

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Abstract

AIM: To investigate the key factors in developing the trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid (TNBS)-induced post-inflammatory irritable bowel syndrome (PI-IBS) model in rats.

METHODS: TNBS was administered to rats at the following conditions: (1) with different doses (20, 10, 5 mg/0.8 mL per rat); (2) with same dose in different concentrations (20 mg/rat, 25, 50 mg/mL); (3) in different ethanol percentage (25%, 50%); and (4) at depth either 4 cm or 8 cm from anus. At 5 d and 4 wk after TNBS administration, inflammation severity and

inflammation resolution were evaluated. At 4 and 8 wk after TNBS application, visceral hyperalgesia and enterochromaffin (EC) cell hyperplasia were assayed by abdominal withdrawal reflex test, silver staining and capillary electrophoresis.

RESULTS: Our results showed that: (1) TNBS induced dose-dependent acute inflammation and inflammation resolution. At 5 d post TNBS, the pathological score and myeloperoxidase (MPO) activity in all TNBS treated rats were significantly elevated compared to that of the control (9.48 ± 1.86 , 8.18 ± 0.67 , 5.78 ± 0.77 vs 0, and 3.55 ± 1.11 , 1.80 ± 0.82 , 0.97 ± 0.08 unit/mg vs 0.14 ± 0.01 unit/mg, $P < 0.05$). At 4 wk post TNBS, the pathological score in high and median dose TNBS-treated rats were still significantly higher than that of the control (1.52 ± 0.38 and 0.80 ± 0.35 vs 0, $P < 0.05$); (2) Intracolonic TNBS administration position affected the persistence of visceral hyperalgesia. At 4 wk post TNBS, abdominal withdrawal reflex (AWR) threshold pressure in all TNBS-treated groups were decreased compared to that of the control (21.52 ± 1.73 and 27.10 ± 1.94 mmHg vs 34.44 ± 1.89 mmHg, $P < 0.05$). At 8 wk post TNBS, AWR threshold pressure in 8 cm administration group was still significantly decreased (23.33 ± 1.33 mmHg vs 36.79 ± 2.29 mmHg, $P < 0.05$); (3) Ethanol percentage affected the TNBS-induced inflammation severity and visceral hyperalgesia. In TNBS-25% ethanol-treated group, the pathological score and MPO activity were significantly lowered compared to that of the TNBS-50% ethanol-treated group, while AWR threshold pressure were significantly elevated (36.33 ± 0.61 mmHg vs 23.33 ± 1.33 mmHg, $P < 0.05$); and (4) TNBS (5 mg/0.8 mL per rat, in 50% ethanol, 8 cm from anus)-treated rats recovered completely from the inflammation with acquired visceral hyperalgesia and EC cell hyperplasia at 4 wk after TNBS administration.

CONCLUSION: TNBS dosage, concentration, intraco-

lonic administration position, and ethanol percentage play important roles in developing visceral hyperalgesia and EC cell hyperplasia of TNBS-induced PI-IBS rats.

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Key words: Post-inflammatory; Irritable bowel syndrome; Rat model; Trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid; Key factors

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INTRODUCTION

Post-infectious irritable bowel syndrome (PI-IBS) is a subgroup of IBS in which the IBS patients developed their symptoms after recovery from an acute gastrointestinal infection^[1,2]. The features of PI-IBS, such as urgency, loose stool, and abdominal pain, are very similar to those of the diarrhea-predominant IBS^[3,4]. Prospective studies indicate that 3%-36% of enteric infections may lead to the generation of new IBS symptoms; the precise incidence mainly depends on the infecting organism and the host responses^[1]. Though the term "PI-IBS" was first coined by Chaudhary and Truelove in 1962^[5], little attention has been paid to it until recently^[1]. The causes and/or underlying mechanisms of PI-IBS are still not fully understood, although it is believed that altered gut flora, changed intestinal permeability, activated gut immunity, and functional or structural changes in enteric nervous system are important factors^[1,6].

Validated animal models, which aim to mimic one or more features of human disease, play important roles in the studies of mechanisms and potential therapeutic agents for diseases. Based on the current understanding of the clinical features and underlying mechanisms of PI-IBS, the ideal model for PI-IBS should bear the character with one or more features of IBS, such as visceral hypersensitivity, motility dysfunction, alterations in permeability or secretion, and enterochromaffin (EC) cell hyperplasia, and complete recovery from initial infection/inflammation^[7]. The chemical agent-induced post-inflammatory IBS animal models have been widely used in mechanistic studies of PI-IBS because the chemical agent-induced inflammatory response and host immune activation can, to some extent, mimic the characteristics of PI-IBS^[8,9], and these alterations are consistent with the findings from clinical studies^[10,11]. Our previous systematic review showed that the trinitrobenzene sulfonic

acid (TNBS)-induced model is the most commonly used PI-IBS model^[7], and the major features of IBS (i.e., visceral hypersensitivity, motility dysfunction, and alteration in permeability or secretion), can be developed in this model. However, there are large variations in the protocol of model development, such as TNBS dosage and concentration, position of intracolonic TNBS administration, ethanol percentage, and the optimal time after intracolonic TNBS administration for model application, *etc.*^[7]. These variations make comparison between studies to be very difficult, if not impossible.

As a chemical hapten, TNBS is capable of binding to tissue proteins and stimulating T helper 1 cell mediated immunity; thus, it has been widely used to induce acute colitis by intracolonic administration^[12]. It has been reported that TNBS-induced acute inflammation and damage becomes maximal from 3 d to 1 wk after instillation^[9]. Previous studies have shown that TNBS had dose-dependent effects on mucosal inflammation^[13,14], suggesting dosage is an important factor in TNBS-induced inflammation severity and colonic recovery from such inflammation. However, in previous studies on the TNBS-induced PI-IBS model, the dosage of TNBS varied from 20 mg per rat to 30 mg per rat^[7]. Further, there is no consensus on how long it will take for TNBS-induced inflammation recovery after TNBS administration. Some studies, using TNBS (30 mg/rat), took 4 or 6 wk for inflammation recovery after intracolonic TNBS administration^[15,16], while another study took at least 8 wk^[17]. In addition, TNBS is generally administered into the colon lumen at either 4 cm or 8 cm from the anus^[7]. Given the anatomical and physiological differences between these two sites (descending colon vs transverse colon), it is possible - but not known - whether the position of TNBS administration influences the results. Furthermore, ethanol is routinely used as a breaker to the mucosal barrier in TNBS-induced PI-IBS studies, and previous studies have shown that 30%-50% ethanol alone induced acute inflammation and hyperemia^[18,19]. The commonly used ethanol percentage in developing TNBS-induced PI-IBS model are 25% and 50%^[14,20]; and whether the ethanol percentage influences the development of TNBS-induced PI-IBS rat model is still not clear.

Concerning the above variations in developing protocol of the TNBS-induced PI-IBS rat model, the present study aimed to investigate the effects of some impact factors (i.e., TNBS dosage and concentration, position of TNBS administration, and ethanol percentage) on TNBS-induced acute inflammation, inflammation resolution, and later acquired features of IBS (i.e., visceral hyperalgesia and EC cell hyperplasia).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

TNBS (2,4,6-trinitrobenzenesulfonic acid solution), hexadecyltrimethylammonium bromide, o-dianisidine dihydrochloride, sodium hyposulfite, and silver nitrate were

Table 1 Study design and the treatments

Groups	Treatment (mg/mL per rat, i.col.)	Ethanol (%)	Position (cm to anus)	Time points for evaluation		
				5 d	4 wk	8 wk
1	TNBS, 20/0.4 per rat	50	8	IE	IE	-
2	TNBS, 20/0.8 per rat	50	8	IE	IE	-
3	TNBS, 10/0.8 per rat	50	8	IE	IE	-
4	TNBS, 5/0.8 per rat	50	8	IE	IE/PE	PE/EE
5	TNBS, 5/0.8 per rat	50	4	IE	IE/PE	PE
6	TNBS, 5/0.8 per rat	25	8	IE	IE/PE	PE
7	Saline, 0.8/rat	-	8	IE	IE/PE	PE/EE

TNBS: Trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid; IE: Inflammation evaluation; PE: Pain evaluation; EE: Enterochromaffin cell evaluation.

all purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, United States). Chloral hydrate was purchased from Kou Hing Hong Scientific Supplies (Hong Kong, China).

Animals

Male Sprague-Dawley rats (aged 6 wk with body weight around 220 g) were obtained from the Laboratory Animal Services Centre, The Chinese University of Hong Kong. Rats were housed 5 per cage and maintained at 25 °C under 12 h-12 h alternating light-dark cycle with free access to food and water. Rats were maintained in laboratory conditions for 1 wk to adapt to the environment before each experiment. All animal studies were carried out in accordance with the guidelines of the Committee on Use of Human and Animal Subjects in Teaching and Research, Hong Kong Baptist University.

Experimental design

The rats were randomly divided into 7 groups. TNBS (20 mg/0.4 mL per rat) was given to rats in group 1 ($n = 10$). The rats in group 2 ($n = 10$), group 3 ($n = 10$), and group 4 ($n = 14$) were intracolonicly administered with TNBS at a dose of 20, 10 and 5 mg per rat in 0.8 mL ethanol, respectively. In the above 4 groups, TNBS in 50% ethanol saline solution was administered at a depth of 8 cm from the anus. Rats in group 5 ($n = 14$) were given TNBS (5 mg/0.8 mL per rat in 50% ethanol) at a depth of 4 cm from the anus, while rats in group 6 ($n = 14$) were given TNBS (5 mg/0.8 mL per rat in 25% ethanol) at 8 cm from the anus. Group 7 ($n = 14$) was set as a control; rats in this group were given saline 0.8 mL at a depth of 8 cm from the anus (Table 1).

Five days after TNBS or saline administration, 4 rats in each group were selected randomly, and the colon tissues from these rats were harvested for inflammation evaluation. The remaining rats were allowed to recover until the pain threshold pressure was measured. At 4 wk after TNBS administration, five rats in each group were selected randomly for pain threshold pressure evaluation; then the colon tissues were collected for inflammation recovery examination. At 8 wk after TNBS administration, the rest of the rats in each group went through pain threshold pressure evaluation to test the stability of visceral hyperalgesia. In order to further investigate

if the TNBS-induced PI-IBS model had EC cell hyperplasia in the colon tissue, a part of proximal and distal colon tissues were also collected for EC cell number counting and serotonin [5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT)] content determination.

Induction of colitis

Colitis was induced according to previous reports, with little modification^[16]. Briefly, rats were fasted for 24 h before experiments, and then deeply anesthetized with chloral hydrate (350 mg/kg, i.p.). A fine plastic catheter (external diameter = 0.96 mm) was gently inserted into the descending colon at a depth of 4 cm or 8 cm from anus. The rats were kept in a head-down vertical position, and then TNBS was instilled slowly into the colon lumen within 1 min. After TNBS instillation, the catheter was left in place for 1 min and then slowly removed. The TNBS-treated rats were left on a warm mound of bedding in head-down position to prevent drug leakage until they regained consciousness. The control rats were similarly administered with 0.8 mL saline instead of TNBS.

Tissue preparation

Rats were deeply anesthetized with chloral hydrate (350 mg/kg, i.p.); then an approximately 6 cm long piece of colon tissue with drug administration position in the middle was removed. After the photos were taken, 3 cm of the distal part (proximal to the anus) was fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for histological evaluation., the remaining 3 cm (distal to the anus) was placed in liquid nitrogen and stored in a freezer at -80 °C for myeloperoxidase activity assay. In addition, approximate 3 cm of proximal colon (1-2 cm from cecum) and 3 cm of distal colon (1-2 cm from anus) tissue were also harvested from the PI-IBS model rats; the proximal part (about 1 cm) was fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for EC cell number counting; the rest was placed in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80 °C for 5-HT content determination.

Histological evaluation

The colon sections (5 µm thick) collected at 5 d and 4 wk after TNBS administration were all stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H and E). Masson trichrome staining^[21] was performed on sections collected at 4 wk after TNBS administration for fibrosis evaluation. All sections were examined under a Nikon light microscope (Nikon Inc., Japan). The severity of the acute inflammation and the degree of inflammation resolution was graded using the macroscopic and histological scoring criteria (Tables 2 and 3), which were modified based on previous reports^[22,23] according to the pathologist's suggestion. Five random fields were selected in each slide; images were captured with 100 × magnifications and analyzed using Image J NIH software. For fibroplasia evaluation, the area stained blue by Masson trichrome staining was measured and adjusted to reflect the total area of the colon tissue^[21].

Myeloperoxidase activity assay

Myeloperoxidase (MPO) is an enzyme released by neu-

Table 2 Criteria for macroscopic scoring of colonic ulceration and inflammation

Score	Appearance
0	Normal appearance
1	Ulceration with inflammation at 1 or 2 sites
2	More sites of ulceration and inflammation
3	Major sites of damage extending > 1.5 cm along length of colon
4	Major sites of damage extending > 3 cm along length of colon

trophils in tissue under inflammatory conditions, and the level of MPO activity correlates directly with severity of inflammation^[17]. In this study, MPO activity was measured by the modified method described by Krawisz *et al.*^[24] and Diop *et al.*^[18]. Briefly, the colon tissues were cut into small pieces and homogenized in 0.5% hexadecyltrimethylammonium bromide 1 mL per 100 mg of colon tissue. The homogenates were centrifuged at 19 000 *g* at 4 °C for 15 min. Aliquots of 80 mL supernatant were mixed with 120 µL potassium phosphate buffer (50 mmol, pH 6.0) with 0.0005% *o*-dianisidine dihydrochloride and 0.1% hydrogen peroxide. MPO activity was calculated from the rate of absorbance change during 1 min at 460 nm; one unit of MPO activity is equal to 1.13×10^{-2} changes in absorbance at 25 °C. The results were normalized to the wet weight of colon tissue and expressed as MPO units/mg tissue.

Abdominal withdrawal reflex

Abdominal withdrawal reflex (AWR) test was performed as previously described to detect the pain threshold pressure^[25]. Briefly, rats were lightly anesthetized with ether in order to place a 6 cm long flexible latex balloon into the descending colon and rectum through the anus. The end of the balloon was secured at least 1 cm proximal to the anal verge. Rats were then allowed to recover for at least 30 min. The tube of the balloon was connected *via* a Y-connector to a sphygmomanometer and colorectal distension was applied in increments of 5 mmHg until a visible contraction of the abdominal wall was observed by an investigator blinded to the treatment. The pain threshold pressure was defined as the intensity of colorectal distension that elicited an observable AWR, i.e., a sudden and persistent abdominal muscle contraction with abdomen lift off the platform (Score 3). The pain threshold pressure of all groups was recorded and repeated five times with intervals of at least 5 min for recovery.

Enterochromaffin cell counting

Tissue sections (5 µm thick) were deparaffinized in xylene, and rehydrated with graded ethanol for silver staining according to a method previously described, with little modification^[26]. Sections were incubated with 5% ammoniacal silver solution for 4 h at room temperature, then 2 h in 56 °C and subsequently 12 h at room temperature in a dark humidified chamber. After rinsing

with water, 5% sodium hyposulfite was added and sections were incubated for 5 min at room temperature. The brown to black silver precipitate in the cytoplasm of EC cells was considered as a positive reaction. Five random fields at 200× magnifications for each section were captured and saved in the same size and resolution by a researcher blinded to treatment. After calibration, the mucosal fields were circled, and the areas of mucosa were calculated using Image J NIH software. EC cell density was calculated and expressed as the number of EC cells per mm² of mucosal area.

Serotonin content assessment

5-HT content in the colonic tissue was assayed following the previously reported procedure^[27]. Briefly, the colon segment was homogenized in 15% iced trichloroacetic acid; the supernatant of each sample was filtered using 0.22 µm filters and extracted with diethyl ether, then the prepared samples were added to derivatization solution and analyzed by capillary electrophoresis with laser-induced fluorescence detection.

Statistical analysis

Data are presented as mean ± SE. Differences between two groups were analyzed by Student *t* test. When multiple groups were compared, data were analyzed using one-way analysis of variance followed by the Student-Newman-Keuls test. Differences were considered significant when *P* < 0.05.

RESULTS

Effect of trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid concentration on body weight and mortality rate

Based on the findings from our previous systematic review, TNBS (20 mg/rat, in 50% ethanol) was selected and given to rats at 8 cm from anus in 0.4 or 0.8 mL volume. As shown in Table 4, compared to the control group, the body weight of TNBS-treated rats all decreased markedly with loose and bloody stools at 5 d post-TNBS (*P* < 0.01). Moreover, the body weight in high-concentration TNBS (50 mg/mL)-treated rats was significantly lowered when compared to that treated with low-concentration TNBS (25 mg/mL) (*P* < 0.05), and 3 rats in the high-concentration TNBS (50 mg/mL)-treated group were found dead. At 4 wk after TNBS administration, the average body weight of high-concentration TNBS-treated rats was still significantly decreased compared to that of rats treated with low-concentration TNBS and saline (*P* < 0.05); no significant difference was found in the body weight between low-concentration TNBS-treated rats and the saline-treated ones.

Effect of trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid dosage on the severity of acute inflammation and inflammation resolution

Five days after TNBS administration, the results from MPO activity assay and histopathological evaluation showed that, TNBS, when administered at the doses of

Table 3 Criteria of histological scoring in colon tissue

Variables	Severity and scoring			
	0	1	2	3
Ulceration	No ulcer	Ulcerations not exceeding lamina muscularis mucosae	Ulcerations not exceeding submucosa	Ulcerations exceeding submucosa
Edema	Normal thickness	Submucosal expansion < 30%	Submucosal expansion 30%-100%	Submucosal expansion > 100%
Inflammatory cells	No infiltration	Few scattered cells	Distributed but not dense	Dense
Fibroplasia	Normal collagen	Increase < 30%	Increase 30%-50%	Increase > 50%

Table 4 Effects of trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid concentration on body weight and mortality rate

Treatment	TNBS concentration	Body weight (g)		Mortality rate (%)
		5 d	4 wk	
Saline	-	249.6 ± 26.7	343.0 ± 28.9	0
TNBS 20 mg/0.8 mL per rat	25 mg/mL	214.5 ± 16.8 ^b	324.5 ± 24.8	0
TNBS 20 mg/0.4 mL per rat	50 mg/mL	179.2 ± 21.4 ^d	291.8 ± 42.6 ^d	33

^a $P < 0.05$, ^b $P < 0.01$ vs saline-treated group; ^d $P < 0.01$ vs TNBS (20 mg/0.8 mL)-treated group. TNBS: Trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid.

20, 10, and 5 mg/0.8 mL per rat in 50% ethanol, dose-dependently induced acute inflammation and damage in the colon tissue of rats (Figure 1). The results indicate that the higher the dose TNBS used, the more severe the inflammation and damage induced. As shown in macroscopic appearance and H and E sections (Figure 1A and B), high dose TNBS (20 mg/rat) induced multiple larger and deeper ulcerations, and dense inflammatory cell infiltration when compared to that treated with low dose TNBS.

As shown in Figure 2, four weeks after TNBS (5-20 mg/rat) administration, there was no significant difference in MPO activity between TNBS-treated rats and the control groups, suggesting no acute inflammation was left at this period. However, results from pathological evaluation showed that the histological scores in high dose (20 mg/rat) and median dose (10 mg/rat) TNBS-treated groups were still significantly higher compared to that of the control ($P < 0.05$), but no significant difference was found between low dose TNBS-treated rats and the control, suggesting low dose TNBS-treated rats had completely recovered from the initial inflammation at 4 wk post TNBS. As shown in Figure 2A and B, the colons from high and medium dose TNBS treated rats lost their normal appearance, and more collagen was found in the submucosa and smooth muscle in Masson staining sections, suggesting the occurrence of fibroplasia.

Effect of trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid administration position, and ethanol percentage on the severity of acute inflammation and inflammation resolution

Knowing that low dose TNBS (5 mg/0.8 mL per rat in 50% ethanol)-treated rats can completely recover from initial inflammation at 4 wk after TNBS administration, further studies were based on this dosage selection. As shown in Figure 3, compared to the control, MPO activ-

ity assay and histopathological evaluation all demonstrated that low dose TNBS (5 mg/0.8 mL per rat, in 50% ethanol), when given to rats at 8 cm or 4 cm from anus, induced marked acute inflammation and ulcers at 5 d post TNBS administration ($P < 0.01$), no difference was found between these two groups. However, the same dose TNBS (5 mg/0.8 mL per rat, 8 cm depth) in 25% ethanol induced significant mild non-ulcer inflammation compared to that treated with TNBS in 50% ethanol ($P < 0.01$). Four weeks after TNBS administration, there were no significant differences in MPO activity and histopathological score among all TNBS-treated groups and the control, suggesting that the rats treated with low dose TNBS (5 mg/0.8 mL per rat) had all completely recovered at 4 wk after TNBS administration.

Effect of trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid administration position, and ethanol percentage on the visceral hyperalgesia

To investigate whether the low dose TNBS (5 mg/0.8 mL per rat)-treated rats acquired long-lasting visceral hyperalgesia after inflammation resolution, AWR test was applied to all these TNBS-treated rats at 4 and 8 wk after TNBS administration. As shown in Figure 4, at 4 wk after TNBS administration, the pain threshold pressure in all TNBS-treated rats was decreased significantly compared to the control ($P < 0.05$), but no significant difference was found among these TNBS-treated rats. At 8 wk after TNBS administration, the pain threshold pressure in rats treated with TNBS at the depth of 8 cm was still significantly decreased compared to that of the controls ($P < 0.05$), but no significant difference was found in rats treated with TNBS at 4 cm from anus or in 25% ethanol.

Enterochromaffin cell hyperplasia in trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid-induced post-infectious irritable bowel syndrome rat model

To investigate whether the rats treated with low dose TNBS (5 mg/0.8 mL per rat, in 50% ethanol) at 8 cm from anus also acquired other features of PI-IBS, the EC cell number and 5-HT content in the proximal and distal colon tissues were further tested at 4 and 8 wk after TNBS administration. As shown in Figure 5, compared to the control, 5-HT content in the proximal colon, but not the distal colon, were significantly increased, with 32% ($P < 0.01$) and 23% ($P < 0.05$) increased at 4 and 8 wk after TNBS administration, respectively. A

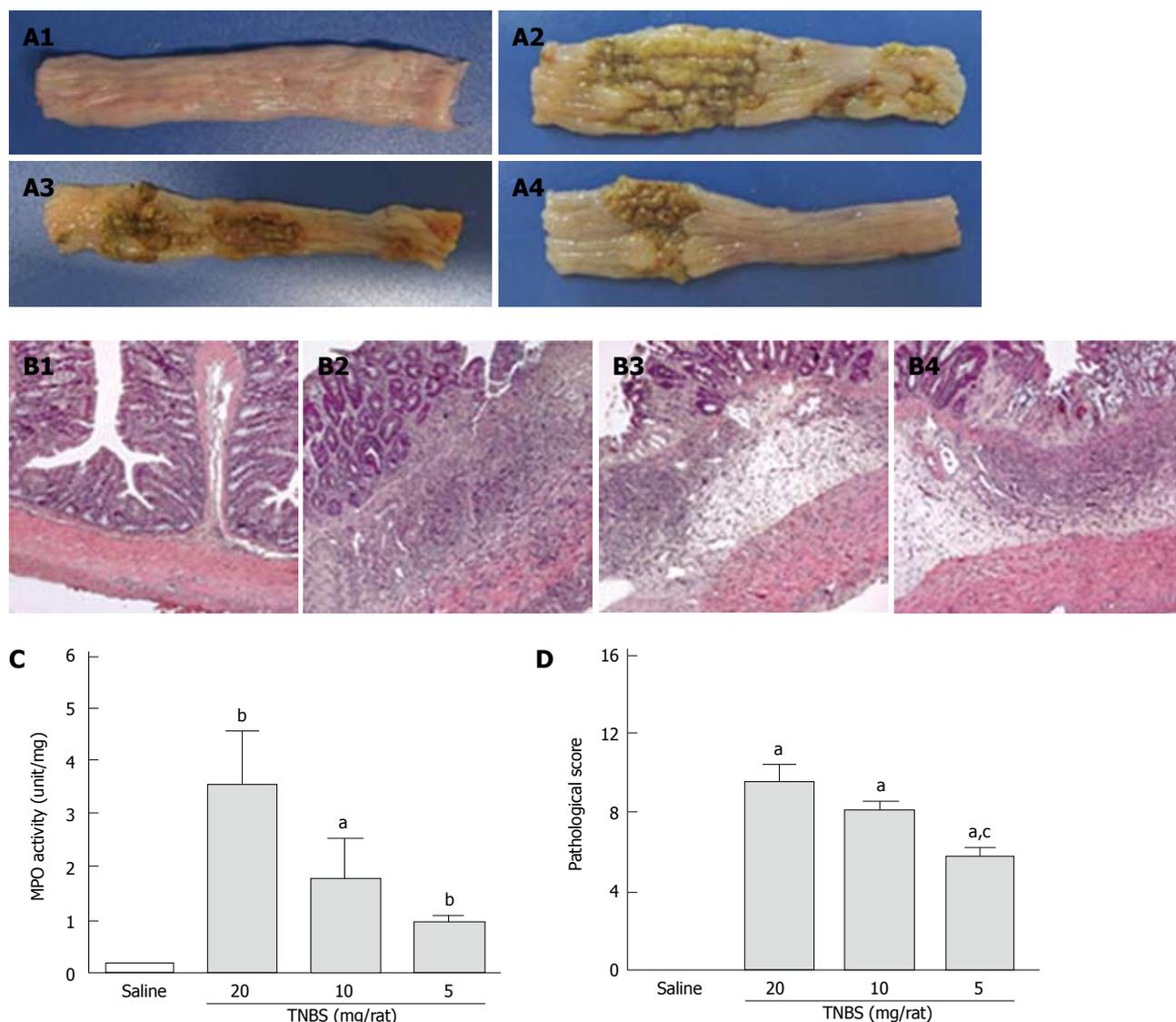


Figure 1 Acute colonic inflammation and damage induced by different doses of trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid at 5 d after trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid administration. Panel A depicts the appearance of colon tissue in saline (A1), high dose trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid (TNBS) (20 mg/rat, A2), medium dose TNBS (10 mg/rat, A3), and low dose TNBS (5 mg/rat, A4)-treated groups; Panel B depicts the representative histological changes of colon tissue in saline (B1), high dose TNBS (B2), median dose TNBS (B3), and low dose TNBS (B4)-treated groups (hematoxylin and eosin staining, 100 \times); Statistical analysis of myeloperoxidase (MPO) activity is shown in panel (C), and pathological score in panel (D). Data are shown as mean \pm SE, $n = 4$ per group. ^a $P < 0.05$, ^b $P < 0.01$ vs saline-treated group; ^c $P < 0.05$ vs high dose TNBS-treated group (one-way analysis of variance, Student-Newman-Keuls).

similar trend can also be found in the EC cell number; i.e., there were 68% and 60% increases at 4 and 8 wk after TNBS administration, respectively ($P < 0.01$), suggesting this TNBS-induced PI-IBS model also presents EC cell hyperplasia in the colon tissue.

DISCUSSION

TNBS is an agent commonly used in inducing post-inflammatory IBS model currently. Concerning the variations in developing a protocol of the TNBS-induced PI-IBS rat model and the three necessary features of PI-IBS animal model (i.e., initial inflammation/infection, inflammation/infection resolution, and acquired symptoms of IBS), the present study investigated the effects of TNBS dosage and concentration, intracolonic TNBS

administration position, and ethanol percentage on the development of the TNBS-induced PI-IBS rat model. Our results showed that: (1) TNBS induced dose- and concentration-dependent acute inflammation and inflammation resolution at the dose range of 5-20 mg/rat; (2) Intracolonic TNBS administration position affected the persistence of later acquired visceral hyperalgesia, but not the initial inflammation severity; (3) Ethanol percentage affected the TNBS-induced inflammation severity and later acquired visceral hyperalgesia, and low ethanol percentage reduced the degree of TNBS-induced acute inflammation and shortened the persistence of acquired visceral hyperalgesia; and (4) The protocol with TNBS at 5 mg/0.8 mL per rat, dissolved in 50% ethanol, intracolonic administered 8 cm from anus may be a proper protocol in which rats can recover completely from the

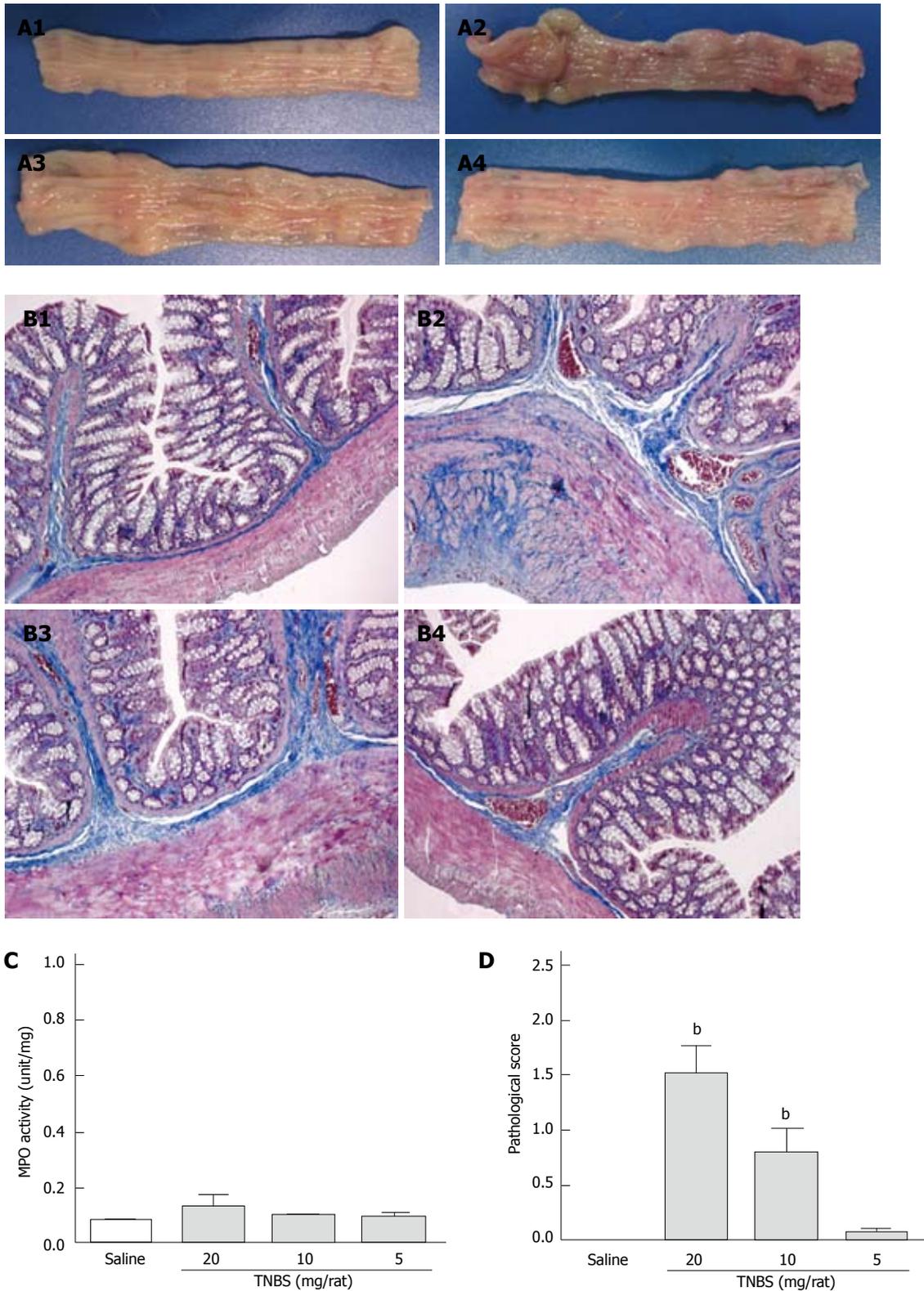


Figure 2 Effect of trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid dosage on severity of acute inflammation and inflammation resolution. The colon tissue was collected at 4 wk after trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid (TNBS) administration. Panel A depicts the appearance of colon tissue in saline (A1), high dose TNBS (20 mg/rat, A2), medium dose TNBS (10 mg/rat, A3), and low dose TNBS (5 mg/rat, A4)-treated rats; Panel B depicts the representative histological changes of colon tissue in saline (B1), high dose TNBS (B2), medium dose TNBS (B3), and low dose TNBS (B4)-treated rats (Masson trichrome staining, 100 \times); Statistical analysis of myeloperoxidase (MPO) activity is shown in panel (C), and pathological score in panel (D). Data are shown as mean \pm SE, $n = 4$ per group. ^b $P < 0.01$ vs saline-treated group (one-way analysis of variance, Student-Newman-Keuls).

initial inflammation but acquire persistent visceral hyperalgesia and EC cell hyperplasia at 4 wk after TNBS

administration.

As shown in our results, in the dose range of 5-20

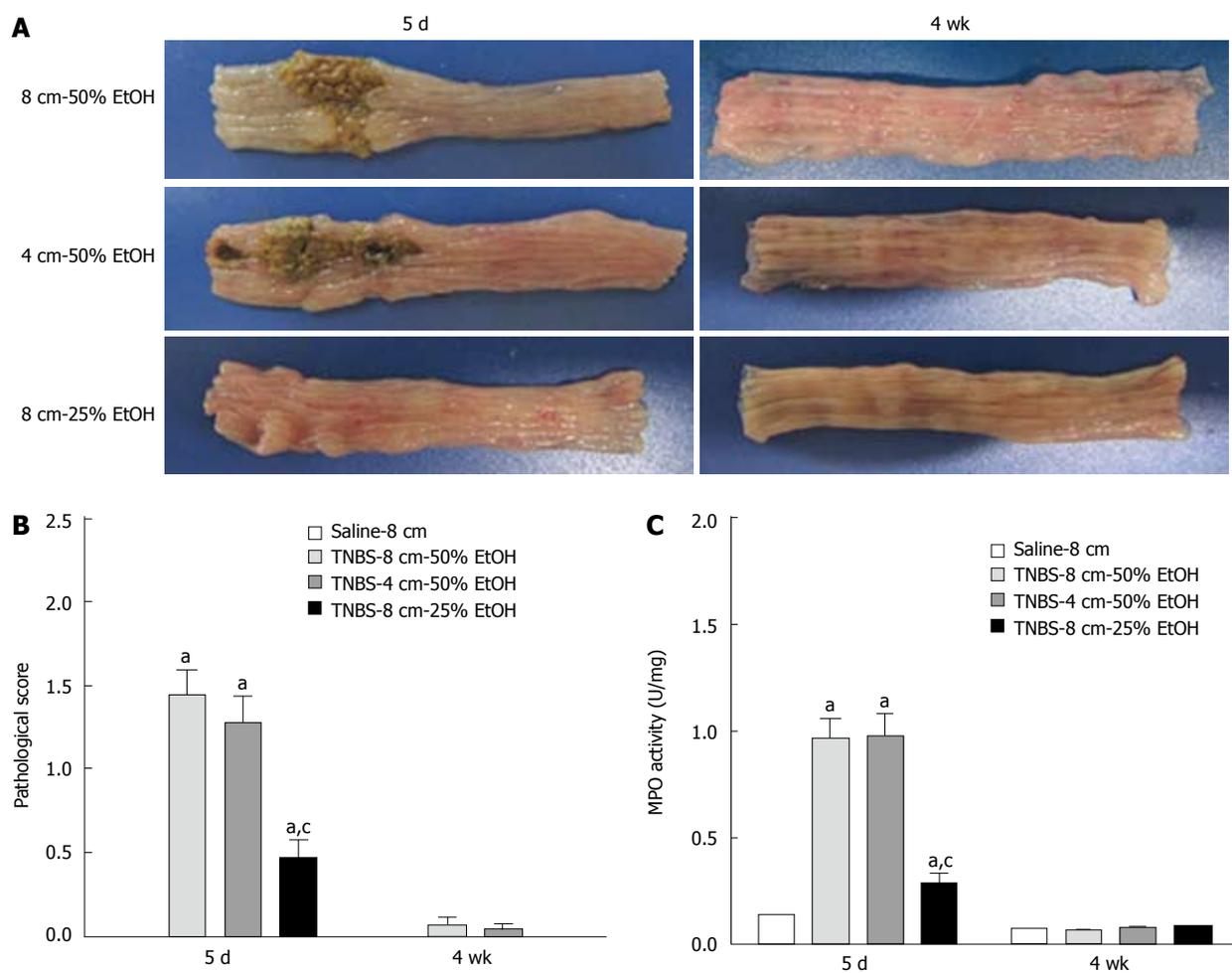


Figure 3 Effects of trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid administration position and ethanol percentage on severity of acute inflammation and inflammation resolution. Panel A depicts the appearance of colon tissue in rats treated with trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid (TNBS) at 4 cm or 8 cm from anus or in 25% ethanol. The colon tissues were collected at 5 d or 4 wk after TNBS administration, respectively; Statistical analysis of pathological score is shown in panel (B), and myeloperoxidase (MPO) activity in panel (C). Data are shown as mean \pm SE, $n = 4-5$ per group. ^a $P < 0.05$ vs saline-treated rats, ^c $P < 0.05$ vs rats treated with TNBS at 8 cm from the anus in 50% ethanol (one-way analysis of variance, Student-Newman-Keuls).

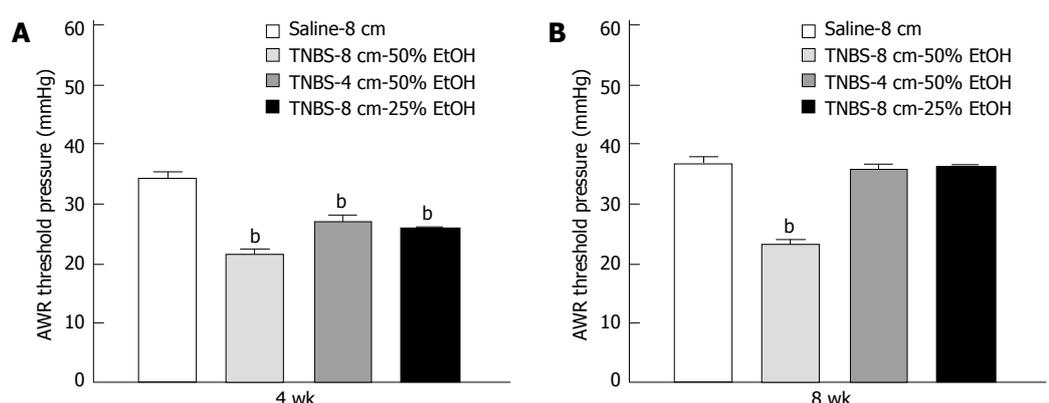


Figure 4 Effects of low dose trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid administration position and ethanol percentage on later acquired visceral hyperalgesia. Statistical analysis of pain threshold pressure at 4 wk and 8 wk after trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid (TNBS) administration are shown in panel (A) and (B), respectively. Data are shown as mean \pm SE, $n = 5$ per group. ^b $P < 0.01$ vs saline-treated rats (one-way analysis of variance, Student-Newman-Keuls). AWR: Abdominal withdrawal reflex.

mg per rat, the higher the dose of TNBS, the more severe the acute inflammation and mucosa damage. This finding is consistent with previous reports that the severity and duration in TNBS-induced inflammation is

dose-dependent^[13,14,17]. It is notable that the same dose of TNBS (20 mg/rat) when given to rats in different vehicle volumes induced different degrees of damage; a higher TNBS concentration (50 mg/mL) induced

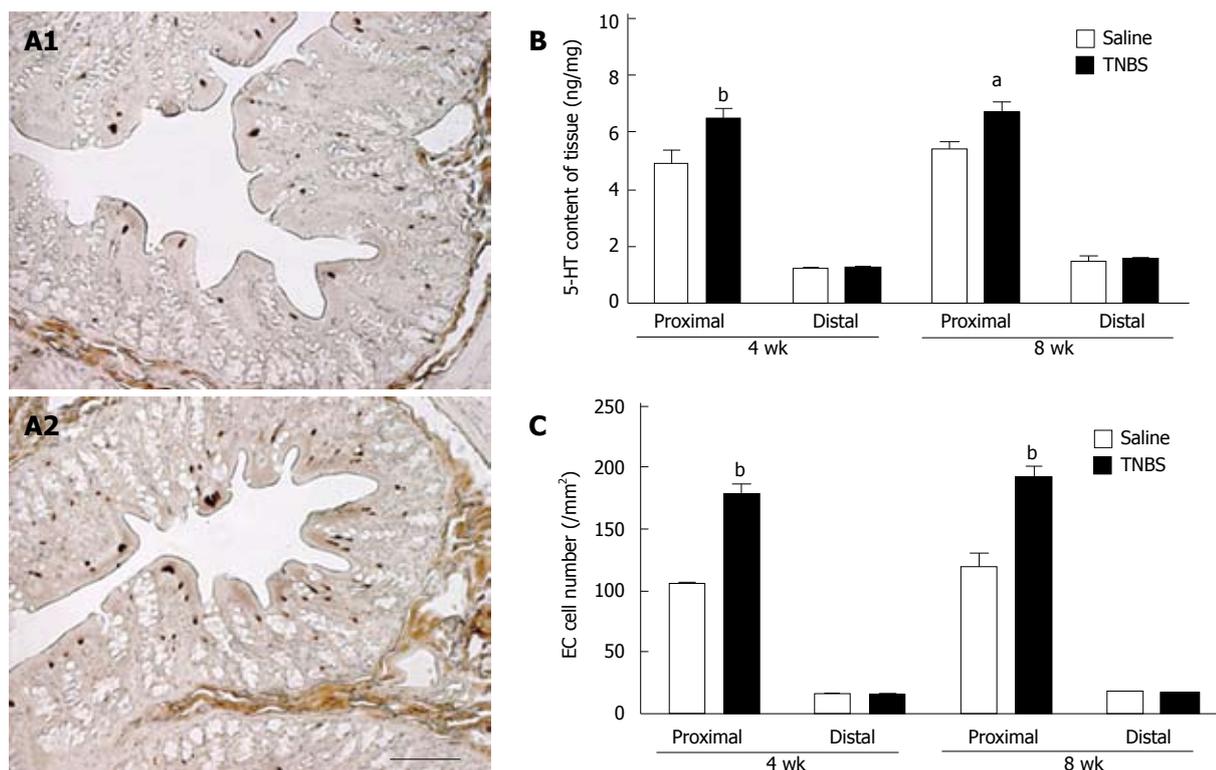


Figure 5 Persistent increases of enterochromaffin cell number and serotonin content in the colon tissue of trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid-induced post-infectious irritable bowel syndrome rat model. The colon tissue was collected at 4 wk and 8 wk after trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid (TNBS) administration. Panel A depicts the representative enterochromaffin (EC) cell staining in colon mucosa, the samples were from rats treated with saline (A1), or TNBS (A2) at 4 wk post TNBS (Scale bar, 100 μ m). Statistical analysis of serotonin content is shown in panel (B), and EC cell number in panel (C). Data are shown as mean \pm SE, $n = 5$ per group. ^a $P < 0.05$, ^b $P < 0.01$ vs saline-treated rats. 5-HT: 5-hydroxytryptamine.

more severe damage, even causing animal death in the acute phase. Our pathological results also showed that high-concentration TNBS-treated rats presented localized more severe inflammation and deeper ulcerations around the position of TNBS administration, which may be responsible for the occurrence of colitis complications, i.e., intestinal obstruction, intra-abdominal infection, and animal death. Concerning the fact that inflammation severity and duration have close correlation with TNBS dosage, the effects of TNBS dosage on inflammation resolution was assessed at 4 wk after TNBS administration. According to the pathologist's suggestion, fibroplasia evaluation index was added into the pathological evaluation criteria for the first time, so as to exactly evaluate inflammation resolution. Our results showed that the animals receiving low dose TNBS (5 mg/rat) recovered completely at 4 wk after TNBS administration, but those receiving high (20 mg/rat) and medium (10 mg/rat) dose were not recovered. This result seems to somewhat conflict with the finding from a previous study in which the rats receiving TNBS (5-20 mg/rat, in 25% ethanol) all recovered after 4 wk^[14]. We speculate that this discrepancy may come from the protocol differences between these two studies, such as ethanol percentage, animal strain, or evaluation criteria. Consistent with our findings, the previous study showed that colonic inflammation induced by TNBS (30 mg/rat, in 50% ethanol) lasted for at least 8 wk^[17], suggesting the

inflammation resolution is also dose-dependent. Based on previous findings and our results, TNBS dosage plays a critical role in TNBS-induced inflammation severity and resolution, and low dose TNBS (5 mg/rat)-induced inflammation can recover completely at 4 wk after TNBS administration.

Currently, 25% and 50% ethanol are both used as the carrier of TNBS in establishing TNBS-induced PI-IBS model and TNBS is commonly given to rats at the depth of either 4 cm or 8 cm from the anus. Based on low dose TNBS (5 mg/0.8 mL per rat) selection, we further investigated the effects of ethanol percentage and intracolonic administration position on the severity and resolution of TNBS-induced inflammation. Our results showed that rats treated with low dose TNBS at a depth of 4 cm or 8 cm presented similar inflammation severity and resolution, while the rats treated with TNBS in 25% ethanol developed milder non-ulcer inflammation compared to those treated with TNBS in 50% ethanol. As the carrier of TNBS, ethanol is known as a breaker to the mucosal barrier, and 30%-50% ethanol alone has been proved to induce acute inflammation and hyperemia^[18,28]. Moreover, previous study have shown that 30% ethanol alone induced small areas of hyperemia, while TNBS combined with 30% ethanol induced larger area of necrosis and hyperemia in the colon^[18]. These findings indicate that ethanol alone can induce concentration-dependent inflammation, and can be considered

Table 5 Detailed protocols in developing trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid induced post-inflammatory irritable bowel syndrome model in Sprague-Dawley rats

Procedures	Cautions
1. 7-wk-old male Sprague-Dawley rats, fast 24 h before TNBS administration	Fresh preparation
2. Mix 1 volume of 12.5 mg/mL TNBS-saline solution with 1 volume of absolute ethanol	
3. Weight and anesthetized rats with chloral hydrate (350 mg/kg, i.p.)	Anesthetization may last for 3-4 h
4. Insert a catheter into the colon at 8 cm from anus	Proceed carefully to avoid damage the colon wall
5. Keep the rat with head-down vertical position, instill 0.8 mL TNBS solution slowly into the colon lumen within 1 min	Handle slowly to avoid TNBS leakage
6. Keep the rat in head-down vertical position for 1 min before gently removing the catheter	
7. Put the rats in a mound of bedding in head-down position until consciousness recovery	Ensure TNBS solution remains completely in the colon; Keep the rats warm
8. On day 3, 7, 14, 21 and 28, observe and weight the rats	On day 3, body weight decreased by 10%-20% with unformed bloody stool; On day 7, body weight regained and reached the original level, the stool become formed but still soft; From day 7 to day 28, body weight increased smoothly, and finally reached the control level

TNBS: Trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid.

as an invasive helper in enhancing the effects of TNBS. Therefore, it seems reasonable that milder inflammation was induced in rats treated with equal dose of TNBS (5 mg/rat) but in lower ethanol percentage (25%). These results can also explain why high dose or high concentration TNBS have also been used by some researchers in establishing a PI-IBS model: low concentration ethanol may ameliorate the effects of TNBS^[13,14].

Visceral hyperalgesia, the major feature of IBS, was further tested in low dose TNBS (5 mg/0.8 mL per rat) treated rats. From 4 wk to 8 wk post TNBS intracolonic administration at a depth of 8 cm, significant and persistent decrease in visceral pain threshold pressure was found, while the intracolonic TNBS administration at a depth of 4 cm or in 25% ethanol presented short-term acquired visceral hyperalgesia. Nowadays, the duration and severity of inflammation are considered as important risk factors in the development of PI-IBS^[29], and severe inflammation which results in deep impairment of the underlining nerve fibers has been proposed to play an important role in the pathogenesis of IBS^[30]. Based on the above evidence, we believe the unstable visceral hyperalgesia (i.e., lasting for less than 4 wk) in rats treated with TNBS in 25% ethanol may have close correlation with the mild non-ulcer inflammation observed at the acute phase of inflammation. These results also provide us with the information that mild inflammation, even without ulceration, can induce later short-term visceral hyperalgesia. However, it seems interesting that the same dose of TNBS when given at the different positions of colon (transverse *vs* descending) induced different features of acquired visceral hyperalgesia (persistent *vs* short-term), even though the TNBS-induced acute inflammation and damage was similar at first. Considering the unclear and complex pathogenesis of visceral hypersensitivity in PI-IBS, it is not easy to provide a clear explanation for the current findings. However,

during the acute phase of TNBS-induced inflammation, obvious colon dilation and a large amount of retained feces were found in the inflamed transverse colon, but not in the inflamed distal colon. We speculate that the persistent colonic inflammation and dilation may play important roles in enteric nerve system plasticity, and thus influence the feature of acquired visceral hypersensitivity. Currently, peripheral and central neuroplastic changes are considered to be associated with post-inflammatory persistent visceral hypersensitivity^[1,31]. It is also well known that transient colorectal distension in the neonatal period can result in chronic visceral hypersensitivity and motility dysfunction in adulthood^[25,32], and the underlying mechanism is thought to be associated with alterations in peripheral and central nerve systems^[33]. Moreover, considering the different structure and functions of the transverse and descending colons, the regional differences in gut flora^[34], mast cells^[35] and EC cells^[36] may also contribute to the different feature of acquired visceral hypersensitivity observed in our study. Further studies are needed to clarify these issues.

EC cell hyperplasia has been found in the colonic specimens of IBS and PI-IBS patients^[37-39], and EC cell hyperplasia has been reported to play important role in the development of visceral hypersensitivity in IBS patients^[40,41]. To identify whether visceral hyperalgesia is also accompanied with EC cell hyperplasia in the TNBS-induced PI-IBS rat model, EC cell number and 5-HT content were further investigated in the proximal and distal colon of PI-IBS rats. As shown in our study, the EC cell number and 5-HT content in the proximal colon, but not the distal colon, were significantly and persistently increased in this TNBS model, suggesting the occurrence of EC cell hyperplasia. However, this result differed from the finding from IBS patients, as EC cell hyperplasia in rectal mucosa was commonly reported^[3]. This may be explained by the different distribution of

EC cells in the gut mucosa between human beings and rats: the vast majority of EC cells in humans mainly resides in the small intestine and rectum^[42] while the major source of EC cells in rats largely locates in the cecum with a decline trend from the proximal to the distal colon^[36]. Consistent with our findings, previous studies also showed that 5-HT content in the rat proximal colon tissue was significantly higher (about 5 fold) than that in the distal colon^[43,44]. Therefore, it seems that EC cell hyperplasia in the proximal colon can be regarded as one of the features of the TNBS-induced PI-IBS rat model.

This present study, for the first time, showed that TNBS dosage and concentration, position of intracolonic TNBS administration, and ethanol percentage play important roles in developing the TNBS-induced PI-IBS model in Sprague-Dawley rats, suggesting more attention should be paid to these factors when developing a PI-IBS model with TNBS. Concerning the gene differences among animal strains, the protocol set up here may need some modulation when other rat strains except Sprague-Dawley rats, are used. Though this TNBS model presented persistent visceral hyperalgesia and EC cell hyperplasia for as long as 4 wk, more studies are still needed to observe the long-lasting visceral hyperalgesia and identify other features of PI-IBS in this model.

In the present study, we found out that the protocol with TNBS at 5 mg/0.8 mL per rat, dissolved in 50% ethanol, intracolonic administered at 8 cm from the anus resulted in persistent visceral hyperalgesia and colonic EC cell hyperplasia after complete recovery from the initial inflammation in rats. With this protocol, low-dose TNBS-induced mild mucosa damage and colonic inflammation is reproducible without any animal loss; visceral hyperalgesia and EC cell hyperplasia which last for at least 4 wk occur as early as 4 wk after TNBS administration. The details of this protocol are presented in Table 5. Ensuring the results from different laboratories would be comparable, we believe that widespread adoption of a recommended protocol will save a great quantity of time and resources.

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COMMENTS

Background

Post-infectious irritable bowel syndrome (PI-IBS) is a subgroup of IBS in which the patients developed their symptoms after recovery from an acute gastrointestinal infection. Previous systematic review showed that the trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid (TNBS)-induced model is the most commonly used PI-IBS model, but there are large variations in the protocol of model development. These variations make comparison between studies to be very difficult, if not impossible.

Research frontiers

This study aimed to investigate the effects of TNBS dosage, concentration, intracolonic administration position, and ethanol percentage on TNBS-induced acute inflammation, inflammation resolution, and later acquired features of IBS

(i.e., visceral hyperalgesia and enterochromaffin cell hyperplasia).

Innovations and breakthroughs

Recent studies have highlighted the important status of PI-IBS in functional diseases, as the clear onset and well defined pathophysiological changes of PI-IBS will help people understand not only the PI-IBS but also other subtypes of IBS. Moreover, the validated animal models, which aim to mimic one or more features of human disease, play important roles in the studies of mechanisms and potential therapeutic agents for diseases. This is the first study aimed to investigate the effects of key factors on developing TNBS-induced PI-IBS model in rats. The results and recommended protocol presented in this study will save a great deal of time and resources and ensure the results from different laboratories be comparable.

Applications

This study provides direct information about the effects of key factors on TNBS-induced acute inflammation, inflammation resolution, and later acquired features of IBS. More attention should be paid to these key factors when developing PI-IBS rat model with TNBS.

Peer review

This is a good descriptive study in which authors investigate the effects of TNBS dosage and concentration, intracolonic administration position, and ethanol percentage on the developing TNBS-induced PI-IBS rat model. The topic is interesting and useful for the study of pathophysiology of PI-IBS and the development of therapeutic agents.

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Cost-benefit analysis of esophageal cancer endoscopic screening in high-risk areas of China

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Abstract

AIM: To estimate the cost-benefit of endoscopic screening strategies of esophageal cancer (EC) in high-risk areas of China.

METHODS: Markov model-based analyses were conducted to compare the net present values (NPVs) and the benefit-cost ratios (BCRs) of 12 EC endoscopic screening strategies. Strategies varied according to the targeted screening age, screening frequencies, and follow-up intervals. Model parameters were collected from population-based studies in China, published literatures, and surveillance data.

RESULTS: Compared with non-screening outcomes, all strategies with hypothetical 100 000 subjects saved life

years. Among five dominant strategies determined by the incremental cost-effectiveness analysis, screening once at age 50 years incurred the lowest NPV (international dollar-I\$55 million) and BCR (2.52). Screening six times between 40-70 years at a 5-year interval [i.e., six times(40)f-strategy] yielded the highest NPV (I\$99 million) and BCR (3.06). Compared with six times(40)f-strategy, screening thrice between 40-70 years at a 10-year interval resulted in relatively lower NPV, but the same BCR.

CONCLUSION: EC endoscopic screening is cost-beneficial in high-risk areas of China. Policy-makers should consider the cost-benefit, population acceptance, and local economic status when choosing suitable screening strategies.

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Key words: Cost-benefit analysis; Esophageal cancer; Endoscopy; Screening; High-risk area

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INTRODUCTION

Esophageal cancer (EC) is the eighth most common cancer and the sixth most common cause of cancer death worldwide^[1]. Although the mortality of EC has

sharply reduced over the last three decades, EC remains the fourth leading cause of cancer death in China with a mortality of 15.21/100 000^[2]. According to the “Third National Retrospective Sampling Survey of Death Causes Report in 2004-2005 of China”, EC continues to be the major public health burden in some high-risk areas, where the mortality of EC was three times higher than the average of the country. EC is a fatal disease, with a 5-year survival rate of less than 20% even in developed countries^[3,4].

To explore suitable control measures in high-risk areas of China, a great number of EC screening studies using endoscopic examinations (i.e., endoscopy with mucosal iodine staining and index biopsy as a screening technology, combined with pathological examination for confirming and staging the disease) have been conducted for several decades^[5-10]. Through early detection and subsequent treatment, the 5-year survival rate of EC increased to 86%^[10]. Furthermore, obvious reductions in incidence and mortality rates of EC were observed under endoscopic screening^[11].

A national screening program for EC in high-risk areas has become available in 73 sites of 27 provinces of China based on evidence from previous studies. Nevertheless, due to lacking comprehensive health economic evaluations on such programs, two key public health questions remain to be answered: is the endoscopic screening cost-beneficial in the long run? Should we use the same screening strategy in both developed and developing high-risk areas of China?

The objective of this paper is to explore appropriate screening strategies for EC in high-risk areas of China from the health economic perspective by comparing the long-term cost-benefits of 12 endoscopic screening alternatives. It will provide valuable data for policy makers to make decisions on the current screening program.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Decision analysis model

A Markov model was constructed to evaluate the cost-benefit of different screening strategies for EC. In each strategy simulation, a hypothetical cohort with 100 000 participants entered the model at age 40 years and were followed up until the age of 70 years. Costs and benefits were all discounted at an annual rate of 3%^[12]. TreeAge Pro 2009 Suite by TreeAge Software Inc. was used for all analysis.

The natural history of EC was categorized as the following health status: normal, mild dysplasia (mD), moderate dysplasia (MD), severe dysplasia/carcinoma *in situ* (SD/CIS), intramucosal carcinoma (IC), submucosal carcinoma (T₁N₀M₀) (SC), invasive carcinoma (INC), and death. Figure 1 depicts the detailed transition processes of EC in the Markov model. Each rectangle represents a health state. During a Markov cycle (1 year), one could transit from his/her current health state to another (indicated by arrows between different states) or remain in the same state (indicated by half-circle arrows on the rectangles). Prior to the development of IC, the condi-

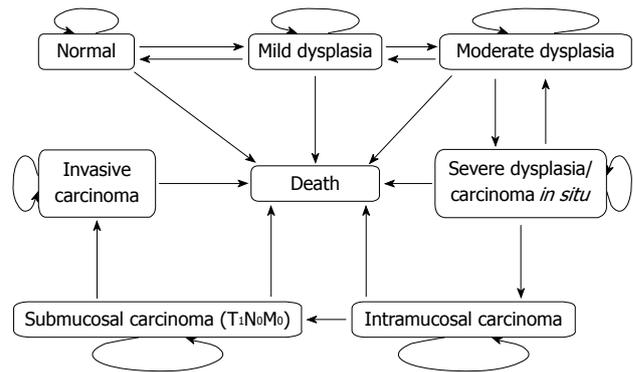


Figure 1 Bubble diagram representing the health states of esophageal cancer and transitions in natural-history Markov model.

tion could spontaneously regress. Once IC developed, no regression could occur. We used the model to evaluate all screening alternatives and non-screening outcomes.

Screening strategies

In the context of lacking guidelines for EC screening worldwide, we explored 12 screening strategies using endoscopic examinations. These strategies were performed at varying starting age for screening (40, 45 or 50 years), screening frequency (once, twice, thrice, or six times in the lifetime), and intervals of follow-up for mD and MD cases (e.g., 5 or 3 years). The strategies were listed as “t(y)nf/t(y)f”, where t denotes the screening frequency, y represents the starting age of screening, nf means we do not follow up the mD and MD cases diagnosed by screening, and f means the mD and MD cases are followed up every 5 years and 3 years, respectively. For twice and thrice screening strategies in the lifetime, the screening intervals were 10 years; for six times screening strategy, the screening intervals were 5 years.

Screening, diagnosis, and treatment procedures for the strategies were all based on the current practice manuals. The participants were screened using endoscopy with iodine staining. If endoscopy revealed a suspected lesion (mD or worse), index biopsy combined with pathological examination were performed consecutively. The detailed procedures of endoscopy were the same with those in the literature^[13]. For SD/CIS and IC cases detected by screening, Endoscopic Mucosal Resection and/or Argon Plasma Coagulation served as the standard treatment. For detected patients with SC or worse, therapies included esophagectomy, radiotherapy, and other routine treatments. Subjects who were not screened would be diagnosed and treated if they presented with symptomatic EC. All patients were followed up once by endoscopy in the first year after treatment.

Model parameters

The data used in the model were compiled from a variety of sources: (1) the results of our prospective cohort study based on the EC chemoprevention trial of selenomethionine and celecoxib in “early detection of EC” (EDEC) program; (2) the results of our population-based

Table 1 Non-age-specific parameters

Parameters	Value	Parameters	Value	Parameters	Value ¹
Initial probability ²		Transition probability-continued		Compliance of screening ²	67% (30%-100%)
Normal	0.8895	SD/CIS	see Table 2	Sensitivity of endoscopy ^[6]	96% (92%-99%)
mD	0.0820	IC	see Table 2	Specificity of endoscopy ^[6]	90% (59%-100%)
MD	0.0180	INC		Screening cost (I\$ per capita) ²	
SD/CIS	0.0090	Recovering to post-INC	0.7696	Direct cost	61.50 (37.00-119.00)
IC	0.0008	Relapsing to INC after treatment	0.2304	Indirect cost	8.31 (8.09-8.53)
SC	0.0005	After treatment ⁴		Treatment cost (I\$ per capita) ^{[24]2}	
INC	0.0002	Post-SD/CIS		Direct cost	
Transition probability ^{[9,16-21]2,3}		Recovering to normal	0.9950	SD/CIS	1292 (1114-1565)
Normal		Relapsing to SD/CIS	0.0050	IC	1292 (1114-1565)
Remaining normal	0.9760	Post-IC		SC	1818 (1519-2799)
Progression to mD	0.0240	Remaining post-IC	0.9450	INC-screening group	2767 (2332-4031)
mD		Relapsing to IC	0.0500	INC-control group	4888 (4333-6396)
Regression to normal	0.0500	Relapsing and progression to SC	0.0050	Indirect cost	
Remaining mD	0.9000	Post-SC		SD/CIS	1654 (1341-1968)
Progression to MD	0.0500	Remaining post-SC	0.8500	IC	1654 (1341-1968)
MD		Relapsing to SC	0.0500	SC	3369 (2872-3866)
Regression to mD	0.0800	Relapsing and progression to INC	0.1000	INC-screening group	3369 (2872-3866)
Remaining MD	0.8000	Post-INC (Same with "INC")		INC-control group	5526 (4584-6466)
Progression to SD/CIS	0.1200	Death probability	see Table 2	Discount rate ^{[12]5}	3% (0%-6%)

mD: Mild dysplasia; MD: Moderate dysplasia; SD/CIS: Severe dysplasia/carcinoma *in situ*; IC: Intramucosal carcinoma; SC: Submucosal carcinoma (T1NoM0); INC: Invasive carcinoma; I\$: International dollar. ¹For compliance, sensitivity and specificity of endoscopy, screening and treatment costs, and discount rate, the numerals before and in the parenthesis denote the base case and ranges used in sensitivity analysis; ²Data were calculated in terms of the project called "Early Detection and Early Treatment of Esophageal Cancer in Demonstration Centers in China"; ³Data were collected from the death registry report of Linzhou County during 2004-2006; ⁴Post-SD/CIS, post-IC, post-SC and post-INC represent the "health" condition after treatment of SD/CIS, IC, SC and INC; ⁵Costs and life years were discounted during the Markov cycles.

screening project "Early Detection and Early Treatment of EC in Demonstration Centers in China" (EDETTEC); (3) surveillance data; (4) published literatures; and (5) unpublished data.

In the chemoprevention trial of EDEC program, 2213 asymptomatic adults from Linzhou County, Henan Province of China, underwent an endoscopic screening in 1999^[14]. Among them, 2189 participants who had histological diagnoses at the baseline evaluations were surveilled until 2007. The primary end-point was the occurrence of EC, confirmed by village doctors through checking the histological diagnoses in medical records. The project EDETTEC covering 11 high-risk areas of EC was launched by the Chinese central government in 2005. The purpose was to increase the early detection and treatment rate as well as the 5-year survival rate of EC, and to improve the screening, early detection and treatment program and so forth^[15].

Probabilities

At the initial model cycle, a hypothetical cohort of 100 000 participants was distributed among various health states based on the proportion of each pathologic stage of EC in the 40-44 years age group. The proportions were calculated in terms of the screening results of Linzhou County in the project EDETTEC between 2005 and 2008. Among the 8267 asymptomatic participants aged 40-69 years, 8.2% cases were identified as mD in the 40-44 years age group. Full details are presented in Tables 1 and 2.

In each cycle of a Markov process, the transitions among health states occurred with annual transition prob-

abilities. They were estimated in terms of: (1) published literatures^[9,16-21]; and (2) the results of both EDEC and EDETTEC projects in Linzhou County (Tables 1 and 2).

It is believed that persons with SD/CIS or lesser abnormality may not die from EC and that patients with IC or SC may die from all causes including EC. In patients with INC, we assumed that they may mainly die from EC. Therefore, in our model, the corresponding death probabilities for three different populations above were converted from non-esophageal-cancer mortality, all-cause mortality, and case fatality rate of EC, respectively. All age-specific mortality rates were obtained from the death registry reports of Linzhou County between 2004 and 2006. And they were converted to probabilities by the formula: Probability = 1 - Exp (-rt), where "r" represents the rate and 't' denotes the time (Tables 1 and 2).

Screening compliance

The compliance of EC screening in different settings varied from 33.4% to 77.1%^[22]. In the EDETTEC program, the screening compliance of EC in Linzhou County during 2005-2008 was 67% (8267/12 294), which was used as a baseline in this analysis (Table 1).

Screening and treatment cost

In our model, both screening and treatment costs included direct and indirect costs, which were calculated from a societal perspective. Direct costs referred to those associated with drugs, disposable supplies, equipment and facilities, staff, *etc.* In this study, we used costs rather than charges. And they were collected using Micro-costing methods in

Table 2 Age-specific parameters

Parameters	Value					
	40-yr	45-yr	50-yr	55-yr	60-yr	65-69-yr
Transition probability						
SD/CIS						
Regression to MD	0.17	0.15	0.14	0.12	0.11	0.09
Remaining SD/CIS	0.75	0.75	0.74	0.74	0.73	0.73
Progression to IC	0.08	0.10	0.12	0.14	0.16	0.18
IC						
Remaining IC	0.60	0.50	0.40	0.20	0.15	0.13
Progression to SC	0.40	0.50	0.60	0.80	0.85	0.87
SC						
Remaining SC	0.80	0.70	0.55	0.20	0.17	0.15
Progression to INC	0.20	0.30	0.45	0.80	0.83	0.85
Death probability						
Non-esophageal-cancer mortality	0.002270	0.003073	0.007054	0.017061	0.019744	0.024105
All-cause mortality	0.002438	0.003383	0.007967	0.019559	0.021985	0.027370
Case fatality rate of esophageal cancer	0.581700	0.581700	0.581700	0.581700	0.581700	0.581700

MD: Moderate dysplasia; SD/CIS: Severe dysplasia/carcinoma *in situ*; IC: Intramucosal carcinoma; SC: Submucosal carcinoma (T₁N₀M₀); INC: Invasive carcinoma.

the EDETEC program^[23]. Indirect cost was also estimated from our EDETEC program, including those related to transportation, accommodation, and the productivity losses of both patients and their caregivers^[24,25]. Considering differences in purchasing power, costs were presented in 2008 international dollars (I\$).

Screening cost per capita using endoscopic examination was I\$69.81. In screening group, the treatment costs for patients with SD/CIS or worse ranged from I\$2964 to I\$6136. In control group, the treatment cost for INC cases was I\$10 414, much higher than that in screening group (Table 1).

Other variables and assumptions

According to a previous study in Linzhou County, the sensitivity and specificity of endoscopic examination were 96% and 90%, respectively^[6] (Table 1). For individuals diagnosed as having precancerous lesions or EC (i.e., SD/CIS or worse), we assumed that they would complete the entire treatment procedures.

Health economic evaluation

The basic outcomes of the model were total costs (including screening costs and treatment costs) and expected life years. Then the net present values (NPVs) and the benefit-cost ratios (BCRs) were calculated under each of the strategies (for a hypothetical cohort of 100 000 subjects followed up from 40 years to 70 years of age).

For each screening cohort, the benefit consisted of the treatment cost averted and productivity gains from screening programs^[23], and counted by the formula: benefit = GDP per capita of Linzhou in 2008 (I\$6542) × (life years of screening cohort - life years of “non-screening” group) + treatment cost of “non-screening” group. The NPV was the benefit minus the total cost of the screening group; the BCR equaled to the benefit divided by the

total cost. The strategies with a NPV > 0 and a BCR > 1 were considered cost-beneficial.

In addition, the screening alternatives were compared using an incremental cost-effectiveness analysis. The strategies that were more expensive and gained fewer life years (dominated), or less costly and less cost-effective (extended dominated) than an alternative were excluded.

Sensitivity analysis

Given the uncertainty about some parameters, univariate sensitivity analyses were used to assess the robustness of the model results by varying the values of screening compliance, discount rate, screening cost, treatment cost, sensitivity and specificity of endoscopy within reasonable ranges (Table 1).

Model validation

Based on the established natural-history model, the validity of the Markov model was assessed by comparing the model-predicted age-specific incidence and the age-specific proportion of each stage of EC with the observed data in real-world conditions.

RESULTS

Baseline results

Compared with non-screening outcomes, the screening strategies could save life years of 2539-15 384 for a hypothetical population of 100 000, with NPVs of I\$24 million-I\$99 million and BCRs of 1.61-3.06. Strategies with higher screening frequencies were more cost-beneficial than those with lower screening frequencies (Table 3).

When compared with each other, it indicated that the once(50)f-, twice(40)f-, twice(45)f-, thrice(40)f-, and six times(40)f-strategies were cost-effective, dominating or extended dominating others. In other words, other

Table 3 Estimated epidemiological and economic effects for each strategy with 100 000 people under baseline assumptions

Screening strategies t(y)nf/ t(y)f ¹	Life years	Life years saved (LYS)	Costs (I\$)	ICER (I\$/LYS)	Benefit (I\$)	NPV (I\$)	BCR
Non-screening	1 811 125	-	46 354 958	D	-	-	-
Once(40)nf	1 813 664	2539	39 133 890	D	62 964 854	23 830 964	1.61
Once(45)nf	1 814 180	3055	38 213 022	D	66 340 477	28 127 455	1.74
Once(50)nf	1 814 634	3509	36 989 316	D	69 310 502	32 321 186	1.87
Once(40)f	1 817 922	6797	38 007 700	D	90 820 285	52 812 585	2.39
Once(45)f	1 818 783	7658	36 792 906	ED	96 452 865	59 659 959	2.62
Once(50)f	1 817 966	6841	36 117 125	/	91 108 128	54 991 003	2.52
Twice(40)f	1 822 516	11 391	39 532 080	940	120 873 795	81 341 715	3.06
Twice(45)f	1 821 595	10 470	38 665 956	702	114 848 701	76 182 745	2.97
Twice(50)f	1 819 124	7999	38 261 433	ED	98 683 654	60 422 221	2.58
Thrice(40)f	1 823 528	12 403	41 665 346	2108	127 494 203	85 828 857	3.06
Thrice(45)f	1 821 827	10 702	40 775 616	D	116 366 423	75 590 807	2.85
Six times(40)f	1 826 509	15 384	48 042 566	2139	146 995 621	98 953 055	3.06

I\$: International dollar. ICER means incremental cost-effectiveness ratio, which is defined as the additional cost of a specific strategy divided by its additional life years, as compared with the next-less-expensive strategy. D means dominated, e.g., the screening strategy is more expensive and less effective than another strategy. ED means extended dominated, e.g., if a screening strategy has a higher ICER than the next more costly, more effective strategy, it is extendedly dominated by that more cost-effective strategy. NPV: Net present value; BCR: Benefit-cost ratio. ¹t(y)nf/t(y)f: t denotes the frequencies of screening, y represents the starting age of screening, nf means we do not follow up the mild dysplasia and moderate dysplasia cases diagnosed by screening, and f means the mild dysplasia and moderate dysplasia cases diagnosed by screening are followed up every five and three years, respectively. For twice and thrice screening strategies in the lifetime, the screening intervals were 10 years; for the six times screening strategy in the lifetime, the screening intervals were five years. “-”: Life years saved, benefits, NPVs and BCRs of screening strategies were all calculated by comparing with non-screening group, accordingly, those are null for non-screening group; “/”: As the cheapest strategy, the ICER is null for the once(50)f-strategy.

strategies cost more and saved fewer lives, and were excluded. Among the cost-effective screening alternatives, the once(50)f-strategy saved the lowest life years of 6841, and resulted in the fewest NPV of I\$55 million and BCR of 2.52. The highest life years saved were observed in the six times(40)f-strategy, with the maximum NPV of I\$99 million and BCR of 3.06. Compared with six times(40)f-strategy, the thrice(40)f-strategy saved fewer life years and yielded lower NPV, but had the same BCR.

Sensitivity analysis

When the sensitivity and specificity of endoscopy, screening and treatment costs, discount rate, and screening compliance were changed once at a time (Table 1), once(50)f-, twice(40)f-, twice(45)f-, thrice(40)f-, and six times(40)f-strategies kept dominant. Uncertainty in those parameters had little effect on the choice of cost-effective strategies.

NPVs and BCRs changed obviously with screening cost, compliance, and discount rate under all cost-effective strategies. Both NPVs and BCRs were relatively less affected by the treatment cost, sensitivity and specificity of endoscopic examination. No matter how these parameters varied within the ranges, the results showed that screening was cost-beneficial with positive NPVs and BCRs > 1. In general, our results were robust (Figure 2).

Model validation

Comparison of incidence: The cancer registry report in Linzhou County during 2004-2006 showed that the age-specific incidence rates of EC were 47.44 per 100 000, 247.77 per 100 000, and 398.00 per 100 000 for the age groups of 40-49, 50-59, and 60-69 years, respectively. The corresponding model-predicted rates were

46.19/100 000, 248.14/100 000, and 424.78/100 000, respectively. The modeled estimates were about 94%-103% of the observed rates.

Comparison of proportions: First and most important, in any age group, the proportion of each histological grade of EC predicted by model was quite close to the screening results of the EDETEC program in Linzhou County during 2005-2008. And the estimated proportions were within the 99% confidence intervals of the observed data. Secondly, in each age group, the proportions decreased with the severity of the disease. And the proportions of mD ranked first. Last but not the least, for each pathologic grade of EC, the proportions increased with age, and reached the top in the 65-69 year-old group. Such tendency fit the characteristics of natural history of EC, and was also in agreement with the previous reports in other high-risk areas of China^[26,27]. In summary, the validity of the model was satisfactory (Figure 3).

DISCUSSION

It was the first comprehensive cost-benefit assessment for the EC screening using endoscopic examination in China. Compared with no screening, all 12 screening strategies covering a hypothetical population of 100 000 resulted in substantial NPVs and high BCRs. However, when compared with each other, only five strategies were cost-effective based on the incremental cost-effectiveness analysis. Among all cost-effective strategies, screening once at age 50 yielded the lowest NPV (I\$55 million) and BCR (2.52). Screening six times for those between 40-70 years of age at a 5-year interval yielded the highest NPV (I\$99 million) and BCR (3.06). Compared with the six times(40)f-

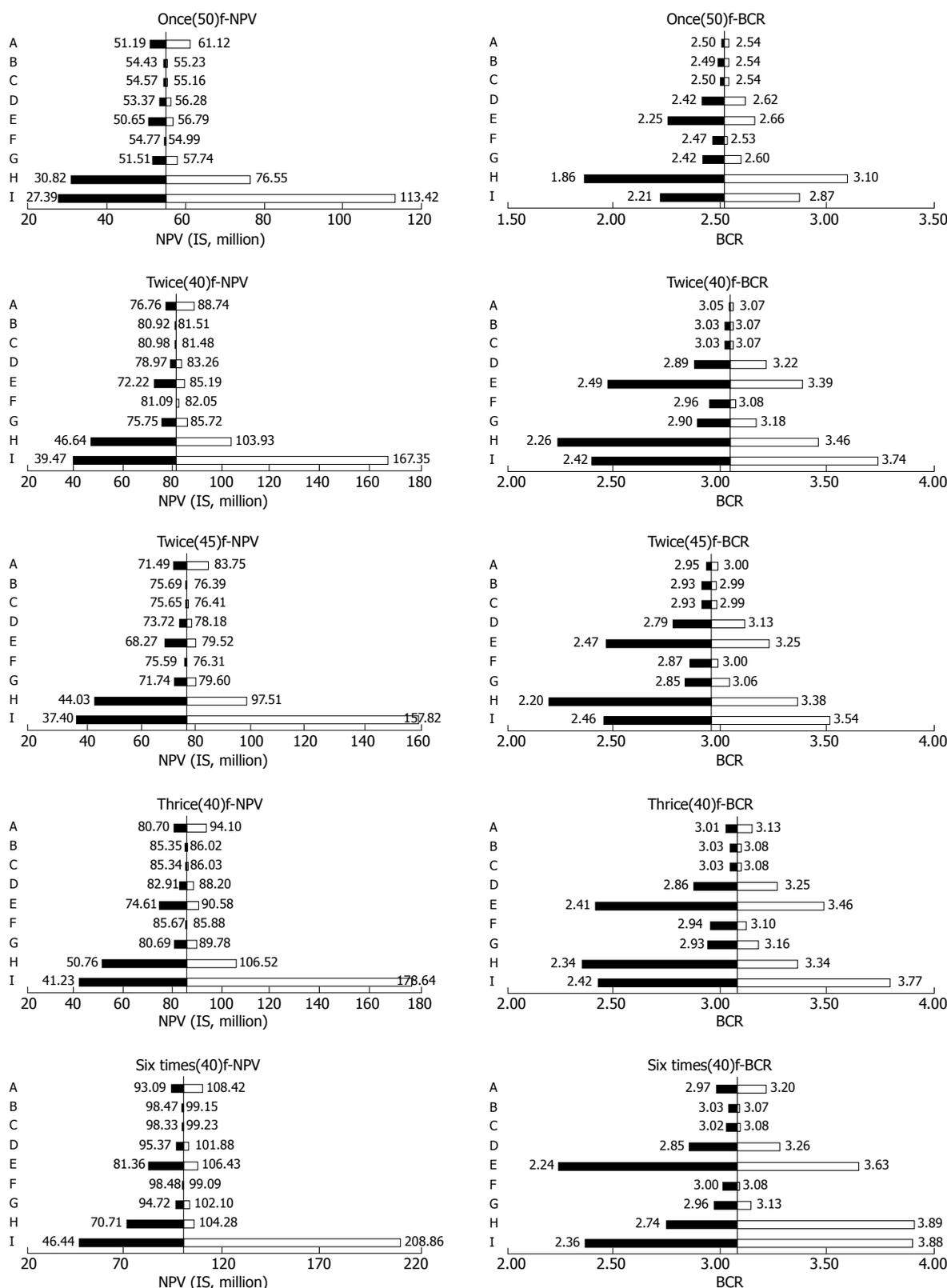


Figure 2 One-way sensitivity analyses for each cost-effective screening strategy. Strategies are expressed as t(y)f: t denotes the frequencies of screening; y denotes the starting age of screening; f means the mild dysplasia and moderate dysplasia diagnosed by screening were followed up every five and three years. For twice and thrice screening strategies in the lifetime, the screening intervals were 10 years; for the six times screening strategy in the lifetime, the screening intervals were 5 years. A: Treatment costs for invasive carcinoma of “non-screening” group; B: Treatment costs for invasive carcinoma of screening group; C: Treatment costs for submucosal carcinoma (T₁N₀M₀); D: Treatment costs for severe dysplasia/carcinoma *in situ*/intramucosal carcinoma; E: Screening costs; F: Specificity; G: Sensitivity; H: Screening compliance; I: Discount rate. Solid vertical lines represent the base cases of net present value (NPVs)/benefit-cost ratio (BCRs). For B, C, D, E and I, the left of each bar, the lowest bound of NPVs/BCRs range, was counted on the basis of the maximum values of related parameters; and the right of each bar, the highest bound of NPVs/BCRs range, was counted according to the minimum values of related parameters. For other parameters, the left/right of each bar was calculated based on their minimum/maximum values.

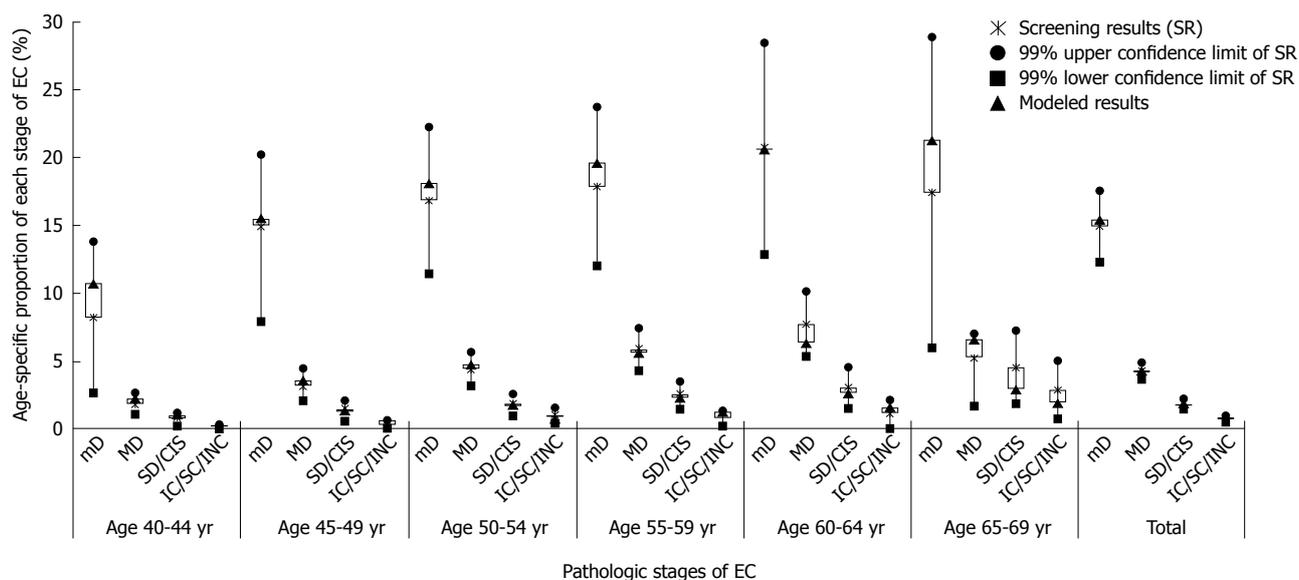


Figure 3 Comparison of modeled age-specific proportion of each pathologic stage of esophageal cancer with screening results. EC: Esophageal cancer; mD: Mild dysplasia; MD: Moderate dysplasia; SD/CIS: Severe dysplasia/carcinoma *in situ*; IC: Intramucosal carcinoma; SC: Submucosal carcinoma (T₁N₀M₀); INC: Invasive carcinoma.

strategy, screening thrice between 40-70 years of age at a 10-year interval saved fewer life years and produced lower NPV, but had the same BCR. Under these strategies, the mD and MD cases diagnosed by screening were followed up every 5 years and 3 years, respectively; all patients with SD/CIS or worse found by screening were treated, and followed up once by endoscopy in the first year after treatment. The validation assessment and the sensitivity analysis showed that our results were reliable.

Previously, two similar investigations presented BCRs of 4 and 4-12 for EC screening in China, which were higher than those in our analysis^[25,28]. Explanations of the discrepancy from our estimates were: (1) Liu *et al*^[28] and Wei *et al*^[25] investigated 40-69 year old asymptomatic persons using cross sectional analyses, while we conducted a hypothetical birth cohort analysis, and followed up the cohort from 40 years to 70 years of age. Previous studies did not consider that some “normal/mild/moderate” cases defined by screening would progress and suffer from EC in the following life years^[9,19-20,29]. A prospective study found that 23.7% mD and 50% MD cases developed EC during the 13-year follow-up^[19]. The treatment costs may be very high for these EC patients. Neglecting them would overestimate BCRs; (2) Compared with non-screening, most of the EC patients in the screening group were diagnosed at earlier stages (87% *vs* 8%)^[24]. As a result, the treatment cost per capita for EC patients in the screening group was lower than that in “non-screening” group. According to the formula of BCR, we found that BCR was positively associated with the difference of treatment cost per person between screening and control groups. Unlike Wei *et al*^[25], we estimated the costs from the perspective of resource expenditure other than hospital charges. The difference of treatment costs between the groups in our study was much smaller than that in prior studies. That could account for the difference of BCRs to some extent;

and (3) The costs and benefits were not discounted in previous studies^[25,28]. Our sensitivity analysis showed that the discount rates were inversely associated with BCRs. And the BCRs of almost all strategies increased to nearly 4 when the discount rate declined to zero.

As the most widely used summary measures in health economic evaluations, the NPV and BCR are used to determine the return on any investment. Our study demonstrated that an investment of I\$ 36 117 125 would result in a return of I\$ 54 991 003 under once(50)f-strategy. These economic benefits resulted from a reduction in the incidence and mortality of EC, and the productivity gains of the prolonged life years through early detection and subsequent treatment. Our results revealed that the return increased with the screening frequency, and the six times 40)f-strategy resulted in the highest NPV. Although thrice(40)f-strategy yielded lower benefits, it was much less costly than the six times(40)f-strategy. It means that the thrice(40)f-strategy was a suitable alternative for the six times(40)f-strategy if there was an emphasis on capital constraints.

In addition to cost-benefit outcomes, some other factors should be considered when choosing reasonable screening strategy in different settings. First of all, endoscopy is an invasive examination. Concerns related to the high frequency of screening (e.g., six times in the lifetime) can lead to the great deduction of the compliance if it is not appropriately addressed, especially in the areas with low compliance at the time of initial screening, such as some villages of Ci County (33.7%)^[22]. Moreover, the total costs of the screening strategy, life years saved, local economic level, and health resource status should also be weighed and balanced by policy makers. In summary, we recommended that once(50)f-strategy which was the cheapest would be suitable in underdeveloped settings with inadequate health resources, and that thrice(40)f-

strategy which could save more life years would be preferable in developed settings with adequate health resources.

One issue needed to be emphasized in our analysis was that most data used in our model were calculated from specific epidemiological data of Linzhou, the highest incidence area of EC worldwide. A great number of endoscopic screenings in this area have been performed since the 1980s, and systematic cancer incidence and death registration have been established. Therefore, the related data from Linzhou County were available and reliable. Our sensitivity analyses displayed that variation in some important parameters within wide ranges did not have a significant effect on our results. This further confirmed that our evaluation results mainly based on data from Linzhou were objective and applicable for other similar high-risk areas in China.

It is known that the cost-benefit of screening for EC (or any other cancer) is highly dependent on the incidence (and subsequent mortality) of that particular cancer. Based on our model prediction and area-specific incidence of EC in Cancer Registry Annual Report of China in 2004, we preliminarily and roughly estimated the cost-benefit of screening program in moderate-(around the national average level of EC incidence, 15.22/100 000), and low-risk areas (less than half of the national average level for EC incidence, 7.61/100 000). In moderate-risk areas, the BCRs ranged from 1.09-1.59, and screening once at age 50 incurred the highest BCR. In low-risk areas, only the strategy of screening once at age 50 remained cost-beneficial (with a highest BCR of 1.09). The results revealed that in moderate- or low-risk areas, screening program was not so cost-beneficial as that in high-risk areas. The screening once at age 50 was relatively preferable. Therefore, our results should be prudential to be used in moderate- or low-risk areas. However, more researches are needed in the future.

Our analysis had several limitations. First, the screening and treatment costs did not include program costs, which might account for a large part of the total costs^[12]. The underestimation of costs may result in overrating the benefits of screening strategies, whereas the one-way sensitivity analysis of costs found that even when the costs were increased by over 20%, the screening was still considered as cost-beneficial. Second, in this study, the transition probabilities of all health states should change with age. However, those of normal, mD and MD states were fixed due to the unavailability of the data, which could affect the models' results to some extent. Hence, further studies on the natural history of EC appear warranted. Finally, although we performed one-way sensitivity analyses to evaluate the impact of each uncertainty on the results, we could not quantify the total impact of combinations of the parameter values. We did not conduct a multivariate probabilistic sensitivity analysis, since data on the probability distributions of variables were unavailable. This may more or less influence the outcomes of the sensitivity analysis.

In conclusion, EC endoscopic screening is cost-beneficial in high-risk areas of China. The strategy with once screening at age 50 years in the lifetime is the cheapest but saves fewer life years. If decision makers wish to save more life years and get more benefit, the strategy of thrice screening from 40 years of age at an interval of 10 years would be preferable. In different high-risk areas of EC, policy makers should consider the cost-benefit of screening, acceptability in the population, local health resources and economic level when choosing appropriate screening strategies.

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COMMENTS

Background

Esophageal cancer (EC) remains the fourth-leading cause of cancer death in China, and continues to be the major public health burden in some high-risk areas. Previous studies found that EC screening program using endoscopic examination (i.e., endoscopy with mucosal iodine staining and index biopsy as a screening technology, combined with pathological examination for confirming and staging the disease) could increase the 5-year survival rate, decrease the incidence and mortality of EC. A national screening program for EC in high-risk areas has become available in 73 sites of 27 provinces of China. Nevertheless, the health economic effects in the long run on such programs remain unknown. And whether screening strategy is suitable in regions with different health resources and economic level is not clear.

Research frontiers

To assess the cost-benefit of screening program in the long run, large-population-based perspective studies are difficult and expensive to conduct, and results would be obtained in decades. Instead, in the area of health economic evaluation for secondary prevention of cancer, the research hotspot is to use Markov model to explore suitable strategies which are cost-effective and cost-beneficial.

Innovations and breakthroughs

Previous researches with regard to cost-benefit analyses of EC screening program in China were cross-sectional studies without follow-up, and only evaluated the health economic effects of one screening strategy which is used currently. The authors conducted a hypothetic birth cohort analysis and followed up the cohort from 40 years to 70 years of age on the basis of Markov model, and compared 12 hypothetic screening strategies (different at starting age of screening, screening intervals, etc.) so as to explore preferable screening strategies in different areas.

Applications

The study results suggest that EC endoscopic screening is cost-beneficial in high-risk areas of China. The strategy, screening once at age 50 years in the lifetime, is the cheapest but saves fewer life years. If decision makers wish to save more life years and get more benefit, the strategy, screening thrice from 40 years of age at an interval of 10 years, would be preferable. The results will provide policy makers important information on updating such screening program in high-risk areas.

Terminology

Markov model: Markov model is considered as a powerful tool for simulating the development process of chronic diseases. In Markov models, health states passed through by patients are defined separately; and then through modeling on the basis of a system of transitional probability among states within a cycle (usually 1 year), the development of diseases and the medical resources used in population could be estimated; Cost-benefit analysis: Cost-benefit analysis is a systematic process for calculating and comparing benefits and costs of a project to see whether the benefits outweigh the costs for two purposes: (1) to determine if it is a sound investment; and (2) to see how it compares with alternate projects.

Peer review

The authors present the results of a decision analysis of endoscopic screening for esophageal squamous cell cancer for a high-risk region in China. They conclude that endoscopic screening, compared to no screening, is cost-effective, with several different screening schedules that could be used. Overall, this is a nicely done study and is well-written.

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Cervical inlet patch-optical coherence tomography imaging and clinical significance

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esophagus (BE), normal stomach and duodenum.

METHODS: This study was conducted at the Veterans Affairs Boston Healthcare System (VABHS). Patients undergoing standard esophagogastroduodenoscopy at VABHS, including one patient with CIP, one representative patient with BE and three representative normal subjects were included. White light video endoscopy was performed and endoscopic 3D-OCT images were obtained in each patient using a prototype OCT system. The OCT imaging probe passes through the working channel of the endoscope to enable simultaneous video endoscopy and 3D-OCT examination of the human gastrointestinal (GI) tract. Standard hematoxylin and eosin (H and E) histology was performed on biopsy or endoscopic mucosal resection specimens in order to compare and validate the 3D-OCT data.

RESULTS: CIP was observed from a 68-year old male with gastroesophageal reflux disease. The CIP region appeared as a pink circular lesion in the upper esophagus under white light endoscopy. OCT imaging over the CIP region showed columnar epithelium structure, which clearly contrasted the squamous epithelium structure from adjacent normal esophagus. 3D-OCT images obtained from other representative patients demonstrated distinctive patterns of the normal esophagus, BE, normal stomach, and normal duodenum bulb. Microstructures, such as squamous epithelium, lamina propria, muscularis mucosa, muscularis propria, esophageal glands, Barrett's glands, gastric mucosa, gastric glands, and intestinal mucosal villi were clearly observed with OCT and matched with H and E histology. These results demonstrated the feasibility of using OCT to evaluate GI tissue morphology *in situ* and in real-time.

CONCLUSION: We demonstrate *in situ* evaluation of CIP microstructures using 3D-OCT, which may be a useful tool for future diagnosis and follow-up of patients with CIP.

Abstract

AIM: To demonstrate the feasibility of optical coherence tomography (OCT) imaging in differentiating cervical inlet patch (CIP) from normal esophagus, Barrett's

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Key words: Cervical inlet patch; Heterotopic gastric mucosa; Optical coherence tomography; Optical biopsy; Barrett's esophagus

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INTRODUCTION

Cervical inlet patch (CIP) is characterized by the presence of heterotopic columnar gastric mucosa in the upper esophagus, most commonly located just below the upper esophageal sphincter (UES). Other sites for heterotopic gastric mucosa have been reported in the duodenum, jejunum, cystic duct, ampulla of Vater, gallbladder, rectum and the anus^[1-7], but their etiology and pathological significance remain unclear. The incidence of CIP has been reported from as low as 1%, to as much as 10% of endoscopic cases in different adult studies^[8,9]. A large autopsy series of 1000 children demonstrated a prevalence of 4.5%^[10]. During esophagogastroduodenoscopy (EGD), the region just below the UES is often quickly traversed after overcoming the initial resistance. CIP is usually best seen at the end of an EGD exam while withdrawing back through the esophagus and specifically looking for the condition. One study found almost a 6-8 fold increase in the incidence, from 0.3% to 2.3%, depending upon the endoscopist's awareness of this entity and thoroughness of examination^[11]. Although generally asymptomatic, CIP can present with dysphagia^[12], stricture^[13], ulcers^[14], bleeding^[15] or fistula^[16]. It is unclear whether CIP is congenital or acquired. One postulate is that CIP originates from incomplete embryonic replacement of the stratified epithelium, which normally starts at the 4th month of gestation. The greater incidence of CIP seen in pediatric populations and in the upper esophageal pouch of children with tracheoesophageal fistula supports this hypothesis^[10,17,18]. Also, immunohistochemical studies suggest an embryologic origin for CIP on account of differences in endocrine markers such as serotonin, glucagon, pancreatic polypeptide, somatostatin and neurotensin in histologic specimens of CIP and Barrett's esophagus (BE)^[19].

A second postulate is that CIP, especially as noted in

adults, is an acquired metaplastic change occurring in the squamous mucosa of the esophagus and is associated with predisposing factors for gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD), such as sliding hiatal hernia^[20]. Its incidence is up to four-fold higher in patients having BE^[21] and CIP was found in almost a third of patients having dysplastic BE or adenocarcinoma^[22]. Thus, long-standing acid reflux is thought to lead to columnar metaplasia in the upper esophagus, similar to BE. Several reports suggest that CIP may progress to adenocarcinoma^[23-26].

In this study, we evaluate whether optical coherence tomography (OCT) can assess epithelial differences in CIP compared to normal esophagus, BE, normal stomach and duodenum. OCT is an emerging medical imaging technology that enables micron-scale, cross-sectional, and three-dimensional (3D) imaging of biological tissues *in situ* and in real-time^[27,28]. OCT is similar to ultrasound B-mode imaging, except that echoes of light, instead of sound, are used to achieve micron-scale image resolutions. *In vivo* endoscopic OCT imaging was first demonstrated in rabbit gastrointestinal (GI) and respiratory tracts in 1997^[29], and was quickly adopted by multiple groups for investigations in the human GI tract^[30-36]. A prospective study involving 121 patients demonstrated 97% sensitivity and 92% specificity for diagnosing BE^[33]. Our group has developed a portable, catheter-based prototype OCT system, where the OCT probe can be passed through the accessory channel of a standard endoscope, and achieves imaging speeds of up to 100 000 axial scans per second with axial resolutions of 5 μm to 7 μm in tissues^[37]. Real-time cross-sectional OCT image display and 3D capture capabilities were demonstrated in animals^[37], and humans^[36,38,39]. 3D-OCT volumetric imaging enables the synthesis of *en face* views (similar to magnification endoscopy images), the generation of virtual cross-sectional images with arbitrary orientation, the average of multiple frames to reduce speckle and improve contrast, and quantitative measurements of tissue morphology. To our knowledge, this is the first description of *in vivo* CIP microstructure using OCT.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Imaging protocol

This study was conducted at the Veterans Affairs Boston Healthcare System (VABHS), in compliance with an approved protocol by the institutional review boards at VABHS, Harvard Medical School and Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Five male Caucasian patients undergoing regular EGD at VABHS from August 2009 to April 2011 were enrolled in this study. This includes one patient with CIP, one representative patient with BE and three representative normal subjects. The representative patient with BE and normal subjects were selected from a large cohort of subjects who were imaged using OCT for another study. White light video endoscopy was performed using the Evis Extra III high definition system (Olympus America, Center Valley, PA), and endoscopic

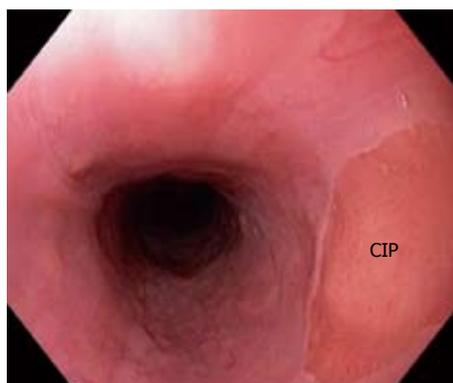


Figure 1 Endoscopic view of cervical inlet patch.

3D-OCT images were obtained using the system described below.

Optical coherence tomography system

The 3D-OCT endomicroscopy system was developed in collaboration with LightLab Imaging - St Jude Medical, Inc. and is similar to the system previously described by our group^[37]. A Fourier Domain Mode Locking swept laser with a center wavelength of 1310 nm and average output power of 42 mW at a sweep repetition rate of 59 kHz was used as the light source. The full-width-half-maximum bandwidth of the laser sweep was about 120 nm, which supports about 5 μm axial resolution in tissue. The system sensitivity was 103 dB with 13 mW of incident power. The imaging probe, with an outer diameter of 2.5 mm, was introduced through a standard working channel of a high-definition endoscope (Olympus GIF-Q180) to enable simultaneous video endoscopy and 3D-OCT imaging examination. The output beam from the probe was focused to a 15 μm spot and was emitted at an angle of about 80 °C from the probe axis by a prism. The internal optics in the probe was rotated rapidly for radial scanning at 60 (or 70) frames per second (fps). Each image frame had about 512 \times 1000 pixels at 60 fps (or about 512 \times 900 pixels at 70 fps). To acquire a spirally scanned, volumetric OCT data set of the GI tract, the probe was pulled back at 1.0 mm/s along the sheath, which corresponds to a frame-to-frame spacing of 14-17 μm . At this image acquisition speed, a 20 mm \times 8 mm \times 2 mm 3D-OCT data set was acquired in 20 s.

Individual 2D-OCT frames were displayed on screen for real-time preview. The volumetric data sets were acquired and streamed to a hard drive. During post-processing, each 2D radial frame was unwrapped to create a rectangular frame. A custom program was written to detect the surface of the plastic probe sheath in each frame, which is used to flatten the image. The flattened 3D-OCT data sets were then loaded into Amira (ResolveRT, Mercury Computer Systems) for 3D rendering and visualization in different orthogonal imaging planes.

Histology analysis

Standard hematoxylin and eosin (H and E) histology was

performed by the pathology service at VABHS on biopsy or endoscopic mucosal resection (EMR) specimens in order to compare and validate the 3D-OCT data. Photomicrographs of the H and E slides were taken under a standard Olympus BX40 microscope using a 4 \times objective.

RESULTS

The endoscopic view of a CIP in a 68-year old patient referred for endoscopic treatment for long-segment BE is shown in Figure 1. During retraction of the endoscope, a pink circular lesion was observed under white light endoscopy in the upper esophagus (about 20 cm from the tooth). The histology of the biopsies taken from the lesion later confirmed the finding of CIP (Figure 2C). Endoscopic OCT imaging was performed over the CIP under direct simultaneous visualization with a white light endoscope. From cross-sectional OCT images shown in Figure 2A and B, regions with CIP and the adjacent squamous epithelium can be identified. In addition, the CIP region clearly shows shallower light penetration compared with the adjacent normal esophagus. This is similar to typical images from normal gastric mucosa of representative other subjects. Zoomed views shown in Figure 2D and E clearly demonstrate columnar and squamous epithelium in the CIP and the adjacent normal esophagus, respectively. The columnar features observed in the CIP are consistent with the corresponding H and E histology shown in Figure 2C.

For comparison, OCT images of a normal gastro-esophageal junction (GEJ) obtained from a representative patient with chronic heartburn symptom (Figure 3). The *en face* OCT projection image at 350 μm underneath the tissue surface clearly shows the GEJ. The OCT imaging probe scans a large field (20 mm \times 8 mm) on the tissue, which is about 100 \times larger compared to the region sampled by a standard biopsy (1-2 mm²). Regions with gastric glandular mucosa (left) and esophageal squamous mucosa (right) exhibit clearly different patterns. Cross-sectional OCT images in Figure 3B-D show the GEJ and esophageal squamous epithelium along the probe pullback and rotation directions, respectively. The GEJ, squamous epithelium, lamina propria/muscularis mucosa, and esophageal glands underneath the squamous epithelium are clearly observed. Features observed in OCT images also match the representative histology of a normal GEJ shown in Figure 3E.

3D-OCT images from a representative patient with a long segment BE confirmed with histology (Figure 4). The *en face* projection OCT image at 200 μm underneath the tissue surface shows a similar angulated pattern compared with the *en face* image shown in the gastric mucosa (Figure 4A). Cross-sectional OCT images (Figure 4B and D) clearly show layered structures, where the original squamous mucosa in the esophagus is replaced by the columnar BE mucosa. Two hyper-scattering layers are observed underneath the BE mucosa, where the top layer corresponds to the newly formed muscularis mucosa layer which replaces the lamina propria, and the bottom

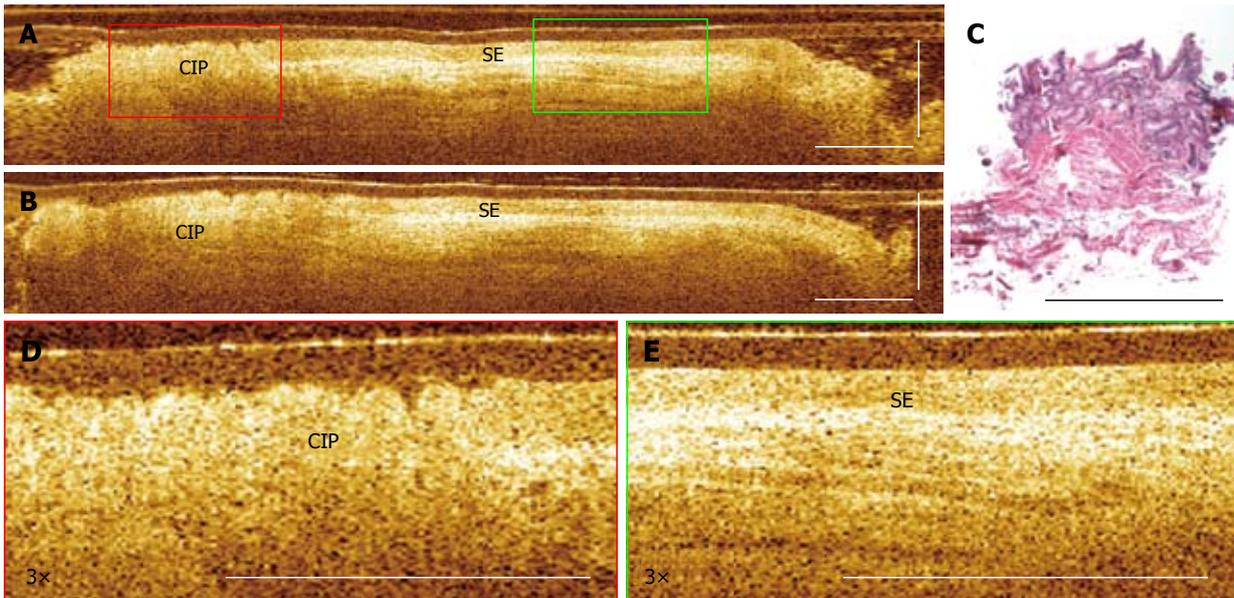


Figure 2 Endoscopic optical coherence tomography imaging of cervical inlet patch. A: Cross-sectional optical coherence tomography images of cervical inlet patch (CIP); B: Adjacent squamous epithelium, respectively; C: Corresponding hematoxylin and eosin histology obtained from a biopsy at the CIP site; D: 3× magnification of the CIP; E: Squamous epithelium (SE) region marked in (A). Scale bars: 1 mm.

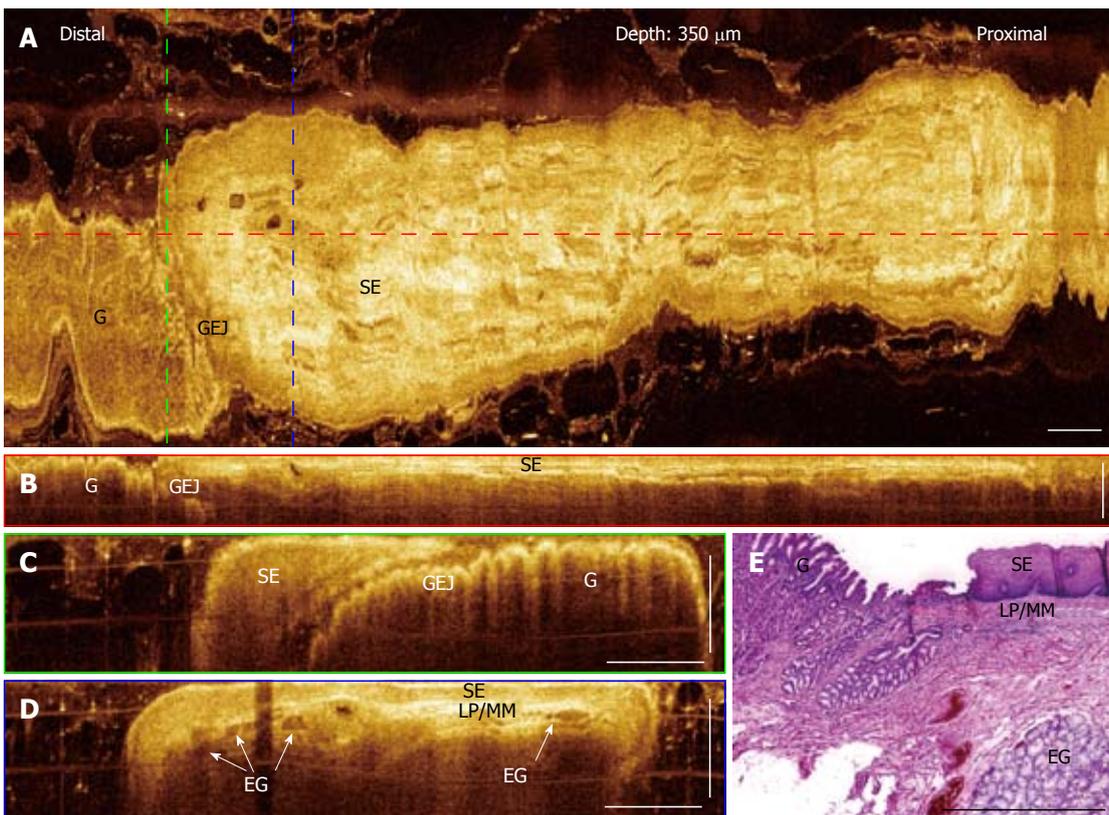


Figure 3 Three-dimensional-optical coherence tomography images of a normal gastro-esophageal junction. A: *En face* projection optical coherence tomography (OCT) image at a depth of 350 μm ; B: Regions with gastric mucosa and squamous mucosa show distinct features; Cross-sectional OCT image along the probe pullback direction showing the gastro-esophageal junction (GEJ) and normal squamous epithelium (SE) clearly; C, D: Cross-sectional images of the GEJ and SE, corresponding to the green and blue dashed lines marked in (A), respectively. Structures, such as SE, lamina propria (LP)/muscularis mucosa (MM), esophageal glands (arrows) (EG), and gastric mucosa, can be clearly identified; E: Representative histology at the GEJ. Scale bars: 1 mm.

layer corresponds to the muscularis propria. These OCT features are confirmed with corresponding histology of an EMR specimen obtained at the imaging area in the

same patient.

Representative OCT images of normal stomach from a patient with chronic heart burn symptom (Figure 5).

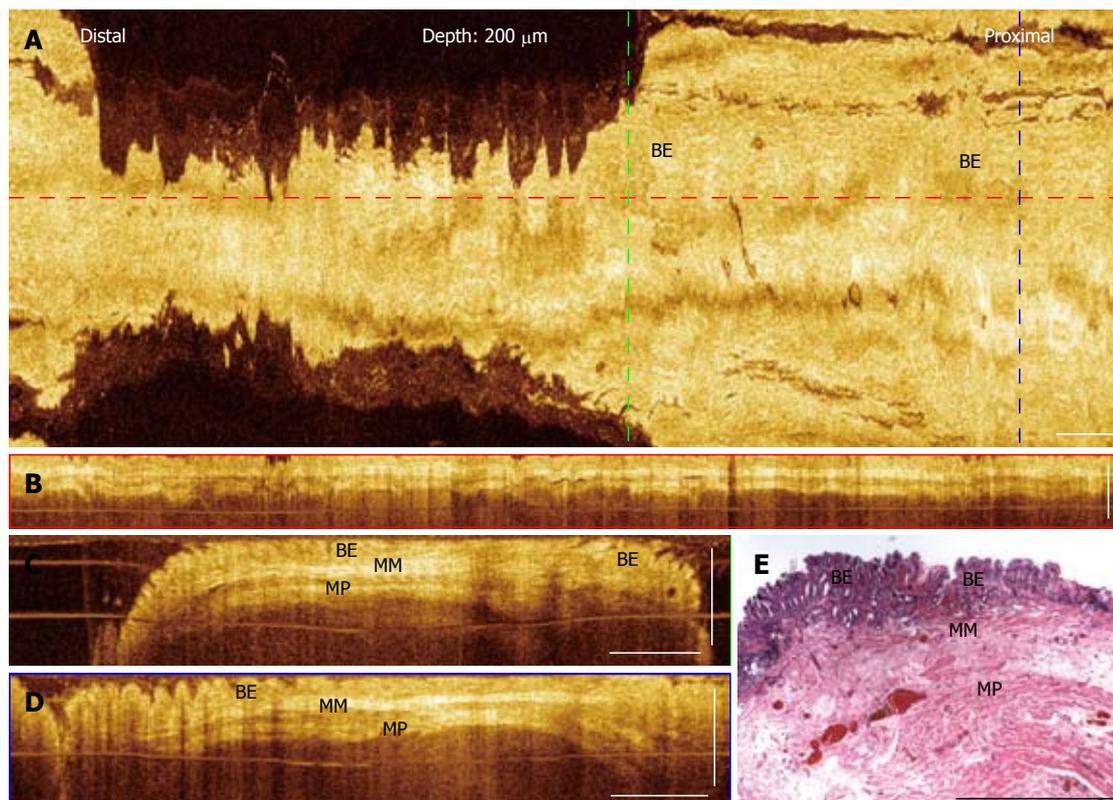


Figure 4 Three-dimensional-optical coherence tomography images of a long segment Barrett's esophagus. A: *En face* projection optical coherence tomography (OCT) image at a depth of 200 μm ; B: Cross-sectional OCT images of the long segment Barrett's esophagus (BE) along the probe pullback direction; C, D: Cross-sectional OCT images, corresponding to the green and blue dashed lines marked in (A). BE glands, the muscularis mucosa (MM), and the muscularis propria (MP) layers are clearly seen; E: Histology of an endoscopic mucosal resection specimen obtained from the same subject shows corresponding features observed in the OCT images. Scale bars: 1 mm.

The *en face* projection image (Figure 5A) at a depth of 250 μm under the tissue surface represents the typical angulated gastric glandular mucosa pattern. Cross-sectional OCT images (Figure 5B and C) clearly show the gastric glandular mucosa. Gastric pits and gastric glands can be observed from cross-sectional OCT images and the image features match the representative histology of gastric mucosa shown in Figure 5D. Light penetration in normal gastric tissues is also shallower compared with normal esophagus and BE.

Furthermore, 3D-OCT images of normal duodenum from a patient with chronic heart burn symptom are shown in Figure 6. Distinctive features of the intestinal mucosal villi are observed in the *en face* OCT projection image (Figure 6A), as well as in the cross-sectional OCT images (Figure 6B and C). The length of individual villi, measured to be around 300-600 μm , matches the corresponding histology shown in Figure 6E. These results demonstrate the feasibility of using OCT to evaluate GI tissue morphology *in situ* and in real-time.

DISCUSSION

CIP is an under-appreciated entity in general gastroenterologist's practice. In this study, we present imaging results from OCT, a relatively new imaging technology, to describe the gastric type of epithelial patterns in CIP, as

clearly distinct from normal esophageal squamous epithelium, BE, or from normal duodenum. Under OCT, CIP exhibits similar columnar structures compared with normal gastric mucosa, and the imaging depth in both CIP and gastric tissues are low. In practice, obtaining biopsies from CIP in patients with troublesome supraesophageal or laryngeal symptoms may be difficult owing to poor view just below the UES. OCT may allow "optical biopsy" of the CIP epithelium without the need for obtaining tissue specimens, and may be used to assess changes suspicious for malignancy in the future. Given its small diameter (2.5 mm) and flexibility, the OCT probes may be introduced orally or nasally without an endoscope, and with better tolerance and potentially less motion artifacts. This may further negate the need for sedation, nursing, or use of the endoscopy unit which has implications beyond endoscopy costs.

There are a number of case reports of adenocarcinoma arising from heterotopic gastric mucosa in the upper esophagus^[23-26,40]. To our knowledge, 31 cases have been reported in the literature where esophageal adenocarcinoma was found arising from an inlet patch^[41-46] and two cases where laryngeal squamous cell carcinoma was found associated with or bordering inlet patches^[47]. The pathogenetic link between BE and CIP raises concerns of dysplastic transformation in CIP. Using immunohistochemical markers to address potential cellular origins,

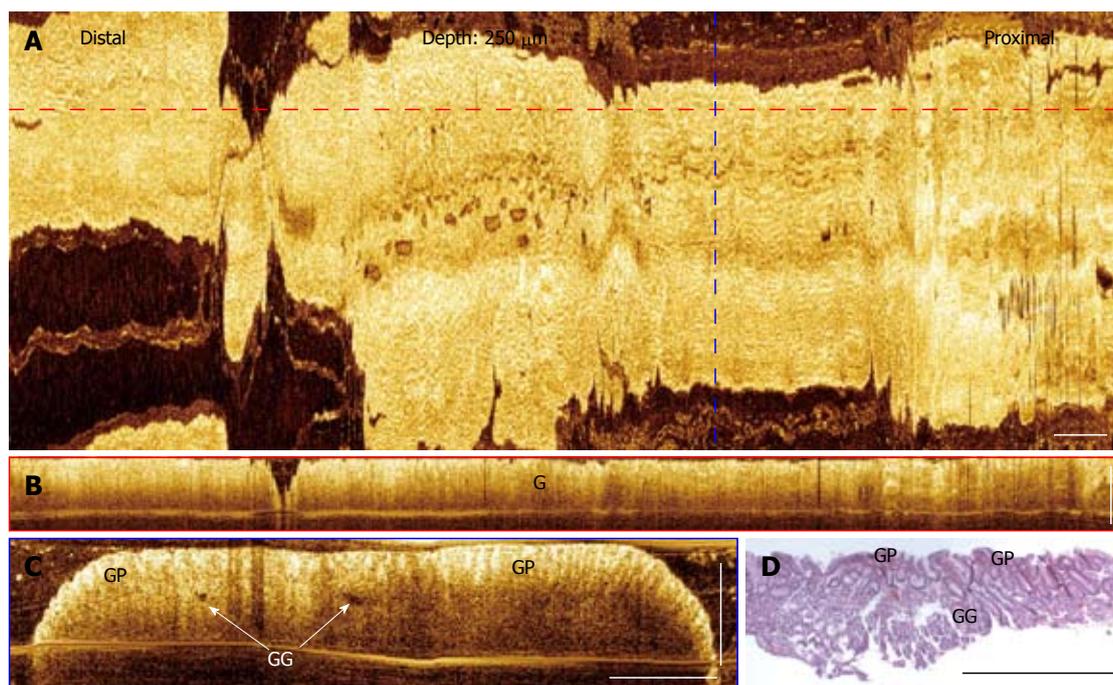


Figure 5 Three-dimensional-optical coherence tomography images of a normal stomach. A: *En face* projection optical coherence tomography (OCT) image at a depth of 250 μm ; B: Cross-sectional OCT image along the probe pullback direction, corresponding to the red dashed line marked in (A); C: Cross-sectional images of the gastric mucosa, corresponding to the blue dashed line marked in (A). Gastric pits (GP) and gastric glands (arrows) (GG) can be identified; D: Representative histology of a gastric mucosa. Scale bars: 1 mm.

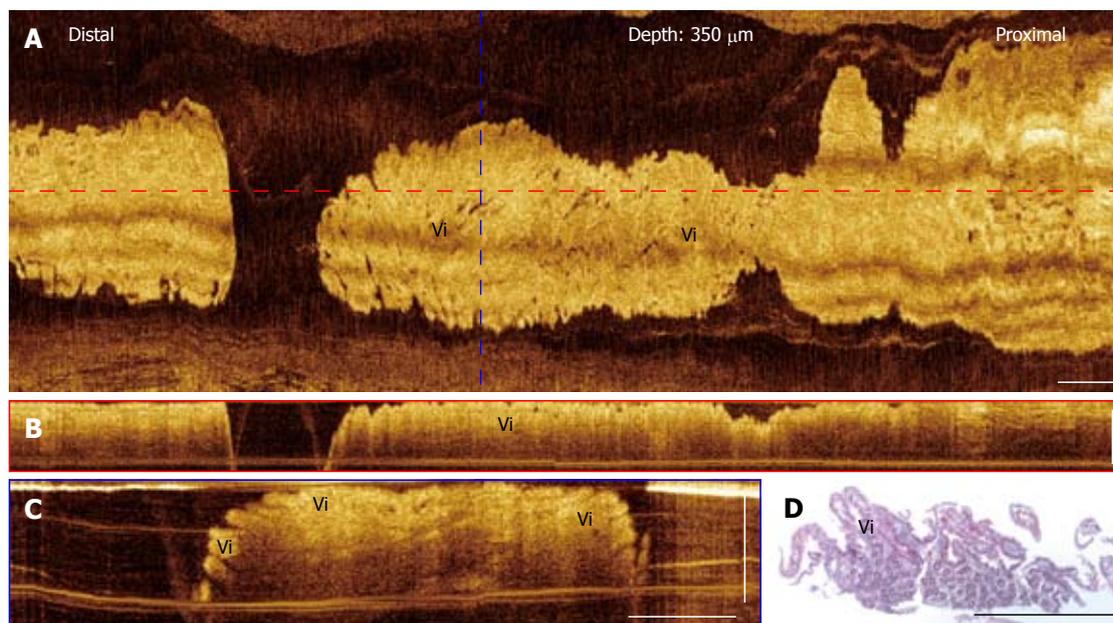


Figure 6 Three-dimensional-optical coherence tomography images of a normal duodenum. A: *En face* projection optical coherence tomography (OCT) image at a depth of 350 μm ; B: Cross-sectional OCT images of the duodenum along the probe pullback direction; C: Cross-sectional OCT image, corresponding to the blue dashed line marked in (A); Mucosal villous structures (Vi) in the duodenum are clearly seen; D: Corresponding histology of the duodenum showing the villi. Scale bars:

Lauwers *et al.*^[48] demonstrated similar mechanisms of pathogenesis for CIP and BE on the basis of similarity between immunohistochemical staining patterns between the two entities. Furthermore, the similarity in the expression pattern for cytokeratins 7 and 20 and MUC6 mucin protein were not influenced by the presence or absence of GERD in these CIP patients^[48-50]. Based on

these findings, Lauwers *et al.*^[48] suggested that CIP may arise as a metaplastic change occurring in the esophageal epithelium. In light of these findings and the pathogenetic similarity between CIP and BE based on the cytokeratin expression study by Lauwers, the suspicion that the CIP, at least in adults, arises from local stem cells within the esophagus at or near this “heterotopic” patch

is strong. However, unlike BE, a consensus guideline for surveillance of CIP has not been established on account of its relatively low incidence and lack of information on its natural history for dysplastic changes. In this study, we present an alternative approach to evaluate CIP based on OCT imaging. Recently, balloon based OCT probes have been developed in order to allow imaging over the entire esophageal lumen for screening purposes^[35,51-53]. The balloon design also helps stabilize the imaging probe to minimize motion artifacts. The advantages of OCT, such as real-time imaging, large area of coverage, and depth resolved imaging, *etc.*, suggest that it may be a useful tool for detection of various GI diseases, including CIP and Barrett's esophagus.

In addition, OCT enables visualization of the deeper esophageal glands underneath squamous mucosa, which may not be accessible with standard or jumbo biopsy forceps. As suggested by Lauwers *et al*^[48] CIP may arise from submucosal esophageal mucous glands. If these glands are the origin of dysplasia or malignant transformation, 3D-OCT may be uniquely suited for identifying these early dysplastic changes and following them up. Recently, novel methods have been developed to perform OCT imaging with contrast agents, such as gold nanoparticles^[54-57], and therefore enable molecular targeted imaging for early cancer detection. In the future, OCT may also be combined with biomarkers, e.g., the superficial expression of Lgr5 in BE. Localization with depth resolution of such markers may help with directed biopsies or targeted ablation.

Presently, there are no commercially available OCT systems for endoscopic applications. The OCT probe used in this study passes through the working channel of a standard white light endoscope, and the entire OCT system is portable and could fit in a standard endoscopy suite to provide complementary real-time information on tissue microstructures during endoscopy.

One limitation of the current study is the small sample size. Multiple normal subjects and patients with BE were imaged and representative results were shown from a large cohort, but only one subject with CIP was available. The objective of this pilot study is to demonstrate the feasibility of *in situ* imaging of CIP using 3D-OCT and identify characteristic imaging features of CIP compared to other organs in human upper GI tract. One set of representative OCT images from each organ was demonstrated. However, it is not possible to reach any statistical conclusion from this feasibility study.

In conclusion, we demonstrate *in situ* evaluation of CIP microstructure using endoscopic 3D-OCT. OCT imaging visualized columnar epithelial structures within the CIP region, which clearly contrasted with the squamous epithelium from adjacent normal esophagus, gastric mucosa in the stomach and villous structure in the duodenum. The microstructural features observed with OCT also matched those from H and E histological sections. These results demonstrated the feasibility of using OCT to evaluate GI tissue morphology *in situ* and

in real-time. Since OCT imaging can be performed with small diameter probes introduced orally or nasally, this emerging technology might be used to screen patients with troublesome upper esophageal symptoms for CIP, BE and other changes in the epithelium, even without endoscopy or the need for conscious sedation.

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COMMENTS

Background

Cervical inlet patch (CIP) is an under-appreciated entity encountered by gastroenterologists in general practice. Although rare, several reports suggest that CIP may progress to adenocarcinoma. Optical coherence tomography (OCT) is an emerging medical imaging technology that enables micron-scale, cross-sectional, and 3D imaging of biological tissues *in situ* and in real-time.

Research frontiers

This study evaluates whether OCT can optically assess epithelial differences in upper human gastrointestinal (GI) tract *in situ*.

Innovations and breakthroughs

OCT imaging over the CIP region showed columnar epithelium structure, which clearly contrasted the squamous epithelium structure from adjacent normal esophagus. OCT images obtained from other patients demonstrated distinctive patterns of the normal esophagus, Barrett's esophagus, normal stomach, and normal duodenum. Microstructures, such as squamous epithelium, lamina propria, muscularis mucosa, muscularis propria, esophageal glands, Barrett's glands, gastric mucosa, gastric glands, and intestinal mucosal villi were clearly observed with OCT and matched with hematoxylin and eosin histology. OCT may allow real-time "optical biopsy" of the CIP epithelium without the need for obtaining tissue specimens, and may be used to assess suspicious changes of malignancy in the future.

Applications

Given its small diameter and flexibility, the OCT probe may be introduced orally or nasally without an endoscope or need for moderate sedation, and with better tolerance and potentially less motion artifacts compared to endoscopy. In addition, the OCT imaging probe scans an approximately 100× larger field compared to biopsy, and therefore, might be useful in the future to screen for CIP.

Peer review

The paper is a very interesting piece of work exploring the utility of OCT primarily in characterizing cervical inlet patch but also in other esophageal disorders. It provides a reader with the future directions of and technological advances in upper GI endoscopy in an era when a number of non-white light endoscopic contrast techniques are competing for prime time use to more accurately delineate and diagnose pathology.

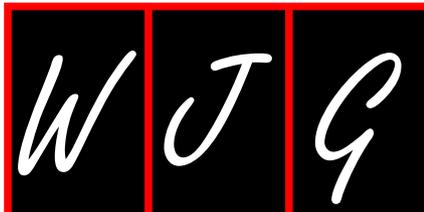
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Endomysial antibodies predict celiac disease irrespective of the titers or clinical presentation

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Abstract

AIM: To investigate the association between serum antibody levels and a subsequent celiac disease diagnosis

in a large series of children and adults.

METHODS: Besides subjects with classical gastrointestinal presentation of celiac disease, the study cohort included a substantial number of individuals with extraintestinal symptoms and those found by screening in at-risk groups. Altogether 405 patients underwent clinical, serological and histological evaluations. After collection of data, the antibody values were further graded as low [endomysial (EmA) 1:5-200, transglutaminase 2 antibodies (TG2-ab) 5.0-30.0 U/L] and high (EmA 1: \geq 500, TG2-ab \geq 30.0 U/L), and the serological results were compared with the small intestinal mucosal histology and clinical presentation.

RESULTS: In total, 79% of the subjects with low and 94% of those with high serum EmA titers showed small-bowel mucosal villous atrophy. Furthermore, 96% of the 47 EmA positive subjects who had normal mucosal villi and remained on follow-up either subsequently developed mucosal atrophy while on a gluten-containing diet, or responded positively to a gluten-free diet.

CONCLUSION: Irrespective of the initial serum titers or clinical presentation, EmA positivity as such is a very strong predictor of a subsequent celiac disease diagnosis.

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Key words: Celiac disease; Diagnosis; Endomysial antibodies; Transglutaminase 2 antibodies; Clinical presentations

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INTRODUCTION

Recent serological screening studies have revealed that up to 1%-2% of the Western population might be affected by celiac disease^[1,2]. However, due to its heterogeneous clinical picture the disease remains markedly underdiagnosed. Sensitive serum endomysial (EmA) and transglutaminase 2 antibodies (TG2-ab) are widely used as a method to select subjects for further investigations, but the diagnosis is based on the presence of small-bowel mucosal villous atrophy and crypt hyperplasia^[3,4]. Unfortunately, the histological definition of the disease involves several problems. First, invasive studies are needed to acquire the mucosal specimens. In addition, biopsy samples may be of poor quality or wrongly orientated, increasing the risk of false positive or negative results^[5]. The mucosal damage may be patchy and missed even if several samples are taken^[6,7]. Finally, the histological lesion develops gradually and interpretation of borderline cases can be challenging. Since particularly EmA and high values of TG2-ab seem to predict celiac disease with a high specificity, it has been advocated that in seropositive subjects endoscopic studies might not always be needed to establish the diagnosis^[8-15]. However, most studies so far have been carried out in tertiary centers with high-risk patients, and the results might not be applicable in everyday clinical practice.

In our local health-care district active celiac disease case-finding has been carried out since the 1980s. As a result, a substantial part of the patients are detected because of atypical symptoms or by active risk-group screening, and currently about 0.7% of the population have a biopsy-proven diagnosis^[16]. Hence, we now sought to establish whether the serum antibodies could predict subsequent celiac disease also in subjects with mild or atypical clinical presentation. Because of the high specificity, EmA has traditionally been considered the gold standard for celiac disease serology, and was thus chosen as the primary inclusion criterion^[17,18]. In addition, the results were compared to the widely used serum TG2-ab.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study cohort comprised consecutive EmA positive children and adults investigated at the Departments of Pediatrics and Gastroenterology and Alimentary Tract

Surgery, Tampere University Hospital. Primary care physicians were encouraged to refer individuals with celiac disease suspicion for further investigations applying a low index of suspicion. In addition, subjects who participated in population-based research studies were accepted. In the hospital demographic data, a family history of celiac disease and symptoms leading to the disease suspicion were recorded, and all subjects underwent extensive clinical, serological and histological evaluations. Thereafter, voluntary EmA positive children and adults continued in the trial. Participants who showed small-bowel mucosal villous atrophy and crypt hyperplasia (Marsh III) received a celiac disease diagnosis and were placed on a gluten-free diet. Subjects who had normal villi continued on a gluten-containing diet and were placed on regular serological and histological follow-up. In addition, the possibility to start an experimental trial with a gluten-free diet was offered to EmA positive individuals with normal villous structure (Marsh 0- II). Those who consented were re-evaluated after one year, and if a positive clinical, serological and histological response was observed, celiac disease diagnosis was established. Finally, serum TG2-ab were used for comparison in all from whom they were available.

Serum immunoglobulin A (IgA)-class EmA were measured by an indirect immunofluorescence method using human umbilical cord as antigen^[19]. A dilution of 1:5 was considered positive, and positive sera were further diluted 1:50, 1:100, 1:200, 1:500, 1:1000, 1:2000 and 1:4000. The antibody titers were further graded as low (1:5-1:200) and high (1:500-1:4000). Serum IgA-class TG2-ab were measured by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) (Celikey, Phadia GmbH, Freiburg, Germany) according to the manufacturers' instructions. Serum TG2-ab values ≥ 5.0 U were considered positive, and the values were further graded as low (5.0-29.9 U/L) and high (≥ 30 U/L)^[13]. Total IgA values were tested in all subjects negative to the IgA class serological tests. In case of IgA deficiency the corresponding antibodies were measured in immunoglobulin G (IgG) class.

Upon upper gastrointestinal endoscopy a minimum of three forceps specimens were taken from the distal duodenum, and small-bowel mucosal morphology was determined from several well-oriented biopsy sections as previously described^[17]. The degree of mucosal damage was further graded according to the Marsh-Oberhuber classification, where Marsh 0 represents normal mucosa, Marsh I - II represents increased intraepithelial lymphocytosis without (I) or with (II) hyperplastic crypts and Marsh III partial (a), subtotal (b) or total (c) villous atrophy^[20,21]. A patchy mucosal lesion was graded according to the most severe histological damage.

Genotyping of the participants for celiac disease-associated human leukocyte antigen (HLA)-DQB1*02 and DQB1*0302 alleles (DQ2 and DQ8) was performed using the DELFIA[®] Celiac Disease Hybridization Assay (PerkinElmer Life and Analytical Sciences, Wallac Oy, Turku, Finland) or the SSP[™] DQB1 low resolution kit (Olerup SSP AB, Saltsjöbaden, Sweden) according to the

Table 1 Demographic data on the study participants and primary reason for celiac disease suspicion *n* (%)

Female	265 (67)
Age below 18 yr	92 (23)
Age (yr), median (range)	40 (1-79)
Main reason for disease suspicion	
Gastrointestinal symptoms ¹	166 (43)
Anemia or malabsorption	38 (10)
Extraintestinal symptoms ²	50 (13)
Screening in at-risk groups ³	97 (24)
Screening in the population ⁴	39 (10)
Unknown	5 (1)

¹Diarrhea, abdominal pain, flatulence, constipation, dyspepsia, and heartburn; ²Osteoporosis, infertility, aphthous stomatitis, short stature, delayed puberty, arthralgia, ataxia, epilepsy, fatigue, and alopecia; ³Family history of celiac disease, type 1 diabetes, thyroid disorders, Sjögren's syndrome, and immunoglobulin A nephropathy; ⁴Population-based research studies that included serological screening.

Table 2 Serum endomysial and transglutaminase 2 antibody values, divided according to the clinical presentation

	EmA, titer		TG2-ab, U/L	
	Low 1:5-200	High 1:≥ 500	Low 5.0-29.9	High ≥ 30
	<i>n</i> = 224, %	<i>n</i> = 154, %	<i>n</i> = 116, %	<i>n</i> = 166, %
Abdominal symptoms	45	40	45	45
Anemia or malabsorption	8	12	5	13
Extraintestinal symptoms	9	16	5	13
Screen-detected subjects	38	31	45	28
	<i>P</i> = 0.061		<i>P</i> = 0.002	

EmA: Endomysial; TG2-ab: Transglutaminase 2 antibody.

manufacturer's instructions.

χ^2 with cross-tabulation was used for statistical analysis. A *P* value less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

The study protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of Tampere University Hospital. All subjects or their parents gave written informed consent.

RESULTS

In total, 405 EmA positive children and adults participated in the study. In 10 subjects the quality of the small-bowel biopsies was insufficient, in 14 EmA was determined as positive (1:5) without further dilution and in three subjects the clinical data were ambiguous. These cases were excluded from further statistical analyses. One patient had selective IgA deficiency and the corresponding antibodies were measured in the IgG class. Gastrointestinal symptoms remained the primary reason for celiac disease suspicion, but almost half of the patients were detected on the basis of extraintestinal symptoms or by screening of at-risk groups and the population (Table 1).

By definition, all participants were positive for EmA.

Table 3 Association between high and low serum endomysial and transglutaminase 2 antibody values and small-bowel mucosal morphology

	EmA (L)		TG2-ab(U/L)	
	Low 1:5-200	High 1:≥ 500	Low 5.0-29.9	High ≥ 30
	<i>n</i> = 227, %	<i>n</i> = 156, %	<i>n</i> = 146, %	<i>n</i> = 169, %
Marsh 0	5	1	4	1
Marsh I - II	16	5	16	5
Marsh IIIa	22	13	24	12
Marsh IIIb	28	29	31	28
Marsh IIIc	29	52	25	53
	<i>P</i> < 0.001		<i>P</i> < 0.001	

EmA: Endomysial; TG2-ab: Transglutaminase 2 antibody.

Table 4 Association between endomysial antibody titers and small-bowel mucosal damage

EmA titer	Subjects	Marsh 0-II, <i>n</i> (%)	Marsh III, <i>n</i> (%)
1: ≥ 5	372	57 (15)	315 (85)
1: ≥ 50	323	39 (12)	284 (88)
1: ≥ 100	282	26 (9)	256 (91)
1: ≥ 200	243	22 (9)	221 (91)
1: ≥ 500	155	9 (6)	146 (94)
1: ≥ 1000	96	3 (3)	93 (97)
1: ≥ 2000	48	2 (4)	46 (96)
1:4000	20	0 (0)	20 (100)

EmA: Endomysial.

Serum TG2-ab were measured in 316 EmA positive subjects and proved positive in 286 (91%) of them. Altogether 41% of the participants had high EmA and 54% high TG2-ab value defined at baseline. There was a significant association between serum TG2-ab level and clinical presentation, low antibody values being more common in the screen- than symptom-detected subjects (Table 2). A similar trend was observed with EmA, but the results were not statistically significant (*P* = 0.061).

Small-bowel mucosal villous atrophy and crypt hyperplasia (Marsh III) were found in altogether 85% of the EmA-positive subjects. There was a significant association between high antibody values and more severe small-bowel mucosal deterioration; in total 94% of those with high EmA titer evinced villous atrophy (Table 3). There was in this respect no significant difference between children and adults. The percentage of subjects evincing severe small-bowel mucosal damage increased progressively with higher EmA titers, but only the highest titer 1:4000 was 100% predictive of subsequent villous atrophy and crypt hyperplasia (Table 4).

In total, 40 patients had low and 17 high serum antibody values without simultaneous villous atrophy (Table 5). Irrespective of the baseline titers, 45 (79%) of these subjects (96% of those who remained on follow-up) either subsequently developed villous atrophy while on a gluten-containing diet, or experienced a positive clinical and serological response and disappearance of early mucosal changes on a gluten-free diet (Table 5). The pres-

Table 5 Baseline and follow-up data on subjects with positive endomysial antibodies but normal small-bowel mucosal villous structure

	Low ¹ EmA and TG2-ab, n = 40	High EmA or TG2-ab, n = 17
Baseline		
Age, median (range), yr	39 (5-68)	39 (6-70)
Females, n (%)	30 (75)	11 (65)
Age below 18 yr	7 (18)	7 (41)
Gastrointestinal symptoms	28 (70)	12 (71)
Extraintestinal symptoms	2 (5)	4 (23)
Screen-detected subjects	10 (25)	1 (6)
EmA, median (range), titer	1:50 (1:5-1:200)	1:500 (1:5-1:2000)
TG2-ab, median (range), U/L	6.3 (0-24.8)	45.5 (13.9->100)
HLA DQ2 or DQ8, n (%)	33/33 (100)	16/16 (100)
Marsh 0	9 (23)	3 (18)
Marsh I - II	31 (77)	14 (82)
Follow-up		
Celiac disease diagnosis	29 (73)	16 (94)
Villous atrophy later ²	12 (30)	8 (47)
Positive response to GFD	17 (43)	8 (47)
Gluten, no villous atrophy	2 (5)	0
Lost to follow-up	9 (22)	1 (6)

¹EmA titer 1: < 500, TG2-ab value < 30.0 U/L; ²Up to 10 yr of follow-up. EmA: Endomysial; TG2-ab: Transglutaminase 2 antibody; HLA: Human leukocyte antigen; GFD: Gluten-free diet.

ence of the celiac disease-associated HLA-DQ2 or DQ8 genotype was assessed in 299 EmA positive subjects and was found in all of them.

DISCUSSION

In our large series consisting of both children and adults, approximately half of the participants evinced high serum EmA levels, which was indicative of subsequent small-bowel mucosal villous damage in up to 94% of them. The results showed a high antibody titer to be an excellent predictor of villous atrophy and celiac disease also in high disease prevalence areas and in subjects with subtle or atypical symptoms. In the past few decades it has been observed that besides the classical gastrointestinal presentation, celiac disease patients may have a wide range of different extraintestinal symptoms. The patients may suffer for example from arthralgia or arthritis, osteoporosis, infertility and different neurological symptoms. In addition, screen-detected celiac patients may show only minor laboratory abnormalities or have no symptoms at all^[6]. It was essential to investigate the performance of the celiac autoantibodies also in these atypical patients, as they are frequently seen in clinical practice, and may in fact represent the most common clinical presentation of celiac disease^[6].

In patients with classical gastrointestinal celiac disease, Valdimarsson *et al*^[8] observed a 100% positive predictive value of EmA for celiac disease in 19 adults, and suggested that histological confirmation might not be necessary in all such seropositive patients. Recently, similar results have been obtained with high values of TG2-ab. In a study by Barker *et al*^[10], 48 out of 49 children having

TG2-ab more than five times the upper limit of normal (ULN) had diagnostic small bowel mucosal damage. Likewise, Donaldson *et al*^[11] observed a 100% positive predictive value for celiac disease by using the same cut-off level. In adults, Hill *et al*^[13] suggested that TG2-ab levels more than ten times ULN would be exclusively indicative for celiac disease, and some other authors have presented comparable results^[12].

Our findings thus largely accord with those in earlier studies carried out in specialized centers with high-risk patients having classical gastrointestinal presentation of celiac disease. Nevertheless, in the present study there was still a subpopulation of individuals in whom the current histological criteria were not fulfilled. Approximately 6 % of the participants with high and up to 21% of those with low antibody values had normal small-bowel mucosal villous structure, and in total this was seen in 15% of the EmA-positive subjects. It could thus be argued that EmA are not sufficiently specific for a definite diagnosis of celiac disease as such. Interestingly, however, there is an increasing body of data showing that EmA positivity is a very strong predictor of forthcoming celiac disease also in subjects with initially normal villi^[17,22-26]. In line with this conception, almost all of our EmA positive patients who had no structural villous damage either evinced a positive serological, clinical and histological response to a gluten-free diet, or subsequently developed villous atrophy while on a normal diet. The existence of a celiac-type disorder in these individuals was further supported by the presence of the relevant HLA type in all in whom it was measured. There is thus strong evidence that, irrespective of the initially normal villous morphology, these EmA positive subjects are truly suffering from celiac disease.

Our study is subject to some limitations. First, although a high percentage of the participants had mild or atypical clinical presentation, the number of those found by population-based serological screening was rather low. Consequently, the results cannot be generalized to this patient group, and further studies are needed^[27]. Secondly, the mucosal biopsies were taken from the distal duodenum as previously recommended^[28]. Judging from recent evidence, however, villous atrophy can occasionally be detected only in the bulb area of the small intestine, and in theory celiac disease might in such cases already have been confirmed at the time of the first biopsy^[7]. Nevertheless, interpretation of bulb specimens may be biased on Brunner glands or peptic inflammation, and their role in the diagnostics remains controversial. In addition, a patchy small-bowel mucosal lesion is always possible in celiac disease, which further highlights the importance of serology in the diagnosis.

Although EmA shows excellent specificity for an untreated celiac disease, it has certain limitations. The immunofluorescence method is laborious, time-consuming and always somewhat subjective. Since TG2-abs can be easily measured using a practical ELISA method, it would be tempting to use it instead of EmA. Neverthe-

less, TG2-ab are measured by commercial tests which use different epitopes of TG2 as antigen, and thus the specificity figures for the method have been somewhat inconsistent. Consequently, the positive predictive value of TG2-ab has sometimes been rather low, particularly in low-risk populations^[29]. TG2-ab can also be positive in some conditions such as in liver diseases^[30]. For these reasons, we decided to use the more laborious and time-consuming but celiac disease-specific EmA as the primary inclusion criterion in our series. As a consequence, the results should not be applied to TG2-ab positive EmA negative subjects. Finally, since antibody-negative subjects were not included in our study, the overall sensitivity of the serological tests could not be obtained.

To conclude, EmA positivity as such is a very strong predictor of a subsequent celiac disease diagnosis also in patients with low serum antibody titers and subtle or atypical clinical presentation. Judging from the findings here, invasive endoscopic studies might not be obligatory in all such seropositive patients.

COMMENTS

Background

The diagnosis of celiac disease is based on the presence of small-bowel mucosal villous atrophy and crypt hyperplasia, but this histological definition involves several problems. Since particularly endomysial (EmA) and high values of transglutaminase 2 antibodies (TG2-ab) seem to predict celiac disease with high specificity, it has been advocated that in seropositive subjects with gastrointestinal symptoms endoscopic studies might not be obligatory to establish the diagnosis.

Research frontiers

New diagnostic criteria of celiac disease based to serological tests might make the burdensome and invasive endoscopic investigations unnecessary. The authors aimed to investigate the association between serum antibody levels and a subsequent celiac disease diagnosis in children and adults with a heterogeneous clinical presentation.

Innovations and breakthroughs

The results showed that high positive values of serological tests are excellent predictors of subsequent villous atrophy and celiac disease also in subjects with atypical or subtle clinical presentation. In addition, positivity of EmA is a very strong indicator of celiac disease diagnosis irrespective of the baseline titers.

Applications

These results indicate that gastrointestinal endoscopy might be omitted and celiac disease diagnosis established without further histological confirmation in children and adults with positive EmA.

Terminology

Celiac disease is a chronic autoimmune-based triggered by ingested gluten in genetically susceptible individuals. EmA and TG2-ab are serological test with high accuracy for an untreated celiac disease.

Peer review

This is a nice study that highlights the significance of positive EmA results in a large series of children and adults. The paper is well-written and adds pertinent information to the literature.

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Efficacy of mosapride citrate with polyethylene glycol solution for colonoscopy preparation

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Abstract

AIM: To evaluate the efficacy and safety of adjunctive mosapride citrate for bowel preparation before colonoscopy.

METHODS: We conducted a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study with mosapride in addition to polyethylene glycol (PEG)-electrolyte solution. Of 250 patients undergoing colonoscopy, 124 were randomized to receive 2 L PEG plus 15 mg of mosapride citrate (mosapride group), and 126 received 2 L PEG plus

placebo (placebo group). Patients completed a questionnaire reporting the acceptability and tolerability of the bowel preparation process. The efficacy of bowel preparation was assessed by colonoscopists using a 5-point scale based on Aronchick's criteria. The primary end point was optimal bowel preparation rates (scores of excellent/good/fair vs poor/inadequate).

RESULTS: A total of 249 patients were included in the analysis. In the mosapride group, optimal bowel preparation rates were significantly higher in the left colon compared with the placebo group (78.2% vs 65.6%, $P < 0.05$), but not in the right colon (76.5% vs 66.4%, $P = 0.08$). After excluding patients with severe constipation, there was a significant difference in bowel preparation in both the left and right colon (82.4% vs 66.7%, 80.8% vs 67.5%, $P < 0.05$, $P < 0.01$). The incidence of adverse events was similar in both groups. Among the subgroup who had previous colonoscopy experience, a significantly higher number of patients in the mosapride group felt that the current preparation was easier compared with patients in the placebo group (34/72 patients vs 24/74 patients, $P < 0.05$).

CONCLUSION: Mosapride citrate may be an effective and safe adjunct to PEG-electrolyte solution that leads to improved quality of bowel preparation, especially in patients without severe constipation.

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Key words: Mosapride citrate; Bowel preparation; Polyethylene glycol-electrolyte solution; Colonoscopy; Prokinetics

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INTRODUCTION

Polyethylene glycol (PEG)-electrolyte solution is used worldwide for bowel cleansing. Approximately 2 L of this oral solution, along with a laxative, is usually required for adequate bowel preparation in Japan^[1]. However, the need to drink such large volumes of liquid with an unpalatable taste has a negative impact on patient compliance^[2]. A thorough bowel preparation is required for safe and effective colonoscopy, and inadequate preparation not only decreases the sensitivity, but also increases the difficulty of the procedure^[3-5]. Therefore, more effective bowel preparation regimens for colonoscopy are required to improve the acceptability and tolerability of the procedure. Prokinetics such as domperidone, metoclopramide, and cisapride have been used in combination with PEG-electrolyte solution to improve the quality of bowel preparation^[6-12]. However, the addition of prokinetic agents to PEG-electrolyte solution has not been proven to improve patient tolerance or colonic cleansing^[10-12] and is sometimes associated with serious adverse effects. For example, domperidone and metoclopramide may cause extrapyramidal symptoms with long-term use^[13]. Cisapride was withdrawn from the market because of severe cardiac side effects, including QT-interval prolongation and ventricular arrhythmias^[14]. Thus, safer and more effective prokinetic agents are needed.

Mosapride citrate (mosapride) is a selective 5-hydroxytryptamine-4 (5-HT₄) receptor agonist. Mosapride enhances gastric emptying and motility by facilitating acetylcholine release from the enteric cholinergic neurons, without blocking dopaminergic D₂ receptors^[15]. It is known to be effective in gastroesophageal reflux disease^[16], functional gastrointestinal disorders, such as functional dyspepsia^[17], chronic gastritis with delayed gastric emptying, and diabetic gastroparesis^[18]. As 5-HT₄ receptors are also located in the human colon and rectum^[19,20], mosapride is also expected to have a prokinetic effect on the colo-rectum. A few clinical studies have reported that mosapride in combination with PEG may enhance bowel cleansing and improve patient acceptability and tolerability^[21,22]. However, the efficacy and tolerability of a PEG-electrolyte solution with or without mosapride has not been studied in a double-blind, randomized trial.

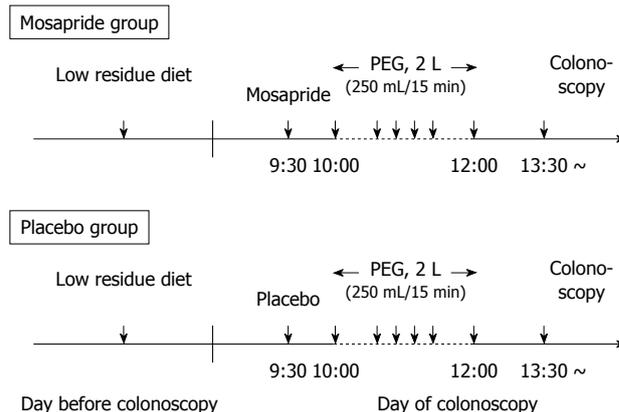


Figure 1 Steps of preparation for colonoscopy.

We conducted this study to evaluate the efficacy, acceptability, and tolerability of mosapride as an adjuvant to PEG-electrolyte solution for colonoscopy preparation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This was a prospective, double-blind, randomized, controlled study that included patients who underwent colonoscopy at Aichi Cancer Center Hospital (ACCH), Nagoya, from January 2009 to October 2009. This study was reviewed and approved by the ethics committee of ACCH.

Study population

All consecutive outpatients aged 20-80 years who were scheduled for colonoscopy at ACCH were evaluated for study inclusion. Patients with the following clinical features were excluded: presence of significant cardiac, renal, hepatic, or metabolic comorbidities; presence of ascites or bowel obstruction; known allergy to PEG-electrolyte solution; history of gastric stapling or bypass procedure; or a history of prior colonic or rectal surgery. A gastroenterologist assessed patient eligibility, and written informed consent was obtained from each patient prior to inclusion.

Randomization and blinding

Patients were randomly allocated to receive one of two bowel preparation regimens using a computer-generated random-number list. Patients were randomized in block sizes of two, with serially numbered, sealed, opaque envelopes. Concealed allocation was accomplished through non-research personnel who were not involved in this study. Comparisons between subjects who received 2 L PEG plus mosapride (mosapride group) and 2 L PEG plus placebo (placebo group) were made in a double-blind fashion.

Bowel preparation methods

The colonoscopy preparation steps used in this study are shown in Figure 1. The day before colonoscopy, all patients were instructed to eat a pre-packaged, low-residue diet (Enimaclin CS; Horii Pharmaceutical Ind., Ltd., Osaka, Japan) that consisted of a lunch, snack, and dinner, and were asked to drink more than 2 L of clear

liquid. On the day of the colonoscopy, all participants reported to the endoscopy room at 9:00 am, and received in-hospital bowel preparation. In-hospital preparation is important to ensure the uniformity of procedures within the study, and to remove any confounding caused by poor patient adherence. More than 10 toilet facilities were made available in the endoscopy unit for patient comfort. Six mosapride tablets (15 mg) (Gasmotin; Dai-rippon Sumitomo Pharma Co., Ltd., Osaka, Japan) or six identical-looking placebo tablets were administered orally with water at 09:30. The timing of administration of the mosapride tablets was based on its pharmacokinetics^[23]. After 30 min, both groups were instructed to drink 0.25 L of PEG-electrolyte solution (Niflec; Ajinomoto Pharmaceuticals Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) every 15 min.

Evaluation of bowel preparation

The efficacy of bowel preparation was assessed using Aronchick's criteria^[24], as follows: (1) Excellent (small volume of clear liquid, or greater than 95% of colonic surface seen); (2) Good (large volume of clear liquid covering 5% to 25% of colonic surface, but greater than 90% of surface seen); (3) Fair (some semisolid stool that could be suctioned or washed away, but greater than 90% of surface seen); (4) Poor (some semisolid stool that could not be suctioned or washed away, and less than 90% of surface seen); and (5) Inadequate (repeat preparation and colonoscopy needed). Participating endoscopists were trained to use Aronchick's criteria to achieve a good level of agreement. Investigators performed calibration exercises involving more than 20 colonoscopies prior to study commencement, based on their interpretation of scale anchors, to ensure that their findings agreed. The final assessment of bowel preparation was divided into two categories: optimal and non-optimal. Bowel preparations rated as fair, good, or excellent, based on Aronchick's criteria, were considered optimal; poor or inadequate ratings were considered non-optimal. After colonoscopy, two observers, including the endoscopist performing the procedure, determined the score by mutual agreement. They scored the quality of the preparation in the right colon (proximal to the splenic flexure), and the left colon (distal to the splenic flexure) and rectum separately. If the decision was discordant, a third expert reviewer graded and scored the recorded images, and this evaluation was used in the final analysis.

During or immediately following the colonoscopy, the investigator completed a physician questionnaire regarding the assessment of bowel preparation, amount of irrigation fluid used, time to reach the cecum, and ease of insertion into the cecum and visualization of the colonic lumen regardless of peristalses.

Patient tolerance and other measurements

The nursing staff recorded the time required to drink the indicated volume of lavage solution. They also recorded the time and number of motions from start of ingestion to the appearance of clear excretions. The nursing staff

checked excretions until 1 h after patients finished the PEG + mosapride solution. If there was a solid stool with muddy excretions or no excretion at that time, we gave the patient an additional preparation, such as additional PEG or enema. A warm water enema of 500 mL volume was given until the excretions were clear. Patients who received an additional preparation were defined by Aronchick's criteria as inadequate. The patient questionnaire, which was administered before bowel cleansing, consisted of 20 questions pertaining to patient characteristics, tolerability, and acceptability of study medication. It also included questions about the following: age; height; body weight; average number of bowel movements per week for the last year; number of previous colonoscopies; compliance with ingestion of PEG-electrolyte solution; willingness to repeat the same preparation regimen again, if required; ease/difficulty of taking the preparation compared with previous experiences; and presence of subjective symptoms while drinking PEG-electrolyte solution, such as nausea, vomiting, fullness, abdominal pain, and circulatory reactions such as palpitations or chest discomfort. We defined patients who suffered from constipation (defined as < 2 bowel movements per week) for > 1 year as having severe constipation. Patients completed the questionnaire before undergoing the colonoscopy and submitted the form to the nursing staff.

Endpoints

The primary endpoint was the difference in optimal rate of colon cleansing in the mosapride and placebo groups. Secondary endpoints included differences in patients' acceptability and tolerance of solutions, time to first defecation, frequency of defecation, complete time for colonic preparation, time needed to reach the cecum, amount of irrigation fluid used, and subjective difficulty in colonoscopy insertion to the cecum and in observing the lumen of the colo-rectum because of peristalses.

Statistical analysis

The study was designed to detect an inter-group difference of 11% in the percentage of patients with optimal bowel preparation, with an α error of 5% and a power of 80%. This difference was based on a previous study^[21]. The number of patients needed to demonstrate an 11% difference was 125 per treatment group, assuming a drop-out rate of 10%.

The primary efficacy analysis was based on an intent-to-treat analysis and included patients who were randomized and received any treatment. The preparation of patients in this group was considered optimal or non-optimal based on the colonoscopist's score regarding cleansing. Patients who did not undergo colonoscopy because of preparation-related adverse events, or preparation failure, or in whom the right colon could not be reached because of bowel obstruction or for technical reasons were excluded. The rates of optimal preparation were compared between the groups by the Chi-square test or Fisher's exact test for categorical variables.

Table 1 Baseline characteristics

Variable	Overall		Excluding patients with severe constipation		P value	
	A (mosapride)	B (placebo)	C (mosapride)	D (placebo)	A vs B	C vs D
No. of patients	124	125	108	120		
Age (yr, mean ± SD)	67.3 ± 8.6	67.8 ± 10.1	67.3 ± 8.5	67.5 ± 10.2	NS	NS
< 60	21	21	18	21		
60-69	42	44	37	42	NS	NS
≥ 70	61	60	53	57		
Male	69	83	64	80	NS	NS
Female	55	42	44	40		
Body mass index (kg/m ² , mean ± SD)	22.5 ± 2.9	22.6 ± 2.7	22.7 ± 2.9	22.7 ± 2.6	NS	NS
Bowel movements per week						
< 2	16	5	0	0		
≥ 2	108	120	108	120	< 0.05	NS
Previous colonoscopy						
None (first time)	38	27	32	26		
≥ 2	86	98	76	94	NS	NS

P value by the χ^2 test. NS: Not significant.

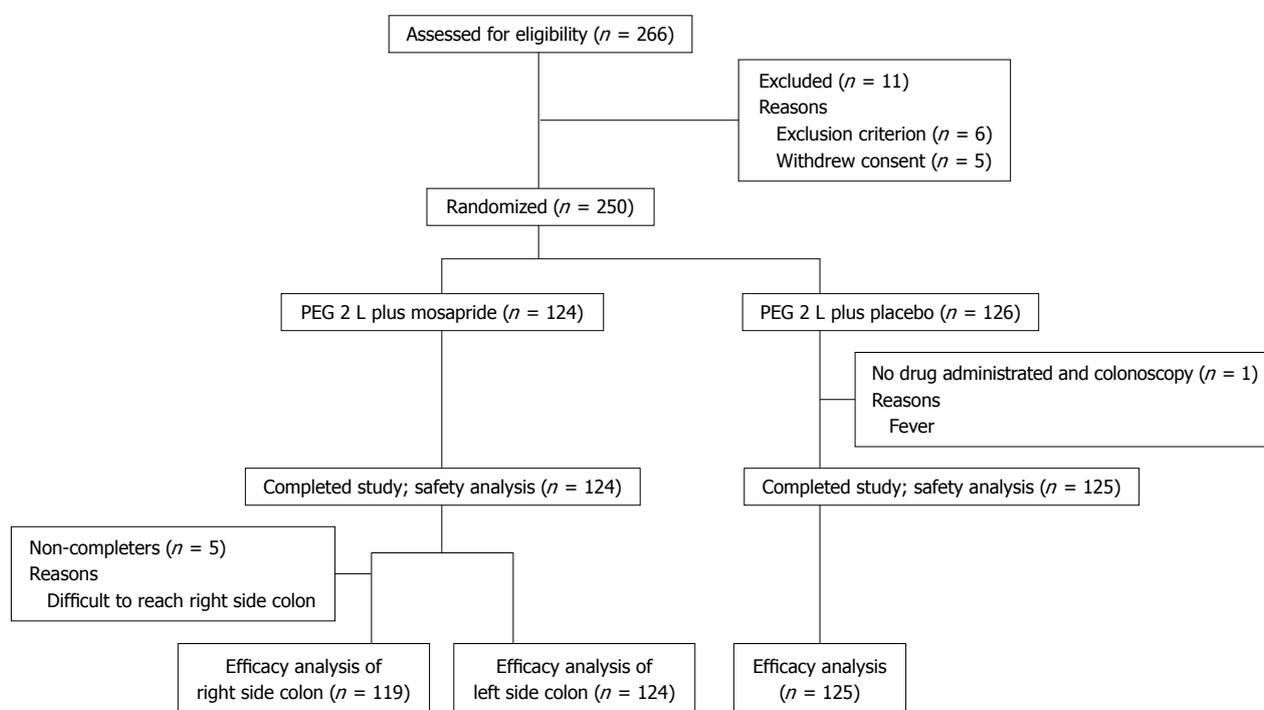


Figure 2 Patient disposition flow chart. PEG: Polyethylene glycol.

For secondary endpoints, the Mann-Whitney *U* test was used for comparison between continuous variables. Categorical variables were analyzed using the corrected χ^2 or two-sided Fisher's exact tests, where appropriate. The criterion for statistical significance was $P < 0.05$.

All statistical analyses were performed using Statistical Analysis Software (SPSS, version 12.0J) for the PC, SPSS Japan, Inc., Tokyo, Japan).

RESULTS

Patient characteristics

A total of 250 patients were randomized into two groups (Figure 2). Of those randomized to treatment, only one

patient did not receive any treatment or undergo colonoscopy because he felt chilled and had a fever before treatment. Although 249 patients were analyzed, insertion of the colonoscope into the right colon failed in five (4%) patients in the mosapride group (advanced stenosing cancer in three and patient refusal in two), because of pain on colonoscopic advancement to the proximal colon. These five patients were excluded from the efficacy analysis of the right colon. Baseline characteristics of the patients are shown in Table 1. Differences in age, gender, body mass index, and the number of previous colonoscopies between the mosapride and placebo groups were not significant. However, significantly more patients suffering from severe constipation (defined as < 2 bowel

Table 2 Results of the preparation and endoscopic findings

Variable	Overall		Excluding patients with severe constipation		P value	
	A (mosapride)	B (placebo)	C (mosapride)	D (placebo)	A vs B	C vs D
No. of patients	124	125	108	120		
Time to first defecation (min, mean ± SD)	55.4 ± 27.3	71.2 ± 28.6	52.9 ± 26.2	70.4 ± 28.9	< 0.001	< 0.001
Frequency of defecation (times, median, quartile)	8.3 (4-18)	8.6 (4-18)	8.3 (4-18)	8.0 (4-18)	NS	NS
Time of bowel preparation (min, mean ± SD)	185.1 ± 63.8	198.0 ± 76.5	178.6 ± 58.2	198.0 ± 76.6	0.11	< 0.05
Elapsed time from last fluid intake to colonoscopy (min, mean ± SD)	154.6 ± 48.9	154.1 ± 48.2	157.1 ± 63.2	155.5 ± 62.1	NS	NS
Cecal intubation rate, n (%)	119 (96.0)	124 (99.2)	108 (100)	120 (100)	NS	NS
Insertion time ¹ (min, median, quartiles)	7.8 (2-55)	8.5 (2-38)	7.4 (2-55)	8.5 (2-38)	NS	NS
Feel of peristalsis, n (%)	20 (16.1)	22 (17.6)	14 (13.0)	22 (18.3)	NS	NS
Amount of irrigation fluid						
None	67	65	57	62		
< 50 mL	40	47	33	46	NS	NS
50-100 mL	15	11	12	11		
> 100 mL	2	1	2	1		
Endoscopic findings						
Cancer	5	5	3	5		
Polyps	70	82	61	79	NS	NS
Diverticulosis	32	39	29	38		

P value by the Mann-Whitney U test. ¹Insertion time was based on patients in whom the cecal portion of the colon examined. NS: Not significant.

Table 3 Efficacy of overall colon-cleansing

Variable	Right colon		Left colon and rectum		P value	
	Mosapride	Placebo	Mosapride	Placebo	Right	Left
No. of patients	119	125	124	125		
Overall score						
Excellent	39	24	48	33	< 0.05	< 0.05
Good	34	38	37	39	NS	NS
Fair	18	21	12	10	NS	NS
Poor	3	3	2	4	NS	NS
Inadequate	25	39	25	39	0.07	0.06
Optimal ratings, n (%)	91 (76.5)	83 (66.4)	97 (78.2)	82 (65.6)	0.08	< 0.05

P value by the χ^2 test. NS: Not significant.

movements per week for > 1 year) were included in the mosapride group compared with the placebo group ($P < 0.05$). Therefore, we compared the efficacy, acceptability, and tolerability of the bowel preparation solution in subgroups of patients with or without severe constipation.

Bowel cleansing efficacy

As shown in Table 2, time to first defecation was significantly shorter in the mosapride group compared with the placebo group ($P < 0.001$). After excluding patients with severe constipation, the completion time for bowel preparation was significantly shorter in the mosapride group compared with the placebo group ($P < 0.05$). There were no differences in frequency of defecation, the elapsed time from last fluid intake to colonoscopy, time needed to reach the cecum, amount of irrigation fluid used, subjective difficulties in insertion to the cecum, and in observing the lumen of the colo-rectum between groups, or in the frequency of positive endoscopic findings.

The efficacy of bowel preparation is shown in Table 3.

Twenty-five (20.2%) patients required additional preparation in the mosapride group (mean 0.6 L additional PEG in 22 patients, 0.5 L enema in one patient, and both in two patients). Thirty-eight (30.4%) patients required additional preparation in the placebo group (mean 0.75 L PEG in 35 patients, 0.5 L enema in one patient, and both in two patients).

In the right colon, the number of bowel preparations rated as excellent was significantly higher in the mosapride group than in the placebo group ($P < 0.05$). However, the rate of optimal preparations did not differ significantly between groups ($P = 0.08$) (Table 3). After excluding patients with severe constipation, there were significant differences in the number of bowel preparations rated as excellent and the rate of optimal preparation in the mosapride group ($P < 0.01$ and $P < 0.05$ in the right colon and $P < 0.05$ and $P < 0.01$ in the left colon, respectively) (Table 4). In the left colon and rectum, the number of bowel preparations rated as excellent and the rate of optimal preparation were significantly higher

Table 4 Results of colon-cleansing efficacy excluding patients with severe constipation

Variable	Right colon		Left colon and rectum		P value	
	Mosapride	Placebo	Mosapride	Placebo	Right	Left
No. of patients	104	120	108	120		
Overall score						
Excellent	37	24	46	33	< 0.01	< 0.05
Good	31	37	33	38	NS	NS
Fair	16	20	10	9	NS	NS
Poor	2	3	1	4	NS	NS
Inadequate	18	36	18	36	< 0.05	< 0.05
Optimal ratings, n (%)	84 (80.8)	81 (67.5)	89 (82.4)	80 (66.7)	< 0.05	< 0.01

P value by the χ^2 test. NS: Not significant.

Table 5 Results of patient questionnaire n (%)

Variable	Overall		Excluding patients with severe constipation		P value	
	A (mosapride)	B (placebo)	C (mosapride)	D (placebo)	A vs B	C vs D
No. of patients	124	125	108	120		
Compliance > 80%	120 (96.8)	119 (95.2)	105 (97.2)	114 (95.0)	NS	NS
100% intake	112 (90.3)	115 (92.0)	97 (89.8)	110 (91.7)	NS	NS
Any symptom						
Nausea	5 (4.0)	6 (4.8)	3 (2.7)	4 (3.3)	NS	NS
Vomiting	0	1 (0.8)	0	0	NS	NS
Distension	40 (32.3)	31 (24.8)	31 (28.7)	28 (23.3)	NS	NS
Abdominal pain	4 (3.2)	2 (1.6)	3 (2.8)	2 (1.7)	NS	NS
Circulatory reactions	0	0	0	0	NS	NS
Willingness to repeat the same regimen	77/115 (66.9)	82/112 (73.2)	67/100 (67.0)	79/108 (73.1)	NS	NS
How easy/difficult to take preparation compared with previous one (easy/invariable/difficult)	34/42/10	24/67/7	32/37/8	23/66/5	< 0.05	< 0.05

P value by the χ^2 test. NS: Not significant.

in the mosapride group than in the placebo group ($P < 0.05$ and $P < 0.05$, respectively). These significant differences were maintained even after excluding patients with severe constipation ($P < 0.05$ and $P < 0.05$, respectively).

Patient tolerability and safety

There were no significant differences in compliance, as defined by > 80% and 100% intake of the PEG solution between the two groups (Table 5). Frequencies of symptoms such as nausea, vomiting, distention, abdominal pain, and circulatory reactions were similar in both groups. The proportion of patients who were willing to repeat the same preparation regimen was also similar in the two groups. However, among the subgroup of patients who had undergone a colonoscopy more than twice in the past, a significantly higher number of patients in the mosapride group felt that the current preparation was easier compared with patients in the placebo group ($P < 0.05$). This significant difference was maintained even after excluding patients with severe constipation ($P < 0.05$).

DISCUSSION

This is the first prospective, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study to evaluate the efficacy, accept-

ability, and tolerance of mosapride as an adjuvant to PEG-electrolyte solution for colonoscopy preparation. Mosapride is a benzisoxazole derivative prokinetic drug that is used for the treatment of gastrointestinal symptoms associated with chronic gastritis and functional dyspepsia^[16,17,25-28]. It facilitates acetylcholine release from the enteric cholinergic neurons by its selective 5-HT₄ receptor agonistic action^[26]. It is also active through its main metabolite M1, which is a 5-HT₃ agonist. The action of mosapride resembles that of a previously used 5-HT₄ agonist, cisapride, which had been reported to be useful for bowel preparation^[29,30]. Cisapride had additional effects of blocking K channels and D₂ dopaminergic receptors and was withdrawn after its K channel blocking properties led to reports of QT interval prolongation and cardiac arrhythmias. In contrast to cisapride, mosapride does not block K channels or D₂ dopaminergic receptors and is believed to have less cardiac toxicity^[31].

5-HT₄ receptors are present in the myenteric plexus and the muscle of stomach and colon, and mosapride has high affinity for these receptors^[20,29,32]. In human studies, mosapride has been found effective for slow transit constipation, outlet obstruction-type constipation, constipation in Parkinson's disease, and constipation associated with irritable bowel syndrome^[33-35]. Recently, in guinea

pigs, it was reported that mosapride enhanced the colon cleansing action of PEG *via* an increase in colonic transit, reducing not only fecal residue but also excessive fluid in the colonic lumen^[36]. However, it is unclear whether mosapride would have additive beneficial effects on bowel cleansing before colonoscopy in humans.

We found that the rate of optimal preparation was significantly higher in the mosapride group compared with the placebo group in the left colon and rectum, but not in the right colon. The number of patients with bowel preparations rated as excellent was significantly higher for the mosapride group compared with the placebo group, especially for the right colon. Kim *et al.*^[37] have also described this differential efficacy of mosapride between the right and left colon in guinea pigs, and ascribed this finding to the differential distribution of colonic 5-HT₄ receptors. Although the rates of optimal preparation were not significantly different in the right colon, the number of bowel preparations rated as excellent was significantly higher with the use of mosapride. Furthermore, after excluding patients with severe constipation, the rate of optimal preparation was significantly higher in the mosapride group compared with the placebo group. These findings support the efficacy of mosapride for bowel preparation.

In this study, many patients required additional bowel preparation. One possible reason may be that the nursing staff checked excretions 1 h after finishing the preparation, which may have been too short an interval for the PEG solution to adequately cleanse the colon. However, the rate of inadequate cleansing was significantly lower in the mosapride group compared with the placebo group. Furthermore, the time to first defecation was also significantly shorter in the mosapride group. The beneficial effect of mosapride on gastric emptying was expected to ameliorate nausea, vomiting, and fullness of the abdomen during bowel preparation. Mishima *et al.*^[22] showed that administration of mosapride prior to PEG solution significantly decreased the incidence of uncomfortable abdominal symptoms. However, there were no significant differences in the frequencies of these symptoms between the mosapride group and the placebo group in this study, and more patients were willing to repeat the same preparation regimen in the placebo group. This finding may be due to more abdominal distension and pain in the mosapride group due to its prokinetic effects. According to a postmarketing surveillance study, the most common adverse events associated with mosapride are abdominal pain and loose stools (both 0.35%)^[38]. On the other hand, a larger proportion of patients in the mosapride group than in the placebo group felt that the preparation was easier to complete. These findings may support the efficacy of mosapride in terms of patient tolerance and acceptability. It is possible that 2 L of PEG solution is so large that these symptoms are unavoidable; in addition, it is also possible that the dose of mosapride was not sufficient to alleviate these symptoms.

Co-administration of laxatives such as sennoside and bisacodyl with lavage solution has been shown to im-

prove colonic cleansing during colonoscopy. Addition of these adjunctive therapies has also allowed for lower volume PEG solutions to be administered with equivalent or increased efficacy. However, the adjunctive therapies have to be taken the day before the procedure. This may lead to sleep disturbances and inconvenience due to frequent defecation. If it is possible to begin the bowel preparation using mosapride on the same day as the colonoscopy, patient tolerability may improve.

Recently, it has been suggested that co-administration of mosapride and PEG-electrolyte solution is useful in preparing the colon for barium enema examination as it allows good evacuation of remaining feces^[39]. As a result, mosapride is now approved in Japan for preparation for a barium enema examination, and a total dose of 40 mg mosapride is used. Major side effects have not been reported in Japan with this dose. In the present study, we administered 15 mg of mosapride for colonoscopy preparation, which is the recommended usual daily dosage of mosapride for adult patients with chronic gastritis. However because the effects of mosapride are reported to be dose-dependent^[35,40], additional studies that address optimal dosage and timing of administration are required to clarify the best regimen for colonoscopy.

One of the limitations of this study was that there was a significant difference in the number of patients with severe constipation between the two groups. However, even with the inclusion of patients with severe constipation, there was a non-significant trend for improved preparation in the mosapride group, and this difference became significant after the exclusion of this subgroup. It is possible that for patients with severe constipation, the dose of 15 mg mosapride may be insufficient. The second limitation of this study was its single center location. Finally, we did not evaluate laboratory abnormalities, as co-administration of mosapride and PEG-electrolyte solution is already common in Japan for preparation for barium enema examination^[39]. No serious laboratory abnormalities have been reported in Japan with a 40-mg dose of mosapride.

In conclusion, we demonstrated that co-administration of mosapride with PEG-electrolyte solution improves the quality of bowel preparation for colonoscopy in the left colon. Mosapride may be an effective and safe adjunct to PEG that leads to improved quality of bowel preparation, especially in patients without severe constipation.

COMMENTS

Background

Although prokinetics have been used in combination with polyethylene glycol (PEG)-electrolyte solution to improve patient acceptability and tolerance, as well as improve bowel cleansing, the efficacy and safety of these agents remain unproven. Prokinetics such as domperidone, metoclopramide, and cisapride have been used in combination with PEG-electrolyte solution to improve the quality of bowel preparation. However, the addition of prokinetic agents to PEG-electrolyte solution has not been proven to improve patient tolerance or colonic cleansing and can be sometimes associated with serious adverse effects. Thus, safer and more effective prokinetic agents are needed.

Research frontiers

Mosapride citrate (mosapride) is a selective 5-hydroxytryptamine-4 (5-HT₄) receptor agonist. Mosapride enhances gastric emptying and motility by facilitating acetylcholine release from the enteric cholinergic neurons, without blocking dopaminergic D₂ receptors. It is known to be effective in gastroesophageal reflux disease, functional gastrointestinal disorders, such as functional dyspepsia, chronic gastritis with delayed gastric emptying, and diabetic gastroparesis. As 5-HT₄ receptors are also located in the human colon and rectum, mosapride is also expected to have a prokinetic effect on the colo-rectum. A few clinical studies have reported that mosapride in combination with PEG may enhance bowel cleansing and improve patient acceptability and tolerability.

Innovations and breakthroughs

This is the first prospective, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study to evaluate the efficacy, acceptability, and tolerance of mosapride as an adjuvant in PEG-electrolyte solution for colonoscopy preparation. This study demonstrated that co-administration of mosapride with PEG-electrolyte solution improves the quality of bowel preparation for colonoscopy in the left colon.

Applications

The study results suggest that mosapride may be an effective and safe adjunct to PEG, leading to an improved quality of bowel preparation, especially in patients without severe constipation. Additional studies that address optimal dosage and timing of administration are required to clarify the best bowel preparation method for colonoscopy.

Terminology

PEG-electrolyte solution: PEG-electrolyte solution is used worldwide for bowel cleansing. Approximately 2 L of this oral solution with some laxatives is usually required for adequate bowel preparation in Japan. However, the need to drink such large volumes of liquid with an unpalatable taste has a negative impact on patient compliance.

Peer review

This is an interesting and well written study. The methodology and evaluation of data is correct. The conclusion sounds good and useful for the general practice.

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Endoscopic ultrasound-guided biliary drainage with placement of a fully covered metal stent for malignant biliary obstruction

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Abstract

AIM: To determine the utility of endoscopic ultrasound-guided biliary drainage (EUS-BD) with a fully covered self-expandable metal stent for managing malignant biliary stricture.

METHODS: We collected data from 13 patients who presented with malignant biliary obstruction and underwent EUS-BD with a nitinol fully covered self-expandable metal stent when endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography (ERCP) fails. EUS-guided choledochoduodenostomy (EUS-CD) and EUS-guided hepaticogastrostomy (EUS-HG) was performed in 9 pa-

tients and 4 patients, respectively.

RESULTS: The technical and functional success rate was 92.3% (12/13) and 91.7% (11/12), respectively. Using an intrahepatic approach (EUS-HG, $n = 4$), there was mild peritonitis ($n = 1$) and migration of the metal stent to the stomach ($n = 1$). With an extrahepatic approach (EUS-CD, $n = 10$), there was pneumoperitoneum ($n = 2$), migration ($n = 2$), and mild peritonitis ($n = 1$). All patients were managed conservatively with antibiotics. During follow-up (range, 1-12 mo), there was re-intervention (4/13 cases, 30.7%) necessitated by stent migration ($n = 2$) and stent occlusion ($n = 2$).

CONCLUSION: EUS-BD with a nitinol fully covered self-expandable metal stent may be a feasible and effective treatment option in patients with malignant biliary obstruction when ERCP fails.

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Key words: Endoscopic ultrasound-guided; Biliary drainage; Metal stent; Biliary obstruction

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INTRODUCTION

Endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography (ERCP)

is a well-established technique for providing biliary decompression in patients with bile duct obstruction. The success rate for effective biliary decompression with ERCP ranges from 90% to 95%^[1]. However, there are patients in whom ERCP fails because of unsuccessful biliary cannulation, or inaccessible papilla due to duodenal stenosis caused by tumor invasion. In these cases, percutaneous biliary drainage (PTBD) is required. However, PTBD can lead to significant complications, including biliary peritonitis, hemobilia, pneumothorax, hematoma, liver abscesses, and patient discomfort related to the catheter^[2].

Therefore, endoscopic ultrasound-guided biliary drainage (EUS-BD) using plastic stents has been introduced as an alternative to PTBD in cases of biliary obstruction when ERCP fails^[3-6]. However, plastic stent malfunction due to stent clogging after EUS-BD is not uncommon^[3,7,8]. Fully covered self-expandable metal stent (FCSEMS) with a large bore diameter may have advantages over plastic stents. Recently, EUS-BD with a FCSEMS was introduced in a few cases of malignant biliary obstruction after a failed ERCP^[9]. The current study was conducted to determine the feasibility, outcomes, and risks of EUS-guided hepaticogastrostomy (EUS-HG) and EUS-guided choledochoduodenostomy (EUS-CD) with an FCSEMS as a biliary diversion technique in patients with malignant biliary obstruction for whom interventional ERCP was unsuccessful.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study population

We collected data on all patients who presented with obstructive jaundice and who underwent EUS-BD after a failed ERCP during a 20-mo period from February 2009 to September 2010. Failed ERCP was defined as the inability to relieve jaundice or failed biliary cannulation. A total of 2209 ERCPs at Wonkwang University Hospital ($n = 780$) and Jeonbuk National University Hospital ($n = 1429$) were performed during the study period, and 366 required biliary decompression. Of the 22 (6%) patients who underwent alternative methods for biliary decompression as a result of failed ERCP, 13 had EUS-BD. Study eligibility was determined as follows: (1) Initial biliary cannulation or bile duct decompression by ERCP failed because of accompanying duodenal obstruction, periampullary tumor infiltration, and difficult cannulation ($n = 11$); (2) A high-grade left-sided hilar stricture as a result of segmental tumor progression with an occluded biliary metal stent was unable to be crossed by a guidewire ($n = 2$); (3) The patient refused PTBD ($n = 13$).

ERCP was performed by 3 experienced endoscopists (Kim TH, Kim SH and Lee SO). Each endoscopist performs 400 to 450 ERCPs annually. EUS-BD was performed by 2 experienced endoscopists (Kim TH and Kim SH) who perform more than 250 EUS procedures for pancreaticobiliary diseases annually.

In this study, stent occlusion was classified as predominantly tumor ingrowth (seen on fluoroscopy as a narrowing within the stent), tumor overgrowth (seen

radiographically or endoscopically as a new narrowing at the proximal or distal margin of the stent), or sludge/debris (demonstrated as echoendoscopic findings or multiple radiographic filling defects that disappeared after extraction with a biliary balloon along with endoscopic visualization of the extracted sludge)^[10]. The Institutional Review Boards at Wonkwang University Hospital and Jeonbuk National University Hospital, South Korea approved this study. All patients provided written informed consent for participation in this study.

Techniques

Antibiotics were permitted in all cases for 3 d to 5 d before and after the intervention. ERCP was initially attempted in each patient by using a therapeutic duodenoscope (TJF-240; Olympus Optical Co, Tokyo, Japan). When the ERCP was unsuccessful, an EUS was performed using a GF-UCT 240 linear-array echoendoscope (Olympus Corp., Tokyo, Japan) in a second session (on the same or next day). These patients underwent an EUS-HG or EUS-CD. Using the transgastric approach, the echoendoscope was placed in the cardia or the lesser curvature of the stomach to view the dilated segment 3 of the liver (Figure 1). Using the transduodenal approach, the echoendoscope was placed in the duodenal bulb to image the extrahepatic bile duct (Figure 2). Color Doppler ultrasonography was used to identify the regional vasculature, and a bile duct puncture was performed with a 19-gauge needle (EUSN-19-T; Cook Endoscopy, Winston-Salem, NC, United States). To confirm successful biliary access, contrast medium was injected under fluoroscopy to demonstrate biliary opacification. A 0.035-inch guidewire was introduced through the EUS needle and advanced in an antegrade or retrograde fashion. Afterwards, 6F and 7F tapered, biliary, bougie catheters (catheter tip, 4F; Cook Endoscopy) were inserted and removed, over the guidewire to dilate the tract. If there was resistance when advancing the 6F bougie catheter, a needle-knife (Microtome; Boston Scientific, Natick, MA, United States) with a 7F shaft diameter or tapered MTW catheter (WTW, Endoscopic, Wesel, Germany) was inserted over the guidewire to dilate the tract. To accomplish this, the tip of a needle-knife (Microtome) with a pure current was gently inserted over the guidewire into the biliary system. The needle was then withdrawn, and the needle-knife was pushed in to dilate the tract. A commercially available, fully silicon-covered metal stent with an 8F deployment system and an olive tip (BONASTENT, a nitinol stent with a 10-mm diameter and 6-cm length; Standard Sci Tech Inc., Seoul, South Korea) was placed under echoendoscopic and fluoroscopic view.

Definition of events

Technical success was defined as the deployment of the metal stent across the stomach or duodenum, along with the flow of contrast medium and/or bile through the stent. Functional success was defined as a reduction in bilirubin to less than 50% of the pretreatment value

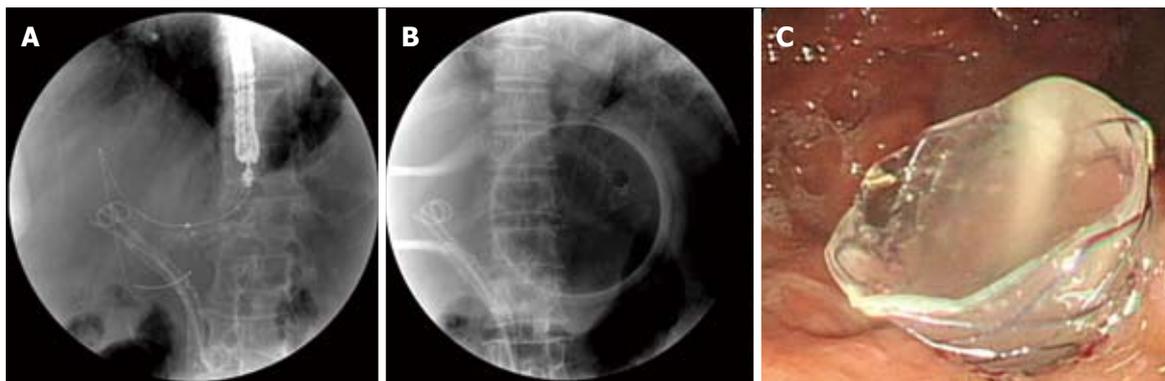


Figure 1 Endoscopic ultrasound-guided hepaticogastrostomy. A: In the intrahepatic approach, the linear array echoendoscope was placed in the lesser curvature of the stomach for viewing the left intrahepatic system. A 0.035-inch guidewire was introduced through the endoscopic ultrasonography-needle and advanced in an antegrade manner; B and C: A fully covered metal stent was placed under echoendoscopic and fluoroscopic view.

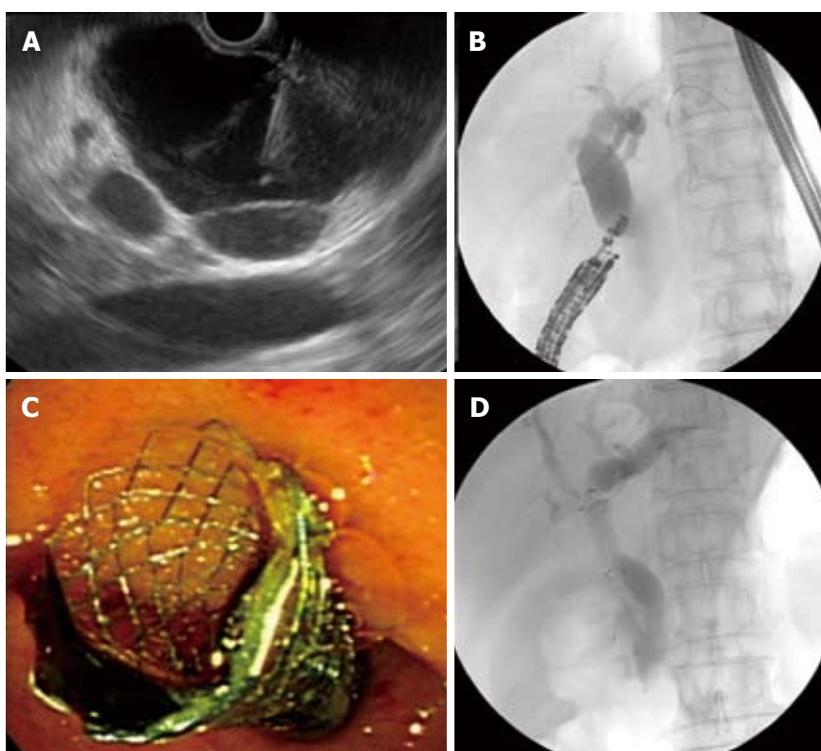


Figure 2 Endoscopic ultrasound-guided choledochoduodenostomy. A: The extrahepatic approach was carried out using an echoendoscope in the duodenal bulb, permitting imaging of the choledochus. Bile duct puncture was carried out with a 19-gauge needle; B: A 0.035-inch guidewire was introduced through the endoscopic ultrasonography-needle and advanced in a retrograde fashion; C and D: A fully covered metal stent was placed under echoendoscopic and fluoroscopic view.

within 2 wk^[11]. An early complication was defined as any stent-related complication within 30 d, including complications of bile leakage, pneumoperitoneum, bleeding, and stent migration. A late complication was defined as any stent-related complication, such as stent migration and stent occlusion, occurring 30 d after stent placement. Biliary reintervention was defined as any type of endoscopic, percutaneous, or surgical procedure that was required to improve biliary drainage after placement of the stent. Stent occlusion was defined as the recurrence of jaundice and cholestasis and/or evidence of a dilated biliary system on ultrasound (US) or computed tomography (CT) with a direct view of the upper endoscope, which in all cases would require biliary intervention. Procedure time was defined as the time between puncture of the biliary tract with a 19-gauge needle and placement

of an FCSEMS.

Follow-up

Follow-up continued from stent insertion until the death of the patient or to the end of the study. Biochemical parameters and simple abdominal films were assessed at 2 d, 1 wk and 1 mo after stent placement and every 2 mo thereafter. Patient follow-up was based on outpatient examination findings. Imaging (US or CT and simple abdominal films) was routinely checked every 3 mo.

Statistical analysis

Procedure time (intrahepatic and extrahepatic approaches) and liver function test before and after the EUS-BD using a metal stent were compared using a 2-sample Wilcoxon signed-rank test. Statistical analysis was carried out using

Table 1 Patients' clinical characteristics and results of endoscopic ultrasound-guided biliary drainage (*n* = 13)

No. of patient	Age/sex	Diagnosis	Reason for failed ERCP	Biliary drainage route	Device for puncture/dilatation	Diameter length of stent (mm/cm)	Technical success	Functional success	Complication	Reintervention	Duration (mo) of 1st stent placement	Status
1	60/M	CBD cancer	Duodenal stenosis due to duodenal ulcer	Transduodenal	19G FN/cystostome	10/6	Success	Success	No	No	Whipple's operation	Alive
2	83/F	CBD cancer	Failed to access the bile duct	Transduodenal	19G FN/cystostome	10/6	Success	Success	Obstruction	Stent reinsertion	6	Dead
3	76/F	CBD cancer	Failed to access the bile duct	Transduodenal	19G FN/cystostome	10/4	Success	Success	Migration	Stent reinsertion	2	Dead
4	68/F	CBD cancer	Duodenal obstruction due to mass	Transduodenal	19G FN/cystostome	10/6	Success	Success	No	No	7	Alive
5	66/M	Pancreatic cancer	Periampullary tumor infiltration	Transduodenal	19G FN/tapered ERCP cannula and cystostome	10/4	Success	Success	Pneumoperitoneum/peritonitis	No	3	Dead
6	68/M	Pancreatic cancer	Periampullary tumor infiltration	Transduodenal	19G FN/bougie dilator	10/6	Success	Success	No	No	1	Dead
7	67/F	Pancreatic cancer	Periampullary tumor infiltration	Transduodenal	19G FN/NK and bougie dilator	10/6	Success	Success	No	No	3	Alive
8	59/M	Pancreatic cancer	Periampullary tumor infiltration	Transduodenal	19G FN/tapered ERCP cannula and cystostome	10/6	Success	Success	No	No	4	Alive
9	80/M	Pancreatic cancer	Periampullary tumor infiltration	Transduodenal	19G FN/tapered ERCP cannula and cystostome	10/6	Success	Success	No	No	3	Alive
10	81/M	Klatskin's tumor	Stricture could not be crossed (hilar)	Transgastric	19G FN/cystostome	10/6	Success	Fail	Migration/pneumoperitoneum/peritonitis	PTBD	5	Dead
11	55/M	Intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma	Stricture could not be crossed (hilar)	Transgastric	19G FN/cystostome	10/6	Success	Success	No	No	3	Dead
12	62/M	Pancreatic cancer	Stricture could not be crossed (distal CBD)	Transgastric	19G FN	10/6	Failed					Dead
13	70/M	CBD cancer	Stricture could not be crossed (distal CBD)	Transgastric	19G FN/bougie dilator	10/6	Success	Success	Migration	Stent reinsertion	2	Alive

F: Female; M: Male; CBD: Common bile duct; G: Gauge; NK: Needle knife; FN: Fine needle; PTBD: Percutaneous biliary drainage; ERCP: Endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography.

SPSS 12.0 (SPSS, Chicago, IL, United States), and a 2-tailed *P* value of < 0.05 was considered statistically significant. Findings are expressed as the median and range.

RESULTS

Patient characteristics, procedural data, and follow-up results are presented in Table 1. A total of 13 patients (9 men and 4 women) with malignant biliary obstruction underwent EUS-BD with a fully covered metal stent after a failed ERCP. The etiology of biliary obstruction was pancreatic cancer in 5 patients, distal common bile duct cancer in 6 patients, Klatskin's tumor in 1 patient, and peripheral cholangiocarcinoma in 1 patient.

Reasons for failed ERCP were duodenal stenosis due to a previous duodenal ulcer (*n* = 1), tumor obstruction of the duodenum (*n* = 1), periampullary tumor infiltration (*n* = 5),

Table 2 Summary of published studies and current study on endoscopic ultrasound-guided biliary drainage with metal stent

Study	No. of EUS-BD-metal biliary stents	Technical success %	Clinical success %	Type of metal stent	Procedure-related complications (No. cases)
Will <i>et al</i> ^[6]	6	100	83.3	Partially covered (3), uncovered (3)	Cholangitis (1)
Artifon <i>et al</i> ^[27]	1	100	100	Partially covered	None
Bories <i>et al</i> ^[3]	11	91	100	Partially covered metal stent (3)	Biloma (1), cholangitis (1)
Park <i>et al</i> ^[9]	9	100	100	Fully covered	Pneumoperitoneum (2)
Park <i>et al</i> ^[28]	5	100	100	Fully covered	None
Siddiqui <i>et al</i> ^[29]	8	100	100	Fully covered	Duodenal perforation (1)
This study	13	92.3	91.7	Fully covered	Mild peritonitis (2)

EUS-BD: Endoscopic ultrasound-guided biliary drainage.

failure to access the common bile duct ($n = 2$), high-grade stricture of the distal common bile duct with an occluded biliary plastic stent ($n = 2$), and high-grade left-sided hilar stricture from segmental tumor progression with an occluded biliary metal stent ($n = 2$). Patients with obstruction of the duodenum received a concomitant duodenal stent at time of the procedure.

Technical and functional success

Technical success was 92.3% (12/13); there was 1 failure of guidewire insertion after puncture through the transgastric approach, because the diameter of intrahepatic bile duct was so small and had sharp angulation. During EUS-BD, no wire passage for rendezvous was attempted in any of the patients. For biliary access, a cystostome only was used in 6 of the 12 patients (4 extrahepatic approach and 2 intrahepatic approach), a tapered MTW catheter and a cystostome together were used 3 of 12 patients, and just bougie dilators were used in 3 patients, respectively. Median procedure time was 19.5 min (range, 14-35 min). Nine patients were treated using an extrahepatic approach (all transduodenal). Four patients were treated using an intrahepatic approach (all transgastric). The median diameter of the left intrahepatic bile duct as determined by EUS was 7.3 mm (range, 5.3-9.4 mm).

Functional success was 91.7% (11/12). After the placement of a EUS-BD, the median bilirubin level decreased significantly from 11.6 mg/dL to 1.7 mg/dL ($P = 0.001$). The median alkaline phosphatase level also decreased significantly from 1629.0 IU/L to 113.0 IU/L ($P = 0.001$). Migration of a metal stent to stomach occurred in 1 patient treated with the transgastric approach.

Early complications after endoscopic ultrasound-guided biliary drainage

With the intrahepatic approach ($n = 4$), there was stent migration to the stomach with mild peritonitis ($n = 1$). With the extrahepatic approach ($n = 9$), there was pneumoperitoneum with mild peritonitis ($n = 1$). All patients with peritonitis were managed conservatively with antibiotics. Bleeding and cholangitis were not observed in any of the enrolled patients after the procedure. In addition, there was no significant pain after the procedure. Two patients with duodenal obstruction also received duodenal metal stents.

Follow-up

One patient with distal common bile duct (CBD) cancer

underwent curative resection (Whipple's operation), and this procedure did not disturb the operative procedure. None of the patients, except the patients that underwent the operation, were lost during the follow-up period (median, 5 mo; range, 1-12 mo). With regard to re-intervention, there was re-intervention in 4 of the 13 cases (30.7%), which was necessitated by stent migration ($n = 3$) and stent occlusion ($n = 1$). Stent migration occurred 2 d later (EUS-HG) and 2 mo later (EUS-CD and EUS-HG), respectively. In the patients with stent migration, the stents passed spontaneously without lodgment in the bowel. A second FCSEMS was placed through the previous choledochoduodenostomy site in 1 patient. In 2 patients with stent migration, PTBD was inserted into the obstructed left hepatic duct due to his severe general weakness. In 1 patient with stent occlusion by tumor ingrowth into the metal stent (choledochoduodenostomy), an additional FCSEMS was placed through the previous choledochoduodenostomy site.

DISCUSSION

EUS-BD may be an alternative method in some patients when endoscopic biliary drainage is unsuccessful because of failed biliary cannulation or tumor infiltration, which limits the endoscopic approach to the major papilla. At present, there are 2 approaches for EUS-BD, the transgastric route and the transduodenal route. A plastic or metal stent can be placed by this method. However, most papers reported EUS-BD with a plastic stent^[4,5,7,8,12-14]. We thought that FCMEMS with a large bore diameter may have advantages over the plastic stent. There are a few papers describing EUS-BD with a metal stent^[6,9,15] (Table 2), however, there are no reports regarding preoperative drainage of biliary obstruction by EUS-BD. The current study demonstrated that transduodenal EUS-BD using a nitinol FCSEMS may be safe and feasible after a failed ERCP. The reasons for failed ERCP were duodenal stenosis by a duodenal ulcer, periampullary tumor invasion, and difficult biliary cannulation. In one patient with distal CBD cancer who had duodenal stenosis due to a previous duodenal ulcer, initially EUS-BD was performed to resolve cholangitis and bile drainage, and Whipple's operation was performed. But EUS-guided metal insertion in this patient did not disturb the operation procedure.

A significant number of self-expandable metal stent

(SEMS) and plastic stents placed to palliate malignant obstructions will be occluded. Repeat transpapillary stent placement may be unsuccessful for an occluded biliary metal or plastic stent after the placement of a hilar metal stent or combined duodenal and biliary metal stent placement. In such circumstances, PTBD may be uncomfortable for patients and has a 10%-30% complication rate, with complications such as cholangitis, bile leak, peritonitis, and stent occlusion^[16]. EUS-HG with a FCSEMS may be recommended in such circumstances. In our 2 patients with a hilar metal stent, dilation of the left main duct caused by segmental tumor progression was shown to be aggravated. In another 2 patients with periampullary cancer drained by a pigtail plastic stent, this stent was occluded by tumor ingrowth and bile plug. Because these patients had jaundice and cholangitis, EUS-HG with a FCSEMS was performed. Some experts have recommended the intrahepatic approach because it seems to be safer^[7,15]. In the intrahepatic approach, one-step placement of a partially covered wall stent may have been limited in earlier studies because there was 1 bile peritonitis and 1 cholangitis. However, we found the transduodenal or extrahepatic approach to be safer and more effective and it is probably less technically difficult compared with the intrahepatic approach. The advantage is that the duodenum is very close to the extrahepatic bile duct and the duodenal wall is thin without major vascular structures.

There were complications with EUS-BD, including stent migration, pneumoperitoneum, and cholangitis^[17,18]. In this study, during follow-up (median, 3 mo), there was re-intervention (4/12, 33.3%) necessitated by stent migration ($n = 3$) and stent occlusion ($n = 1$). The 3 stent migrations occurred 2 d later (EUS-HG), 2 mo later (EUS-CD), and 2 mo later (EUS-CD). The stent migration rate (3/12, 25.0%) was higher than that reported (7%) in another paper^[9]. Although a flare at both ends and minimal shortening of this newly designed nitinol stent may contribute to the prevention of stent migration^[19], a slippery covered metal stent with low axial force may lead to migration. In addition, marked CBD dilatation may have affected FCSEMS floating resulting in the minimization of the anchoring effect of the proximal flared end of the FCSEMS.

Studies with uncovered SEMS reported stent occlusion rates ranging between 18% and 46%^[20,21] with the main cause of obstruction being tumor ingrowth. Although partially or fully covered SEMS were designed to prevent this complication, these stents can not completely protect tumor ingrowth in the biliary metal stent^[22]. Occasional authors have reported no tumor ingrowth with covered SEMSs. However, these series often include few patients and frequently have a relatively high prevalence of tumor overgrowth or sludge formation as a cause of stent failure^[23-25]. Our study shows tumor overgrowth was observed in one case with distal CBD cancer.

During the EUS-BD procedure, the leakage of bile into the peritoneum with peritonitis can occur because the gap between the stent and the fistula is likely to occur. The shortening of metal stent can lead to failure of correct stent placement, and stent migration and dislocation after placement. Experience with partially covered SEMS is limited

and associated with a higher complication rates due to stent shortening^[3,6]. To prevent bile leakage, we placed a FCSEMS that is made of nitinol. This stent, with both ends flared, was designed to prevent distal or proximal migration. The nitinol stent has less shortening compared with a partially covered Wall stent, and a fully covered metal stent may prevent bile leakage^[19]. Therefore, due to the characteristics of this stent, it may prevent bile peritonitis. Because the diameter of the working channel of the linear array echoendoscope is only 3.7 mm, it is possible to quickly perform one-step placement of FCSEMS with an 8F-diameter delivery device. In this study, although bile leakage occurred during the procedure, all patients had only mild peritonitis and were treated with conservative management, such as antibiotics and nothing by mouth.

If the gap between the bile duct and the GI tract grows farther after EUS guided biliary drainage with stent, early migration of stent into the abdominal cavity may occur, particularly in the case of a transgastric approach. A fatal complication due to sepsis after development of large fistula related to stent migration into the abdominal cavity has recently been reported^[26]. However, bile leakage *via* the relatively large fistula can make bile peritonitis and the bile duct collapse. Therefore, it may be difficult or impossible to carry out EUS-BD in these patients. In such a case, PTBD or emergency surgery must also be considered. To prevent severe complications, an endoscopist must have considerable knowledge about periduodenal and hepatobiliary anatomy in linear array EUS. Also, the procedure must be performed quickly and efficiently with appropriately sized stents. When selecting a stent, stent structure, axial force and shortening of stent should be considered.

In conclusion, EUS-guided transgastric or transduodenal biliary drainage with one-step placement of an FCSEMS may be a promising alternative method to PTBD. It may be a reasonable, feasible, and promising minimally invasive endoscopic approach in selected patients as indicated as above. However, several complications can occur, and special attention of the potential complications such as peritonitis and migration are needed. Therefore, additional experience and the development of new comfortable accessories for this procedure are needed. Also, a large case series and prospective trials are needed to further assess this technique.

COMMENTS

Background

For palliation of patients with malignant biliary obstruction, percutaneous biliary drainage (PTBD) is a classic method in some patients when endoscopic biliary drainage is unsuccessful because of failed biliary cannulation or tumor infiltration, which limits the endoscopic approach to the major papilla. Recently endoscopic ultrasonography-guided biliary drainage (EUS-BD) with plastic stent or uncovered self-expandable metal stent (SEMS) has been introduced as an alternative to PTBD in these cases of biliary obstruction.

Research frontiers

The authors thought that a nitinol fully covered SEMS (FCSEMS) with a large bore diameter may have advantages over the plastic stent and other types of metal stent.

Innovations and breakthroughs

Technical and functional success with FCSEMS for palliation of patients with malignant biliary obstruction was respectively 92.3% (12/13) and 91.7% (11/12). Although there was early mild complication such as one case of immediate

stent migration and 2 cases of bile peritonitis, all complications improved with conservative treatment.

Applications

EUS-guided transgastric or transduodenal biliary drainage with one-step placement of a nitinol FCSEMS may be a promising alternative method to PTBD. Additional experience and the development of new comfortable accessories for this procedure are needed. Also, a large case series and prospective trials are needed to further assess this technique.

Terminology

There are 2 approaches for EUS-BD, the transgastric route and the transduodenal route. EUS-guided hepaticogastrostomy was performed through the transgastric route, and EUS-guided choledochoduodenostomy through the transduodenal route.

Peer review

The authors reported high success rate with this challenging procedure. They clearly demonstrated that extrahepatic approach is easier and safer than intrahepatic approach. Although technical expertise is important, the authors demonstrated more than 90% technical success with low major complication rates. This paper motivates talented endoscopists to solve biliary obstruction via EUS guided technics.

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Concomitant lung metastasis in patients with advanced hepatocellular carcinoma

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untreated group ($n = 22$), single treatment group ($n = 19$), and combined treatment group ($n = 35$).

RESULTS: Metastasis of bilateral lung lobes was common and noted in 35 patients (46.1%), and most of patients (59/76, 77.6%) presented with multiple lung metastatic nodules. Nineteen patients (25.0%) received single-method treatment, including hepatectomy in 4, transcatheter arterial chemoembolization in 6, radiotherapy in 5, and oral sorafenib in 4. Thirty-five patients (46.1%) received combined treatment modalities. The overall median survival of the all patients was 8.7 ± 0.6 mo; 4.1 ± 0.3 , 6.3 ± 2.5 and 18.6 ± 3.9 mo, respectively in the untreated group, single treatment group and combined treatment group, respectively, with a significant difference (log-rank test, $P < 0.001$). Multivariate analysis revealed that Child-Pugh score, the absence or presence of portal vein tumor thrombus, and treatment modality were three independent prognostic factors affecting survival of patients with advanced HCC and concomitant lung metastasis.

CONCLUSION: Combined treatment modalities tend to result in a better survival as compared with the conservative treatment or single treatment modality for HCC patients initially presenting with lung metastasis.

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Key words: Hepatocellular carcinoma; Lung metastasis; Prognosis; Survival; Prognostic factor

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Abstract

AIM: To investigate the clinical features and prognostic factors of advanced hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) patients presenting with lung metastasis at initial diagnosis.

METHODS: Between 2001 and 2010, we recruited 76 consecutive HCC patients initially presenting with lung metastasis, without co-existing metastasis from other sites. These patients were divided into three groups:

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INTRODUCTION

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is the fifth most common cancer in the world. The number of new cases is estimated to be 500 000-1 000 000 per year^[1]. Overall, 80% of HCC are attributed to chronic hepatitis B and C infection. Surgical resection with complete extirpation of tumor gives the best chance of a cure for patients with HCC^[2]. However, a majority of HCC patients are considered as advanced or even at end-stage at their first hospital visit, with extensive tumor status, for example, macroscopic vascular invasion, extrahepatic metastasis, *etc.* Of various metastatic sites, the most common site is lung, followed by lymph node, bone and brain^[3].

As one type of advanced HCC, HCC presenting with lung metastasis is not unusual, and its prognosis is very poor^[4]. Nowadays, there are various treatment modalities for both intrahepatic tumor and extrahepatic metastatic foci of HCC, including surgical resection, transcatheter arterial chemoembolization (TACE), radiotherapy, chemotherapeutics, and recent molecular targeted therapeutic drugs^[2]. However, the prognosis and treatment outcomes of advanced HCC presenting with lung metastasis remain poorly evaluated. We investigated the prognosis, treatment outcomes, and independent prognostic factors affecting the survival of a series of HCC patients presenting with lung metastasis at initial diagnosis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients

From January 2001 to December 2010, 103 consecutive patients were diagnosed as having lung metastasis at the first time of HCC diagnosis in the 5th Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Eastern Hepatobiliary Surgery Hospital, Second Military Medical University, Shanghai, China. To evaluate the efficacy of anti-tumor treatment modality for patients with HCC and concomitant isolated lung metastasis, we excluded those patients who showed evidence of severe organ failure (renal, respiratory, or cardiologic problems), poor liver function (Child-Pugh class C) that could affect survival, or co-existing metastasis from other sites. Therefore, 76 of the 103 patients (59 males and 17 females) were recruited for the study. The last follow-up date was January 30, 2011. This study protocol was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the Eastern Hepatobiliary Hospital.

We used a prospectively maintained database and conducted a retrospective study among these patients. We focused on the prognosis and prognostic factors affecting the survival of HCC patients presenting with lung metastasis. To investigate whether local regional or systemic therapy could affect survival, we stratified these 76 patients into three groups: untreated group ($n = 22$), single treatment group ($n = 19$), and combined treatment group ($n = 35$). All of the patients in the untreated group refused any anti-tumor invasive treatment other than conservative treatment, including the support of liver function, after being informed of the expenses and the

possible side effects of any anti-tumor invasive treatment. The single treatment method for these patients included hepatectomy, TACE, radiotherapy, chemotherapeutics, and oral sorafenib, while combined treatment modalities were defined as more than one of the above treatment methods or pulmonary metastasectomy.

Laboratory tests

Laboratory blood tests including hepatitis B virus (HBV) markers, anti-hepatitis C virus, serum α -fetoprotein (AFP), carcinoembryonic antigen, platelet, serum albumin, serum total bilirubin, alanine transaminase, aspartate aminotransferase, and prothrombin time were performed.

Diagnosis of HCC and lung metastasis

The diagnosis of HCC was based on concordance between two imaging examinations [ultrasonography, computed tomography (CT), or magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)] showing arterial hypervascularity in a focal lesion ≥ 2 cm or with the combined criteria of an imaging examination and a serum AFP level greater than 400 ng/mL, according to the criteria of the Conference of the European Association for Study of the Liver^[5]. In the present study, the diagnosis of HCC was also confirmed by pathohistology in 20 patients.

Lung metastases were diagnosed in all the 76 patients using imaging techniques, including chest CT ($n = 62$), positron emission tomography-CT ($n = 11$), and chest MRI ($n = 3$). In addition, one patient was further confirmed by pathohistology after a biopsy, and four patients after pulmonary metastasectomy.

Statistical analysis

Continuous data were expressed as mean \pm SD or median (range). Categorical variables were compared by the χ^2 test or Fisher exact test, and continuous variables were compared by the Student t test or one-way analysis of variance. The survival rate was calculated using the Kaplan-Meier method, and the log-rank test was used to compare survival rates among three groups. Cox's proportional hazards model was used for multivariate analysis. All statistical analysis in this study were done using software package SPSS11.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL). A P value < 0.05 was defined to be statistically significant.

RESULTS

Patient characteristics

The baseline characteristics of these 76 patients with advanced HCC initially presenting with lung metastasis are summarized in Table 1. The mean age of patients was 52.4 ± 10.7 years. The most common etiology of the liver disease was HBV infection, which occurred in 63 patients (82.9%). There was no statistical difference in the baseline characteristics among the untreated, single treatment and combined treatment groups, including age, etiology of the liver disease, the presence of cirrhosis or ascites, AFP level, Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group (ECOG) scale, Child-Pugh score, and liver function.

Table 1 Baseline characteristics of hepatocellular carcinoma patients presenting with lung metastasis (mean \pm SD) *n* (%)

	Total (<i>n</i> = 76)	Untreated group (<i>n</i> = 22)	Single treated group (<i>n</i> = 19)	Combined treated group (<i>n</i> = 35)	<i>P</i> value
Sex					
Male	59 (77.6)	16 (72.7)	15 (78.9)	28 (80.0)	0.804
Female	17 (22.4)	6 (27.3)	4 (21.1)	7 (20.0)	
Age (yr)	52.4 \pm 10.7	52.8 \pm 9.3	52.5 \pm 11.6	52.1 \pm 11.4	0.971
Etiology					
HBV	63 (82.9)	18 (82.9)	16 (84.2)	29 (82.9)	0.989
HCV	3 (3.9)	1 (4.5)	1 (5.3)	1 (2.9)	
Alcohol	5 (6.6)	1 (4.5)	1 (5.3)	3 (8.6)	
Non-B and non-C	5 (6.6)	2 (9.1)	1 (5.3)	2 (5.7)	
Cirrhosis	65 (85.5)	20 (90.9)	17 (89.5)	28 (80.0)	0.443
Platelet ($\times 10^9/L$)	185.8 \pm 75.5	180.9 \pm 95.1	174.3 \pm 74.0	195.1 \pm 62.6	0.593
Albumin (g/L)	36.5 \pm 4.3	36.3 \pm 5.4	35.3 \pm 3.5	37.3 \pm 3.7	0.276
ALT (IU/L), median (range)	35 (10-352)	35 (15-352)	37 (15-124)	34 (10-210)	0.456
AST (IU/L), median (range)	35 (16-453)	41 (16-453)	44 (20-173)	33 (17-223)	0.364
Total bilirubin (μ mol/L)	23.7 \pm 13.3	28.1 \pm 17.4	23.3 \pm 8.1	21.2 \pm 12.2	0.162
Prothrombin time (s)	12.9 \pm 1.7	13.3 \pm 2.3	13.0 \pm 1.3	12.5 \pm 1.3	0.241
AFP (ng/mL)					
< 400	36 (47.4)	10 (45.5)	7 (36.8)	19 (54.3)	0.461
\geq 400	40 (52.6)	12 (54.5)	12 (63.2)	16 (52.6)	
ECOG score					
0	17 (22.4)	4 (18.2)	4 (21.1)	9 (25.7)	0.672
1	54 (71.1)	16 (72.7)	15 (78.9)	23 (65.7)	
2	5 (6.6)	2 (9.1)	0 (0)	3 (8.6)	
Ascites					
None	67 (88.2)	18 (81.8)	16 (84.2)	33 (94.3)	0.303
Mild-moderate	9 (11.8)	4 (18.2)	3 (15.8)	2 (5.7)	
Child-Pugh score					
A	61 (80.3)	16 (72.7)	14 (73.7)	31 (88.6)	0.243
B	15 (19.7)	6 (27.3)	5 (26.3)	4 (11.4)	

HBV: Hepatitis B virus; HCV: Hepatitis C virus; ALT: Alanine transaminase; AST: Aspartate aminotransferase; AFP: Alpha-fetoprotein; ECOG: Eastern cooperative oncology group.

Characteristics of intrahepatic tumor and lung metastasis

For intrahepatic tumor status, there was no significant difference in tumor number, tumor location, and the probability of portal vein tumor thrombus or hepatic vein tumor thrombus among the three treatment groups, except for maximum tumor diameter ($P = 0.007$) (Table 2). As such, there is also no significant difference in number, location, and maximum diameter of lung metastatic nodules among these three groups (Table 2).

Treatment modalities

Among all the 76 patients, 22 patients did not receive any anti-tumor treatment but conservative treatment. We divided the remaining 54 patients into two groups according to their treatment schemes. Nineteen patients (25.0%) received single treatment modality (locoregional or systemic therapy), including hepatectomy in 4 patients, TACE in 6, radiotherapy for intrahepatic tumor and lung metastatic nodules in 5 (including γ knife radiosurgery in 3 and X-ray radiotherapy in 2), and oral sorafenib in 4. Thirty-five patients (46.1%) received combined treatment modalities (Table 3). The common treatment modality in the combined treatment group was radiotherapy (30/35, 85.7%), followed by hepatectomy (23/35, 65.7%), TACE (18/35, 51.4%), and oral sorafenib therapy (11/35, 31.4%).

In the combined treatment group, radiotherapy (γ knife radiosurgery in 24 and X-ray radiotherapy in 4) was mainly used for lung metastatic nodules (27/28) rather than intrahepatic tumor nodules (8/28). In addition, pulmonary metastasectomies were carried out in 4 patients who underwent hepatectomy during the same operation.

Overall survival

After a median follow-up of 8.7 \pm 0.6 mo (range, 1.1-68.7 mo), 59 patients died and 17 patients remained alive. The causes of mortality were disease progression, including hepatic failure in 31 patients (52.5%); cachexia in 12 (20.3%); upper gastrointestinal bleeding in four (6.8%); pneumonia in one (1.7%); and pulmonary thromboembolism in one (1.7%). The cause of mortality of 10 patients was not confirmed. Among 17 surviving patients, only 4 patients were disease-free, including 3 patients who underwent hepatectomy and pulmonary metastasectomy, and one patient who received hepatectomy and subsequent γ -knife radiosurgery. Among 13 patients who were not disease-free but alive, 6 patients still took medicine of sorafenib, and achieved complete or partial response on radiographic examination (Figure 1A and B). The 6-mo, 1-year and 2-year cumulative survival rates of all these patients were 64.5%, 40.1% and 18.5%, respectively.

Table 2 Characteristics of intrahepatic tumor and lung metastasis of hepatocellular carcinoma patients presenting with lung metastasis (mean ± SD) *n* (%)

	Total (<i>n</i> = 76)	Untreated group (<i>n</i> = 22)	Single treated group (<i>n</i> = 19)	Combined treated group (<i>n</i> = 35)	<i>P</i> value
Intrahepatic tumor					
Maximum tumor diameter (cm)	9.3 ± 3.0	10.7 ± 3.2	9.7 ± 2.8	8.2 ± 2.5	0.007
Tumor number					
Solitary	29 (38.2)	9 (40.9)	6 (31.6)	14 (40.0)	0.791
Multiple/diffuse	47 (61.8)	13 (59.1)	13 (68.4)	21 (60.0)	
Tumor location					
Right	39 (51.3)	13 (59.1)	8 (42.1)	18 (51.4)	0.834
Left	15 (19.7)	4 (18.2)	4 (21.1)	7 (20.0)	
Both	22 (28.9)	5 (22.7)	7 (36.8)	10 (28.6)	
Portal vein tumor thrombus					
Absence	54 (71.1)	14 (63.6)	12 (63.2)	28 (80.0)	0.283
Presence	22 (28.9)	8 (36.4)	7 (36.8)	7 (20.0)	
Hepatic vein tumor thrombus					
Absence	67 (88.2)	19 (86.4)	15 (78.9)	33 (94.2)	0.238
Presence	9 (11.8)	3 (13.6)	4 (21.1)	2 (5.7)	
Lung metastasis					
Number of metastasis					
Solitary	17 (22.4)	4 (18.2)	3 (15.8)	10 (28.6)	0.479
Multiple	59 (77.6)	18 (81.8)	16 (84.2)	25 (71.4)	
Location of metastasis					
Right lung lobe	28 (36.8)	6 (27.3)	8 (42.1)	14 (40.0)	0.721
Left lung lobe	13 (17.1)	4 (18.2)	2 (10.5)	7 (20.0)	
Bilateral lung lobes	35 (46.1)	12 (54.5)	9 (47.4)	14 (40.0)	
Maximum metastasis diameter (cm)	2.5 ± 0.9	2.6 ± 0.9	2.2 ± 1.2	2.5 ± 0.8	0.445

Table 3 Treatment modalities for intrahepatic tumor and/or metastatic lung nodule(s)

Treatment modalities	<i>n</i> (%)
Single treatment modality in treated patients (<i>n</i> = 19)	
Hepatectomy	4 (21.1)
Pulmonary metastasectomy	0 (0)
Transcatheter arterial chemoembolization	6 (31.6)
Radiotherapy	5 (26.3)
Oral sorafenib	4 (21.1)
Combined treatment modalities in treated patients (<i>n</i> = 35)	
Hepatectomy + pulmonary metastasectomy	3 (8.6)
Hepatectomy + pulmonary metastasectomy + oral sorafenib	1 (2.9)
Hepatectomy + transcatheter arterial chemoembolization + radiotherapy	6 (17.1)
Hepatectomy + radiotherapy	9 (25.7)
Hepatectomy + transcatheter arterial chemoembolization + radiotherapy + oral sorafenib	2 (5.7)
Hepatectomy + radiotherapy + oral sorafenib	2 (5.7)
Transcatheter arterial chemoembolization + radiotherapy	6 (17.1)
Transcatheter arterial chemoembolization + radiotherapy + oral sorafenib	3 (8.6)
Transcatheter arterial chemoembolization + oral sorafenib	1 (2.9)
Radiotherapy + oral sorafenib	2 (5.7)

Comparison of survival among three treatment groups

The median survival time of combined treatment group was 18.6 ± 3.9 mo, which was longer than that of single treatment group (6.3 ± 2.5 mo) and untreated group (4.1 ± 0.3 mo), and there was significant statistical differences among these groups (log-rank test, *P* < 0.001) (Figure 2). The 6-mo cumulative survival rate of combined treatment, single treatment and untreated group was 88.6%, 57.9% and 31.8%, respectively; and the 1-year

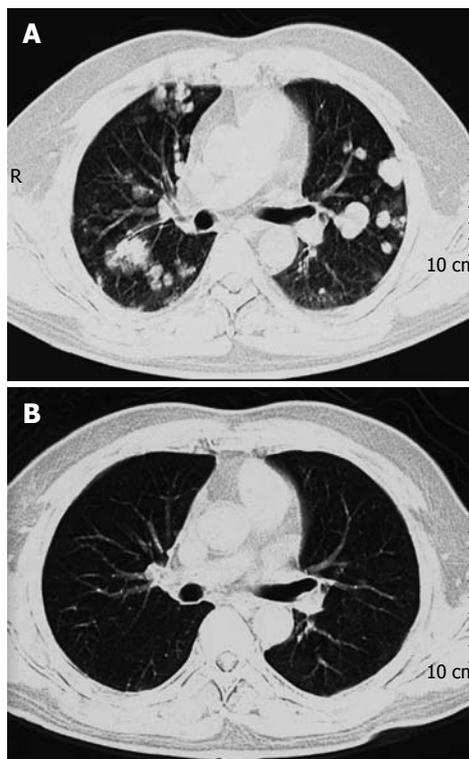


Figure 1 Overall survival. A: Computed tomography (CT) scan showing multiple metastatic nodules in both lung lobes before anti-tumor treatment in a 54-year-old male patient with lung metastasis due to hepatocellular carcinoma; B: CT scan showing the disappearance of previous lung metastatic nodules in 5 mo after γ -knife radiosurgery and oral sorafenib.

survival rate of the three groups was 68.5%, 21.1% and 8.0%, respectively.

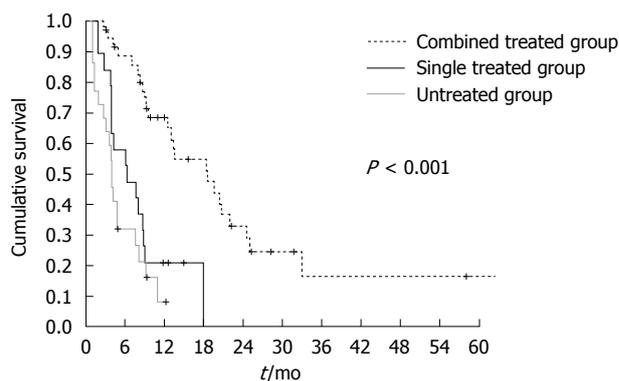
Table 4 Univariate and multivariate analyses to identify prognostic factors of overall survival for hepatocellular carcinoma patients presenting with lung metastasis

Variables	P value	
	Univariate analysis	Multivariate analysis
Sex		
Male/female	0.988	-
Age (yr)		
< 50/≥ 50	0.423	-
Etiology		
Non-hepatitis/hepatitis	0.111	-
Cirrhosis		
Absence/presence	0.36	-
ECOG score		
2000/1/2	0.012	0.3
Child-Pugh score		
A/B	< 0.001	< 0.001
Ascites		
No/yes	0.031	0.879
Platelet (× ³)		
< 100/≥ 100	0.198	-
Albumin (g/L)		
< 37.7/≥ 37.7	0.134	-
ALT (IU/L)		
< 40/≥ 40	0.734	-
AST (IU/L)		
< 40/≥ 40	0.356	-
Total bilirubin (μmol/L)		
< 17.1/≥ 17.1	0.319	-
Prothrombin time (s)		
< 14.0/≥ 14.0	0.251	-
AFP (ng/mL)		
< 400/≥ 400	0.03	0.384
Maximum intrahepatic tumor diameter (cm)		
< 8.0/≥ 8.0	0.039	0.214
Intrahepatic tumor number		
Solitary/multiple or diffuse	0.279	-
Intrahepatic tumor location		
Single lobe/both lobes	0.435	-
Portal vein tumor thrombus		
No/yes	< 0.001	< 0.001
Hepatic vein tumor thrombus		
No/yes	0.031	0.194
Lung metastatic tumor number		
Solitary/multiple	0.018	0.321
Lung metastatic tumor location		
Single lobe/both lobes	0.156	-
Maximum metastasis diameter (cm)		
< 2.5/≥ 2.5	0.129	-
Treatment modality		
No/yes	< 0.001	< 0.001

The cutoffs of continuous variable were set according to median value. ECOG: Eastern cooperative oncology group; ALT: Alanine transaminase; AST: Aspartate aminotransferase; AFP: α-fetoprotein.

Univariate and multivariate analyses

In investigation of prognostic factors of survival of HCC presenting with lung metastasis at initial diagnosis, univariate analysis showed that ECOG score, Child-Pugh score, ascites, AFP level, maximum intrahepatic tumor diameter, the absence or presence of portal vein tumor thrombus, the absence or presence of hepatic vein tumor thrombus, lung metastatic tumor number, and treatment modality had prognostic significance (Table 4).



Patients at risk	Total	6 mo	12 mo	18 mo	24 mo	30 mo	36 mo	42 mo	48 mo	54 mo	60 mo
Combined treated	35	31	20	15	8	4	2	2	2	2	1
Single treated	19	11	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Untreated	22	7	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Figure 2 Comparison of survival among three treatment groups. Survival curves of untreated group (n = 22), single treatment group (n = 19), and combined treatment group (n = 35).

In the Cox proportional hazard model, Child-Pugh score, the absence or presence of portal vein tumor thrombus at the initial presentation, and treatment modality were three independent prognostic factors that affected the survival of HCC patients that presented with lung metastasis at initial diagnosis (Table 4).

DISCUSSION

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study that investigates in detail the prognosis and prognostic factors of advanced HCC presenting with lung metastasis at initial diagnosis. In our study, the variables of tumor status and liver function status at initial diagnosis were almost comparable. However, the survival times from date of diagnosis until death or last visit among the three groups were significantly different, and patients underwent specific combined treatment modalities had longer survival than those treated with single method or those without anti-tumor treatment. However, it must be noted that there are many therapeutic modalities for tumor nodules, whether regional or systemic, which have their own indications and contraindications, and could not be applied altogether on a specific individual.

There are many case reports and clinical studies of patients with advanced HCC and lung metastasis who underwent radical hepatectomy and pulmonary metastasectomy^[6-12]. In the present study, four patients also underwent combined surgical resection, three of whom were still alive at the end of follow-up. We think that the combined radical surgery should be positively considered if intrahepatic tumor and lung metastatic lesion were completely resectable, if the remaining volume of the liver was adequate, and the lung metastatic lesion was single^[13]. In theory, removing all existing tumor lesions,

including primary and second lesions, is the only possible therapeutic approach till now.

Recently, with development in radiotherapy techniques, radiotherapy has been shown to play a potential role in a wide spectrum of HCC, therefore it is necessary to evaluate the effect of radiotherapy^[14-16]. In our center, stereotactic radiotherapy, particularly γ knife radiosurgery, has become the major therapeutic modality for lung and brain metastases of HCC. In the present study, there were 35 patients who underwent radiotherapy for intrahepatic HCC tumors and/or lung metastatic nodules, accounting for more than 50%, whether or not they are combined with other anti-tumor treatment modalities. Despite advances in radiotherapy delivery, liver toxicity following radiotherapy remains a dose-limiting factor, and investigations to better understand the pathophysiology of radiotherapy-induced liver toxicity are warranted. There is a particular interest in combining radiotherapy with anti-vascular endothelial growth factor targeting agents for their independent activity in HCC as well as their radiation sensitization properties^[17].

Sorafenib is a multikinase inhibitor with effects against tumor proliferation and angiogenesis, and was recently approved for the treatment of advanced HCC^[18,19]. Maintenance sorafenib would probably prevent or delay the intrahepatic and extrahepatic spread of HCC after radiotherapy, which provides the rationale for the combination of these treatment modalities^[20]. In the present study, 15 patients received oral sorafenib. Although we did not find its significant efficacy in HCC presenting with lung metastasis due to few cases and less strict design, we believed that sorafenib could be used as one part of combined treatment modalities for HCC patients with lung metastasis. However, a large-scale randomized controlled trial is needed to confirm it. Combining surgical resection with sorafenib would be considered as the most optimal treatment modality for HCC patients with lung metastasis. However, it remains to be confirmed by a randomized controlled clinical trial in the future.

Till now, we have not obtained enough evidences to confirm the role of locoregional hepatectomy in HCC patients with lung metastasis. In our opinion, hepatectomy can be performed when primary intrahepatic HCCs are completely resected, the number of lung metastases is less than 3, and the diameter of individual lung metastasis is less than 3 cm. In addition, any of treatment modalities, such as radiotherapy or TACE, should be used together for lung metastasis.

In the univariate and subsequent multivariate analyses, Child-Pugh score was an independent prognostic factor for HCC patients with lung metastasis. This indicates that although invasive treatment other than conservative treatment can prolong the survival in well-selected patients, one must be careful before applying invasive treatment to all patients.

This study has several limitations. First, it was designed retrospectively. Although the patients' status, including ECOG scale, Child-Pugh score, and liver function, was reviewed in the medical records and did not

differ statistically among the three treatment groups, the clinical circumstances at the initial presentation might differ. Therefore, the decision for the treatment modalities might be biased, and the subsequent patient stratification into various treatment groups might also be biased. Second, treatment modalities, i.e., radiotherapy, TACE, varied, and the number of patients treated was too small to confirm the effectiveness of each treatment modality. Third, the indications of specific treatment modality varied, and selective modalities were given to selective patients with advanced HCC and lung metastasis. It is very hard to build up a standard therapeutic regime for all patients, regardless of primary and secondary tumor site, size and number, liver functional reserve, and patients' general condition.

In conclusion, the present study showed that the prognosis of advanced HCC with concomitant lung metastasis at initial diagnosis is very poor, and combined comprehensive treatment modalities tended to significantly prolong the survival of the patients compared with conservative treatment or single treatment modality. Furthermore, further randomized trials might be required to investigate the optimal treatment modality in the near future.

COMMENTS

Background

The prognosis and treatment outcomes of advanced hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) presenting with lung metastasis remain poorly evaluated.

Research frontiers

There are various treatment modalities for advanced HCC, including surgical resection, transcatheter arterial chemoembolization, radiotherapy, chemotherapeutics, and administration of molecular targeted therapeutic drugs. This study investigated the prognosis, treatment outcomes, and independent prognostic factors affecting the survival of a series of HCC patients presenting with lung metastasis at initial diagnosis.

Innovations and breakthroughs

In this study, the survival times from date of diagnosis until death or last visit between untreated group, single treatment group, and combined treatment group were significantly different, and patients underwent specific combined treatment modalities had longer survival than those treated with single method or those without anti-tumor treatment. Multivariate analysis revealed that Child-Pugh score, the absence or presence of portal vein tumor thrombus, and treatment modality were three independent prognostic factors affecting survival of patients with advanced HCC and concomitant lung metastasis.

Applications

As one type of advanced HCC, HCC presenting with lung metastasis is not unusual, and its prognosis is very poor. The findings in this study may contribute to its prognosis, and combined treatment modalities tend to result in a better survival for patients with advanced HCC initially presenting with lung metastasis.

Peer review

The authors firstly investigated that combined treatment modalities tended to yield better survival prolongation compared with conservative treatment or single treatment modality for HCC patients initially presenting with lung metastasis, which may contribute to its prognosis.

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Detection of eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E and its clinical significance in hepatocellular carcinoma

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Abstract

AIM: To study the expression of eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E (eIF4E), which is closely correlated with malignant tumors, and its relationship to prognosis in hepatocellular carcinoma.

METHODS: Western blotting was performed to quantify the eIF4E protein expression in the normal human liver cell line L02 and the hepatoma cell lines Hep3B, HepG2, and Huh7. Forty-six hepatocellular carcinoma samples with complete clinical data were obtained from Changzheng Hospital during the period of December 2008 to July 2009. The expression of eIF4E in the tumor samples and their adjacent tissues were detected by immunohistochemistry. The relationship between the test results and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) prognosis was statistically analysed by using a COX proportional hazard model.

RESULTS: Western blotting analysis showed that there were distinct eIF4E protein bands in all three of the hepatoma cell lines. In particular, the HepG2 cell line

had the highest level of eIF4E protein expression. The L02 cell group had a low eIF4E expression. Immunohistochemical assay showed that there were 32 cases in which the tumour tissue expression was higher than their adjacent tissues, accounting for 69.57%. There were also 14 cases in which the tumour tissue expression was lower or no significant difference was found, accounting for 30.43%. COX proportional hazards model analysis showed that HCC prognosis was related to the depth of invasion, the overexpression of eIF4E and p53, possibly as independent HCC prognostic predictors.

CONCLUSION: In summary, eIF4E expression is associated with liver cancer, and patients with high eIF4E expression levels have a higher risk of recurrence.

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Key words: Hepatocellular carcinoma; Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E; Western blotting; Immunohistochemistry; Prognosis

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INTRODUCTION

Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E (eIF4E) is a member of the eIF family. It can specifically bind to the cap structure located at the 5' end of mRNAs named the "m⁷GpppN cap", which is necessary for mRNA translation initiation, and affects mRNA metabolism, processing, transportation and translation^[1]. It plays an important role

in regulating the initial stage protein synthesis^[2,3]. eIF4E is highly expressed in a variety of human malignancies^[4-7], which has been confirmed to be relevant to the occurrence, invasion and metastasis of carcinomas such as head and neck squamous cell carcinoma^[8], laryngeal cancer, non-small cell lung cancer^[9-11], breast cancer^[12-18], thyroid cancer, oesophageal cancer, stomach cancer, cholangiocarcinoma, colon cancer^[19], non-Hodgkin's lymphoma, acute or chronic myeloid leukaemia^[20], and lymphoma^[21,22]. Experiments have also confirmed that eIF4E is closely related to the prognosis of many carcinomas. However, eIF4E-related studies in the context of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) are still rare.

In this study, we separately compared the eIF4E expression levels in normal liver cells with liver cancer cell lines and liver cancer tissues with precancerous tissues. Additionally, we investigated the influence of eIF4E expression on the prognosis of liver cancer. This research may provide an experimental basis for exploring new ways to treat liver cancer.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study objects

We selected 46 patients with pathological evidence of HCC and complete clinical data from Shanghai Changzheng Hospital who had liver surgery from January 2007 to January 2009. In these 46 cases, there were 40 males and 6 females who ranged in age from 31 years to 77 years (median age: 52.26 years). With regards to histological grade, there were 42 cases of moderately differentiated HCC, and 4 cases were poorly differentiated. A total of 33 patients had a cancer embolus in the intrahepatic bile duct or vein or had an infiltrated pepsos, and 13 patients had no cancer tissue in cutting edge and gallbladder and no infiltrated pepsos. p53 pathological testing was positive in 39 patients and negative in 7 cases. None of the patients received preoperative radiotherapy or chemotherapy. The follow-up time was 24 mo, and no case was lost.

Major materials and reagents

The cell lines used for Western blotting were the human liver cancer cell lines Hep3B, HepG2, Huh7, and the normal human liver cell line L02, which was provided by Shanghai Cell Biology Institution of Academia Sinica.

eIF4E (P-2) is a mouse anti-human monoclonal antibody raised against full-length eIF4E (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Inc.). It is recommended for the detection of eIF4E by Western blotting (dilution: 1:200; dilution range: 1:100-1:1000) and immunohistochemistry (including paraffin-embedded sections; dilution: 1:50; dilution range: 1:50-1:500). The streptavidin-peroxidase (SP) kit was provided by Fuzhou Maixin Biotechnology, Inc.

Detection methods

Western blotting analysis: We tested the *eIF4E* gene expression level in normal liver cells and different liver cancer cell lines. The four of cell lines (i.e., HepG2,

Hep3B, Huh7, and L02) were incubated with high glucose Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium containing 10% fetal bovine serum at 37.0 °C with 5% CO₂ until the cell concentration reached 5×10^6 cells/mL. Then, we sequentially performed the protein extraction, bicinchoninic acid protein quantification, sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis electrophoresis, protein transfer, membrane closure, antibody incubation, and Bio-Rad chemiluminescence.

Immunohistochemistry: We detected the eIF4E protein expression levels in HCC and their adjacent tissues (SP, a particular type of immunohistochemistry). The tumour and adjacent tissues from the same patient were fixed, dehydrated, sectioned, and made into paraffin biopsies. We made 46 paraffin sections. The steps of the SP kit included heating on a baking sheet, incubation, washing, sealing, staining, drying, dehydration, and mounting. To analyse the results, we used two scoring methods. The samples were placed in an electron microscope and were scored for staining intensity as follows. 0: No colour; 1: A yellow colour; 2: A claybank colour; and 3: A brown colour. We then graded the samples for the positivity rate as follows. 0: No positive tumour cell staining; 1: $\leq 10\%$ positive cells; 2: 11% to 50% positive cells; 3: 51% to 75% positive cells; and 4: $> 75\%$ positive cells. Finally, we added the two scores together, and the sum represented the immunohistochemical score as follows. -: 0; +: 1 to 4; ++: 5 to 8; and +++: 9 to 12. Each cancer tissue section was compared with its adjacent tissue.

Follow up: We analysed the number of cases that had HCC recurrence and metastasis during the post-operative 24 mo. The liver cancer recurrence risk was measured using COX proportional hazards model for statistical analysis. The patient age, gender, histological grade, depth of invasion, eIF4E, p53 status and other prognostic indicators were used for the COX proportional hazards model analysis.

Statistical analysis

We used the SPSS 17.0 statistical software for the statistical analysis. A COX proportional hazards model testing level of $\alpha = 0.05$ and a $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

eIF4E protein expression in liver cancer cell lines by western blotting

We tested the eIF4E protein expression level in the liver cell line L02 and the liver cancer cell lines Huh7, HepG2, Hep3B. The eIF4E protein bands are shown in Figure 1. The bands were detected by Bio-Rad chemiluminescence to obtain the data shown in Table 1.

The liver cancer cell lines HepG2, Huh7, Hep3B significantly expressed the eIF4E protein, and in particular, the HepG2 cell line had the highest level of eIF4E protein expression. The normal liver cell L02 also expressed

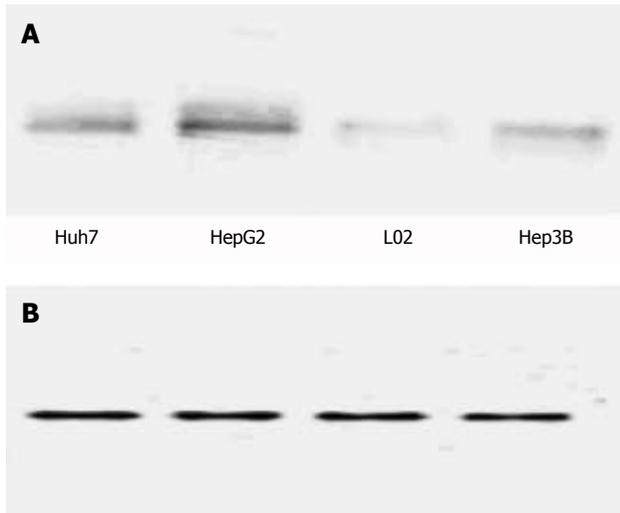


Figure 1 Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E protein and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase protein bands in a normal human liver cell line and three hepatoma carcinoma cell lines. A: Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E protein bands; B: Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase protein bands.

	Huh7	HepG2	L02	Hep3B
GAPDH	827.165	884.682	885.437	848.552
eIF4E	3161.861	5651.885	775.440	4496.191

GAPDH: Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase; eIF4E: Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E.

eIF4E; however, its expression level was low. Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase, which was used as the internal reference had bands in each cell line, and no obvious differences were observed with this protein.

eIF4E protein expression in liver cancer and adjacent tissues by immunohistochemistry

We next detected the eIF4E protein expression level in HCC and adjacent tissues. There were 46 pathological tissue paraffin blocks in which 32 HCC tissue cases had higher eIF4E protein expression than their adjacent tissues, accounting for 69.57%. A total of 14 HCC tissue cases had lower expression or no significant difference compared with their adjacent tissues, accounting for 30.43%. The scores were weighted $154:97 = 1.59:1$, meaning that, in general, HCC tissues had a higher eIF4E protein expression level than the adjacent tissues.

Figure 2 show that HCC tissues stained significantly stronger than adjacent tissues, indicating that tumour tissues had a higher eIF4E protein expression level. The lightly stained central area in Figure 2A represents necrotic tissue.

eIF4E may be an independent risk factor for liver cancer prognosis

Follow-up statistics showed recurrence in 33 cases and

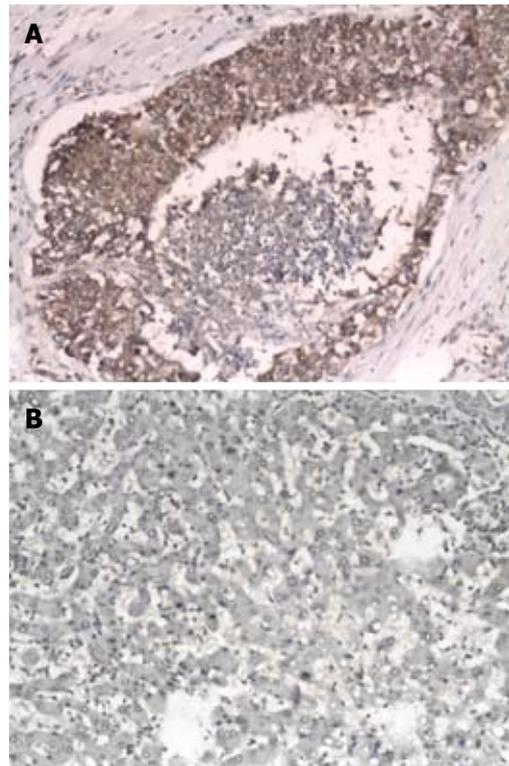


Figure 2 Photo of hepatocellular carcinoma tissue and adjacent tissue by electron microscopy. A: Hepatocellular carcinoma tissue and adjacent interstitial tissue; B: Adjacent tissue. (Hematoxylin and eosin stain, $\times 100$).

death in 12 cases. The patient age, gender, histological grade, depth of invasion, eIF4E overexpression, p53 positive status and other prognostic indicators were used for COX proportional hazards model for screening analysis. Ultimately, the depth of invasion, eIF4E, and p53 were included in the model with a Sig < 0.05 as shown in Table 2. The statistical significance suggests that these three factors are independent risk factors for liver cancer prognosis.

DISCUSSION

In eukaryotic cells, translational regulation plays an important role in gene expression. eIF4E is involved in the regulation of the mRNA translation process. It can enhance the translation of some important growth factors and cell growth regulators and affect protein synthesis, the cell cycle, cancer gene activation, and apoptosis; it also plays an important role in malignant transformation and metastasis.

eIF4E regulates the translation of cancer-related mRNAs (i.e., it is involved in the activation of proto-oncogenes, angiogenesis, apoptosis, invasion and metastasis) that are involved in tumour occurrence and development. Normal tissues have a low eIF4E expression level. eIF4E was overexpressed, in a variety of malignant tumours including head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, laryngeal cancer, lung cancer, breast cancer, thyroid cancer and other cancer tissues^[4,23]. Its high expression was correlated with tumour invasion and metastasis. However, studies of eIF4E in liver cancer are rare. At present, there are studies

Table 2 COX proportional hazards model analysis

	B	SE	Wald	df	Sig	Exp(B)	95% CI for Exp(B)	
							Lower	Upper
Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E	1.971	0.926	4.529	1	0.033	7.179	1.169	44.100
Depth of invasion	3.122	1.211	6.650	1	0.010	22.690	2.115	243.423
Histological grade	0.410	1.156	0.126	1	0.723	1.506	0.156	14.527
Gender	1.671	1.152	2.104	1	0.147	5.319	0.556	50.890
Age	-0.017	0.028	0.354	1	0.552	0.983	0.930	1.040
p53	-3.208	0.825	15.118	1	0.000	0.040	0.008	0.204

B: Coefficient of regression; SE.: Standard error; Wald: The index of regression effect; df: Degrees of freedom; Sig: *P* value; Exp(B): Odds ratio.

that involve the targeting eIF4E in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma^[24,25], breast cancer^[13-18], non-small cell lung cancer^[26], blood malignancies^[27-29] and other studies^[6,30-32]. However, few studies have focused on targeting eIF4E in HCC.

In this study, we tested the expression of eIF4E protein in a normal human liver cell line and three different liver cancer cell lines. eIF4E protein expression was high in the three liver cancer cell lines and higher than in the normal liver cell L02. The HepG2 cell line had an especially high level of eIF4E protein expression. By comparing 46 cases of human liver cancer and adjacent tissues, we found that eIF4E protein expression was higher in most of the cancer tissues than in the adjacent tissues. COX proportional hazards model analysis showed that the depth of invasion, eIF4E, and p53 status were independent risk factors of liver cancer prognosis.

Based on these studies, we believe that eIF4E protein expression may be closely associated with the occurrence of human liver cancer development and prognosis. It has been confirmed *in vivo* and *in vitro* that sorafenib treatment can inhibit the RAF/MEK/ERK signal transduction pathway, reduce the eIF4E phosphorylation level, reduce Mcl-1 protein, and induce hepatoma cell apoptosis^[33,34]. Accordingly, we suggest that lower levels of *eIF4E* gene expression may inhibit liver cancer. Targeting and adjusting the eIF4E level and activity may inhibit cancer cell growth^[6,30,31,35], which may become a new paradigm in the field of the biological treatment of liver cancer^[36].

COMMENTS

Background

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), which has a poor prognosis and a low five-year survival rate, is the most common malignant tumour in our country. At present, there are no effective therapies including radiotherapy, chemotherapy, and surgery. Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E (eIF4E) plays an important role in the translation initiation phase of a eukaryotic cell. It has been confirmed that eIF4E can specifically bind to the 5' mRNA cap (m7GpppN) and modulate its translation and expression. Its expression is closely associated with the generation, infiltration, and metastasis of many tumours such as head and neck, larynx, lung, mammary gland, thyroid gland, oesophagus, stomach, bile duct, colon.

Research frontiers

There are many researchers that are targeting eIF4E in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, breast cancer, non-small cell lung cancer, blood malignancies and other carcinomas; however, studies that involve the targeting eIF4E in HCC are rare.

Innovations and breakthroughs

Research concerning the effects of eIF4E on HCC is limited. The authors tested the expression of the eIF4E protein in liver cancer cell lines and cancer tissues and used COX proportional hazards model analysis to show that eIF4E was an independent risk factor HCC prognosis.

Applications

The targeted regulation of the level and activity of eIF4E may inhibit cancer cell growth, which may become a new treatment paradigm in the liver cancer field.

Terminology

eIF4E is a member of the eIF family. It can specifically bind to the cap structure located at the 5' end of mRNAs named the "m7GpppN cap", which is necessary for mRNA translation initiation, and affects mRNA metabolism, processing, transportation and translation. It plays an important role in regulating the initial stage protein synthesis. eIF4E is highly expressed in a variety of human malignancies, which has been confirmed to be relevant to the occurrence, invasion and metastasis of carcinomas such as head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, laryngeal cancer, non-small cell lung cancer, breast, thyroid cancer, oesophageal cancer, stomach cancer, cholangiocarcinoma, colon cancer, non-Hodgkin's lymphoma, acute or chronic myeloid leukaemia, and lymphoma. Experiments have also confirmed that eIF4E is closely related to the prognosis of many carcinomas.

Peer review

This paper is interesting and worth being published if authors can satisfactorily address the concerns raised regarding immunohistochemical expression of eIF4E.

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Association between body mass index and erosive esophagitis: A meta-analysis

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Abstract

AIM: To conduct a meta-analysis to estimate the determinants of the association between erosive esophagitis (EE) and body mass index (BMI).

METHODS: We identified the studies using PubMed. Studies were selected for analysis based on certain inclusion and exclusion criteria. Data were extracted from each study on the basis of predefined items. Meta-analyses were performed to verify the risk factors, such as obesity and gender.

RESULTS: Twenty-one studies were included in this systematic review. These studies demonstrated an association between increasing BMI and the presence of EE [95% confidence interval (CI): 1.35-1.88, overweight, odds ratio (OR) = 1.60, *P* value homogeneity

= 0.003, 95% CI: 1.65-2.55, obese, OR = 2.05, *P* < 0.01]. The heterogeneity disappeared by stratifying for gender. No publication bias was observed in this meta-analysis by the Egger method.

CONCLUSION: This analysis demonstrates a positive association between BMI and the presence of EE, especially in males. The risk seems to progressively increase with increasing weight.

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Key words: Erosive esophagitis; Gastroesophageal reflux disease; Obesity; Body mass index; Meta-analysis

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INTRODUCTION

The symptoms of gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD) are common health problems in industrialized societies. It is a highly prevalent gastrointestinal disorder encountered in clinical practice^[1,2]. Erosive esophagitis (EE) is one of the most common forms of GERD. It occurs when excessive reflux of acid and pepsin results in necrosis of surface layers of the esophageal mucosa, thus causing erosions and

ulcers^[3]. The etiology of EE may be multifactorial. Esophageal mucosal resistance, gastroesophageal reflux, volume and composition of the gastric contents, contact time for the refluxed material, the degree of incompetence of the intrinsic lower esophageal sphincter, and the presence of a sliding hiatus hernia are likely important determinants^[4]. It is a chronic disease that exhausts socioeconomic and medical resources and its symptoms may lower the quality of life of the patients. Additionally, patients with EE are at increasing risk of developing Barrett's esophagus and esophageal adenocarcinoma^[5].

During the past several decades, obesity has emerged as a major health concern in the Western world^[6]. Several studies have found an increased risk of esophagitis in overweight patients^[7-9]. Excess adiposity is a known risk factor for morbidity, including several cancers^[10]. Recently, a relationship between obesity and GERD has been reported^[11]. One recent population-based case control study reported a strong association between body mass index (BMI) and esophagitis in females, but not in males^[12]. Given these associations, it would seem logical that increasing BMI is associated with EE. However, studies on the association between BMI and reflux esophagitis have yielded inconsistent results^[13-16], though a few have found a strong relationship between obesity and EE^[17,18].

The aim of this study was to investigate the effect of BMI on risk for EE by performing a meta-analysis of all available literature published in PubMed up to April 2011. By performing a meta-analysis of the studies that met our selection criteria, we hoped to better characterize the association between increased BMI and EE.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Search strategy

Two investigators independently performed a systematic search of all existing English-language literatures published up to April 2011 using PubMed, an electronic search engine for published manuscripts. Search terms included "obesity", "BMI", "overweight" or "BMI", combined with "reflux or EE". A total of 268 articles were identified after the preliminary search was reviewed in further details.

Study selection

Studies were included if they met all the following inclusion criteria: (1) Cross-sectional, case control, or cohort studies that permitted assessment of a causal relationship between BMI and EE; (2) Studies with documented and clearly-defined BMI in kg/m² for all participants; (3) Studies that reported a relative risk or odds ratio (OR) with confidence intervals or provided sufficient data to permit their calculation; and (4) Studies with EE diagnosed by upper endoscopy. The inclusion criteria were not otherwise restricted by study size or publication type. The followings were chosen as the exclusion criteria: (1)

Studies not limited to humans or not written in English; (2) Studies that did not report risk estimates or raw data to allow independent calculation of these estimates; and (3) Case reports, case series or studies that lacked a control group.

Data abstraction

The abstracted data included information on the source of the study population, study design (case control, cohort, or cross-sectional), length of the study period, primary aim of the study, exposure definitions (BMI definitions of normal, overweight or obese), exposure measurement method (self-reported *vs* measured BMI), outcome definitions (diagnosis of EE with endoscopy), total number of subjects with EE, case and control criteria, ORs or risk ratios with and without adjustment for potential confounders and potential confounders used for adjustment.

Exposure definition

We defined body mass categories using the following BMI [weight (in kilograms)/height (in meters)²]: "normal" (BMI between 18.5 and 25 kg/m²), "overweight" (BMI between 25 and 28 kg/m²), and "obese" (BMI \geq 28 kg/m²). These groupings represented the divisions or quartiles most frequently reported in the literature even though they differed somewhat from BMI categories in common use (overweight, BMI 25-29.9 kg/m²; obese, BMI \geq 30 kg/m²)^[11]. We also created a category that included both overweight and obese (BMI \geq 25 kg/m²). For each study, we selected the BMI classification that most closely approximated each of these categories. We included more than one estimate from the studies (e.g., if a study reported an OR for persons with a BMI 25-28 kg/m² and an OR for persons with a BMI \geq 28 kg/m², both ORs were included in the summary estimate as BMI \geq 25 kg/m²)^[11]. We then compared the risk of EE among the BMI categories.

We used estimates adjusted for potential confounders whenever they were available; if no adjusted estimates were provided, unadjusted estimates were used or calculated from the data^[11].

Outcome definition

An outcome was defined as EE diagnosed with endoscopy. The severity of EE was graded from A to D according to the LA classification^[19] or modified Savary-Miller classification (grade I, single or multiple non-confluent erosions; grade II, confluent non-circumferential multiple erosion; grade III, circumferential erosions; and grade IV, ulcer and/or stricture)^[20].

Statistical analysis

The BMI data were extracted from each study and analyzed with STATA 11.0 (StataCorp, College Station, TX, United States, www.stata.com). Summary OR estimates were calculated using either relative risks (for cohort stud-

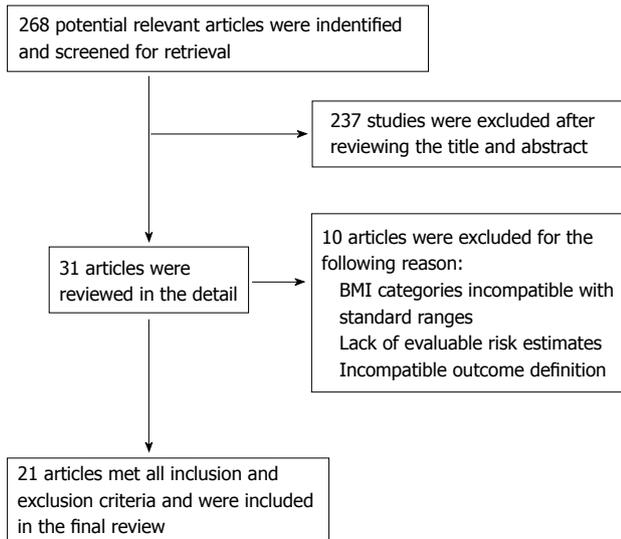


Figure 1 Flow diagram. BMI: Body mass index.

ies) or OR (for case control studies). Summary OR estimates were calculated based on the assumption of fixed effects and heterogeneity was tested using the Mantel-Haenszel method^[21]. We evaluated heterogeneity by comparing the results between the fixed effects model and a random effects model^[21]. Heterogeneity among the studies was analyzed using χ^2 test and considered present if $P \leq 0.05$ or if there was more than a 20% difference in the summary estimates between the two models. To enhance the confidence of the results of the statistics when the number of combined studies was deficient, we used the I^2 metric, which describes the proportion of variability across studies that is due to score heterogeneity. If $I^2 = 0$, there is no heterogeneity. $I^2 > 50\%$ is considered to be indicative of heterogeneity. Larger values indicate greater heterogeneity. If these tests indicated heterogeneity, we explored possible causes^[21-24]. Then, to exclude the excessive influence of any single study, we assessed whether exclusion of any single study substantially altered the magnitude or heterogeneity of the summary estimate. We also stratified analyses by several factors^[25-31]. Funnel plots were produced and Egger's test^[32] was conducted to examine publication bias.

RESULTS

We identified 268 published articles or abstracts (Figure 1). After review of titles and abstracts, 31 articles appeared to meet the initial inclusion criteria. The excluded studies were review articles, animal experiments, case series that lacked appropriate control groups and studies that did not report the subject of interest. These 31 studies underwent a complete data abstraction. Ten additional studies were excluded after data abstraction for the following reasons: BMI categories that were inconsistent with the proposed reference ranges^[7,33-36], inconsistent outcome definition^[37], lack of proper control group^[38],

and lack of evaluable risk estimates within the proposed categories^[39-41].

The remaining 21 studies^[4,8,12,42-59] (i.e., four cross-sectional, three cohort, 14 case control studies) were included in the primary analysis (Tables 1 and 2). Twelve studies were conducted for the primary purpose of evaluating the relationship between BMI and EE^[4,44,45,49-52,54,55,57-59], eight studies were conducted to identify the variety of risk factors for EE, including BMI^[8,12,42,46-48,53,56], and one study described the clinical characteristics of EE and non-erosive reflux disease, including BMI^[43]. In Table 1, controls and normal groups were composed of general population and healthy volunteers. Eighteen studies were included in Table 3 because of their stratification by gender.

The pooled OR of EE related to BMI of 25 kg/m² or higher was 1.64-fold greater than that of EE related to BMI less than 25 kg/m² (OR, 1.64, 95% CI: 1.45-1.85, test for homogeneity, $P = 0.000$, $I^2 = 65.7\%$) (Figure 2, Table 3).

Stratification by gender and BMI category showed a homogeneous positive association between increased BMI and EE, and the strength of the association with increased BMI (Table 3). The risk for overweight males (OR, 1.40, 95% CI: 1.11-1.75, $P = 0.285$) increased further for obese males (OR, 1.75, 95% CI: 1.02-2.96, $P = 0.099$) (Figure 3). The pooled OR in females and males for BMI greater than 25 kg/m² were 1.45 (95% CI: 1.26-1.66) and 1.52 (95% CI: 1.24-1.87), respectively. Therefore, we considered there was a strong positive association between increasing BMI and EE in males, but not in females.

Evaluation of heterogeneity

The initial summary estimates for EE were heterogeneous, as described above. Stratification by BMI category did not substantially resolve the heterogeneity; however, additional stratification by gender provided more homogeneity. Stratification of the entire population by exposure measurement (e.g, self-report *vs* measured), or study design (case control *vs* cohort) did not substantially influence the initial heterogeneity (Table 3).

Publication bias

The rank correlation test did not suggest the presence of publication bias for the main summary estimates for either the overweight ($P = 0.656$) or the obese and overweight ($P = 0.804$). A review of funnel plots did not demonstrate patterns strongly suggestive of publication bias (Figure 4).

DISCUSSION

Our pooled results of observational studies demonstrated a positive association between increased BMI and the risk of EE. The strength of the association increased with increasing BMI and there was a trend towards a stronger association in males than in females. Unlike other non-modifiable risk factors such as age, race and gender, BMI is potentially modifiable. Thus, identifying a relationship

Table 1 Study characteristics

Authors	Yr	Design	Region	Population size	Case population	Reference population	Confounders adjusted for
Ha <i>et al</i> ^[43]	2010	Case-control	South Korea	n = 292 (EE), n = 500 (NERD)	Single hospital	Hospital controls	G, E, T, J, OD, WHR, TG
Nam <i>et al</i> ^[44]	2010	Cohort	South Korea	n = 495 (EE), n = 3779 (normal)	General population	General population	WC, WHR, VAT, SAT
Wang <i>et al</i> ^[46]	2010	Case-control	China	n = 70 (EE), n = 502 (non-EE)	General population	General population	A, G, S, B, T, E, C, tea drinking, spicy food consumption, betel nut use
Koo <i>et al</i> ^[45]	2009	Case-control	South Korea	n = 42 (EE), n = 987 (control)	General population	General population	G, T, E, TG,
Koo <i>et al</i> ^[45]	2009	Case-control	South Korea	n = 42 (EE), n = 1007 (control)	General population	General population	G, T, E, TG,
Chua <i>et al</i> ^[47]	2009	Case-control	Taiwan, China	n = 427 (EE), n = 427 (control)	Single hospital	Hospital controls	TG, Glucose intolerance, HDL-C, SBP
Song <i>et al</i> ^[48]	2009	Case-control	South Korea	n = 639 (EE), n = 5443 (non-EE)	Single hospital	Hospital controls	A, G, T, E, H, TC, HDL-C, LDL-C, TG, BP, fasting glucose
Lien <i>et al</i> ^[49]	2009	Case-control	Taiwan, China	n = 102 (EE), n = 1942 (non-EE)	Single hospital	Hospital controls	A, G, J
Lien <i>et al</i> ^[49]	2009	Case-control	Taiwan, China	n = 240 (EE), n = 1662 (non-EE)	Single hospital	Hospital controls	A, G, J
Nam <i>et al</i> ^[50]	2009	Cohort	South Korea	n = 552 (EE), n = 8019 (non-EE)	General population	General population	A, WC, E, T
Lee <i>et al</i> ^[51]	2009	Case-control	South Korea	n = 100 (EE), n = 100 (control)	Single hospital	Hospital controls	WHR, T, J, VAT, SAT, VAT/SAT
Chung <i>et al</i> ^[52]	2008	Case-control	South Korea	n = 3539 (EE), n = 3539 (control)	Single hospital	Hospital controls	E, T, metabolic syndrome
Zagari <i>et al</i> ^[53]	2008	Cross-sectional	Italy	n = 122 (EE), n = 911 (non-EE)	General population	General population	A, G, E, T, H, J, C, medication use, peptic ulcer
Lee <i>et al</i> ^[54]	2008	Case-control	South Korea	n = 292 (EE), n = 2896 (control)	Medical center	Medical center	G, TC, TG, WHR, J, T, OD, PBF
Kim <i>et al</i> ^[42]	2008	Case-control	South Korea	n = 1810 (EE), n = 20154 (normal)	Multiple hospital	Multiple hospital	G, E, J, H, TC, TG, T, medications for liver/heart disease
Moki <i>et al</i> ^[56]	2007	Case-control	Japan	n = 191 (EE), n = 4968 (non-EE)	General population	General population	A, G, BP, TG, FBG
Kim <i>et al</i> ^[58]	2007	Case-control	South Korea	n = 1090 (EE), n = 26229 (non-EE)	Single hospital	Hospital controls	A, G, E, T
Nocon <i>et al</i> ^[55]	2007	Cohort	Germany	n = 5289 (EE), n = 926 (non-EE)	General population	General population	A, T, E,
Kang <i>et al</i> ^[57]	2007	Cross-sectional	South Korea	n = 161 (EE), n = 2281 (non-EE)	Single hospital	Hospital controls	A, G, J, T, B, hypertensive drugs, lifestyle choices, abdominal obesity
Labenz <i>et al</i> ^[8]	2004	Cross-sectional	Germany	n = 2455 (EE), n = 2834 (control)	Medical center	Medical center	A, G, R, S, T, E, B, H, concomitant disease, concomitant medications
Nilsson <i>et al</i> ^[12]	2002	Case-control	Sweden	n = 179 (EE), n = 179 (control)	Multiple hospital	Multiple hospital	T, cholecystectomy, I, drugs use
Wilson <i>et al</i> ^[59]	1999	Case-control	United States	n = 189 (EE), n = 1024 (control)	Single hospital	Single hospital	A, G, J, R
Stene-Larsen <i>et al</i> ^[4]	1988	Cross-sectional	Sweden	n = 195 (EE), n = 1029 (control)	Single hospital	Single hospital	None

A: Age; B: Aspirin or NSAID intake; C: Coffee; D: Meal size; E: Alcohol/ethanol; F: Family history; G: Gender; H: *Helicobacter pylori* infection; I: Asthma or asthma medication; J: Hiatal hernia; K: Hospital visit or hospitalization; M: Marital status; O: Symptom checklist-90 score; P: Physical activity; Q: Psychosomatic symptoms; R: Race; S: Socioeconomic status, education; T: Tobacco; W: Right handedness; V: Comorbidity; X: Case control status; Y: Birthplace; Z: Hormone replacement therapy; VAT: Visceral adipose tissue; SAT: Subcutaneous adipose tissue; BP: Blood pressure; SBP: Systolic; DBP: Diastolic blood pressure; TC: Total cholesterol; HDL-C: High-density lipoprotein cholesterol; LDL-C: Low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; TG: Triglyceride; HbA1c: Hemoglobin A1c; OD: Obesity degree; WHR: Waist-to-hip ratio; WC: Waist circumference; PBF: Percentage of body fat; FBG: Fasting blood glucose; EE: Erosive esophagitis; NERD: Non-erosive reflux disease; NSAID: Nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs.

between obesity and EE might have significant implications for counseling.

A recent meta-analysis of BMI and GERD complications found heterogeneous results and it was not able to identify strata with homogeneous results^[60]. It was pos-

sibly due to their methods of stratification, the utilization of estimates with markedly different measures of BMI association, the absence of studies included in the current analysis, and the inclusion of studies that did not set up a non-GERD control group. In contrast, in the cur-

Authors	Yr	Exposure (source)	BMI reference (kg/m ²)	Exposure (definitions)			Outcome (source)	Outcome (definitions)
				BMI overweight (kg/m ²)	BMI obese (kg/m ²)	BMI overweight + obese (kg/m ²)		
Ha <i>et al</i> ^[43]	2010	Measured BMI	≤ 25			≥ 25	Endoscopy	Los Angeles classification
Nam <i>et al</i> ^[44]	2010	Measured BMI	< 20	25-29.9		≥ 30	Endoscopy	Los Angeles classification
Wang <i>et al</i> ^[46]	2010	Measured BMI	< 25	25-30		> 30	Endoscopy	Los Angeles classification
Koo <i>et al</i> ^[45]	2009	Measured BMI	< 23	23-24.9		≥ 25	Endoscopy	Los Angeles classification
Koo <i>et al</i> ^[45]	2009	Measured BMI	< 23	23-24.9		≥ 25	Endoscopy	Los Angeles classification
Chua <i>et al</i> ^[47]	2009	Self-report	< 25			≥ 25	Endoscopy	Los Angeles classification
Song <i>et al</i> ^[48]	2009	Measured BMI				≥ 30	Endoscopy	Los Angeles classification
Lien <i>et al</i> ^[49]	2009	Self-report	< 24	24-26.9		≥ 27	Endoscopy	Modified Savary-Miller endoscopic classification
Lien <i>et al</i> ^[49]	2009	Self-report	< 24	24-26.9		≥ 27	Endoscopy	Modified Savary-Miller endoscopic classification
Nam <i>et al</i> ^[50]	2009	Self-report	< 20	25-29.9		≥ 30	Endoscopy	Los Angeles classification
Lee <i>et al</i> ^[51]	2009	Measured BMI	20-25	25-30		≥ 30	Endoscopy	Los Angeles classification
Chung <i>et al</i> ^[52]	2008	Measured BMI	< 23	23-24.9		≥ 25	Endoscopy	Los Angeles classification
Zagari <i>et al</i> ^[53]	2008	Self-report	20-24.9	25-29.9		≥ 30	Endoscopy	Modified Savary-Miller endoscopic classification
Lee <i>et al</i> ^[54]	2008	Measured BMI	< 20	25-30		> 30	Endoscopy	Los Angeles classification
Kim <i>et al</i> ^[42]	2008	Measured BMI	< 23			≥ 25	Endoscopy	Los Angeles classification
Moki <i>et al</i> ^[56]	2007	Measured BMI	< 25			≥ 25	Endoscopy	Los Angeles classification
Kim <i>et al</i> ^[38]	2007	Measured BMI	18.9-24.5	25-29.9		≥ 30	Endoscopy	Los Angeles classification
Nocon <i>et al</i> ^[55]	2007	Measured BMI		25-30		> 30	Endoscopy	Los Angeles classification
Kang <i>et al</i> ^[57]	2006	Measured BMI	< 25	25-30		> 30	Endoscopy	Los Angeles classification
Labenz <i>et al</i> ^[8]	2004	Measured BMI	< 25	25-30		> 30	Endoscopy	Los Angeles classification
Nilsson <i>et al</i> ^[12]	2002	Self-report	< 25	25-30		> 30	Endoscopy	Modified Savary-Miller endoscopic classification
Wilson <i>et al</i> ^[59]	1999	Measured BMI	< 20	25-30		> 30	Endoscopy	NA
Stene-Larsen <i>et al</i> ^[4]	1988	Measured BMI	< 25	25-28		> 28	Endoscopy	NA

BMI: Body mass index; NA: Not available.

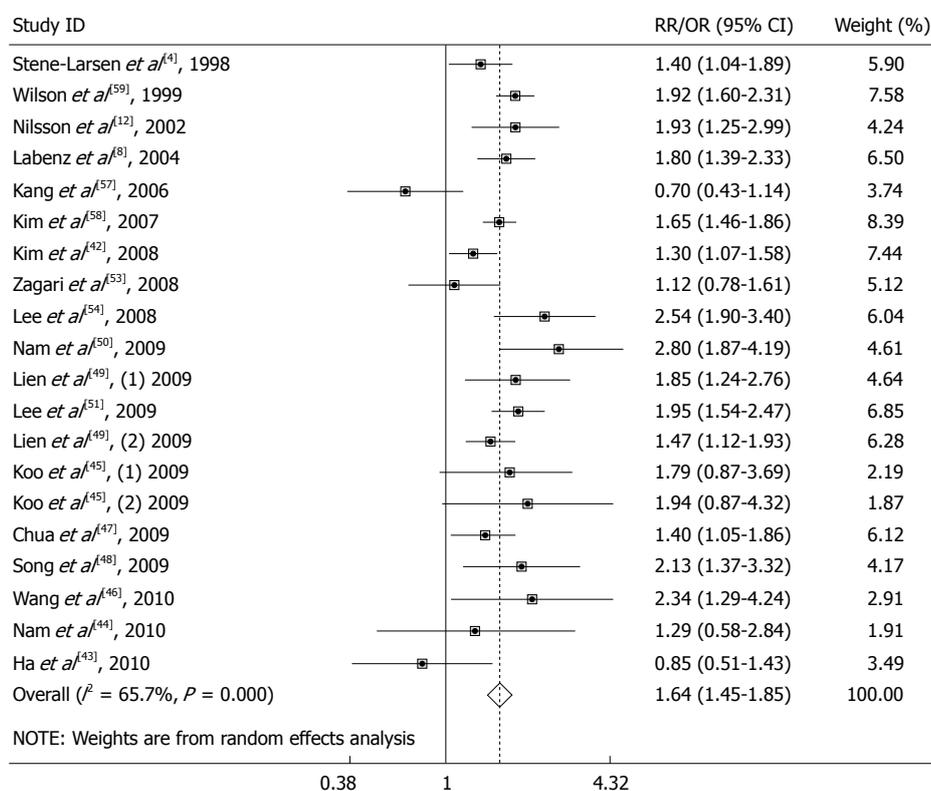


Figure 2 Erosive esophagitis and body mass index (overweight and obese) in males and females. The size of the square represents the weight that the corresponding study exerts in the meta-analysis. RR: Relative risk; OR: Odds ratio.

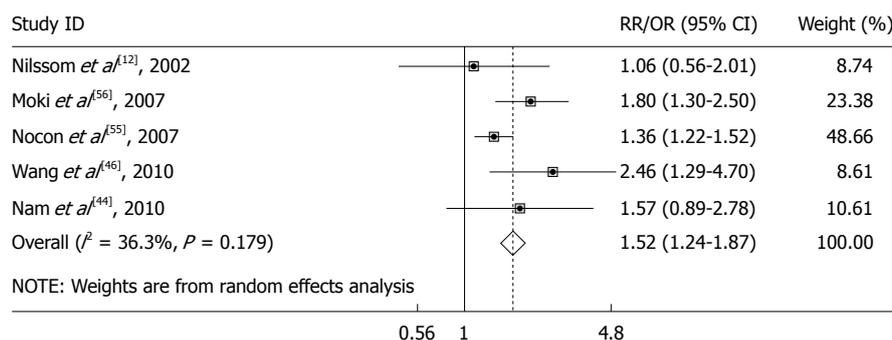


Figure 3 Erosive esophagitis and body mass index (overweight and obese) in males. The size of the square represents the weight that the corresponding study exerts in the meta-analysis. RR: Relative risk; OR: Odds ratio.

Table 3 Meta-analysis results in association between body mass index and erosive esophagitis

BMI category	OR (95% CI)	$P_{\text{homogeneity}}$	I^2 (%)	No. of studies
Overall				
Overweight	1.60 (1.35-1.88)	0.003	59.8	12 ^[4,8,12,44,45,50,51,53,54,57-59]
Obese	2.05 (1.65-2.55)	0.000	74.2	15 ^[4,8,12,44-46,50-54,56-59]
Overweight + obese	1.64 (1.45-1.85)	0.000	65.7	18 ^[4,8,12,43-47,49,50-54,56-59]
Females				
Overweight	1.47 (1.15-1.88)	0.011	7.4	3 ^[12,44,55]
Obese	3.76 (0.92-15.28)	0.340	78.0	3 ^[12,44,55]
Overweight + obese	1.45 (1.26-1.66)	0.579	0.0	4 ^[12,44,55,56]
Males				
Overweight	1.40 (1.11-1.75)	0.285	20.8	4 ^[12,44,46,55]
Obese	1.74 (1.02-2.96)	0.099	52.1	4 ^[12,44,46,55]
Overweight + obese	1.52 (1.24-1.87)	0.179	36.3	5 ^[12,44,46,55,56]

BMI: Body mass index; OR: Odds ratio.

rent study, after the creation of more categories of BMI among the studies, stratification by gender demonstrated a homogeneous increase in EE with increasing BMI. A study showed a positive correlation between BMI and EE in females, but not in males^[12] and a study of reflux patients showed that obese females, but not obese males, had an increased risk of severe esophagitis^[55]. The study by Nilsson^[12] also found that the association between obesity and EE was further strengthened by the use of oestrogen replacement medication. The prevalence of GERD symptoms as determined in a study investigating a cohort from North America did not differ between males and females^[61]. In contrast, in another study, EE was more common in males than in females from Asia^[42]. However, in our study, we found a strong positive association between increasing BMI and EE in males, but not in females. This may be because the populations of the included studies were from Asia.

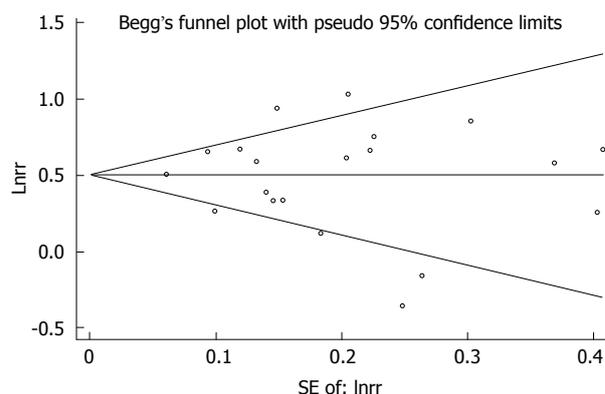


Figure 4 Evaluation of publication bias using a funnel plot. No significant funnel asymmetry was observed which could indicate publication bias. The horizontal line in the funnel plot indicates the random effects summary estimate, while the sloping lines indicate the expected 95% CI for a given standard error, assuming no heterogeneity between studies. Each trial is represented by a circle, the area of which represents the trial's precision. Larger circles represent trials that offer more information.

Several hypotheses have been proposed to explain how obesity can cause EE. Abdominal fat may cause reflux through an increase in intrabdominal pressure and subsequent esophageal acid exposure^[62,63]. Also, there was a suggestion that hormonal factors related to adiposity are more important than mechanical factors^[63]. Obesity is also associated with increased transient lower oesophageal sphincter relaxation^[64]. Strengths of this analysis include the use of strict criteria for defining our outcome of interest and the consistency of the BMI-EE association within the males despite different patient populations and different study designs. All the included studies used endoscopy to confirm the diagnosis of EE, which eliminated the possibility of false positive EE cases. Also, we included stratification by study design, location, and source population.

There are potential limitations of this analysis. First, only observational studies were included; study results may be influenced by the presence of measured or unmeasured confounding factors, such as physical activity. Second, bias may also exist in the present study because unpublished data were not included, nor were conference abstracts or articles published in a language other than

English. Third, the exposure definitions (i.e., normal, obese or overweight) differed slightly among the studies. We addressed this, however, by creating more comparable and consistent categories, although few differences still remained. Also, the accuracy of the BMI measurement and its reliability as a measure of adiposity are known to be imperfect.

In summary, based on our extensive review and synthesis of the literature, there appears to be a statistically significant association between elevated BMI and EE. Considering the prevalence of obesity and increasing incidence rates of EE, it is important to pay more attention to further studies that evaluate the influence of gender, ethnicity or age on EE to examine this association. Several studies have found abdominal visceral obesity to be an independent risk factor for EE^[44,57]. Nam *et al.*^[44] demonstrated that association between EE and abdominal visceral adipose tissue volume was consistent among males and females, unlike the association between EE and BMI. However, CT or MRI is needed to test abdominal visceral adipose, which are time consuming and costly. So, measuring BMI may be more feasible. It is also important to determine whether weight loss can decrease the incidence of EE. Further studies are needed to evaluate the relationship between obesity and EE.

COMMENTS

Background

Both obesity and erosive esophagitis (EE) have a high prevalence worldwide. The relationship between them remains controversial.

Research frontiers

Many studies have been performed to evaluate the body mass index (BMI) for gastroesophageal reflux disease risk. It has been found that there was a positive correlation between BMI and EE in females, but not in males.

Innovations and breakthroughs

Findings from this meta-analysis suggested the importance of BMI in EE, especially in males.

Applications

This study provided the potential measurement indicators to identify high-risk groups for EE in obesity population, especially in males.

Terminology

BMI: BMI is a heuristic proxy for human body fat based on an individual's weight and height. It is defined as the individual's body mass divided by the square of his or her height; EE: EE is a term used to indicate any inflammation, swelling, or irritation of the esophagus. The esophagus becomes inflamed (swollen, irritated and red).

Peer review

The meta-analysis presents the data on association between obesity and EE. The topic is interesting and the methodology of the meta-analysis is appropriate.

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Serum inter-cellular adhesion molecule 1 is an early marker of diagnosis and prediction of severe acute pancreatitis

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Abstract

AIM: To determine if serum inter-cellular adhesion molecule 1 (ICAM-1) is an early marker of the diagnosis and prediction of severe acute pancreatitis (SAP) within 24 h of onset of pain, and to compare the sensitivity, specificity and prognostic value of this test with those of acute physiology and chronic health evaluation (APACHE) II score and interleukin-6 (IL-6).

METHODS: Patients with acute pancreatitis (AP) were divided into two groups according to the Ranson's criteria: mild acute pancreatitis (MAP) group and SAP group. Serum ICAM-1, APACHE II and IL-6 levels were detected in all the patients. The sensitivity, specificity and prognostic value of the ICAM-1, APACHE II score and IL-6 were evaluated.

RESULTS: The ICAM-1 level in 36 patients with SAP within 24 h of onset of pain was increased and was significantly higher than that in the 50 patients with MAP and the 15 healthy volunteers ($P < 0.01$). The ICAM-1 level (25 ng/mL) was chosen as the optimum cutoff to distinguish SAP from MAP, and the sensitivity,

specificity, positive predictive value, negative predictive value (NPV), positive likelihood ratio and negative likelihood ratio were 61.11%, 71.42%, 0.6111, 0.7142, 2.1382 and 0.5445, respectively. The area under the curve demonstrated that the prognostic accuracy of ICAM-1 (0.712) was similar to the APACHE-II scoring system (0.770) and superior to IL-6 (0.508) in distinguishing SAP from MAP.

CONCLUSION: ICAM-1 test is a simple, rapid and reliable method in clinical practice. It is an early marker of diagnosis and prediction of SAP within the first 24 h after onset of pain or on admission. As it has a relatively low NPV and does not allow it to be a stand-alone test for the diagnosis of AP, other conventional diagnostic tests are required.

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Key words: Intercellular adhesion molecule-1; Severe acute pancreatitis; Early prediction

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INTRODUCTION

Most cases of acute pancreatitis (AP) are mild and self limiting, and recover spontaneously, but approximately 20% of attacks turn to severe acute pancreatitis (SAP) with a life-threatening morbidity and a mortality rate

of 20%-30%. Hence, early diagnosis and prediction of the severity of AP are of particular significance^[1]. Early prediction of the severity of AP is still difficult in clinical practice. Ranson's score can only be evaluated 48 h after admission. The acute physiology and chronic health evaluation II (APACHE II) score can be used within a few hours after admission, but its complex and cumbersome performance limits its clinical use^[2]. Several laboratory markers have been developed over the past decade for the early diagnosis and prediction of SAP. Since there is no correlation found between the degree of structural damage to pancreas and clinical manifestation of the disease, no ideal predictive system or biochemical marker has been available. Several reports showed that serum intercellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1) levels were elevated during the course of AP and correlated with the severity of the disease and patient outcome. ICAM-1 can be detected as an early marker in the diagnosis of lung injury^[3,4]. However, the details of the clinical use of this test for early diagnosis and prediction of SAP remain obscure, especially within the first 24 h in the patients after admission. The aim of this prospective study was to evaluate the use of the ICAM-1 in early diagnosis and prediction of SAP.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study population

All patients with AP were included in the primary analysis according to the guidelines of diagnosis and treatment of AP established by Branch of Gastroenterology, Chinese Medical Association in 2003^[5]. The diagnosis of AP was based on the following features: (1) Prolonged abdominal pain characteristic of AP; (2) Elevated serum amylase and/or lipase levels by at least 3-folds that of normal range; and (3) Characteristic findings of AP on abdominal ultrasonography and/or computed tomography (CT) scan. Patients who were admitted within the first 24 h of the onset of abdominal pain were not included in the study. Patients with an accompanying disease that might influence the outcome data were excluded, such as postoperative, post-traumatic, post-endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatographic pancreatitis. Other causes of acute abdominal pain were ruled out. Eighty-six patients with AP included in this pilot study were analyzed in a prospective 1-year investigation performed at a single institution.

Clinical assessment

The study was approved by the Committee of Research Ethics of our hospital, and informed consent was obtained from all the patients and healthy volunteers before enrollment. Demographics (gender, age, occupation, course and characteristics of symptom) and the cause of the pancreatitis (cholelithiasis, alcohol abuse, hyperlipidemia and others) were recorded. Routine clinical observation, laboratory test and treatment were performed. The APACHE-II score was determined within the first

24 h and 48 h of the onset of pain after admission^[6]. Ultrasonography was performed every other day in all the patients and/or spiral CT with intravenous contrast was performed in some patients within 48-72 h after admission to assess the extent of inflammation and the degree of pancreas necrosis according to Balthazar's classification. After the examinations, patients' data were reviewed to determine the eligibility for inclusion into the study.

Clinical classification

Ranson's score was recorded in the first 24 h and 48 h after admission. Since Ranson *et al*^[7] in 1974 identified 11 prognostic factors, considerable researches have been undertaken to find the ideal predictor(s) that allow rapid and correct assessment of the severity of AP to suit different clinical and regional settings. SAP was categorized based on the clinical and laboratory data using Ranson's score. Cases meeting less than three positive criteria were classified as mild acute pancreatitis (MAP) and those meeting three or more positive criteria were classified as SAP.

Sample collection and enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay for ICAM-1 and interleukin-6

To check the time kinetics of rise in plasma ICAM-1 and interleukin-6 (IL-6) during AP, its levels were quantified in two time-points. The potential of ICAM-1 and IL-6 to predict SAP within the first 24 h and 48 h after the onset of symptoms or on admission was examined. A 5-mL sample of peripheral venous blood was collected twice from the 85 patients with AP. Blood samples obtained from the 15 healthy volunteers served as controls. The plasma was separated by centrifugation at 3000 r/min for 10 min at 4 °C and stored at -20 °C until assayed. Plasma ICAM-1 and IL-6 were quantified with commercially available enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kits (Sen-Xiong Technology Limited Company, Shanghai, China). ELISA plates were read at 450 nm and data was collected. Measurement was performed according to the instructions of the manufacturer.

Presentation of data and statistical analysis

After the examinations, data from each patient were reviewed to ascertain the eligibility for inclusion into the study. The data of gender, etiology of SAP and MAP, and the categorical variables were compared using χ^2 test. Analysis of variance was performed in the continuous variables of age, ICAM-1, IL-6 levels and other relative laboratory tests for SAP and MAP using Student's *t* test. The differences were considered statistically significant if $P \leq 0.05$. In order to differentiate SAP from MAP within the first 24 h of the onset of symptoms, the sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value (PPV), negative predictive value (NPV), and positive likelihood ratio (PLR) and negative likelihood ratio (NLR) at different serum levels of ICAM-1 compared with APACHE II and IL-6 levels were calculated, respectively. The level of higher

Table 1 Characteristics of 86 patients with acute pancreatitis

	SAP, n = 36	MAP, n = 50	P value
Age (mean ± SE, yr)	53.19 ± 14.9	49.4 ± 10.9	> 0.05
Gender (male/female)	18/18	30/20	> 0.05
Length of hospital stay (d)	18.3 ± 1.6	7.3 ± 1.4	< 0.001
Etiology, n (%)			
Gall stones	19 (52.7)	20 (40.8)	< 0.05
Alcohol	4 (11.1)	8 (16.3)	
Idiopathic	13 (36.1)	21 (42.8)	
Test at first 24 h			
Blood amylase (U/L)	456.8 ± 175.7	389 ± 125.7	< 0.05
Total bilirubin (mmol/mL)	39.10 ± 22.42	29.15 ± 25.88	> 0.05
Blood glucose (mmol/mL)	9.61 ± 4.77	6.87 ± 2.63	< 0.05
Blood calculus	2.41 ± 0.33	2.63 ± 2.16	> 0.05
Test at 48-72 h			
Pancreatic necrosis	16	2	< 0.01
Ranson's score	5.3 ± 0.5	1.5 ± 0.24	< 0.001

SAP: Severe acute pancreatitis; MAP: Mild acute pancreatitis.

PLR and lower NLR was chosen as the optimum cutoff point. A receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves were constructed to determine the reference cutoff point for ICAM-1, APACHE II and IL-6 levels that could distinguish between SAP and MAP. An index of the goodness of the test of area under the curve (AUC) was used to measure the ability of distinguishing SAP from MAP. A perfect test had an area of 1.0, while a non-discriminating test had an area of 0.5. All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS v8.00 statistical analysis software (SPSS Inc., Cary, NC).

RESULTS

Clinical characteristics of AP

The prospective study population consisted of 86 consecutive patients with AP (48 men, 38 women with a mean age of 50.7 years; range, 17-79 years) and 15 healthy volunteers (10 men, 5 women with a mean age of 48.7 years; range, 28-58 years). Forty-nine (56.9%) patients were diagnosed as having MAP and 36 (41.8%) as having SAP according to the Ranson's criteria. The clinical characteristics of the patients with AP are summarized in Table 1. Gallstones were the most common cause of both SAP and MAP ($n = 19$, 52.7% and $n = 20$, 40.8%, respectively). There was no difference in the sex, race and etiology of the disease between the SAP and MAP patients. The mean serum amylase and glucose levels were significantly higher in SAP than in MAP ($P < 0.05$). There was no significant difference in the serum level of total bilirubin between the two groups at the first 24 h after the onset of pain.

Mean scores of APACHE-II, serum ICAM-1 and IL-1 levels in patients with SAP and MAP

The mean scores of APACHE-II in the SAP patients within the first 24 h after the onset of pain were also significantly higher than in the MAP patients ($P < 0.001$). The mean serum level of ICAM-1 in the SAP patients

Table 2 Acute physiology and chronic health evaluation II score, serum intercellular adhesion molecule-1 and interleukin-6 levels in severe acute pancreatitis and mild acute pancreatitis patients within the first 24 h after admission

	SAP, n = 36	MAP, n = 50	Control	t	P value
APACHE-II	14.47 ± 5.81	7.57 ± 1.44		7.9132	< 0.001
ICAM-1 (ng/mL)	29.68 ± 8.04	16.77 ± 4.37	8.12 ± 2.33	9.5028	< 0.001
IL-6 (ng/mL)	68.76 ± 28.62	35.95 ± 11.56	14.46 ± 3.53	7.2700	< 0.001

SAP: Severe acute pancreatitis; MAP: Mild acute pancreatitis; APACHE-II: Acute physiology and chronic health evaluation II; ICAM-1: Intercellular adhesion molecule-1; IL-6: Interleukin-6.

Table 3 Changes of serum intercellular adhesion molecule-1 and interleukin-6 levels in severe acute pancreatitis patients after admission

Type	< 24 h	48-72 h	t	P value
APACHE-II				
SAP	14.47 ± 5.81	16.6 ± 2.03	2.0776	< 0.05
MAP	7.57 ± 1.44	9.51 ± 1.74	6.0216	< 0.001
ICAM-1 (ng/mL)				
SAP	29.68 ± 8.04	44.76 ± 12.08	6.2353	< 0.001
MAP	16.77 ± 4.37	24.10 ± 5.88	7.0038	< 0.001
IL-6 (ng/mL)				
SAP	68.76 ± 28.62	42.19 ± 12.77	5.0868	< 0.001
MAP	35.95 ± 11.56	21.76 ± 8.65	6.8798	< 0.001

SAP: Severe acute pancreatitis; MAP: Mild acute pancreatitis; APACHE-II: Acute physiology and chronic health evaluation II; ICAM-1: Intercellular adhesion molecule-1; IL-6: Interleukin-6.

within the first 24 h after the onset of pain was significantly higher than in the MAP patients ($P < 0.001$) and the healthy controls ($P < 0.001$). Significantly higher levels of IL-6 were found in the SAP patients as compared with the MAP patients at the 24 h and the healthy controls ($P < 0.001$). The APACHE-II scores within the first 24 h after admission to hospital were significantly higher in SAP than in MAP patients ($P < 0.001$) (Table 2). The mean serum level of ICAM-1 in SAP patients at 48-72 h after admission was obviously higher than in SAP patients within the first 24 h after admission ($P < 0.001$). The level of IL-6 declined in the AP patients at 48-72 h after admission, but it was still obviously higher in the SAP patients than in the MAP patients ($P < 0.001$). The mean scores of APACHE-II in SAP and MAP at the 48-72 h after the onset of pain were slightly increased, but the scores in SAP were significantly higher than that in MAP in the first 24 h (Table 3).

Sensitivity, specificity, PPV, NPV, PLR and NLR of ICAM-1 in distinguishing SAP from MAP

The sensitivity, specificity, PPV, NPV, PLR and NLR at different serum ICAM-1 levels (10, 15, 25, 30, 35, 40 and 45 ng/mL) were determined respectively. The ICAM-1 level (25 ng/mL) with higher PLR and lower NLR was chosen as the optimum cutoff to distinguish SAP from MAP within first 24 h of the onset of symptoms, and the sensitivity, specificity, PPV, NPV, PLR and NLR were 61.11%, 71.42%, 0.6111, 0.7142, 2.1382

Table 4 Sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value, negative predictive value, positive likelihood ratio and negative likelihood ratio of acute physiology and chronic health evaluation II, intercellular adhesion molecule-1 and interleukin-6 in distinguishing severe acute pancreatitis from mild acute pancreatitis

	Cutoffs	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)	PPV	NPV	PLR	NLR
APACHE-II	> 8	77.77	55.10	0.5600	0.7714	1.7320	0.2223
ICAM-1	25 ng/mL	61.11	71.42	0.6111	0.7142	2.1382	0.5445
IL-6	50 ng/mL	36.11	63.26	0.6190	0.5740	0.8826	1.1680

APACHE-II: Acute physiology and chronic health evaluation II; ICAM-1: Intercellular adhesion molecule-1; IL-6: Interleukin-6; PPV: Positive predictive value; NPV: Negative predictive value; PLR: Positive likelihood ratio; NLR: Negative likelihood ratio.

and 0.5445, respectively. The APACHE-II scores (< 4, 4-8, 9-12, 13-16, 17-20 and > 20) were also calculated. The sensitivity, specificity, PPV, NPV, PLR and NLR at the optimum cutoffs of APACHE-II score > 8 were 77.77%, 55.10%, 0.5600, 0.7714, 1.7320 and 0.2223, respectively. The different serum IL-6 levels (20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70 and 80 ng/mL) were respectively calculated using the same method. The sensitivity, specificity, PPV, NPV, PLR and NLR at the optimum cutoffs of IL-6 50 ng/mL were 36.11%, 63.26%, 0.6169, 0.5740, 1.5869 and 0.9180, respectively (Table 4).

ROC curves and AUC of ICAM-1, APACHE-II and IL-6 in distinguishing SAP from MAP

The optimum cutoffs of APACHE-II score > 8, serum ICAM-1 (25 ng/mL) and IL-6 (50 ng/mL) which were used to distinguish SAP from MAP within the first 24 h of the onset of symptoms were analyzed by constructing a ROC curve. The AUC of ICAM-1, APACHE-II and IL-6 in predicting SAP was 0.712, 0.770 and 0.508, respectively (Figure 1). The AUC demonstrated that the prognostic accuracy of ICAM-1 was similar to the APACHE-II scoring system. The AUC of serum ICAM-1 level was obviously superior to that of IL-6. The serum IL-6 level was not capable of distinguishing SAP from MAP within the first 24 h of the onset of symptoms.

DISCUSSION

In China, the exact incidence of AP is still unknown, but it is increasing gradually in recent years. AP is a life-threatening illness with an annual incidence of 30-50 attacks per 100 000 inhabitants^[8]. It is an inflammatory process that presents different severity degrees, ranging from a mild self-limiting disease with interstitial edema in the pancreas, to a severe disease with extensive necrosis^[9]. It progresses to a severe illness with a prolonged course in about 15%-20% of the patients. These severely ill patients may develop organ failure and/or local complications such as pancreatic necrosis. Approximately, 75% of the cases are mild with a mortality below 1%. Eighty percent of the patients

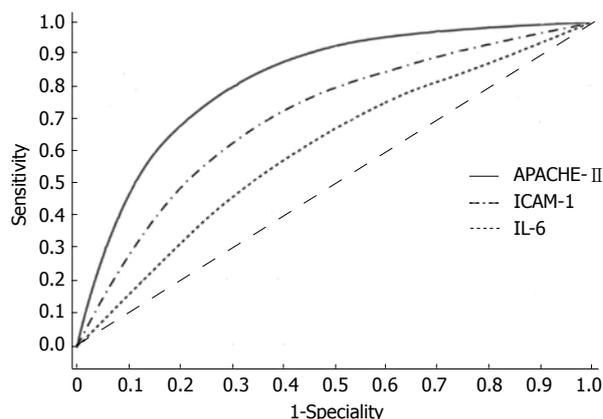


Figure 1 Cutoffs of acute physiology and chronic health evaluation II score > 8, serum intercellular adhesion molecule-1 (25 ng/mL) and interleukin-6 (50 pg/mL) levels that can distinguish severe acute pancreatitis from mild acute pancreatitis within 24 h of the onset of symptoms were analyzed by constructing a receiver operating characteristic curve. The area under the curve for intercellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1), acute physiology and chronic health evaluation II (APACHE-II) score > 8 and interleukin-6 (IL-6) in predicting severe acute pancreatitis was 0.712, 0.770 and 0.508, respectively.

could recover completely, while 20% had their disease worsened according to the Atlanta criteria. The mortality increases up to 20% if the disease progresses into a severe necrotizing form^[10] and the mortality can be as high as 30%-40%^[11]. Current management strategies for patients with SAP include early admission to intensive care units, vigorous intravenous resuscitation, and urgent endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography when cholangitis or biliary obstruction is present, antibiotic prophylaxis in patients with pancreatic necrosis, and close patient monitoring.

Thus, the management of AP is still challenging mainly due to the delay in admission to hospital after the onset of symptoms and the difficulty in discriminating MAP from SAP, especially within the first 24 h. There is an urgent need for an early and accurate prediction of SAP to ensure timely interventions in a specialized care setting^[12]. The early recognition and diagnosis are an important goal in the optimal management of SAP. Severity assessment is indispensable to the selection of proper initial treatment in the management of AP.

Several prognostic scoring systems are being used in predicting SAP: Ranson's, Glasgow's, APACHE-II, the bedside index for severity of AP (BISAP), and computed tomography severity index (CTSI). Papachristou *et al*^[13] reported that the AUC for BISAP, Ranson's, APACHE-II and CTSI in predicting SAP are 0.81, 0.94, 0.78 and 0.84, respectively in 185 patients with AP and found that all these scoring systems had a high accuracy in predicting SAP in the first 24 h after admission. The components of the BISAP score are clinically relevant and easy to obtain. Lujano-Nicolás *et al*^[14] evaluated the severity of AP according to the Ranson's and APACHE-II scores on admission in 28 patients with AP and correlated these scales with the local pancreatic complications according to the Balthazar classification. They found that

these scales have discrepancies when compared with tomographic Balthazar and these scales were not correlated well with the tomographic Balthazar degrees. The Ranson's prognostic signs and the Glasgow's score can only be applied 48 h after admission. The APACHE-II score has the invaluable advantage of being useful within a few hours after admission, and it can be assessed serially. However, it is cumbersome, which limits its use in clinical practice. The current gold standard for staging AP combines the clinical criteria with CT, but because of the high cost, exposure to ionizing radiation, and lack of sensitivity and specificity in the early stage of the disease, it has limited availability.

Numerous efforts have been made in recent years to identify objective markers that can predict the severity of AP on admission. Various biochemical tests, such as C-reactive protein (CRP), tumor necrosis factor, IL-2 and IL-6, have been developed over the past decade for early diagnosis and prediction of severity of AP^[15-17]. However, except for CRP, none of them can accurately predict the disease severity within 24 h of onset, and the outcome in triage to the intensive care unit has not been reported^[18]. As there is no correlation between the degree of structural damage to pancreas and clinical manifestation of the disease, there has been no ideal predictive system or biochemical marker for this disease. Little is known about clinical predictors of early readmission for AP. The ideal predictors of the severity of AP are described as being simple, quick, highly sensitive, highly specific, safe, reproducible, and cheap. An immediate test with a high specificity, AUC and low NLR is required. Unfortunately, this ideal predictor is still not available^[19].

Adhesion molecules are involved in the inflammatory response during AP. ICAM-1, a single-chain transmembrane glycoprotein with a molecular weight of 80-110 kDa, consists of five Ig-like domains, a hydrophobic transmembrane domain and a short cytoplasmic C-terminal domain. Its ligand includes lymphocyte function-associated antigen-1 and macrophage antigen-1. Under physiological conditions, ICAM-1 is expressed at a low level in endothelial cells and epithelial cells or constitutively on the surface of alveolar cells, providing the underlying molecular basis for cell recognition, activation, proliferation, differentiation and motility, thereby helping stabilize the internal environment of the body. ICAM-1 also plays a key role in pathological events, such as inflammatory reactions, including acute renal failure and acute pancreatitis^[20].

One of the most common complications of AP is acute lung injury, during which ICAM-1 plays an important role by participating in leukocyte adhesion and activation as well as by inducing the "cascade effect" of inflammatory mediators, pulmonary microcirculation dysfunction and even acute respiratory distress syndrome, multiple organ failure or death. The upregulation of ICAM-1 expression in the lung during acute lung injury is one of main pathogeneses; the early detection of the ICAM-1 expression level may contribute to the prevention and treatment of acute lung injury^[3,4]. Sun *et al.*^[20] in-

vestigated the ICAM-1 in mediating the development of AP from a local disease to a systemic illness in rats and found that upregulation of ICAM-1 and subsequent leukocyte infiltration appear to be significant events of pancreatic and pulmonary injuries. Intracapillary leukocyte accumulation represents a novel protective and potentially lifesaving mechanism of hemostasis in acute pancreatitis. This process depends on the expression of lymphocyte function-associated antigen 1 and ICAM-1 and precedes the classical steps of the leukocyte recruitment cascade^[21]. Chooklin *et al.*^[22] measured the serum levels of pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory cytokines in 51 AP patients who were diagnosed with pancreatitis-associated lung injury with and without the development of organ dysfunction and found that in the pathogenesis of respiratory complications in AP cytokines, chemokines and adhesion molecules, in particular ICAM-1, play major roles. High ICAM-1 concentration was found in plasma during AP, which was not reduced by Dx treatment. Dexamethasone down-regulates ICAM-1 expression, but it does not completely prevent leukocyte recruitment during sodium taurocholate-induced AP^[23]. Pancreatic ICAM-1 expression was increased in single-nucleotide polymorphism as compared with the controls. After calcitonin gene-related peptide application, pancreatic ICAM-1 expression was attenuated^[24]. Graft pancreatitis is induced by ischemia/reperfusion injury in which neutrophil infiltration is believed to be a crucial early event. The data suggested that ICAM-1 was already up-regulated during cold ischemia, possibly representing the mechanism of early neutrophil infiltration observed in human pancreatic ischemia/reperfusion injury^[25].

Irrespective of the underlying etiology, the immune response is almost identical in severe cases of AP. While the triggering factors of AP are still poorly understood, cytokines are considered as important mediators in the pathophysiology of SAP. Perejaslov *et al.*^[26] reported that peak levels of sICAM-1 on admission in AP 87 patients had a subsequent decrease and these mediators are correlated with the disease severity, development of multiple organ dysfunction syndrome and necrosis and may be used as prognostic markers. Several reports showed that serum ICAM-1 levels are elevated during the course of AP and correlate with the severity of the disease and patient outcome. ICAM-1 can be detected as an early marker for the diagnosis of lung injury^[20]. Although serum ICAM-1 level was increased in AP patients and closely related to the development of SAP in many clinical studies, the details of the use of ICAM-1 for early diagnosis and prediction of SAP remain obscure, especially in the first 24 h after the admission. The aim of our prospective study was to evaluate the use of the ICAM-1 in early diagnosis and prediction of SAP, and to compare the sensitivity, specificity and prognostic value of this test with those of APACHE-II score and IL-6.

Among the 86 patients with AP in this study, 49 patients were diagnosed as having MAP and 36 as having SAP according to the Ranson's criteria. The mean serum

level of ICAM-1 in the SAP patients within the first 24 h of the onset of pain was significantly higher than in MAP patients and the healthy controls. The mean serum level of ICAM-1 in the SAP patients at 48-72 h after admission was obviously higher than in the SAP group. The result showed that ICAM-1 is a simple, rapid and reliable method for use within the first 24 h after admission. It has a higher specificity and a sensitivity for early diagnosis and prediction of SAP. The AUC value demonstrated that the prognostic accuracy of ICAM-1 is similar to the APACHE-II scoring system and obviously superior to IL-6 in distinguishing SAP from MAP. Previous reports showed the usefulness of serum IL-6 level in determining the severity of acute pancreatitis^[18], but our data indicated that the serum IL-6 level could not distinguish SAP from MAP within the first 24 h. The exact reason for the difference is still unknown. Although the APACHE-II scoring system has a high prognostic accuracy, it is too complex and cumbersome, which limits its clinical use. However, ICAM-1 has a relatively low NPV and does not allow it to be a stand-alone tool for diagnosis of acute pancreatitis; and the use of other conventional diagnostic tools remains a requirement.

In conclusion, we found that serum ICAM-1 levels rose within the first 24 h after the onset of AP and that early measurement of serum ICAM-1 levels could distinguish SAP from MAP. It has a higher sensitivity, specificity and NPV. It could be used as a test in screening patients with AP and predicting the outcome in patients with SAP. The predictive accuracy of ICAM-1 is similar to APACHE-II scoring system and obviously superior to IL-6. But its low NPV does not allow it to be a stand-alone tool for the diagnosis and prediction of AP. To identify a novel predictor of severity and outcome of AP is needed so as to improve the predictive accuracy.

COMMENTS

Background

Most cases of acute pancreatitis (AP) are mild and self limiting, and recover spontaneously, but approximately 20% of attacks turn to severe acute pancreatitis (SAP) with a life-threatening morbidity and a mortality rate of 20%-30%. There is no established biomarker for early diagnosis and prediction of severe pancreatitis. Early diagnosis and prediction of the severity of AP is of particular significance.

Research frontiers

Serum intercellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1) levels are elevated during the course of AP and correlate with the severity of the disease. ICAM-1 can be detected as an early marker for the diagnosis of lung injury. The details of the clinical use of ICAM-1 for early diagnosis and prediction of severity in AP remain obscure, especially in the first 24 h after the admission. This study evaluated the use of the ICAM-1 in early diagnosis and prediction of SAP, and compared the sensitivity, specificity and prognostic value of this test with those of acute physiology and chronic health evaluation (APACHE) II score and interleukin-6 (IL-6).

Innovations and breakthroughs

Serum ICAM-1 is elevated within the first 24 h after the onset of symptoms. Elevated ICAM-1 levels are associated with the severity of AP with a higher sensitivity, specificity and negative predictive value for early diagnosis and prediction of severity in AP. The predictive accuracy of ICAM-1 is similar to the APACHE-II scoring system and obviously superior to IL-6.

Applications

Serum ICAM-1 is an early marker for the diagnosis and prediction of SAP, and

the test is simple, rapid and reliable that can be used in clinic practice. The results obtained are important for both early diagnosis and treatment of pancreatitis.

Terminology

ICAM-1 is a single-chain transmembrane glycoprotein. Under physiological conditions, it is expressed at a low level in endothelial cells providing the underlying molecular basis for cell recognition, activation, proliferation, differentiation and motility. ICAM-1 also plays a key role in pathological events, such as inflammatory reactions, including acute renal failure and acute pancreatitis

Peer review

The manuscript reports that ICAM-1 is a useful marker for early diagnosis and a potential predictor of severe acute pancreatitis. These data are important for early treatment for pancreatitis patients.

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Prevalence of depressive and anxiety disorders in Chinese gastroenterological outpatients

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Abstract

AIM: To investigate the prevalence and physicians' detection rate of depressive and anxiety disorders in gastrointestinal (GI) outpatients across China.

METHODS: A hospital-based cross-sectional survey was conducted in the GI outpatient departments of 13 general hospitals. A total of 1995 GI outpatients were recruited and screened with the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS). The physicians of the GI departments performed routine clinical diagnosis and management without knowing the HADS score results. Subjects with HADS scores ≥ 8 were subsequently interviewed by psychiatrists using the Mini International Neuropsychiat-

ric Interview (MINI) to make further diagnoses.

RESULTS: There were 1059 patients with HADS score ≥ 8 and 674 (63.64%) of them undertook the MINI interview by psychiatrists. Based on the criteria of Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (4th edition), the adjusted current prevalence for depressive disorders, anxiety disorders, and comorbidity of both disorders in the GI outpatients was 14.39%, 9.42% and 4.66%, respectively. Prevalence of depressive disorders with suicidal problems [suicide attempt or suicide-related ideation prior or current; module C (suicide) of MINI score ≥ 1] was 5.84% in women and 1.64% in men. The GI physicians' detection rate of depressive and anxiety disorders accounted for 4.14%.

CONCLUSION: While the prevalence of depressive and anxiety disorders is high in Chinese GI outpatients, the detection rate of depressive and anxiety disorders by physicians is low.

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Key words: Depression; Anxiety; Prevalence; Gastrointestinal outpatients; Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview

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INTRODUCTION

Gastrointestinal (GI) disease is a serious illness, which

frequently affects a patient's physical and emotional wellbeing as well as being heavily affected by stress^[1-3]. Meanwhile depression and anxiety have been identified as risk factors for some GI diseases^[4-6].

Various studies using a variety of assessment methods have demonstrated that high levels of depression and anxiety exist in patients with GI symptoms^[7-9]. It has also been shown that patients with comorbid anxiety and depressive disorders tend towards more severe symptoms, longer recovery times, poorer outcomes, and greater use of healthcare resources^[10-12]. Despite the likelihood of GI patients to suffer from emotional distress, it has been reported that physicians in the GI department often fail to identify most cases of depression and/or anxiety, leading to under-treatment in 40%-90% of patients^[13-16].

Patients with depressive and anxiety disorders often have one or more somatic symptoms (e.g., cardiopulmonary or gastrointestinal), which may be partly induced by emotional disorders^[17-19]. On the other hand, many patients with depression or anxiety visit non-psychiatric departments, especially the GI department, for their physical complaints^[20-22]. All these facts contribute to the low detection rate of emotional disorders among GI patients.

It is necessary to determine prevalence estimates of emotional disorders in GI patients to facilitate reasonable medical resources allocation. These have been assessed in a number of studies throughout America, Europe, and China, including the Hong Kong and Taiwan regions^[15,23-25]. However, the economic status and cultural traditions of mainland China are unique, and likely to make the situation of mainland Chinese GI patients distinctive.

This is the first large-sample, multicenter study based on a mainland Chinese population to estimate the prevalence of depression and anxiety in adult GI outpatients. This cross-sectional study was carried out with GI outpatients from 13 tertiary general hospitals in Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, Changsha and Chengdu. The purpose of this study was to characterize the prevalence of depressive and/or anxiety disorders among GI outpatients and to determine the non-psychiatric physician identification rate of these disorders in GI outpatients.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Ethics

This survey was approved by the Shanghai Mental Health Center Ethics Committee. All patients provided informed written consent.

Subjects

A multi-center, cross-sectional study was carried out in the outpatient departments of 15 tertiary general hospitals in Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, Changsha, and Chengdu to estimate the prevalence of depressive and anxiety disorders in adult outpatients from gastroenterology, gynecology, cardiovascular and neurology depart-

ments. However, only 13 hospitals provided complete data for the GI department (one lacked a GI department, and the other incomplete patient data). Consecutive patients visiting outpatient departments were recruited for the study. Patients were included if they were over 18 years, consented to study participation, and were able to complete the questionnaires. Exclusion criteria included being previously screened, serious physical or mental condition, language or hearing problem, incomplete records, or ongoing psychological treatment. About 140 consecutive GI outpatients were investigated in each hospital during 4-5 consecutive working days randomly selected from the 22 normal workdays in a month by using SAS (v9.0) software.

Research instruments

The somatic symptoms, as well as depression/anxiety, were assessed with the Patient Health Questionnaire 15-Item (PHQ-15)^[26], Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS)^[27,28], and Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview (MINI)^[29]. PHQ-15 is a self-report questionnaire used to screen and assess somatic symptoms. It consists of 15 physical symptoms, scaled 0-2 points for each. The higher the score, the more severe the symptom. The 14-item HADS^[27,28] questionnaire evaluates severity of anxiety and depression using 7 items for each affliction, and is widely used in general hospitals. Each item's severity is rated from 0 (none) to 3 (severe). Scores ≥ 8 indicate probable anxiety or depression with great reliability and validity^[30], and were regarded as positive in the preliminary screening of this study. MINI^[29], a structured diagnostic instrument, is used to make diagnoses according to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Health Disorders (4th edition, DSM-IV) and the International Statistical Classification of Disease-10. The MINI Chinese version has good reliability and validity^[31-33].

Study design

This multi-center, cross-sectional study was carried out in five cities: Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, Chengdu, and Changsha (representing north, east, south, west and central China, respectively). In the first stage, outpatients were screened with PHQ-15 and HADS scales, and then visited GI physicians for their original complaints. The coordinators calculated scores of both scales, kept physicians blind to results, and recorded physicians' diagnosis and treatment. In the second stage, subjects with HADS scores ≥ 8 were assessed and diagnosed by psychiatrists with MINI. The study design is shown in Figure 1.

Statistical analysis

Data analysis and management were performed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences v17 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, United States). Demographic data were described by frequency and percentage, and the lack of data in one item, such as sex or diagnosis, was treated as a missing value. Subjects who were positive in the preliminary screening stage but did not complete the psy-

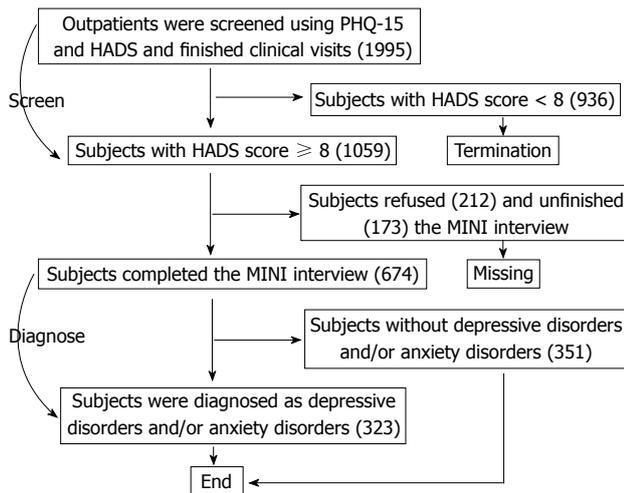


Figure 1 Flowchart of the study on prevalence of depressive disorders and/or anxiety disorders among gastrointestinal outpatients from 13 general hospitals in China. PHQ-15: Patient Health Questionnaire 15-Item; HADS: Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale; MINI: Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview.

chiatrists' interview were excluded.

According to a previous publication^[34], prevalence was described as the percentage of positive subjects among those who completed the trial, and adjusted prevalence was calculated according to the HADS score distribution among all eligible subjects. The 95% CI of adjusted prevalence were computed using the Gaussian approximation to the log-likelihood. Categorical data, such as differences of prevalence in sex and age, or differences between individuals with and without depressive and/or anxiety disorders, were compared using the χ^2 test at the < 0.05 significance level. Consecutive data with normal distribution, such as age, were expressed as mean \pm SD and analyzed using the *t* test.

"Recognized" or "detected" indicated diagnosis of depressive or anxiety disorders according to a physician's clinical judgment, prescription of antidepressants or anti-anxiety drugs, or referral to psychiatry or psychology departments.

RESULTS

Demographic characteristics

The study comprised 1995 outpatients, aged 18-89 (45.2 ± 15.6) years and 54.19% were female. The patients' demographic characteristics are presented in the first two columns of Table 1. One thousand and fifty-nine subjects screened positive (HADS score ≥ 8), 580 (54.77%) of whom were female. Among these 1059, 674 completed the second stage screening of psychiatrists' interview with MINI. Among the missing subjects ($n = 385$), 173 (44.9%) did not complete the further interview and 212 (55.1%) refused to attend the interview (Figure 1). There were no significant differences between missed and followed-up cases in sex ($\chi^2 = 0.066$, $P = 0.797$) or age (43.72 ± 15.45 vs 42.89 ± 14.92 , $t = -0.860$, $P = 0.390$).

Of the completed subjects, 371 (55.0%) were women

and 323 (47.9%) were diagnosed with one or more types of depressive disorders and/or anxiety disorders. Among the 323 confirmed subjects, 194 (60.1%) were women (other characteristics are described in the third column of Table 1). Subjects with depressive and/or anxiety disorders were more likely to be female and younger than those without such disorders (Table 1).

Prevalence of depressive and anxiety disorders in gastrointestinal outpatients

The adjusted prevalence of depressive and anxiety disorders are shown in Table 2. One hundred and eighty-one subjects had current depression disorders, 117 had current anxiety disorders, and 59 had current comorbidity. This indicates that 32.6% (59/181) of individuals with current depressive disorders had at least one type of anxiety disorder, and 50.4% (59/117) of subjects with current anxiety disorders were affected by depressive disorders as well.

The prevalence of all types of depressive disorders and anxiety disorders, according to DSM-IV criteria, are detailed in Table 2. Among the depressive disorders, depressive episode was the most common with an adjusted current prevalence of 11.23%, while substance-induced mood disorder had the lowest adjusted current prevalence (0.35%). Among 181 outpatients with depressive disorders, 51 (28.2%) had suicidal problems [suicide attempt or suicide-related ideation prior or current; module C (suicide) of MINI, score ≥ 1], indicating that over a quarter of individuals with depressive disorders were at suicide risk.

Sex differences among current prevalence of depressive disorders and/or anxiety disorders

The current adjusted prevalence of depressive disorders and/or anxiety disorders was significantly different between male and female outpatients (Table 3). The prevalence of depressive disorders, anxiety disorders, and either depressive or anxiety disorders was significantly ($P < 0.05$) higher in female GI outpatients. The adjusted current prevalence of depressive disorders with suicidal problems was statistically significantly higher in women (mean 5.84%; 95% CI: 4.44-7.24) than in men (mean 1.64%; 95% CI: 0.82-2.46) ($\chi^2 = 23.096$, $P = 0.00$), and the mean relative risk was 3.71 (95% CI: 2.10-6.56, $P < 0.01$).

Physicians' detection and treatment of depressive and anxiety disorders in gastrointestinal outpatients

Among 323 digestive outpatients who were diagnosed with depressive disorders and/or anxiety disorders by MINI, complete information of physicians' diagnoses and treatments was available for 290 cases ($n = 13$ missing diagnosis information, and $n = 21$ missing treatment information).

The detection rate by physicians was 4.14% (12/290). Among the 12 detected subjects, five were treated with psychotropic drugs, including amitriptyline or doxepin ($n = 2$). Another seven were referred to the psychiatry de-

Table 1 Baseline characteristics and comparison of subjects with and without depressive disorders and/or anxiety disorders *n* (%)

Characteristic	Screened subjects (<i>n</i> = 1995)	Frequency and percentage of subjects with and without depressive disorders and/or anxiety disorders according to the MINI (<i>n</i> = 674)		χ^2	<i>P</i> value
		With depressive disorders and/or anxiety disorders (<i>n</i> = 323)	Without depressive disorders and/or anxiety disorders (<i>n</i> = 351)		
Sex					
Male	914 (45.81)	29 (39.94)	173 (49.29)	6.116	0.013 ^a
Female	1081 (54.19)	194 (60.06)	178 (50.71)		
Occupation				χ^2	<i>P</i> value
Laborer/attendant	282 (14.14)	52 (16.10)	46 (13.11)	5.595	0.588
Office worker	227 (11.38)	38 (11.76)	45 (12.82)		
Businessman	139 (6.97)	25 (7.74)	25 (7.12)		
Teacher	110 (5.51)	17 (5.26)	19 (5.41)		
Manager	244 (12.23)	36 (11.15)	48 (13.68)		
Farmer	264 (13.23)	43 (13.31)	40 (11.40)		
Soldier	9 (0.45)	0 (0)	3 (0.85)		
Other	720 (36.09)	112 (34.67)	124 (35.33)		
Age groups, yr		mean \pm SD	mean \pm SD	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i> value
18-29	377 (18.90)	43.01 \pm 14.80	46.12 \pm 15.74	3.330	0.001 ^b
30-44	659 (33.03)	69 (21.36)	85 (24.22)		
45-59	562 (28.17)	115 (35.60)	114 (32.48)		
60-	397 (19.90)	93 (28.80)	95 (27.07)		
		46 (14.24)	57 (16.24)		

The last four columns present the characteristics and the comparison of the two groups (outpatients with and without depressive disorders and/or anxiety disorders). There are statistically significant differences between the two groups in sex (^a*P* < 0.05 *vs* with depressive disorders group) and age (^b*P* < 0.01 *vs* with depressive disorders group) by χ^2 test and *t* test, respectively. MINI: Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview.

Table 2 Adjusted prevalence of depressive and anxiety disorders among gastrointestinal outpatients in 13 general hospitals in mainland China and Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Health Disorders (4th edition) by using the Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview

Diagnosis	Frequency, adjusted prevalence (%) and 95% CI (%) based on results of the MINI				
		Current		Lifetime	
GI outpatients in 13 general hospitals					
Depressive disorders	181	14.39	(12.85-15.93)	228	18.35 (16.65-20.05)
Anxiety disorders	117	9.42	(8.14-10.70)	122	9.82 (8.51-11.13)
Comorbid depressive and anxiety disorders	59	4.66	(3.74-5.58)	69	5.46 (4.46-6.46)
Depressive disorders or anxiety disorders	239	19.20	(17.47-20.93)	281	22.71 (20.87-24.55)
DSM-IV by using the MINI interview					
Depressive episode	141	11.23	(9.84-12.62)	183	14.79 (13.23-16.35)
Depressive disorder with suicidal problems	51	3.91	(3.06-4.76)	58	4.46 (3.55-5.37)
Mood disorders due to physical disease	26	2.01	(1.39-2.63)	32	2.51 (1.87-3.15)
Dysthymia	16	1.25	(0.76-1.74)	34	2.66 (1.95-3.37)
Substance-induced mood disorders	4	0.35	(0.10-0.61)	4	0.35 (0.10-0.61)
General anxiety disorder	57	4.66	(3.74-5.58)	57	4.66 (3.74-5.58)
Specific phobia	20	1.65	(1.09-2.21)	20	1.65 (1.09-2.21)
Social phobia (social anxiety disorder)	20	1.60	(1.05-2.15)	20	1.60 (1.05-2.15)
Panic disorder	17	1.35	(0.84-1.86)	24	1.95 (1.34-2.56)
Agoraphobia	17	1.35	(0.84-1.86)	21	1.75 (1.17-2.33)
Obsessive-compulsive disorder	16	1.30	(0.80-1.80)	16	1.30 (0.80-1.80)

Depressive episode is the most common depressive disorder, while substance-induced mood disorder has the lowest adjusted current prevalence. The most common anxiety disorder is general anxiety disorder, followed by social anxiety disorder, panic disorder, agoraphobia, and obsessive-compulsive disorders. MINI: Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview; GI: Gastrointestinal; DSM-IV: Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Health Disorders (4th edition).

partment. Meanwhile, three out of 67 (4.48%) subjects with suicide risk were identified and received psychiatric management, including psychiatry department referral (*n* = 1) and doxepin treatment (*n* = 2).

DISCUSSION

The current study evaluated the prevalence of depressive and anxiety disorders among mainland Chinese out-

patients visiting GI clinics, regardless of confirmed GI diagnosis. The adjusted current prevalence of depressive disorders, anxiety disorders, and comorbid disorders was 14.39%, 9.42% and 4.66%, respectively.

It is well recognized that depressive and anxiety disorders impair life quality and cause a heavy disease burden^[35-38]. Nevertheless, more than half of patients with depression or anxiety visit non-psychiatric departments, especially the GI department, for somatic symp-

Table 3 Current adjusted prevalence of depressive disorders and/or anxiety disorders and comparison between men and women

Diagnosis based on MINI	Frequency, adjusted current prevalence (%) and 95% CI (%) based on results of MINI exam				χ^2	P value
	Men		Women			
Depressive disorders	70	12.06 (9.95-14.17)	111	16.40 (14.19-18.61)	7.555	0.006 ^b
Anxiety disorders	46	8.00 (6.24-9.76)	116	10.75 (8.90-12.60)	4.339	0.037 ^a
Depressive disorders and anxiety disorders	24	4.06 (2.78-5.34)	35	5.10 (3.79-6.41)	1.224	0.269
Depressive disorders or anxiety disorders	92	16.01 (13.63-18.39)	147	21.96 (19.49-24.43)	11.285	0.001 ^b

There are significant differences between male and female patients in the current prevalence of depressive disorders (^b $P < 0.01$), anxiety disorders (^a $P < 0.05$) and either depressive or anxiety disorders (^b $P < 0.01$), respectively. MINI: Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview.

toms^[20,21,39,40]. However, most general physicians are not appropriately trained in psychiatry and cannot diagnose or treat depressive and anxiety disorders. Thus, GI physicians tend towards a low detection rate^[41-43]. It is meaningful to investigate overall prevalence of depressive and/or anxiety disorders in GI outpatients to understand the actual patient population involved and the importance of diagnosing such disorders.

According to our knowledge, this is the largest study investigating the prevalence of depressive and anxiety disorders in GI outpatients from tertiary general hospitals in mainland China. The reliability of the current prevalence figures was assured by the use of experienced psychiatrists administering a structured diagnostic instrument. The tertiary general hospitals enrolled in this study were distributed in north (Beijing), east (Shanghai), south (Guangzhou), west (Chengdu) and central (Changsha) China, and represent the majority of national tertiary general hospitals. In addition, the DSM-IV-based MINI was used by experienced psychiatrists to produce accurate and consistent diagnoses. Finally, the study was carried out in two stages, preliminary screening and diagnostic interview.

Prevalence of depressive disorders and/or anxiety disorders in general hospitals or primary care

The overall prevalence figures of depressive disorders and/or anxiety disorders in general medical care have been reported previously^[15,44]. The current adjusted prevalence of depressive disorders in our study was 14.39%. However, this value was 19.5% in a meta-analysis of primary care patients in ten countries^[41]. The current adjusted prevalence of anxiety disorders reported in our study was 9.42%, which was lower than the 19.0% prevalence reported among Belgian outpatients in 86 general practices^[45] and the 19.5% prevalence reported in 15 United States general medical care centers^[15]. These apparent discrepancies may be a result of subjects in the previous studies being from primary care and the Primary Care Evaluation of Mental Disorders being used for diagnosis.

Furthermore, other previous domestic investigations have reported varying prevalence of depressive disorders and anxiety disorders. Qin *et al.*^[46] reported prevalence of 11.01% for depressive disorders in internal medical outpatients from 23 general hospitals in Shenyang. The

prevalence of depression was 12.5% in family practices in Taiwan^[25], while the prevalence of anxiety disorders was 11.61% in six tertiary general hospitals in Shenyang^[42]. Generally speaking, these different results were due to variances in subjects and investigation instruments. The prevalence of depressive disorders and/or anxiety disorders in our study and other domestic studies are lower than results from abroad, which may relate to differences in ethnicity or culture^[47,48].

The 1.25% current prevalence of dysthymia, the third top depressive disorder in our study, was higher than the 0.6% prevalence in Shanghai subjects reported by the WHO^[43] in 1990, but was similar to the 2.1% mean prevalence for all international sites that participated in the research and the 2.8% prevalence of dysthymia in the study of Qin *et al.*^[46]. It was lower than the 12.6% prevalence of dysthymia among outpatients from 86 general practices in Belgium^[45].

It is well-known that comorbidity of depressive disorders and anxiety disorders can exacerbate symptoms, and co-occurrence of anxiety is an independent risk factor of suicide among depressive patients^[35,49]. In the current study, anxiety disorders were comorbid in 32.6% of depressive individuals. This comorbid proportion in depressive patients was found to be 68.9% in a study conducted in 15 centers of China^[50], and 50.6% in the United States^[51]. It is a common phenomenon that depressive disorders and anxiety disorders are in comorbidity among outpatients in general medical care.

Detection rate by physicians in general hospitals or primary care

Detection rate in this study was 4.14%, similar to the 4% reported for Shenyang^[42,46]. A United States-based study of outpatients with GI symptoms revealed that 52% of anxious patients and 26% of depressive patients were recognized by gastroenterologists^[16]. Family practices surveyed in Taiwan^[25] indicated that the recognition rate of depression disorders was 12.5%, and that of general anxiety disorder was 8.0%. Prevalence of depression disorders in internal medicine inpatients was 26.9% and only 40% of these patients received antidepressant treatment^[52]. Another MINI-based study of internal medicine inpatients revealed that prevalence of depressive disorders was 26%, and 43.8% of them were treated with antidepressants^[53]. A meta-analysis conducted by

Mitchell *et al.*^[41] indicated that correct diagnosis rate of clinicians was 47.3%-50.1%. The remarkable difference in detection rate between other investigations and ours suggests the urgent need to improve the diagnosing rates in mainland China.

Meanwhile, comorbid disorders deserve great attention due to their significant correlation to suicide risk. Current prevalence of depressive disorders with suicidal problems was 3.91% in our study, suggesting that over a quarter of patients with depressive disorders were at suicide risk, while only 4.48% of those patients were recognized. Carson *et al.*^[54] indicated that morbidity of major depression with suicide ideation was 29.9%, while its recognition rate by physicians was 58%. Moreover, prevalence of depression and/or anxiety disorders in our study was higher in females than in males, which is consistent with results in Qin's study^[42,46], and reminds physicians to pay more attention to female outpatients with mood problems.

Discrepancies of prevalence and detection rate between our study and previous studies likely reflect the limitations of methodology, which require significant effort to be overcome in subsequent research.

These findings confirm the high prevalence of depressive and anxiety disorders and disappointing detection and treatment rate in the GI departments, and highlight the particular challenge posed by the contrasts between these two rates. Although all 13 tertiary hospitals represent the top general hospitals in China, low recognition and treatment rates raise significant concerns and indicate the need to improve the physician's abilities to diagnose and identify emotional disorders in GI patients.

Several potential explanations exist for the high prevalence of depressive and anxiety disorders and low detection rate in GI outpatients. Physicians are less specialized than psychiatrists in recognizing mental disorders correctly. Furthermore, culture may limit physicians' abilities in this regard. In the Chinese traditional culture, social and cognitive processes or mental status are closely related, which contributes to interpreting emotional distress and anxiety as social or ethical problems rather than mental disorders. Somatic symptoms can also serve as cultural idioms of depressive emotion^[55-57]. Depressed or anxious people are inclined to experience physical symptoms, masking the underlying mental disorder^[39]. In addition, there is a distorted cognition of mental disorders. It is common to consider depressive individuals as having no self-control and weak. Jorm *et al.*^[58] reported that around a quarter of Australian adults consider antidepressants as harmful to suicidal depressive patients, who are more likely to reject relevant treatments, including psychotherapy. Finally, the established stigma of mental disorders causes hiding of emotional problems and rationalization to resist therapy. Dramatic reports in the mainstream media of aggressive behavior by mental disorder sufferers prejudice both patients and physicians against the disorder^[59-61].

Previous studies have proven that depressive and anxiety disorders influence prognosis of physical diseases, raise medical risk, and increase economic burden^[62,63].

However, appropriate treatment does benefit recovery from physical disease and maintenance of social function^[64-66]. Therefore, clinicians should improve their ability to diagnose depression and anxiety, especially in patients with complaints of unexplained GI symptoms.

Limitations

Several limitations exist in the current study. Firstly, excluding outpatients who could not complete the investigation due to severe physical or mental dysfunction may have biased the results since severity of physical symptoms is positively related to depression, anxiety or other mental problems^[67,68]. Secondly, the 385 missing cases (due to busy schedules and denial of mental issues) from the diagnostic interview accounted for 19.3% of the total. There were no statistically significant differences between missing and follow-up cases in sex ($\chi^2 = 0.066$, $P = 0.797$) or age ($t = -0.860$, $P = 0.390$). Although statistical adjustment was performed, representation of the sample in the study may have been impacted.

COMMENTS

Background

Depressive disorders and anxiety disorders are common in general hospitals and represent significant risks to patients' quality-of-life. Patients visiting non-psychiatric departments may have at least one somatic symptom which is partly of emotional origin, challenging non-psychiatric physicians to detect emotional disorders.

Research frontiers

Emotional disorders in gastrointestinal (GI) patients have been assessed in a number of studies in America, Europe and China, including non-mainland regions of Hong Kong and Taiwan. However, the economic status and cultural traditions of mainland China are quite distinctive from foreign countries and even the non-mainland regions of China. It is important to understand the mental health situation of mainland Chinese GI patients.

Innovations and breakthroughs

The current study determined the prevalence of depressive and/or anxiety disorders and physicians' detection rates in tertiary care hospitals across mainland China. In particular, this is the first multi-center study from the mainland of China with a large number of patients to report the prevalence of depression and anxiety in adult GI outpatients. Furthermore, the diagnosis of depressive and anxiety disorders was made with the Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview diagnostic instrument.

Applications

The results of this study suggest that clinicians should improve their abilities to detect emotional disorders. Furthermore, they serve to remind the government or medical institutions of the importance of promoting productive interactions between psychiatry and other departments.

Peer review

This study is well designed including group analysis and statistics. In particular, this is the first multi-center study from the mainland of China with a large number of patients to report the prevalence of depression and anxiety in adult GI outpatients.

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Evaluation of malignancy using Ki-67, p53, EGFR and COX-2 expressions in gastrointestinal stromal tumors

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p53 expression was also significantly correlated with mitotic rate and the risk of malignancy ($\chi^2 = 9.92$, $P = 0.04$; $\chi^2 = 9.97$; $P = 0.04$). Over-expression of Ki-67 was strongly correlated with poor survival ($\chi^2 = 10.44$, $P = 0.006$), but no correlation was found between the expression of p53, EGFR or COX-2 and survival. Multivariate analysis further demonstrated that Ki-67 expression (relative risk = 15.78, 95% CI: 4.25-59.37) could be used as an independent prognostic value for GIST patients. Adjuvant imatinib therapy could improve clinical outcomes in the patients with high risk and intermediate risk of recurrence after complete tumor resections (median survival time: 52 mo vs 37 mo, $\chi^2 = 7.618$, $P = 0.006$).

CONCLUSION: Our results indicated that the expression of Ki-67 could be used as an independent prognostic factor for GIST patients.

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Key words: Gastrointestinal stromal tumor; Prognosis; Ki-67 alteration; p53; Epidermal growth factor receptor

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Abstract

AIM: To investigate the role of expressions of Ki-67, p53, epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) and cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) in gastrointestinal stromal tumor (GIST) grading and prognosis.

METHODS: Tumor tissue was collected retrospectively from 96 patients with GIST. Antibodies against Ki-67, p53, EGFR and COX-2 were used for immunohistochemical staining. Tumor grading was designated according to a consensus system and the staining was quantified in 3 categories for each antibody in the statistical analysis.

RESULTS: The Ki-67 expression in GISTs was significantly associated with the size of the tumors, mitotic rate and the risk of malignancy ($\chi^2 = 15.51$, $P = 0.02$; $\chi^2 = 22.27$, $P < 0.001$; $\chi^2 = 20.05$; $P < 0.001$). The

INTRODUCTION

Gastrointestinal stromal tumor (GIST) is one of the most frequent mesenchymal neoplasms of the gastroin-

testinal tract. In the elderly, micro-GIST (the tumor size smaller than 1 cm) is detected in 20%-30% of individuals over 60 years old^[1,2]. GIST occurs along the gastrointestinal tract and commonly invades in the stomach and small intestine. The tumors rarely arise from extragastrintestinal sites, such as omentum or mesentery^[3]. Most GISTs express c-kit. Monoclonal antibodies against c-kit, DOG1 and protein kinase C theta have been developed as helpful diagnostic adjuncts in pathology^[4-6].

GISTs have a wide clinical spectrum, ranging from virtually benign to highly aggressive tumors. Up to 30% of GISTs recur and progress to metastatic disease even after the complete excision of tumors. Despite a remarkable progress in the understanding of GISTs, it is still difficult to make a prognosis due to the variability of disease^[7]. According to the National Institutes of Health (NIH) classification system, GISTs are classified into four categories: very low, low, intermediate and high risk^[8]. The prognosis of patients is commonly stratified based on tumor size and mitotic counts in the NIH system. Previous studies have demonstrated that nuclear atypia and tumor necrosis all contribute to prognostic outcomes of GIST patients. Further, some studies showed that gastric GISTs had lower risks of recurrence than nongastric tumors with the same size and same mitotic count^[9]. The four-point classification only distinguishes GISTs with high-risk from those with low-risk^[10]. The system using multiple histopathological parameters for GIST prognosis is subjective and lacks reproducibility^[11].

The proliferation marker Ki-67, tumor suppressor gene *p53*, cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) and epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) have been identified as prognostic biomarkers in tumors of epithelial origin. However, there has been no study analyzing these markers systematically in a large cohort of mesenchymal tumors, especially in GISTs^[12,13]. In this study, Ki-67, *p53*, EGFR and COX-2 expressions were fully investigated in the GIST tumor specimens from 96 patients and the grade of the tumor was established based on the immunohistochemical staining of each protein. The grades were then compared with patients' clinical features and roles of prognostic values for GISTs were evaluated. The study indicated that determination of these tumorigenic and cell proliferative proteins provides alternative measurements for follow-up and prognosis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients

From January 2005 through December 2009, 134 patients were initially diagnosed as having mesenchymal gastrointestinal tumors at Jilin University First Hospital. Thirty-three patients were excluded from the study due to recurrent tumors or the tumors being partially resected. Thus, 101 patients underwent successful surgical operations for complete resection of tumors. Following the surgery, patients with high-risk and intermediate risk were treated with imatinib (Glivec[®], Novartis Pharmaceuticals,

Table 1 Clinicopathological features of 96 patients with gastrointestinal stromal tumor

	n	% of 96 GISTs
Age (yr, median age = 55 yr)		
< 40	12	12.5
40-60	52	54.2
> 60	32	33.3
Sex		
Male	57	59.4
Female	39	40.6
Site		
Esophagus	3	3.1
Gastric	45	46.9
Intestine	37	38.5
EGIST	11	11.5
Tumor size (cm, median size = 7.0)		
≤ 2	7	7.3
> 2 to ≤ 5	29	30.2
> 5 to ≤ 10	34	35.4
> 10	26	27.1
Mitotic rate (per 50 HPFs)		
≤ 5	54	56.3
6 to 10	28	29.2
> 10	14	14.6
Risk of malignancy		
High risk	45	46.9
Intermediate risk	24	25.0
Low risk	24	25.0
Very low risk	3	3.1

GISTs: Gastrointestinal stromal tumors; EGIST: Extra GIST; HPFs: High-power fields.

Basel, Switzerland) at a dose of 400 mg/d for 3 years. No imatinib treatment was given before the surgery. Five cases were lost to follow-up. Ninety-six patients were retrospectively evaluated in the study. Informed consents were obtained from all patients and the study was approved by the local human ethical committee of Jilin University First Hospital. Original hematoxylin and eosin-stained sections were reviewed in each case by two pathologists (Jin MS and Wang YP) according to GIST characteristics described by Miettinen^[14]. All tumors from 96 patients were confirmed to be GISTs based on a combination of histological evaluations (highly cellular spindles/epithelioids/mixed cell tumors), and c-kit, DOG1, CD34 positive staining. The clinical information regarding the patients is summarized in Table 1.

Immunohistochemical analysis

Histological sections (4 μm) of 10% formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded material were used for immunohistochemical staining. Prior to a primary antibody staining, the slide was pretreated with citric acid or ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid buffer in a pressure cooker for antigen retrieval. Endogenous peroxidase activity was quenched by 3% H₂O₂ blocking reagent for 10 min. The slide was incubated with a primary antibody at 4 °C overnight, and then immunostained with the avidin-biotin peroxidase complex (DAKO, CA). Finally, the slide was stained with diaminobenzidine according to the manufacturer's protocol (DAKO, CA). The slide was

rinsed three times with phosphate buffered saline after each step of staining. The sections were stained with primary antibodies against c-kit (Clone: YR145, dilution: 1/50, Cell Marque Corporation, CA), CD34 (QBEnd/10, dilution: 1/100, Neomarkers, CA), Ki-67 (MIB-1, dilution: 1/100, DAKO, Carpinteria, CA), DOG1 (SP31, dilution: 1/100, Spring Bioscience, Pleasanton), SMA (IA4, dilution: 1/200, Cell Marque Corporation, CA), p27 (1B4, dilution: 1/20, Novocastra), p53 (SP5, dilution: 1/100, Zymed Laboratories, San Francisco), S-100 (6E6, dilution: 1/100, Neomarkers, CA), Desmin (D33, dilution: 1/50, Cell Marque Corporation, CA), EGFR (EGFR.113, dilution: 1/200, Novocastra Laboratories Ltd, Newcastle, United Kingdom), and COX-2 (SP21, dilution: 1/50, Neomarkers, CA, United States), respectively. All primary antibodies used in the study were biotinylated monoclonal antibodies. The stained slides were evaluated quantitatively or semi-quantitatively by two independent pathologists who were blinded from clinical data. Percentages of positive cells stained with a special antibody observed by two pathologists were consistent and the mean values were determined.

The nuclear staining for Ki-67 and p53, and cytoplasmic immunostaining for EGFR and COX-2, were considered as positive cells of the reaction. According to previous studies^[15,16], the following scoring assessments for Ki-67 and p53 were used. The score 0 was assigned for < 5%, 1 for > 5% and < 10%, 2 for > 10% of Ki-67 staining positive cells. The p53 scoring system was 0 assigned for < 5%, 1 for > 5% and < 25%, 2 for > 25% of p53 staining positive cells. EGFR scoring system was 0 assigned for < 10%, 1 for > 10% and < 60%, 2 for > 60% of EGFR positive cells based on the systems described by Nakagawa *et al*^[17] and Gumurdulu *et al*^[18]. The COX-2 scoring system was 0 assigned for no positive cells; 1 for < 25% and score 2 for > 25% of COX-2 staining positive cells according to Fux *et al*^[19].

Statistical analysis

The Chi-square test and Fisher's exact test were used to analyze relationships between clinicopathological features and expression levels of biomarkers. Kaplan-Meier test was applied with a log-rank test to study associations between categorical variables and the mean values of survival among groups. Cox proportional hazards regression analysis was used to estimate a hazard risk for survival and 95% CI was applied. The SPSS program (version 18.0) was used for statistical analysis. A *P* value of < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Clinicopathological findings and follow-up

Clinicopathological features of the patients are summarized in Table 1. The median age of 96 patients was 55 years (range, 26-82 years). Histomorphology showed that the neoplastic cells were predominantly spindle-shaped (83/96, 86.5%). Based on the modified NIH risk

consensus system, 45 (46.9%), 24 (25.0%), 24 (25.0%) and 3 (3.1%) cases were classified as high-risk, intermediate-risk, low risk and very low risk categories, respectively. Fifty-three cases (55.2%) had mild nuclear atypia; 32 cases (33.4%) showed severe nuclear atypia, but 11 patients (11.4%) had no nuclear atypia. Tumor necrosis was found in 39 cases of the patients (40.6%).

At the time of study, the mean or the median duration of the follow-up period was 31 mo or 29 mo, respectively. Medical charts were available for 96 of 101 patients (95%). Sixty-nine patients (54.2%) received the imatinib treatment at a dose of 400 mg/d for 13 mo to 36 mo (median, 26 mo). Thirty-seven patients (82%) from the high risk group and 15 patients (62.5%) from the intermediate group required the imatinib treatment. Disease specific 1, 2, 3 and 4 year survival probabilities were 0.97, 0.89, 0.79, and 0.77 (0.65-0.87), respectively. Of the 96 cases, 19 patients (19.8%) died from GISTs and 6 patients (6.3%) died from unrelated causes.

Immunohistochemical findings

Eighty-eight (91.3%) tumor specimens were stained positive for c-kit. The tumors isolated from 8 patients (8.7%) were negative for c-kit but positive for DOG1 and/or CD34 staining. Reactivity with Desmin was found in 3 (3.1%) cases. Positive SMA and S-100 staining were also noted in 46 (47.9%) and 12 (12.5%) cases, respectively. Based on the Ki-67 index, 53.1% of tumors (*n* = 51) scored 0; 34.4% (*n* = 33) scored 1; and 12.5% (*n* = 12) scored 2. 34.4% of tumor specimens (*n* = 33) were p53 staining positive in the nuclei of over 25% of the cells. EGFR staining was found in most cases. Forty-two (43.8%) cases scored 2, and 27 (28.1%) cases scored 1 for EGFR staining. COX-2 overexpressed in 36 (37.5%) cases (Table 2 and Figure 1).

Clinicopathological features and GIST grades categorized by the staining of Ki-67, p53, EGFR or COX-2 are established in Table 3. The expression of Ki-67 was significantly associated with tumor size (*P* = 0.02), mitotic rate (*P* < 0.001) and the risk of malignancy (*P* < 0.001). The p53 expression was also correlated with mitotic rate (*P* = 0.04), tumor site (*P* = 0.02) and the risk of malignancy (*P* = 0.04). The levels of COX-2 protein were significantly higher in gastric tumors and spindle cell-like tumors (*P* < 0.001 and *P* = 0.05, respectively). In contrast, no correlation was found between the EGFR expression and clinicopathological factors or the risk of malignancy.

Survival analysis

The 3-year survival rates for disease specific survival (DSS) were 100%, 89%, 79% and 67% for groups at very low-risk, low-risk, intermediate-risk and high risk by the modified NIH risk categories, respectively. Associations between DSS and different protein biomarkers were analyzed using a multivariate analysis (Table 3 and Figure 2). The survival rates were strongly associated with tumor size (*P* = 0.004), mitotic count (*P* = 0.001),

Table 2 Ki-67, P53, epidermal growth factor receptor, cyclooxygenase-2 expression related to clinicopathological features

Variable	Ki-67				P53				EGFR				COX-2			
	0+	1+	2+	P value	0+	1+	2+	P value	0+	1+	2+	P value	0+	1+	2+	P value
Tumor size (cm)																
≤ 2	6	1	0	0.02	3	3	1	0.47	1	3	3	0.41	2	2	3	0.07
> 2 to ≤ 5	21	7	1		8	14	7		6	12	11		17	7	5	
> 5 to ≤ 10	15	15	4		9	10	15		11	8	15		20	9	5	
> 10	9	10	7		5	11	10		9	4	13		21	1	4	
Total	51	33	12		25	38	33		27	27	42		60	19	17	
Mitotic rate (per 50 HPFs)																
≤ 5	39	12	3	< 0.001	17	20	17	0.04	16	16	22	0.77	38	8	8	0.41
> 5 to ≤ 10	10	14	4		8	13	7		7	6	15		14	8	6	
> 10	2	7	5		0	5	9		4	5	5		8	3	3	
Risk of malignancy																
Very low + low risk	23	4	0	< 0.001	9	11	7	0.04	6	11	10	0.56	17	6	4	0.50
Intermediate risk	13	9	2		9	11	4		7	5	12		12	5	7	
High risk	15	20	10		7	16	22		14	11	20		31	8	6	

EGFR: Epidermal growth factor receptor; COX-2: Cyclooxygenase-2; HPFs: High-power fields.

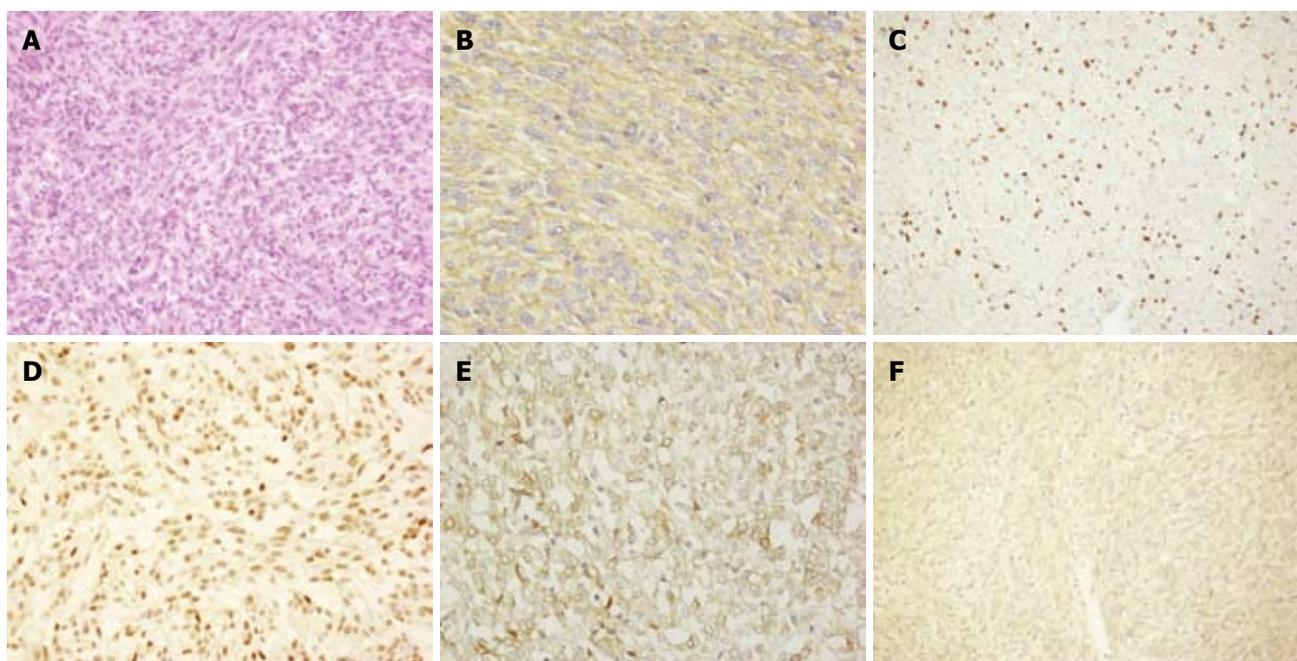


Figure 1 Images of gastrointestinal stromal tumor using hematoxylin-eosin staining and immunohistochemical staining. A: Hematoxylin-eosin stain; B: DOG1 stain; C: Ki-67 stain; D: P53 stain; E: Epidermal growth factor receptor stain; F: Cyclooxygenase-2 stain.

tumor location ($P = 0.018$), the NIH modified risk criteria ($P < 0.001$, Figure 2A), Ki-67 amplification ($P < 0.001$, Figure 2B), and adjuvant imatinib therapy (median survival period 52 mo *vs* 37 mo, $\chi^2 = 7.618$, $P = 0.006$, Figure 2C). No significance was found when comparing survival rates with the EGFR expression, or the COX-2 expression. In the high-risk group, Ki-67 overexpression was significantly associated with poor survival ($\chi^2 = 10.44$, $P = 0.006$), but no statistical significance was found between the p53 expression and survival ($\chi^2 = 4.744$, $P = 0.089$). Using a multivariate analysis, a poor survival was observed in the high risk category [relative risk (RR) = 12.23; 95% CI: 1.61-92.81] graded using the modified NIH risk consensus system or in category 2

scored by the Ki-67 expression (RR = 15.78; 95% CI: 4.25-59.37) (Table 3).

DISCUSSION

In the absence of reliable genetic and immunohistochemical biomarkers in GISTs, the tumor size and mitotic rate are often used to assess risk probabilities in GIST patients. Large retrospective cohort studies have shown that the NIH classification carries substantial prognostic value^[20]. Using classical morphological parameters, our results were consistent with previous studies on the prognosis of GIST patients.

Ki-67, a nuclear protein associated with cell prolifer-

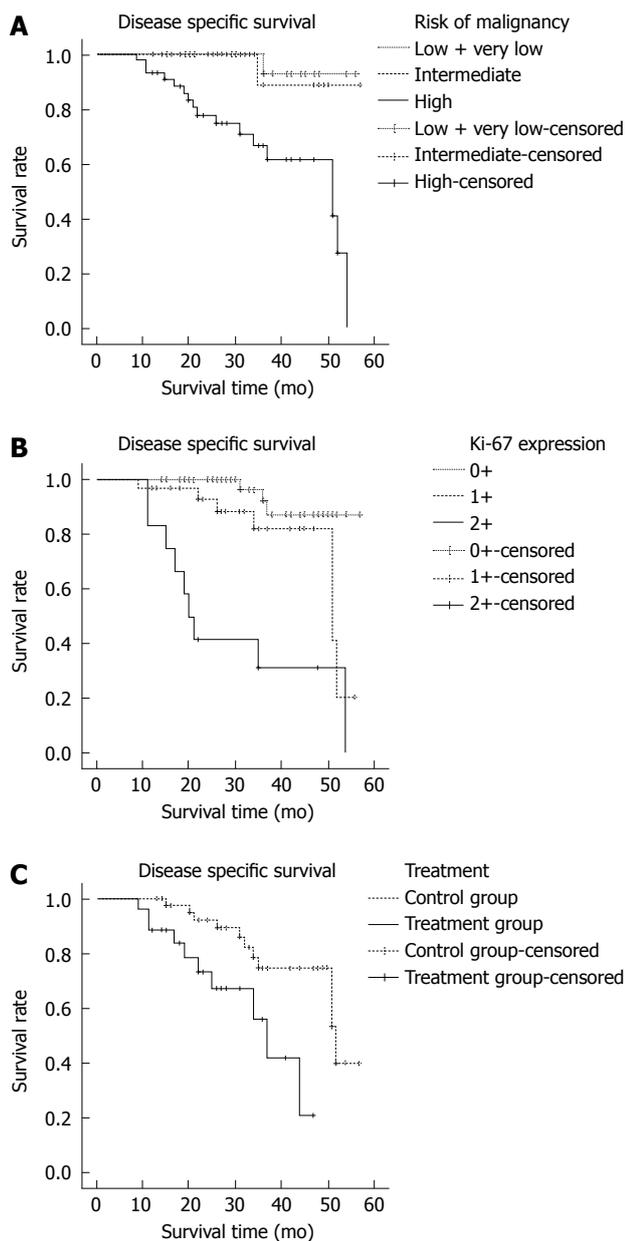


Figure 2 Kaplan-Meier plots for predicting disease specific survival based on the modified National Institutes of Health consensus system (A), Ki-67 expression (B) and adjuvant imatinib therapy (C).

eration, expresses in all cell cycle phases except for G0. A recent study demonstrated that the automated assessments of Ki-67 staining with computing image analysis can be used for prognostic assessments of patients with breast cancer^[21]. However, the prognostic value of Ki-67 as a potential biomarker has not been fully investigated in GISTs^[22,23]. The present study shows that the expression of Ki-67 or p53 is significantly associated with many clinicopathological features in GISTs; higher score for Ki-67 staining was directly correlated with poor survival; Ki-67 was superior to other protein markers tested in survival assessments, particularly in the high risk group, suggesting that Ki-67 immunostaining is a reliable and independent marker for the prediction of clinical outcomes in patients with GISTs.

Variable	RR (95% CI)	P value
Risk of malignancy		
Very low/low risk	1.00 (reference)	< 0.001
Intermediate risk	1.32 (0.81-21.2)	
High risk	12.23 (1.61-92.81)	
Ki-67 expression		
0+	1.00 (reference)	< 0.001
1+	3.75 (0.97-14.54)	
2+	15.78 (4.25-59.37)	
P53 expression		
0+	1.00 (reference)	0.20
1+	2.11 (0.24-18.37)	
2+	4.49 (0.54-37.11)	
EGFR expression		
0+	1.00 (reference)	0.50
1+	1.97 (0.60-6.50)	
2+	1.17 (0.36-3.77)	
COX-2 expression		
0+	1.00 (reference)	0.19
1+	0.84 (0.42-4.36)	
2+	1.99 (0.55-7.21)	

EGFR: Epidermal growth factor receptor; COX-2: Cyclooxygenase-2; RR: Relative risk.

The tumor suppressor p53 plays an important role in the regulation of cell cycle, DNA repair and programmed cell death. The functional loss of p53 disrupts these pathways and results in the selection of tumor cells with growth advantage^[24]. p53 has been reported as a prognostic marker in a wide variety of carcinomas, as well as in GISTs^[25]. A study showed that impaired p53 expression was often found in advanced GISTs and a strong effect of p53 on the progression-free survival was also observed^[18]. The accumulation of p53 protein was significantly associated with mitotic rate and the risk of malignancy in the present study.

The activation of EGFR is associated with cell growth and transformation. There are few reports analyzing the EGFR expression in GISTs. A study has suggested that a transforming growth factor alpha (TGF- α)/EGFR autocrine loop is present in GISTs, in which TGF- α promotes the proliferation of GIST tumor cells through an interaction of EGFR with HER-1^[26]. Co-expressions of EGFR and several EGFR ligands were observed with the upregulation of ADAM17 in GISTs. The authors suggested that the EGFR activation was through shedding of EGFR ligands by ADAM17 and consequently resulted in GIST progression and growth^[17]. To our knowledge, there has been no study assessing prognostic values of EGFR in a large cohort of GISTs. However, no significant association was found between the EGFR expression and prognostic analysis of GISTs in our study.

Increased COX-2 expression has been observed in colorectal adenoma and carcinoma^[27]. The induction of COX-2 has been shown to promote cell growth, inhibit apoptosis and enhance cell motility and adhesion^[28]. Over-expression of COX-2 has tumorigenic effects in animal models^[29]. Expression levels of COX-2 and vascular endothelial growth factor were found to

be significantly higher in malignant GISTs than those in benign and intermediate GISTs^[30]. A study reported a correlation between the COX-2 expression and tumor cell proliferation in GISTs, but no association was found between COX-2 expression and mortality, metastasis, tumor size, the risk of stages, the dose of tyrosine kinase inhibitors, or the rate of complete resection^[31]. Our results demonstrated that levels of COX-2 expression were significantly different between gastric tumors and nongastric tumors ($P < 0.001$), but no significant relationship was found between the COX-2 expression and risk factors, or survival.

Imatinib therapy reduces rates of recurrence in GISTs. Nevertheless, it remains unclear how to screen patients who would be more likely to benefit from the adjuvant therapy. In our study, we found that imatinib treatment could significantly improve 3-year DSS rates in the intermediate and high risk categories of patients after a complete tumor resection.

In conclusion, Ki-67 expression is significantly associated with GIST malignancy and can be used as a putative prognostic marker in GISTs. p53 and COX-2 also provide additional valuable information in the evaluation of malignancy and types of GISTs.

COMMENTS

Background

Gastrointestinal stromal tumors (GISTs) are known to have a wide variability in malignancy and prognosis. Risk grading based on tumor size, location and mitotic counts has been proposed to predict adverse outcomes of GIST in the literature.

Research frontiers

Recent molecular studies have found that the deregulations of Ki-67, cyclin A, B1, D1, E, cdc2 and other cell-cycle regulators were significantly associated with a shorter disease-free survival in GISTs.

Innovations and breakthroughs

In this study, expressions of Ki-67, p53, epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) and COX-2 were investigated in a large cohort of GIST patients and their roles as prognostic values for GISTs were also evaluated. To our knowledge, this is the first assessment of the prognostic value of EGFR in patients with GISTs.

Applications

The immunohistochemical staining of these tumorigenic and cell proliferative proteins provides an alternative approach for follow-up and clinical decisions regarding the treatment for GISTs.

Peer review

This paper describes a retrospective clinicopathological study of GIST.

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Effects of glycine on phagocytosis and secretion by Kupffer cells *in vitro*

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Abstract

AIM: To investigate the effects and mechanisms of action of glycine on phagocytosis and tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α secretion by Kupffer cells *in vitro*.

METHODS: Kupffer cells were isolated from normal rats by collagenase digestion and Percoll density gradient differential centrifugation. After culture for 24 h, Kupffer cells were incubated in fresh Dulbecco's Modification of Eagle's Medium containing glycine (G1: 1 mmol/L, G2: 10 mmol/L, G3: 100 mmol/L and G4: 300 mmol/L) for 3 h, then used to measure phagocytosis by a bead test, TNF- α secretion after lipopolysaccharide stimulation by radioactive immunoassay, and microfilament and microtubule expression by staining with phalloidin-fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC) or a monoclonal anti- α tubulin-FITC antibody, respectively, and evaluated under a ultraviolet fluorescence microscope.

RESULTS: Glycine decreased the phagocytosis of Kupffer cells at both 30 min and 60 min ($P < 0.01$, $P < 0.05$). The numbers of beads phagocytosed by Kupffer

cells in 30 min were 16.9 ± 4.0 (control), 9.6 ± 4.1 (G1), 12.1 ± 5.7 (G2), 8.1 ± 3.2 (G3) and 7.5 ± 2.0 (G4), and were 22.5 ± 7.9 (control), 20.1 ± 5.8 (G1), 19.3 ± 4.8 (G2), 13.5 ± 4.7 (G3) and 9.2 ± 3.1 (G4) after 60 min. TNF- α secretion by Kupffer cells in G1 (0.19 ± 0.03), G2 (0.16 ± 0.04), G3 (0.14 ± 0.03) and G4 (0.13 ± 0.05) was significantly less than that in controls (0.26 ± 0.03 , $P < 0.01$), and the decrease in secretion was dose-dependent ($P < 0.05$). Microfilaments of Kupffer cells in G2, G3 and G4 groups were arranged in a disorderly manner. The fluorescence densities of microtubules in G1 (53.4 ± 10.5), G2 (54.1 ± 14.6), G3 (64.9 ± 12.1) and G4 (52.1 ± 14.2) were all lower than those in the controls (102.2 ± 23.7 , $P < 0.01$), but the decrease in microtubule fluorescence density was not dose-dependant.

CONCLUSION: Glycine can decrease the phagocytosis and secretion by Kupffer cells *in vitro*, which may be related to the changes in the expression of microfilaments and microtubules induced by Kupffer cells.

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Key words: Glycine; Kupffer cell; Phagocytosis; Secretion

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INTRODUCTION

Glycine has been well characterized in the spinal cord as an inhibitory neurotransmitter which activates expression of the glycine-gated chloride channel (GlyR) in postsyn-

aptic membranes. Kupffer cells contain a GlyR similar to that described previously in the central nervous system^[1,2]. Many studies have shown that dietary or intravenous glycine has a protective effect in rat models against endotoxic shock, hemorrhagic shock, liver ischemia-reperfusion, liver transplantation, and alcohol-induced liver injury and is most likely to exert this effect by inactivating the Kupffer cells *via* this newly identified GlyR^[3-10]. Our previous studies also indicated that glycine protected rats from thioacetamide-induced liver injury and intestinal endotoxemia^[11,12]. The mechanism involved may be related to inhibition of the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines by Kupffer cells induced by glycine. *In vivo* and *in vitro* experiments have found that glycine inhibits the secretion of tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α and interleukin (IL)-6 in Kupffer cells^[13-15]. However, the impact of glycine on phagocytosis by Kupffer cells has not been reported, and the mechanisms underlying the effect of glycine on TNF- α secretion by Kupffer cells have not been fully understood. Our *in vitro* study showed that lipopolysaccharide (LPS) probably enhanced or inhibited the phagocytosis of Kupffer cells by acting through mechanisms involving microfilaments or microtubules^[16]. This study aimed to investigate the effects of glycine on phagocytosis and the mechanisms underlying TNF- α secretion by Kupffer cells *in vitro*.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals

Adult male Wistar rats weighing 300-330 g were obtained from the Experimental Animal Center of Shanxi Medical University (China). All animals were fed with standard laboratory chow and water was available *ad libitum*. The experimental protocols were approved by the Shanxi Animal Research Ethics Committee.

Reagents

Polystyrene beads (1.1 μm), monoclonal anti- α tubulin-fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC) conjugate, LPS (*Escherichia coli* Serotype 0128:B12), collagenase IV, phalloidin-FITC, hydroxyethyl piperazine ethanesulfonic acid (HEPES) Percoll, and Dulbecco's Modification of Eagle's Medium (DMEM) were purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, United States); a radioimmunoassay kit for TNF- α measurement was purchased from the Radio-Immunity Institute of the Chinese Liberation Army Omni-hospital (Beijing, China); glycine, sodium pentobarbital, fetal bovine serum (FBS), penicillin G, streptaquaine, insulin, glutamine, trypan blue, and all other reagents not specifically mentioned elsewhere were prepared by Beijing Chemical Inc. (Beijing, China).

Isolation and culture of Kupffer cells

Kupffer cells from Wistar rats were isolated by collagenase digestion and differential centrifugation, using Percoll density gradients as described previously with slight modifications^[17]. Briefly, the liver was perfused *in situ* through the portal vein with Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} free Hanks'

balanced salt solution (HBSS) containing 0.5 mmol/L ethylene glycol-bis (β -aminoethyl ether)-N,N,N,N-tetraacetic acid (EGTA) at 37 °C for 5 min at a flow rate of 26 mL/min. Subsequently, perfusion was performed with HBSS containing 0.05% collagenase IV at 37 °C for 5 min. After the liver was digested, it was excised and cut into small pieces in collagenase buffer. The suspension was filtered through nylon gauze, and the filtrate was centrifuged twice at $50 \times g$ at 4 °C for 3 min to remove parenchymal cells. The nonparenchymal cell fraction was washed with buffer and centrifuged on a density cushion of Percoll at $1000 \times g$ at 4 °C for 20 min to obtain the Kupffer cell fraction, and the cells obtained were washed with buffer again. The viability of isolated Kupffer cells was determined by trypan blue exclusion and routinely exceeded 90%. Cells were seeded onto 24-well culture plates (Corning, NY) or 25 mm \times 25 mm glass coverslips at a density of 1×10^6 or 5×10^5 and cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS, antibiotics (100 U/mL penicillin G and 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ streptomycin sulfate), 0.1 U/100 mL insulin and 15 mmol/L glutamine at 37 °C with 5% CO_2 . Non-adherent cells were removed after 1 h by replacing the culture medium. All adherent cells phagocytosed latex beads and stained positive for catalase, confirming that they were Kupffer cells, and cells were cultured for 24 h before experiment.

Effects of glycine on Kupffer cells

Cells were seeded onto 24-well plates and 12 mm \times 12 mm glass coverslips, and incubated with fresh medium containing glycine (G1: 1 mmol/L, G2: 10 mmol/L, G3: 100 mmol/L and G4: 300 mmol/L) at 37 °C with 5% CO_2 for 3 h. Phagocytosis and expression of microfilaments and microtubules by Kupffer cells were measured by the bead phagocytosis test, fluorescence staining and immunofluorescence staining, as described below.

Measurement of phagocytosis by Kupffer cells

Phagocytosis by Kupffer cells was evaluated by the Kupffer cell's ability to ingest polystyrene beads according to the modified method of Hirose *et al.*^[18]. Briefly, cells were seeded onto 12 mm \times 12 mm glass coverslips or glass plates and incubated with fresh medium containing 0.05% polystyrene beads for 30 min or 60 min at 37 °C with 5% CO_2 . Following vigorous pipetting to remove non-phagocytosed latex beads, the coverslips or glass plates were washed 3 times with PBS and fixed with 2% formaldehyde or methanol for 5 min. After staining by Giemsa's method for 15 min at room temperature and washing 3 times with PBS, the coverslips were inverted onto glass slides and observed under phase contrast microscope. The mean number of latex beads phagocytosed by each Kupffer cell was counted in at least 20 Kupffer cells per field at magnification of 200 times, 5 fields per coverslip in 6 coverslips.

Measurement of Kupffer cell secretion

Kupffer cells were seeded into 24-well plates at a density of 1×10^6 /well and incubated with fresh DMEM

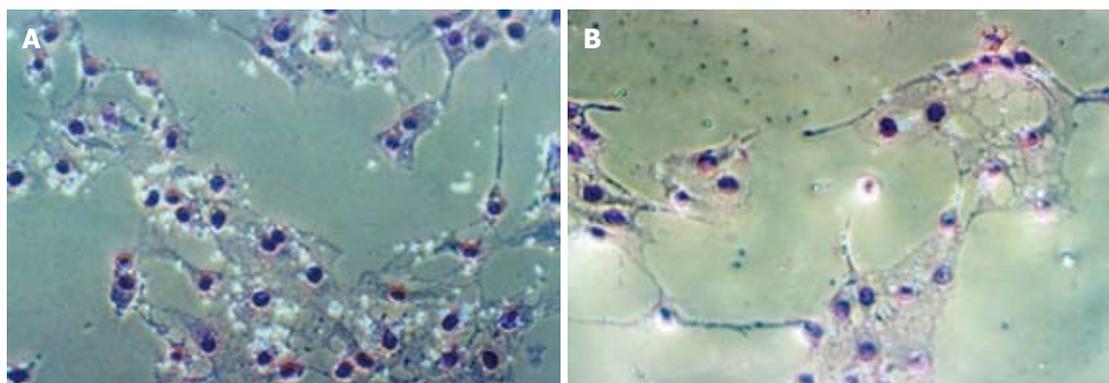


Figure 1 Effects of glycine on phagocytosis by Kupffer cells *in vitro*. A: Phagocytosis by Kupffer cells in the control group 30 min after the addition of latex beads, 200 \times ; B: Phagocytosis by Kupffer cells in group G3 30 min after the addition of latex beads, 200 \times .

containing 100 ng/mL LPS for 60 min at 37 °C with 5% CO₂. At the end of this period, the medium was collected, centrifuged at 1000 \times g at 4 °C for 10 min, and the supernatant was stored at -80 °C until used for TNF- α assay. TNF- α in medium was measured using the radioimmunoassay kit. The levels of TNF- α in the wells represented the secretion of Kupffer cells.

Measurement of microfilament expression by Kupffer cells

Kupffer cells were stained with phalloidin-FITC according to the modified method of Wulf *et al*^[19]. Briefly, Kupffer cells were seeded onto 12 mm \times 12 mm glass coverslips at a density of 5 \times 10⁵ (1 \times 10⁴ to 2 \times 10⁴ cells/coverslip), fixed with 2% formaldehyde for 20 min and extracted with 0.5% Triton X-100 for 15 min. The fixed cells were then washed 3 times with PBS (10 mmol/L, pH 7.4) and stained with phalloidin-FITC for 45 min at room temperature in the dark. They were then washed for a further 3 times with PBS, the coverslips were inverted onto mounting medium applied to glass slides, and they were observed and photographed under a ultraviolet (UV) fluorescence microscope with a high magnification of 400 times. Mounted preparations could be stored in the dark at 2 °C-8 °C.

Measurement of microtubules in Kupffer cells

Microtubules in Kupffer cells were stained with a monoclonal anti- α tubulin-FITC antibody according to the method recommended by the producer. Briefly, Kupffer cells were seeded onto 12 mm \times 12 mm glass coverslips at a density of 5 \times 10⁵ (1 \times 10⁴ to 2 \times 10⁴ cells/coverslip). They were then fixed with cold methanol for 10 min at -20 °C and rinsed twice with cold acetone (-20 °C) for 10 s, then the cell layer was rehydrated in PBS (10 mmol/L, pH 7.4) for at least 30 min and stained with monoclonal anti- α tubulin-FITC (1:25 diluted with PBS containing 1% bovine serum albumin) in a dark-room for 60 min at room temperature. The stained cells were washed 3 times with PBS, the coverslips were inverted onto mounting medium applied to glass slides and observed and photographed under a UV fluorescence microscope. Mounted preparations could be stored in

Table 1 Effects of glycine on phagocytosis by Kupffer cells *in vitro* (mean \pm SD)

Groups	Beads observed in Kupffer cells (n = 6)	
	30 min	60 min
Control	16.9 \pm 4.0	22.5 \pm 7.9
G1	9.6 \pm 4.1 ^b	20.1 \pm 5.8
G2	12.1 \pm 5.7 ^a	19.3 \pm 4.8
G3	8.1 \pm 3.2 ^b	13.5 \pm 4.7 ^{b,c}
G4	7.5 \pm 2.0 ^b	9.2 \pm 3.1 ^{b,d}

^aP < 0.05, ^bP < 0.01 vs control; ^cP < 0.05, ^dP < 0.01 vs G1.

the dark at 2-8 °C. The fluorescence density was measured in 10 cells using the MIAS-300 picture analysis system from at least 5 fields in each picture at a high magnification of 400 times.

Statistical analysis

All results were expressed as mean \pm SD. Statistical differences between means were analyzed by one-way analysis of variance or *t* test using the SPSS 12.0 statistical package. Statistical significance level was set at P < 0.05.

RESULTS

Effects of glycine on phagocytosis by Kupffer cells

When incubated in 5% CO₂ with fresh medium containing glycine at 37 °C for 30 min or 60 min, phagocytosis by Kupffer cells decreased significantly. The number of beads phagocytosed by Kupffer cells in groups G3 and G4 was less than that of group G1 in 60 min. There were no significant differences in the amount of beads phagocytosed by Kupffer cells among the G2, G3 and G4 groups (Table 1 and Figure 1).

Effects of glycine on TNF- α secretion by Kupffer cells

When incubated in 5% CO₂ with fresh medium containing glycine at 37 °C for 3 h, TNF- α secretion by Kupffer cells decreased significantly, and the decrease in secretion was dose dependent. TNF- α concentrations detected in the medium of groups G3 and G4 were significantly lower than in the medium of group G1 (Table 2).

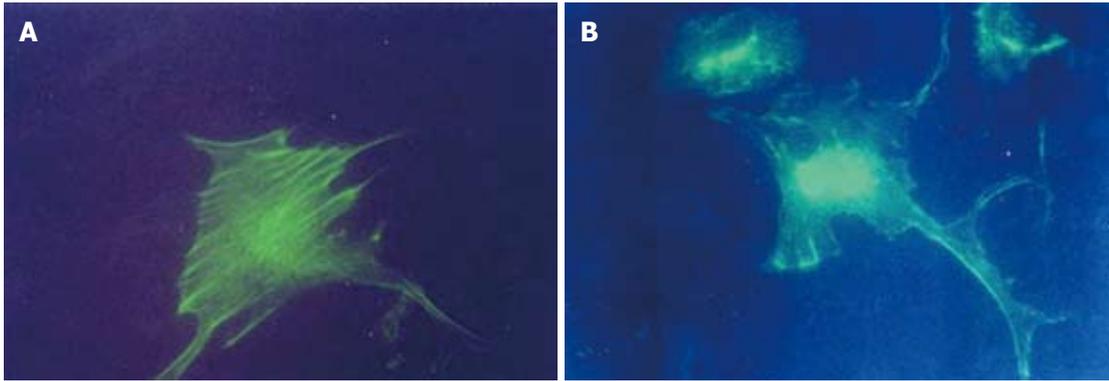


Figure 2 Effects of glycine on expression of microfilaments by Kupffer cells *in vitro*. A: The expression of microfilaments by Kupffer cells in the control group, stained with Phalloidin-fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC), 400 \times ; B: The expression of microfilaments by Kupffer cells in group G3, stained with Phalloidin-FITC, 400 \times .

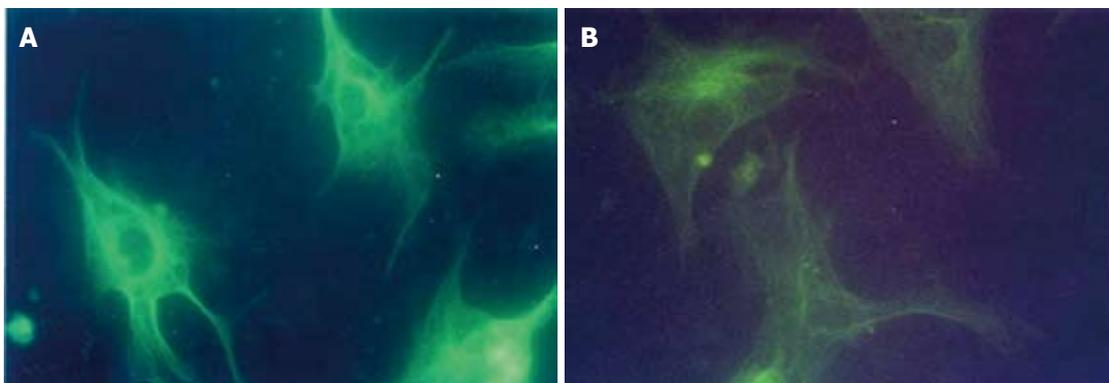


Figure 3 Effects of glycine on expression of microtubules by Kupffer cells *in vitro*. A: The expression of microtubules by Kupffer cells in the control group, stained with monoclonal anti- α tubulin-fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC) conjugate, 400 \times ; B: The expression of microtubules by Kupffer cells in group G3, stained with monoclonal anti- α tubulin-FITC conjugate, 400 \times .

Table 2 Effects of glycine on tumor necrosis factor- α secretion and microtubule density of Kupffer cells *in vitro* ($n = 6$) (mean \pm SD)

Groups	TNF- α detected in medium ($\mu\text{g/mL}$)	Microtubule density of Kupffer cells
Control	0.26 \pm 0.03	102.2 \pm 23.7
G1	0.19 \pm 0.03 ^d	53.4 \pm 10.5 ^d
G2	0.16 \pm 0.04 ^d	54.1 \pm 14.6 ^d
G3	0.14 \pm 0.03 ^{a,d}	64.9 \pm 12.1 ^d
G4	0.13 \pm 0.05 ^{a,d}	52.1 \pm 11.4 ^d

^a $P < 0.05$ vs G1; ^d $P < 0.01$ vs control. TNF: Tumor necrosis factor.

Effects of glycine on microfilaments of Kupffer cells

After 3 h incubation in 5% CO₂ with fresh medium containing glycine at 37 °C, Kupffer cells stained with FITC-Phalloidin did not demonstrate organized microfilaments in groups G2, G3 or G4. There were no significant differences in the microfilament fluorescence densities among Kupffer cells in control, G1, G2, G3 and G4 groups (Figure 2).

Effects of glycine on microtubules of Kupffer cells

Following 3 h incubation in fresh medium containing glycine at 37 °C with 5% CO₂, Kupffer cells were stained with

monoclonal anti- α tubulin-FITC. A significant decrease in the fluorescence density of microtubules was observed in Kupffer cells incubated with glycine as compared with the controls. However, the fluorescence density of the microtubules did not show a dose-dependent decrease among G1, G2, G3 and G4 groups (Table 2 and Figure 3).

DISCUSSION

Kupffer cells are the main component of the host monocyte-macrophage system, and their two main functions are phagocytosis and secretion. There is much evidence indicating that activation of Kupffer cells and their production of pro-inflammatory cytokines contribute to the pathogenesis of different liver injuries, including alcoholic liver disease (ALD), non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) and liver failure among others^[20-22]. Tsujimoto *et al.*^[23] showed that phagocytic activity of Kupffer cells was decreased in a rat model of nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. Glycine is a non-essential amino acid and an inhibitory neurotransmitter in the central nervous system. Many studies have shown that dietary or intravenous glycine can protect against a variety of liver injuries^[3-10]. In this study, we found that glycine decreases the phagocytosis and secretion of Kupffer cells *in vitro*.

Effects of glycine on phagocytosis by Kupffer cells

The mechanisms of Kupffer cell phagocytosis are still not completely understood. The ruffling of the cell membrane and formation of pseudopodia may play an important role and these effects are believed to be accomplished by the cytoskeleton. In the cytoskeleton, actin-myosin interaction through the calcium-calmodulin system plays a major role in this activity^[24]. In this system, intracellular Ca²⁺ combines with calmodulin to form the active calcium-calmodulin complex, which activates an enzyme, myosin light chain kinase, to phosphorylate the light chain of myosin. Phosphorylated myosin, but not unphosphorylated myosin, can interact with actin to induce activity of the cell membrane and pseudopodia, leading to phagocytosis. This process is reversible, in that a phosphatase can catalyze dephosphorylation of myosin, restoring it to a form that can not be activated by actin.

Previous studies have shown that integrity of the cytoskeletal system is important for phagocytosis of Kupffer cells. Depolymerization of the cytoskeleton decreased phagocytosis by Kupffer cells^[25-27]. However, the effects of glycine on phagocytosis by Kupffer cells have not been reported.

The present experiments show that glycine decreases phagocytosis by Kupffer cells *in vitro*, causes disordering of the microfilaments in Kupffer cells, and reduces their expression of microtubules. All these results show that glycine can decrease the phagocytosis of Kupffer cells by acting on the microfilaments and microtubules.

Effects of glycine on secretion by Kupffer cells

Some studies have shown that both CD14 and non-CD14 mechanisms are involved in the TNF- α secretion of monocytes and Kupffer cells, and that both endocytosis and Ca²⁺ are required for endotoxin-stimulated TNF- α release by Kupffer cells in rats^[28-30]. Previous studies have shown that glycine can protect against many injuries and illnesses in rat models, most likely by inactivating Kupffer cells and decreasing TNF- α secretion^[3-15]. An *in vitro* study has shown that glycine prevents the increases in [Ca²⁺]_i caused to LPS by activating chloride influx-reduced synthesis and release of toxic mediators by Kupffer cells^[2]. Thus, glycine can activate the chloride influx, prevent the increases in [Ca²⁺]_i and reduce the TNF- α secretion of Kupffer cells.

Other studies have demonstrated the involvement of a microtubule-dependent mechanism in TNF- α secretion by monocytes. Taxol, a microtubule-stabilizing antineoplastic agent, induced expression of tumor TNF- α in macrophages^[31]. Microtubule-disrupting agents such as colchicine had opposite effects on TNF- α production^[32-34]. The present experiments showed that glycine significantly decreased TNF- α secretion and microtubule expression. Some of our results are consistent with previous reports^[13-15], leading us to believe that glycine can prevent TNF- α secretion by Kupffer cells through disruption of microtubules.

In summary, glycine decreases both phagocytosis and secretion by Kupffer cells *in vitro*, which is probably re-

lated to glycine-induced changes in expression of microfilaments and microtubules in Kupffer cells.

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COMMENTS**Background**

Activated Kupffer cells are most likely involved in the pathogenesis of different liver injuries. Glycine generally is considered as a protective agent for liver injuries. The mechanism may be related to the fact that glycine inhibits the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines by Kupffer cells. So, it is very important to clarify the impact of glycine on the phagocytosis and secretion by Kupffer cells.

Research frontiers

It is believed that cytoskeleton plays a vital physiological role in phagocytosis by Kupffer cells, and depolymerization of cytoskeleton decreases the phagocytosis by Kupffer cells. Glycine protects against liver injuries by preventing the elevation of intracellular Ca²⁺ and reducing pro-inflammatory cytokines production by Kupffer cells. But the impact of glycine on phagocytosis by Kupffer cells is still unclear, and the mechanisms of glycine on tumor necrosis factor- α secretion by Kupffer cells have not been completely understood.

Innovations and breakthroughs

This is the first study to report that glycine decreases the phagocytosis of Kupffer cells by acting on the microfilaments and microtubules *in vitro*.

Applications

This study suggests that glycine may be an effective agent which could provide a future strategy for therapeutic intervention in the treatment of liver injuries induced by activated Kupffer cells.

Peer review

It is an interesting study with appropriate methodology and the results are clear and of great importance.

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Exceptionally rare cause of a total stomach resection

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en from the stomach during gastroscopy showed some non-specific necrotic and inflammatory masses with granulation. Intraoperatively, a very small, infiltrated stomach with an initial section of duodenum was identified. A total stomach resection together with the reconstruction of digestive tract continuity was performed using the Roux-Y method. Histopathologic examination of the stomach revealed a deep, chronic and exacerbated inflammatory condition with an extensive ulceration over the entire length of the stomach, reaching up to the pylorus. Additionally, numerous lymphatic glands with inflammatory reaction changes were observed.

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Key words: Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs poisoning; Total stomach resection; Roux-Y anastomosis

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Abstract

The first-ever case of a 54-year-old woman who overdosed on non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs in an attempt at suicide. Before that incident, she had not been treated for coexisting diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis or depression. At the time of admission to the General Surgery Department, the patient reported pains in the epigastric region with accompanying nausea and vomiting with mucous content as well as the inability to ingest food orally. Despite parenteral and enteral feeding, the patient exhibited a drop in body mass. The histopathologic examination of a sample tak-

INTRODUCTION

Currently, total stomach resection is typically performed in adults with stomach cancer^[1-9]. Other causes of total stomach resection include chemical burns of the digestive tract caused by the consumption of toxic, most often caustic, substances, which occurs accidentally in children and in adults who have attempted suicide^[10]. Most recent studies describe burns in the upper part of the digestive tract occurring after the consumption of concentrated acids, pesticides and bases used as detergents, bleachers or rust-removers^[11-13]. Drug poisonings usually cause symptoms in the central nervous system and the circulatory and

respiratory systems as well as bleeding because they most often involve the ingestion of soporific, psychotropic and cardiac medicines. Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) are commonly used in treatments globally. In some countries, e.g., in the United States, NSAIDs are used protractedly and in large doses, particularly in elderly patients. The administration of NSAIDs involves the risk of complications occurring in the digestive tract. It has been shown that these medicines may damage mucous membranes in the stomach and induce complications such as ulcerations, hemorrhages, or perforations^[14-17]. The aim of the article is to present a female patient who consumed a very large amount of NSAIDs and Tramal at the same time in a suicide attempt.

CASE REPORT

A 54-year-old female was admitted to the General Surgery Department of the University Hospital in Olsztyn from the Internal Medicine Department to undergo surgical treatment of a pylorus narrowing that was induced by the consumption of drugs in a suicide attempt. Approximately five months before that, the woman took 60 NSAID pills (including Ibuprofen, Ketonal, Diklofenak, Aspirin) and also ingested 300 mg of Tramal. After that episode, she was treated at the intensive care unit and then at the department of internal diseases. During that time, the patient was fed parenterally and, later, also enterally. Prior to that incident, the woman had not been treated for coexisting diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis or depression. At the time of admission to the surgery department, the patient reported epigastric pain with nausea and vomiting with mucous content as well as the inability to consume food orally. Despite parenteral and enteral feeding, the patient exhibited a 16-kg drop in body mass. Upon admission to the surgery department, her weight was 59 kg. The patient also suffered from pain in the epigastric and umbilical regions. However, the belly was soft with no pathological resistance, and the liver was not enlarged. Biochemical examinations showed minimal anemia (hemoglobin 10.4 g/dL) and increased fibrinogen values (up to 479 mg%) at international normalized ratio 1.10. During gastroscopy, a very small stomach was noticeably covered by scars and numerous fibrin-covered ulcerations. The stomach lacked a mucous membrane and hemorrhaged when touched with the device. The length of the stomach in the upper region was 2-3 cm. The distal part of the stomach was excessively narrowed and inaccessible. The pylorus channel allowed only for the insertion of the Flokar Ch10/130 cm catheter, which was placed properly behind the ligament of Treitz, with resistance. The histopathologic examination of a sample taken from the stomach revealed the existence of necrotic and inflammatory masses with granulation. The patient was qualified to undergo surgery operationally. A very small, infiltrated stomach with an initial section of duodenum was identified intraoperatively. Those organs exhibited excessive inflammatory infiltration. There were also numerous enlarged lymphatic glands, which were removed. After preparation and total resection of the stomach (Figure 1) with the initial part of the

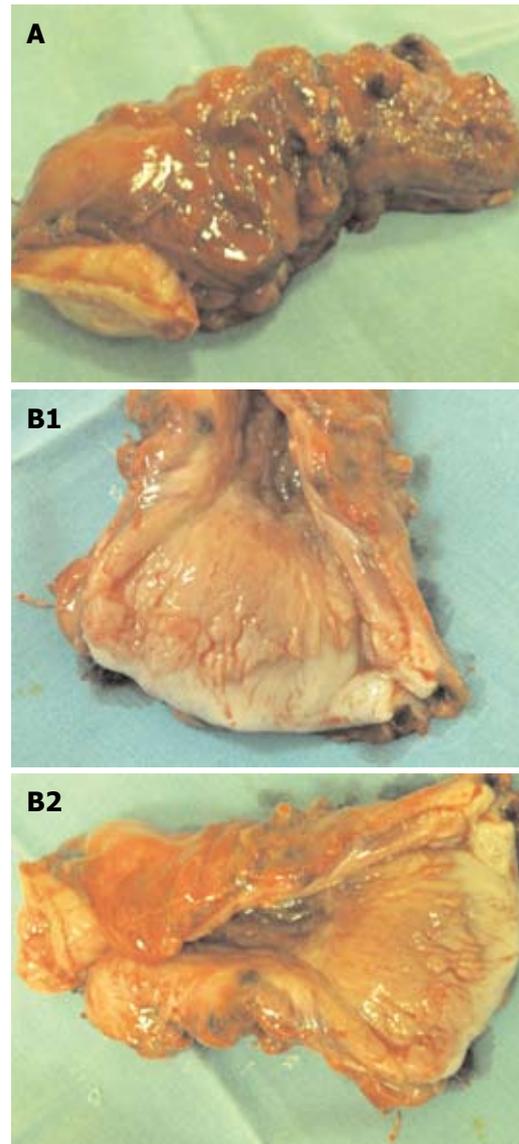


Figure 1 Pathological changes in atrophic gastritis after treatment. A: Tubular resected stomach as a whole, 9 cm long; B1 and B2: Cross-section of stomach with its 2 cm thick wall and its atrophic mucose membrane.

duodenum, a Roux-Y anastomosis was performed using a 25-mm circular stapler. The esophageal resection line was 10 mm and free from pathological changes; the esophagus was observed to have intact epithelium and stroma with dispersed inflammatory infiltration. The initial duodenum resection line was 12-mm long with a preserved margin of mucous membrane and chronic exacerbated inflammation in the mucous and submucosal membranes. Histopathologic examination of the stomach revealed a deep, chronic and exacerbated inflammatory condition with an extensive ulceration over the entire length, reaching up to the pylorus. Microscopic examination revealed numerous lymphatic glands with inflammatory changes (Figures 2 and 3). The post-operative period was complicated on the fifth day due to bile leakage from the part of the duodenum closed with a linear stapler. A relaparotomy revealed numerous adhesions, as well as an orifice, 2 mm in diameter, on the top of the closed, bloated duodenum

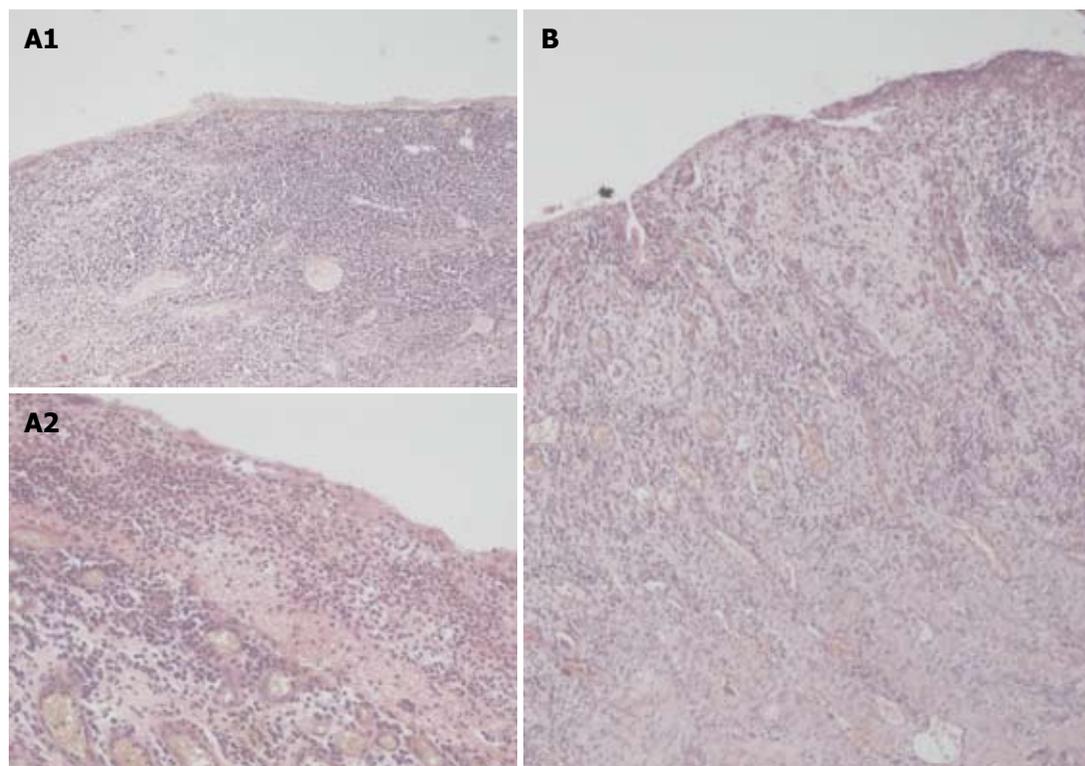


Figure 2 Representative photomicrographs of hematoxylin and eosin stained sections from the stomach's necrosis of submucous membrane. A: The inflammatory infiltration of the submucosal membrane of stomach (A1 magnitude 40× and A2 magnitude 100×); B: The ulceration-granulation in the stomach's submucosal membrane, magnitude 40×.

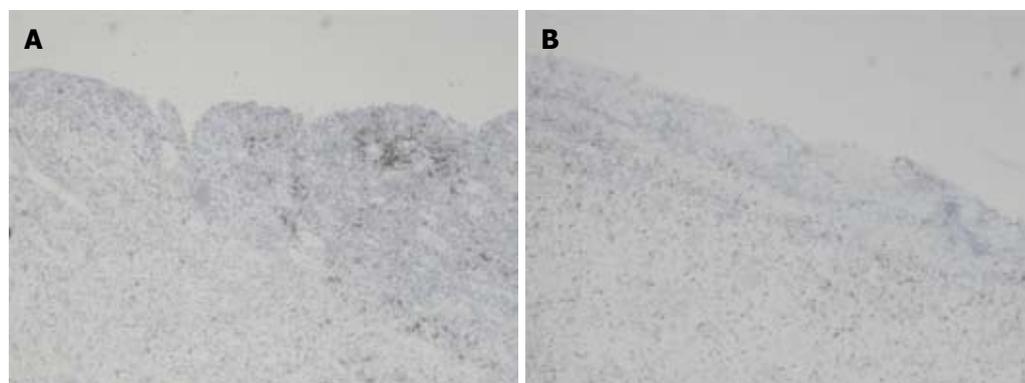


Figure 3 Representative photomicrographs sections from the stomach (magnitude 40×). A: The large, transmural inflammatory cell infiltration of submucosal membrane CD3 (+); B: Mixed inflammatory cell infiltrations CD3 (+).

stump, approximately 10 mm from the stitch line, out of which bile flowed heavily. Through the orifice, a drain of the same diameter was introduced into the duodenum as a duodenostomy. Four days after the surgery, the patient was treated with a respirator. On the following days, apart from some non-edemic and inflammatory changes in the lower segments of the lungs, the course of treatment was satisfactory. The patient was fed parenterally and enterally through a Flo-care-type tube. When performing control examinations, the drain was removed from the duodenum stump (14th day). On the 16th day, the patient was administered an oral diet that was extended gradually. On the 21st day, she was discharged from the hospital, in good general condition, with body mass of 61.5 kg.

DISCUSSION

Benzodiazepines and other psychotropic drugs are the most common causes of suicide-related drug poisoning. Few studies have examined suicide attempts that involve NSAID overdoses. The long-term administration of NSAIDs, even in therapeutic doses, results in digestive tract complications in the form of inflammation, ulceration, mucous membrane bleeding and hemorrhage as well as perforations to the stomach and duodenum^[14-17]. The consumption of NSAIDs in larger amounts causes damage to the stomach's mucous membrane, even resulting in total necrosis, as observed in the current case. During the six-month-long feeding treatment of the

patient and her endoscopic observation at the Department of Internal Medicine, preparations were made for surgery. The patient was in poor psychological condition and did not agree to undergo surgery. Within the borders of the stomach and duodenum, inflammatory infiltrate almost completely closed the pylorus with numerous adhesions to the surrounding tissues. The mucous membrane had slipped down completely, and its place was taken by necrotic and inflammatory tissues. It has already been proven that high doses of acetylsalicylic acid increase the risk of hemorrhage during the course of peptic ulcer disease^[18]. In the current case, there was no information related to the adverse effects of NSAIDs administered to patients with osteoarthritis. When patients overdose for suicidal reasons, the duration of contact between the mucous membrane and the caustic substance is long, as in the case of our patient. The exposure time, type of drug (e.g., hydrophilic properties), concentration in the stomach, contents of the stomach before drug consumption, degree of pylorus contraction and operations performed on the digestive tract that impair its motor activity are of crucial importance with respect to the level of damage and the extent of changes to the stomach. The morphological changes to the stomach upon consumption of large amounts of NSAIDs may be accompanied by damage to the liver, kidneys and heart^[17,19]. Nelson *et al.*^[20] described a case of liver failure requiring transplantation and simultaneous intestinal necrosis upon consumption of large amounts of acetaminophen and ibuprofen by their schizophrenic patient. The toxic activity of those drugs damages the mucous membrane and stops the production of prostaglandins in the intestines. A massive hemorrhage from a duodenum or stomach ulcer may often be observed among patients who have consumed NSAIDs even in therapeutic doses^[21,22]. Morphological changes in the digestive tract are usually described in the literature as liquefactive or coagulative necrosis but refer to poisonings with concentrated bases or acids. Regardless of the type of poison consumed orally, chronic ulcerations of the stomach's mucous membrane, excessive inflammation, clots in the micro-circulation, bacterial colonization and increased fibroblastic activity may develop. The toxic activity of any drug depends not only on the consumed dose but also on other circumstances. Having a meal, drinking alcohol, and the ingestion of other medicines influences the patient's clinical condition. Most often, oral poisonings cause changes to the upper part of the digestive tract and lead to damage to the liver and kidneys. The current literature lacks reports on total resection of the stomach due to poisoning with NSAIDs and Tramal.

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Lamivudine treatment enabling right hepatectomy for hepatocellular carcinoma in decompensated cirrhosis

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patients undergoing successful right hepatectomy for HCC arising from decompensated cirrhosis. The findings observed in our patient indicate the importance of nucleoside analogs for treating HBV-related HCC.

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Key words: Hepatitis B virus; Lamivudine; Hepatocellular carcinoma; Decompensated cirrhosis; Hepatectomy

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Abstract

A 69-year-old man was admitted to our hospital in October 2003, for further examination of two liver tumors. He was diagnosed with hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) arising from decompensated hepatitis B virus (HBV)-related cirrhosis. Long-term lamivudine administration improved liver function dramatically despite repeated treatment for HCC. His Child-Pugh score was 9 points at start of lamivudine treatment, improving to 5 points after 1 year. His indocyanine green at 15 min after injection test score was 48% before lamivudine treatment, improving to 22% after 2 years and to 5% after 4 years. Radiofrequency ablation controlled the HCC foci and maintained his liver function. In April 2009, abdominal computed tomography revealed a tumor thrombus in the right portal vein. Since his indocyanine green test results had improved to less than 10%, we performed a right hepatectomy, which was successful. To our knowledge, there have been no documented reports of

INTRODUCTION

The hepatitis B virus (HBV) infects more than 400 million people worldwide^[1] and is an important risk factor for the development of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). In Japan, about 1% of individuals in the general population are HBV carriers, accounting for about 14% of patients with liver cirrhosis^[2] and 15%-20% of those with HCC^[3,4]. The prognosis of patients with HCC arising from chronic liver disease is dependent not only on tumor factors but on hepatic functional reserve. Depending on patient age, liver transplantation may be a good therapeutic option in patients with poor functional reserve. Lamivudine treatment is beneficial in patients with HBV-related HCC because it contributes to improvement of remnant liver function. We describe here a patient with decompensated HBV-related cirrhosis who developed HCC. Lamivudine therapy improved liver function and enabled a right hepatectomy 5 years later.

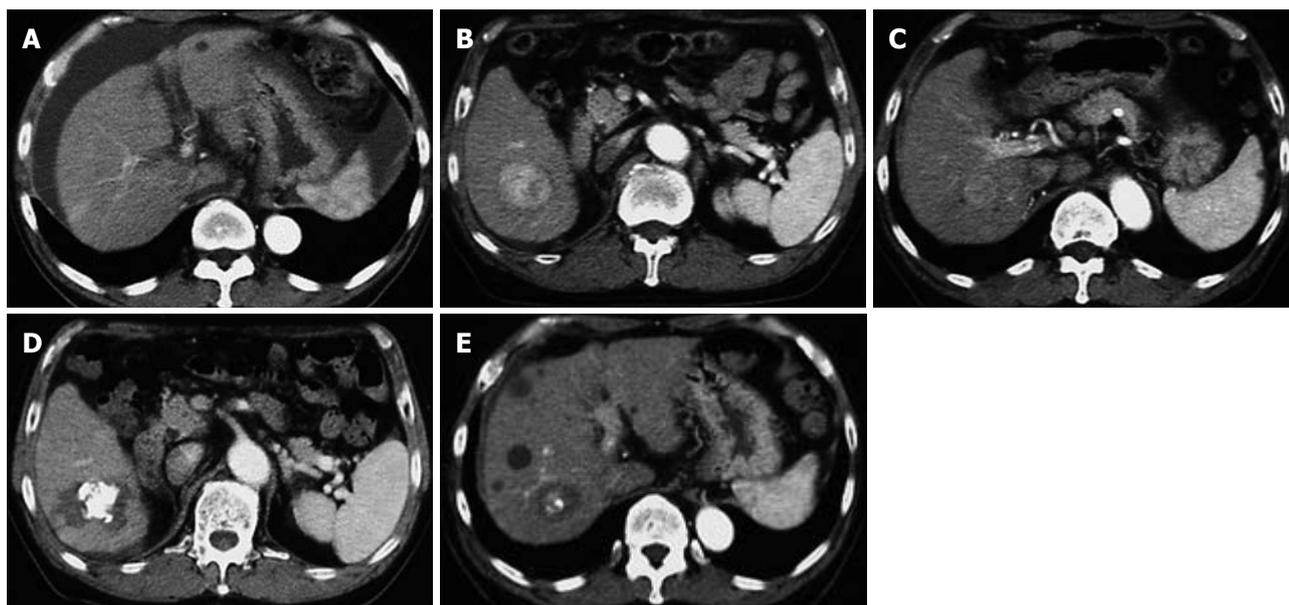


Figure 1 Computed tomography in our patient. It shows a cirrhotic pattern of the liver and massive ascites at first admission (A); Dynamic computed tomography revealed two hepatocellular carcinomas, 4.5 cm (B) and 2.5 cm (C) in diameter, in the right lobe; These two lesions were treated by transcatheter arterial chemoembolization and radiofrequency ablation (D, E).

CASE REPORT

A 69-year old man was admitted to our hospital in October 2003 for examination of two liver tumors. He had been diagnosed with hepatitis B in 1994 and treated with glycyrrhizin. His liver function deteriorated gradually, with ascites appearing in May 2001. He was first admitted to our hospital for treatment of intractable ascites (Figure 1A). Laboratory tests showed that his serum albumin (alb) concentration was 2.7 g/dL, his total bilirubin (T-Bil) was 2.8 mg/dL, his aspartate aminotransferase (AST) was 54 IU/L, his alanine aminotransferase (ALT) was 43 IU/L, and his prothrombin time (PT) was 42%. Administration of diuretic drugs was not effective, but treatment with a preparation of albumin resulted in the disappearance of ascites 1 mo later. Afterward, the ascites was kept under control by administration of diuretics. In October 2003, a computed tomographic (CT) scan of the abdomen revealed two HCCs (4.5 and 2.5 cm in diameter) in the right hepatic lobe (Figure 1B, C). Laboratory tests showed alb 2.5 g/dL, T-Bil 2.4 mg/dL, AST 152 IU/L, ALT 98 IU/L, PT 47%, indocyanine green at 15 min after injection (ICGR15) 48%, alpha-fetoprotein 444 ng/mL, and protein induced by vitamin K absence or antagonist II <10 mAU/mL. He was positive for HBe antigen, negative for HBe antibody, and had an HBV-DNA viral load of 6.7 log copies/mL. Beginning in November 2003, he was treated with 100 mg/d lamivudine. The two HCCs were treated by transcatheter arterial chemoembolization (TACE) and radiofrequency ablation (RFA) (Figure 1D, E). Both tumors were treated successfully and the patient's liver function recovered gradually after initiation of lamivudine treatment. In September 2005, an abdominal CT scan revealed a recurrent HCC, located near one of the previously treated

tumors; this lesion was treated successfully with TACE and RFA. At this time, laboratory tests showed alb 3.7 g/dL, T-Bil 0.7 mg/dL, AST 23 IU/L, ALT 22 IU/L, PT 84% and ICGR15 22%. All HCC treatments were based on clinical practice guidelines in Japan^[5], with the patient providing informed consent.

In May 2006, two HCC recurrences were detected in the right liver lobe and treated with TACE and RFA. Laboratory tests showed good liver function, alb 3.9 g/dL, T-Bil 1.1 mg/dL, AST 22 IU/L, ALT 11 IU/L, PT 95% and ICGR15 25%. In June 2007, a recurrent HCC was treated with TACE and RFA. Liver function was also excellent at this time (alb 4.0 g/dL, T-Bil 0.7 mg/dL and PT 100%). In September 2007, his viral load had again increased, with breakthrough hepatitis, and the YMDD mutation was detected. Treatment with adefovir dipivoxil plus lamivudine resulted in a gradual reduction in viral load. In December 2007, abdominal CT revealed five HCCs in the right lobe; these were treated by TACE and RFA. The patient was then treated with low-dose cisplatin and 5-fluorouracil infused through the hepatic artery. Laboratory tests showed alb 4.1 g/dL, T-Bil 1.0 mg/dL, AST 38 IU/L, ALT 30 IU/L, PT 88% and ICGR15 5%. Due to the development of a pseudoaneurysm in his hepatic artery, infusion of chemotherapy was discontinued. In March 2009, two HCCs were detected in the right lobe and were treated by RFA. Laboratory tests showed alb 3.7 g/dL, T-Bil 0.7 mg/dL, AST 35 IU/L, ALT 31 IU/L, PT 77% and ICGR15 10%. In April 2009, abdominal CT and CT angiography revealed a tumor thrombus in the right portal vein, but no lesion could be detected in the left lobe (Figure 2). Although he was diagnosed with decompensated cirrhosis, of Child-Pugh C, when first hospitalized, lamivudine treatment improved his liver function sufficiently, with an improve-



Figure 2 Computed tomography during hepatic arteriography, showing a portal tumor thrombus (arrow) in the right portal vein. Hepatocellular carcinoma was not detected in the left lobe.



Figure 4 Abdominal computed tomography showing the recurrence of hepatocellular carcinoma (arrow) in the left lobe two months after right hepatectomy.

ment of ICGR15 results to < 10%, to allow the successful performance of a right hepatectomy in April 2009 (Figure 3A). After liver resection, his AST rose to 1220 IU/L, his T-Bil to 1.9 mg/dL, and his PT decreased to 54%, followed by gradual recovery of liver function. He recovered well and left the hospital 1 mo after surgery.

Histologic examination of the extracted specimen showed a moderately differentiated HCC with portal tumor thrombus (Figure 3B) and multiple intrahepatic metastases. Fibrosis of varying extent was observed in the cancer-free area, with some areas showing severe fibrosis with pseudolobules and others showing mild fibrosis (Figure 3C). Abdominal CT in June 2009 suggested the recurrence of HCC in the left lobe (Figure 4), and abdominal angiography revealed multiple HCCs. These tumors were treated by TACE, but this was not effective. The left lobe tumors subsequently enlarged and the patient's liver function deteriorated gradually. The patient died in December 2009 (Clinical course Figure 5).

DISCUSSION

Chronic hepatitis B is a progressive liver disease, leading to cirrhosis and HCC^[6]. Before antiviral agents became

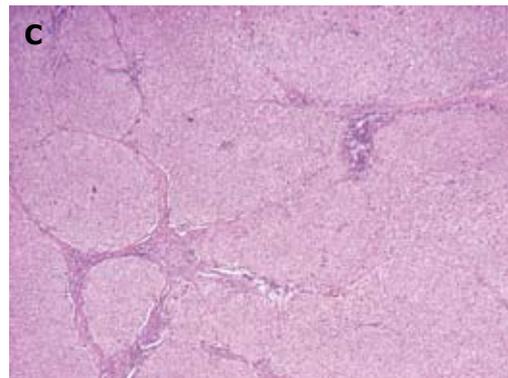
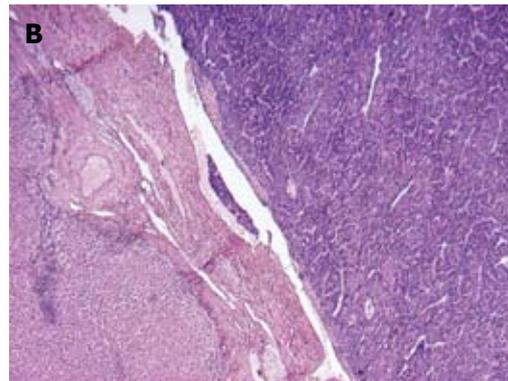
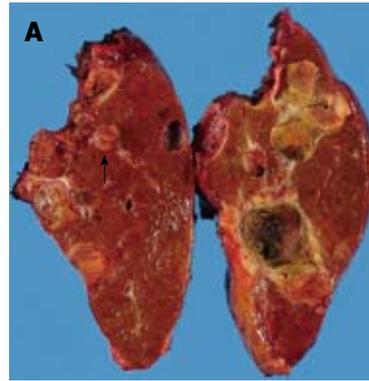


Figure 3 Macroscopic and microscopic appearance of the resected liver. A: A tumor thrombus was detected in the right portal vein (arrow); B: A moderately differentiated hepatocellular carcinoma with a trabecular pattern was seen in the right portal vein [hematoxylin and eosin (HE) stain, ×40]; C: Fibrosis of varying extent was observed in the cancer-free area. Some pseudolobules with severe fibrosis were present in the left part of the photograph (HE stain, ×40).

established as effective treatments for hepatitis B, the prognosis of patients with end-stage HBV infection was generally poor. The 5-year survival rates of patients with compensated and decompensated cirrhosis have been reported to be 55%-84%^[7,8] and 14%^[9], respectively. Lamivudine, an antiviral drug, is an oral nucleoside analog that inhibits DNA synthesis by terminating the nascent proviral DNA chain. It rapidly reduces both serum HBV-DNA and transaminase concentrations^[10]. Prolonged viral suppression can result in histological improvement, including the regression of fibrosis^[10-13]. Although a subgroup of individuals with extremely advanced disease require urgent transplantation, lamivudine treatment can achieve significant improvement in liver function and reduce the morbidity of many of patients

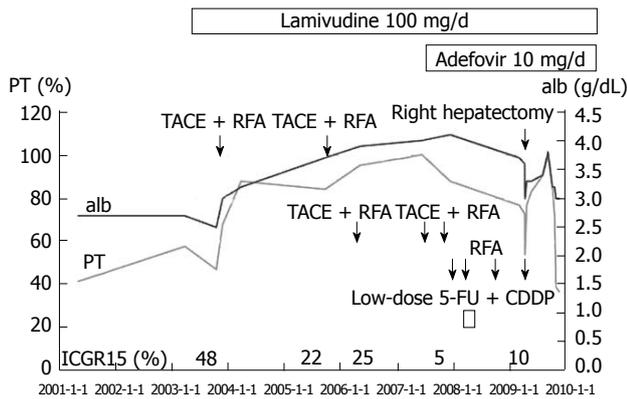


Figure 5 Clinical course of the patient. After lamivudine administration, his liver function gradually improved despite repeated treatments for hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), and his indocyanine green at 15 min after injection (ICGR15) test score was 5% 4 years after initiation of lamivudine treatment. He underwent a successful right hepatectomy for HCC 5 years after beginning lamivudine treatment. alb: Albumin; PT: Prothrombin time; TACE: Transcatheter arterial chemoembolization; RFA: Radiofrequency ablation; 5-FU: 5-Fluorouracil; CDDP: Cisplatin.

with decompensated cirrhosis^[14-19]. At present entecavir is recommended as the primary oral agent for hepatitis B because of its strong antiviral effects and low resistance rate, as well as being effective in treating decompensated cirrhosis^[20]. Long-term lamivudine monotherapy can induce the emergence of resistant viruses with an amino acid substitution in the YMDD motif of the viral DNA polymerase^[21]. Particularly in patients with decompensated cirrhosis, breakthrough hepatitis resulting from such a mutation may lead to hepatic failure^[22] if other antiviral drugs such as adefovir dipivoxil^[23,24] are not administered. Long-term treatment with lamivudine has been reported to reduce the incidence of HCC^[25,26]. In addition, lamivudine has been found to improve liver function^[27,28] and survival^[29] in patients with HBV-related HCC after initial treatment of HCC. We have described a patient with HCC arising from decompensated HBV-related cirrhosis. Long-term lamivudine treatment improved his remnant liver function dramatically, despite repeated TACE and RFA sessions for HCC. Although his Child-Pugh score at the start of lamivudine treatment was 9 points, it improved up to 5 points 1 year later. Moreover, he scored 48% on an ICGR15 test performed before his first treatment for HCC, but this score improved to 22% after 2 years and to 5% after 4 years, with the latter considered safe for the performance of a right hepatectomy^[30].

Despite repeated RFA, the liver function of this patient was well maintained. Generally, RFA has been regarded as safe and effective for HCC, and has been found to maintain liver function^[31-33]. In our patient, lamivudine and RFA were effective in maintaining liver function. A previous case report described a patient with decompensated HBV-related cirrhosis, who, following lamivudine treatment, underwent a hepatectomy for HCC after liver function had improved^[34]. That patient, however, underwent a partial hepatectomy for a small HCC. To our knowledge, no prior report has described

a successful right hepatectomy for HCC arising from decompensated HBV-associated liver cirrhosis. The findings reported in this patient indicate the importance of nucleoside analogs for treating HBV-related HCC.

In conclusion, we found that lamivudine treatment was beneficial for our patient with decompensated HBV-related cirrhosis and HCC, increasing the likelihood of treatment for HCC.

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Asian Pacific *Helicobacter pylori*
Meeting 2012
Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

January 19-21, 2012
American Society of Clinical
Oncology 2012 Gastrointestinal
Cancers Symposium
San Francisco, CA 3000,
United States

January 19-21, 2012
2012 Gastrointestinal Cancers
Symposium
San Francisco, CA 94103,
United States

January 20-21, 2012
American Gastroenterological
Association Clinical Congress of
Gastroenterology and Hepatology
Miami Beach, FL 33141,
United States

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The Future of Obesity Treatment
London, United Kingdom

February 16-17, 2012
4th United Kingdom Swallowing
Research Group Conference
London, United Kingdom

February 23, 2012
Management of Barretts
Oesophagus: Everything you need
to know
Cambridge, United Kingdom

February 24-27, 2012
Canadian Digestive Diseases Week
2012
Montreal, Canada

March 1-3, 2012
International Conference on
Nutrition and Growth 2012
Paris, France

March 7-10, 2012
Society of American Gastrointestinal
and Endoscopic Surgeons Annual
Meeting
San Diego, CA 92121, United States

March 12-14, 2012
World Congress on
Gastroenterology and Urology
Omaha, NE 68197, United States

March 17-20, 2012
Mayo Clinic Gastroenterology and
Hepatology
Orlando, FL 32808, United States

March 26-27, 2012
26th Annual New Treatments in
Chronic Liver Disease
San Diego, CA 92121, United States

March 30-April 2, 2012
Mayo Clinic Gastroenterology and
Hepatology
San Antonio, TX 78249,
United States

March 31-April 1, 2012
27th Annual New Treatments in
Chronic Liver Disease
San Diego, CA 92121, United States

April 8-10, 2012
9th International Symposium on
Functional GI Disorders
Milwaukee, WI 53202, United States

April 13-15, 2012
Asian Oncology Summit 2012
Singapore, Singapore

April 15-17, 2012
European Multidisciplinary
Colorectal Cancer Congress 2012
Prague, Czech

April 18-20, 2012
The International Liver Congress
2012
Barcelona, Spain

April 19-21, 2012
Internal Medicine 2012
New Orleans, LA 70166,
United States

April 20-22, 2012
Diffuse Small Bowel and Liver
Diseases
Melbourne, Australia

April 22-24, 2012
EUROSON 2012 EFSUMB Annual

Meeting
Madrid, Spain

April 28, 2012
Issues in Pediatric Oncology
Kiev, Ukraine

May 3-5, 2012
9th Congress of The Jordanian
Society of Gastroenterology
Amman, Jordan

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Digestive Diseases Week
Chicago, IL 60601, United States

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2012 ASCRS Annual Meeting-
American Society of Colon and
Rectal Surgeons
Hollywood, FL 1300, United States

May 18-19, 2012
Pancreas Club Meeting
San Diego, CA 92101, United States

May 18-23, 2012
SGNA: Society of Gastroenterology
Nurses and Associates Annual
Course
Phoenix, AZ 85001, United States

May 19-22, 2012
2012-Digestive Disease Week
San Diego, CA 92121, United States

June 2-6, 2012
American Society of Colon and
Rectal Surgeons Annual Meeting
San Antonio, TX 78249,
United States

June 18-21, 2012
Pancreatic Cancer: Progress and
Challenges
Lake Tahoe, NV 89101, United States

July 25-26, 2012
PancreasFest 2012
Pittsburgh, PA 15260, United States

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OESO 11th World Conference
Como, Italy

September 6-8, 2012
2012 Joint International

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Meeting
Bologna, Italy

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Frankfurt, Germany

September 8-9, 2012
New Advances in Inflammatory
Bowel Disease
La Jolla, CA 92093, United States

September 8-9, 2012
Florida Gastroenterologic Society
2012 Annual Meeting
Boca Raton, FL 33498, United States

September 15-16, 2012
Current Problems of
Gastroenterology and Abdominal
Surgery
Kiev, Ukraine

September 20-22, 2012
1st World Congress on Controversies
in the Management of Viral Hepatitis
Prague, Czech

October 19-24, 2012
American College of
Gastroenterology 77th Annual
Scientific Meeting and Postgraduate
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Las Vegas, NV 89085, United States

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Modern Technologies in
Diagnosis and Treatment of
Gastroenterological Patients
Dnepropetrovsk, Ukraine

November 4-8, 2012
The Liver Meeting
San Francisco, CA 94101,
United States

November 9-13, 2012
American Association for the Study
of Liver Diseases
Boston, MA 02298, United States

December 1-4, 2012
Advances in Inflammatory Bowel
Diseases
Hollywood, FL 33028, United States

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World Journal of Gastroenterology (*World J Gastroenterol*, *WJG*, print ISSN 1007-9327, online ISSN 2219-2840, DOI: 10.3748) is a weekly, open-access (OA), peer-reviewed journal supported by an editorial board of 1352 experts in gastroenterology and hepatology from 64 countries.

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The columns in the issues of *WJG* will include: (1) Editorial: To introduce and comment on major advances and developments in the field; (2) Frontier: To review representative achievements, comment on the state of current research, and propose directions for future research; (3) Topic Highlight: This column consists of three formats, including (A) 10 invited review articles on a hot topic, (B) a commentary on common issues of this hot topic, and (C) a commentary on the 10 individual articles; (4) Observation: To update the development of old and new questions, highlight unsolved problems, and provide strategies on how to solve the questions; (5) Guidelines for Basic Research: To provide guidelines for basic research; (6) Guidelines for Clinical Practice: To provide guidelines for clinical diagnosis and treatment; (7) Review: To review systematically progress and unresolved problems in the field, comment on the state of current research, and make suggestions for future work; (8) Original Article: To report innovative and original findings in gastroenterology; (9) Brief Article: To briefly report the novel and innovative findings in gastroenterology and hepatology; (10) Case Report: To report a rare or typical case; (11) Letters to the Editor: To discuss and make reply to the contributions published in *WJG*, or to introduce and comment on a controversial issue of general interest; (12) Book Reviews: To introduce and comment on quality monographs of gastroenterology and hepatology; and (13) Guidelines: To introduce consensus and guidelines reached by international and national academic authorities worldwide on basic research and clinical practice gastroenterology and hepatology.

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- 3 **Tian D**, Araki H, Stahl E, Bergelson J, Kreitman M. Signature of balancing selection in Arabidopsis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2006; In press

Organization as author

- 4 **Diabetes Prevention Program Research Group**. Hypertension, insulin, and proinsulin in participants with impaired glucose tolerance. *Hypertension* 2002; **40**: 679-686 [PMID: 12411462 PMID:2516377 DOI:10.1161/01.HYP.0000035706.28494.09]

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- 5 **Vallancien G**, Emberton M, Harving N, van Moorseelaar RJ, Alf-One Study Group. Sexual dysfunction in 1, 274 European men suffering from lower urinary tract symptoms. *J Urol* 2003; **169**: 2257-2261 [PMID: 12771764 DOI:10.1097/01.ju.0000067940.76090.73]

No author given

- 6 21st century heart solution may have a sting in the tail. *BMJ* 2002; **325**: 184 [PMID: 12142303 DOI:10.1136/bmj.325.7357.184]

Volume with supplement

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Issue with no volume

- 8 **Banit DM**, Kaufer H, Hartford JM. Intraoperative frozen section analysis in revision total joint arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 2002; (**401**): 230-238 [PMID: 12151900 DOI:10.1097/00003086-200208000-00026]

No volume or issue

- 9 Outreach: Bringing HIV-positive individuals into care. *HRSA Careaction* 2002; 1-6 [PMID: 12154804]

Books

Personal author(s)

- 10 **Sherlock S**, Dooley J. Diseases of the liver and biliary system. 9th ed. Oxford: Blackwell Sci Pub, 1993: 258-296

Chapter in a book (list all authors)

- 11 **Lam SK**. Academic investigator's perspectives of medical treatment for peptic ulcer. In: Swabb EA, Azabo S. Ulcer disease: investigation and basis for therapy. New York: Marcel Dekker, 1991: 431-450

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Electronic journal (list all authors)

- 15 Morse SS. Factors in the emergence of infectious dis-

eases. *Emerg Infect Dis* serial online, 1995-01-03, cited 1996-06-05; 1(1): 24 screens. Available from: URL: <http://www.cdc.gov/ncidod/eid/index.htm>

Patent (list all authors)

- 16 **Pagedas AC**, inventor; Ancel Surgical R&D Inc., assignee. Flexible endoscopic grasping and cutting device and positioning tool assembly. United States patent US 20020103498. 2002 Aug 1

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Write as mean \pm SD or mean \pm SE.

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Express *t* test as *t* (in italics), *F* test as *F* (in italics), chi square test as χ^2 (in Greek), related coefficient as *r* (in italics), degree of freedom as *v* (in Greek), sample number as *n* (in italics), and probability as *P* (in italics).

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