

Prevention of Liver Cancer

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Current Oncology Reports 2002, 4:464-470

Current Science Inc. ISSN 1523-3790

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Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is among the most prevalent and deadly cancers worldwide. Prominent risk factors for HCC include viral hepatitis infection; dietary exposure to hepatotoxic contaminants such as aflatoxins; alcoholism; smoking; and male gender. This review highlights ongoing efforts in HCC prevention. Strategies include vaccination against, and treatment of, viral hepatitis infection. In addition to interferon α , an acyclic retinoid (all-*trans*-3,7,11,15-tetramethyl-2,4,6,10,14-hexadecapentanoic acid), glycyrrhizin and ginseng are currently under clinical investigation for HCC prevention in Japanese hepatitis C patients. Several recent clinical studies in a Chinese region of pervasive aflatoxin contamination also support the approach of favorably altering aflatoxin metabolism and excretion using the chemopreventive agents oltipraz or chlorophyllin. Agents exhibiting chemopreventive efficacy in preclinical HCC models include vitamins A, D, and E, herbal extracts, a 5 α -reductase inhibitor, green tea, and *D*-limonene. Efforts to elucidate the molecular lesions and processes underlying HCC development have identified several putative molecular targets for preventive interventions. These include genes and gene products controlling viral replication, carcinogen metabolism, signal transduction, cell-cycle arrest, apoptosis, proliferation, and oxidative stress.

Introduction

Liver cancer is among the most common neoplasms worldwide, causing at least 500,000 deaths annually. The incidence of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is especially high in southeast Asia and sub-Saharan Africa; however, HCC has recently increased in several low endemic areas including the United States, the United Kingdom, and western Europe, especially in men. The median age at presentation is 40 to 50 years, but HCC has been detected in patients as young as 6 years old [1]. HCC usually follows a rapidly progressive course and has a poor prognosis. Rates of intrahepatic recurrence exceed 25% per year following curative treatment, primarily because of under-

lying liver disease [2,3]. The 5-year mortality rate for HCC is 65% following surgical resection, and greater than 90% for the 80% of patients with nonresectable tumors. Screening programs have had little success in improving long-term survival.

Chronic liver disease is the predominant risk factor for HCC incidence and mortality. The most common cause of liver cirrhosis is hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection; an estimated 400 million people are infected with HBV, and 170 million are infected with hepatitis C virus (HCV) worldwide. Endemic viral hepatitis infection is indeed prevalent in areas of markedly high HCC incidence. For example, a prospective cohort study of 90,000 people in Haimen City, China identified HBV infection as the most prominent risk factor for HCC mortality in both males (relative risk [RR]=18.8; 95% CI, 15.7-22.5) and females (RR=33.5; 95% CI, 17.1-65.5) [4••]. HCV infection is perhaps more strongly associated with HCC, particularly in regions of relatively low HBV prevalence. In Japan, for example, approximately 16% and 80% of HCC cases are associated with HBV and HCV infection, respectively [5]. A separate prospective Japanese study found a fivefold-increased HCC risk for HCV compared with HBV [6]; about 20% of Japanese HCV patients are predicted to develop HCC in 10 years. In addition, coinfection with HBV and HCV has a synergistic effect on HCC risk. In areas such as Europe, where hepatitis virus prevalence is low, alcohol abuse is the leading risk factor for HCC. In a prospective study in southern Germany, chronic alcohol abuse was associated with nearly half (49.2%) of the 118 cases of HCC, whereas HCV infection was associated with only 17.8% [7]. Other factors that may act independently or synergistically with viral hepatitis to increase HCC risk include aflatoxin exposure and smoking [8].

Antiviral Approaches to Liver Cancer Prevention

HBV is a DNA virus that is readily transmitted perinatally; vertical transmission accounts for nearly half of HBV carriers in hyperendemic areas such as Korea and China. In contrast, HCV is an RNA virus that is primarily spread through blood transfusions and intravenous drug use. Development of an HCV vaccine has been complicated by the genetic heterogeneity of the virus [9,10]. However, HBV vaccination programs in Korea, China, and Taiwan have shown a protective efficacy of 90% to 95% and thus have considerable promise in HCC prevention. The neonatal

HBV vaccination program in Taiwan significantly reduced infant mortality from fulminant hepatitis [11]. Moreover, childhood HCC incidence decreased; the effect was significant for boys born in Taiwan after 1984, when the program was launched (RR=0.72; $P=0.002$) [12].

Treatment of viral hepatitis is another promising approach to HCC prevention. Approved antiviral therapeutic agents include immunomodulating agents (eg, interferon α and L(-)-nucleoside analogues (eg, lamivudine). Lamivudine (3-thiacytidine) is tolerated well and produces sustained response in about 50% of patients [13]. However, development of clinical resistance conferred by mutations in the YMDD motif of HBV reverse transcriptase remains a major concern. In addition, a case of chronic HBV infection was reported in a newborn despite suppression of maternal HBV DNA to undetectable levels by lamivudine; this finding suggests continued risk of perinatal HBV transmission, even with successful antiviral therapy [14]. Several more potent L(-)-nucleoside analogues under development may offer improved efficacy against HBV [15]. For example, β -L-2',3'-dideoxy-2',3'-didehydro-5-fluorocytidine was more efficacious than lamivudine in the woodchuck hepatitis virus model [16].

Interferon α , which produces sustained response in about 20% of HCV-infected patients, appears to reduce HCC risk by about threefold. In a prospective, randomized controlled study of 90 Japanese HCV patients followed for a mean of 8.7 years, HCC developed in 33 of 45 (75%) control subjects compared with 12 of 45 (27%) patients treated with interferon α [17••]. A retrospective analysis found HCC rates in untreated and interferon α -treated Japanese patients with HCV of 36.7% and 52.5%, respectively, at 10-year follow-up; among treated patients, a significantly greater protective effect of long-term (12 months or more) therapy with interferon α was found ($P=0.0048$) [18]. A greater protective effect with a dose of more than 500 million units has also been suggested in a Japanese retrospective analysis [19]. In keeping with these findings, a meta-analysis of 11 studies involving more than 2000 patients found significantly more frequent HCC development in control subjects (21.5%) compared with HCV patients treated with interferon α (8.2%; odds ratio [OR]=3.0; 95% CI, 2.3–3.9) [20••]. Interestingly, significantly more frequent HCC development was found in the five studies comparing control subjects with treated nonresponders (OR=2.7; 95% CI, 1.9–3.9). In these five studies, treated nonresponders developed HCC at a much higher rate than did responders (9% vs 0.9%; OR=3.7; 95% CI, 1.7–7.8). A retrospective multicenter analysis of 652 Japanese HCV patients treated with interferon α also found a significantly increased rate of HCC development in nonresponders compared with either sustained or incomplete responders ($P<0.01$) [21].

A meta-analysis of 18 trials involving over 4600 patients also found a protective effect of interferon α in HCV, but not in HBV patients [22••]. In those with

HCV, risk differences among treated patients, sustained responders, or nonresponders versus untreated patients were -12.8% ($P<0.0001$), -19.1% ($P<0.00001$), and -11.8% ($P<0.0001$), respectively. Inconsistency among studies was significant and could only be countered by considering European reports alone; in this subgroup, risk differences with interferon α were not significant for HBV (-4.8%) and were less prominent for HCV (-10%, $P<0.0001$). Likewise, a study of 411 Chinese HBV patients found no protective effect with interferon α against HCC [23].

Clinical Liver Cancer Chemoprevention Studies

Several classes of chemopreventive agents have recently shown promise in populations at risk for HCC due to HCV infection. Possible mechanisms of such agents include antiviral and anti-inflammatory activities, as well as amelioration of liver damage and eradication of premalignant hepatic lesions. Glycyrrhizin, a licorice root extract that lacks HBV or HCV antiviral activity, is commonly used in Japan for HCV patients who have failed or did not receive interferon α . In a multicenter double-blind study, HCC developed significantly less frequently in 84 glycyrrhizin-treated Japanese HCV patients than in 109 control subjects (13% vs 25% at year 15; $P<0.0002$) [24]. An ongoing double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled trial will test the efficacy of medicinal ginseng (1 g of red ginseng powder/d) in 300 Japanese HCV patients [25]. The endpoint of this multicenter trial is HCC development. Other agents being tested in Japanese HCV cohorts include Kampo herbal medicine [26]; continued study of acyclic retinoid (all-*trans*-3,7,11,15-tetramethyl-2,4,6,10,14-hexadecapentanoic acid) [27], previously shown to reduce development of second primary hepatomas by about one third, is also planned.

Clinical interventions in Qidong, People's Republic of China, where aflatoxin contamination is pervasive and HCC is the leading cause of cancer death, have established the efficacy of oltipraz and chlorophyllin against aflatoxin biomarkers. These agents favorably affect the bioactivation and/or excretion of carcinogenic aflatoxin. Oltipraz (125 mg/d for 8 days) has recently been shown to transiently inhibit human CYP1A2 activity, as assessed by modulation of caffeine metabolism [28]. This finding is consistent with the observed 51% reduction in urinary excretion of the phase 1 metabolite aflatoxin M_1 following weekly administration of oltipraz (500 mg) in a phase IIa clinical study involving 234 adults in Qidong. Oltipraz is also known to potently and persistently induce phase 2 enzymes (particularly glutathione-S-transferases [GST]), a prominent effect in detoxification of aflatoxins. Among the enzymes induced by structurally related dithiolethiones is leukotriene B_4 12-hydroxydehydrogenase; this lipid-metabolizing enzyme was recently shown to possess a novel antioxidative activity that may contribute to

protection against aflatoxins and other carcinogens [29•]. A recent study using *nrf2*-deficient mice established an important role for the Nrf2 transcription factor in regulation of a number of protective phase 2 enzymes by dithiolethiones [30•].

Unlike oltipraz, chlorophyllin does not directly modulate the phase 1 and 2 metabolism of aflatoxin; instead, it functions as an interceptor molecule, forming complexes with aflatoxin and thereby diminishing carcinogen bioavailability. In a double-blind, placebo-controlled study in 180 adults in Qidong, chlorophyllin (100 mg 3 times a day for 4 months) reduced urinary aflatoxin-DNA adducts by 55% [31••]. Chlorophyllin has an improved safety profile compared with oltipraz, and follow-up clinical studies with this well-tolerated chemopreventive agent are warranted. Recent developments in aflatoxin biomarker assessment will facilitate such efforts. In particular, a liquid-chromatography electrospray-mass spectrometry assay of urinary aflatoxin biomarkers was recently validated in a rat aflatoxin chemoprevention model [32].

Chemopreventive Efficacy Studies in Preclinical Models of HCC

A number of additional agents have recently shown chemopreventive efficacy in preclinical models of liver cancer. The experimental protocols in which efficacy has been demonstrated vary widely with respect to inducing carcinogen, animal strain, and endpoints. The studies nonetheless suggest promising leads for clinical interventions provided that confirmatory preclinical efficacy and safety results are obtained. Effective agents include an organosulfur compound (*S*-methylcysteine), organoselenium compounds (ebselen, scordinin), herbal extracts (Picroliv, *Asteracantha longifolia* seed extract, *Salvia miltiorrhiza* extract), an anti-androgen (FK143, a 5 α -reductase inhibitor), polyphenolic compounds (green tea), caffeine, *D*-limonene, and vitamins (α -tocopherol, 1 α ,25-dihydroxy vitamin D₃, vitamin A).

The chemopreventive efficacy of *S*-methylcysteine was suggested by significant decreases in the number and area of GST-P-positive foci induced by diethylnitrosamine (DEN) in male F344 rats [33]. GST-P-positive foci formation induced in male F344 rats by aflatoxin B₁ (AFB₁) was inhibited by the organoselenium compound ebselen [2-phenyl-1,2-benzisoselenazol-3(2*H*)-one] [34]; hepatic AFB₁-DNA adducts were likewise reduced. The garlic component scordinin significantly reduced DEN- and phenobarbital-induced hepatic GST-P-positive foci, adenomas, and carcinomas in male F344 rats [35]. Herbal extracts with chemopreventive activity include Picroliv, an extract of *Picrorhiza kurroa*, which inhibited rat hepatic nodules induced by DEN and abolished the carcinogen-induced liver weight increase [36]. In male Wistar rats, an extract of *Asteracantha longifolia* seeds decreased the number and area of γ -glutamyl transpeptidase-positive foci initiated by DEN and promoted by 2-acetylaminofluorene

(2-AAF) [37]. The traditional Chinese medicine *Salvia miltiorrhiza* significantly reduced both AFB₁-DNA adducts and GST-P-positive foci formation in male F344 rats [38]. In male F344 rats initiated with DEN and promoted by 2-AAF and hepatectomy, the 5 α -reductase inhibitor FK143 significantly inhibited the formation of GST-P-positive foci as well as HCCs [39]. GST-P- and γ -glutamyl transpeptidase-positive foci in male F344 rats initiated by AFB₁ and promoted by CCl₄ were inhibited by green tea [40]. Notably, caffeine alone significantly reduced the incidence and multiplicity of hepatic adenomas and carcinomas in 2-AAF-treated ACI male rats in a dose-dependent manner [41]. *N*-nitrosomorpholine-induced GST-P-positive foci, neoplastic nodules, and HCCs were significantly reduced by *D*-limonene in male Sprague-Dawley rats [42]. α -Tocopherol substantially decreased the incidence of adenomas in DEN-treated transforming growth factor- α transgenic mice [43]. Vitamin D (1 α ,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃) inhibited the formation of hepatic nodules initiated by DEN and promoted by phenobarbital in male Sprague-Dawley rats [44]. Finally, vitamin A as well as the retinoids all-*trans* and 9-*cis*-retinoic acid inhibited HCCs initiated by DEN and promoted by 2-AAF in male Wistar rats [45].

Molecular Lesions Underlying HCC Development

A number of molecular alterations that occur in HCC have been identified. One frequently mutated target in HCC is the *p53* gene. A specific missense mutation, a G-to-T transversion in *p53* codon 249, is associated with aflatoxin-induced human and experimental HCC. This mutation was detectable in the plasma of HCC patients by electrospray ionization mass spectrometry [46]. In some cases, the mutation was detected in plasma but not in tumor tissue, suggesting possible multiple independent HCCs. Other tumor suppressor genes that control cell-cycle arrest may also be commonly disrupted in HCC. A recent German study found disruption of the *p53* upstream regulators *p16* (INK4a) and *p14* (ARF) and/or *p53* mutation in 86% of 71 HCC cases [47]. Hypermethylation of the *p16* gene promoter, and the resultant loss of *p16* expression, was detected in the majority (64%, 30 of 47) of Japanese HCC cases, whereas 81% had either retinoblastoma protein or *p16* loss [48]. A separate study also found *p16* loss via hypermethylation in HCC (16 of 22 cases), as well as in five of 17 cirrhosis and four of 17 hepatitis cases [49].

Several recent studies have evaluated the modulating effects of regulators of hepatic proliferation and apoptosis on HCC. The *little* mutation, which confers growth hormone deficiency and thereby abrogates proliferation, suppressed DEN-driven HCC in mice [50]. On the other hand, increased proliferation without compensatory enhancement of apoptosis and accelerated HCC development was found in *c-myc/p53*^{-/-} mice [51]. The viral protein HCV NS3 stimulated proliferation in NIH 3T3 cells, an

effect associated with *p53*-dependent repression of *p21* promoter activity [52]. Decreased expression of the apoptosis regulator *Bcl-x* was found in GST-P-positive foci and HCC initiated by DEN and promoted by phenobarbital and partial hepatectomy in a male F344 rats [53]. A member of the Bcl-2 family, the *Bcl-x* gene gives rise to two proteins: Bcl-xl, a dominant inhibitor of apoptotic cell death, and Bcl-xs, which promotes apoptosis. A Bcl-xs plasmid completely abrogated *N*-nitrosomorpholine-induced HCC formation in Sprague-Dawley rats [54]. Bcl-xs significantly increased apoptosis in hepatic nodules and foci in treated animals.

Genetic polymorphisms associated with enhanced susceptibility to hepatocarcinogens have also been identified in HCC. For example, the uridine 5'-diphosphate-glucuronosyltransferase UGT1A7*3 allele encodes an enzyme with low carcinogen detoxification activity. UGT1A7*3 was significantly associated with HCC in a German case-control study; 93.2% of 59 HCC patients had UGT1A7 polymorphisms, and 75% carried the UGT1A7*3 allele ($P < 0.001$) [55•]. A statistically significant correlation between serum AFB₁-albumin adducts and HCC risk was found in a case-control study of Taiwanese HBV patients (OR=2.0; 95% CI, 1.1–3.7) [56•]. The effect of the aflatoxin biomarker on HCC risk was increasingly prominent among those with the GSTT1 null genotype (OR=3.7; 95% CI, 1.5–9.3, $P = 0.03$). Interestingly, when the interaction between the biomarker and GSTT1 genotype was considered, aflatoxin exposure itself was not a significant risk determinant.

Oxidative DNA damage is elevated in the liver of patients with chronic liver disease and HCC. Levels of 8-hydroxy-2'-deoxyguanosine (8-OH-dG) were significantly elevated in the peritumoral, compared with tumoral, tissue in 51 HCC patients ($P < 0.005$) [57]. However, no differences in 8-OH-dG levels were found between tumor and surrounding normal liver tissue in 17 non-HCC patients. 8-OH-dG was also elevated in the liver of patients with chronic hepatitis, primary biliary cirrhosis, or alcoholism [58]. Hepatic oxidative stress was found in mice that were transgenic for the HCV core protein; the effect was exacerbated by alcohol but not associated with enhanced inflammation [59].

The role of DNA repair genes in HCC has been explored in several recent preclinical studies. For example, transgenic expression of human O⁶-methylguanine-DNA transferase in the liver significantly protected C3HeB/FeJ mice from either spontaneous (*ie*, not carcinogen-driven) or *N*-methyl-*N*-nitrosourea-induced HCC development [60,61]. An opposite effect was found for deficiency in the xeroderma pigmentosum group A gene in C3H/HeN mice; deletion of this DNA repair gene significantly increased susceptibility to either spontaneous or AFB₁-induced HCC development [62].

The retinoid X receptor- α , (RXR- α), the most abundant retinoid receptor in the liver, is highly expressed in HCC.

Mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK)-mediated phosphorylation of the accumulated RXR- α was associated with slowed degradation, low transactivating activity, and enhanced proliferation [63•]. Intriguingly, acyclic retinoid restored the transactivating function of phosphorylated RXR- α and promoted apoptosis in treated HCC cells [64]. Significantly higher expression levels of MAPK were found in HCCs than in surrounding normal tissue [65], suggesting one possible mechanism that may underlie enhanced RXR- α phosphorylation. A separate analysis showed that sustained activation of MAPK pathways was triggered by forced expression of the HBV X protein (HBx) in hepatocytes that are sensitive to transformation [66]. MAPK pathway activation was necessary for HBx-induced hepatocyte proliferation. HBx is a transcriptional transactivator implicated in HCC development, but its mechanism of action is unknown. Other potential mechanisms of HBx include disruption of intercellular adhesion [67]. This effect was associated with tyrosine phosphorylation of β -catenin, and it could be blocked by inhibition of src kinases. An analysis of HBx mutants suggests that COOH-terminal domains control proliferation and transformation by this viral protein [68].

Conclusions

HCC development is driven by multiple genetic and environmental factors that synergize to produce clinical disease. Molecular alterations associated with HCC development include *p53* loss of function mutations, *p16* gene hypermethylation, and polymorphisms in carcinogen detoxification genes. In addition, preclinical studies have identified a role for genes that control apoptosis, growth factor-driven proliferation, oxidative stress, and DNA repair in this multifactorial disease process. Goals of HCC prevention efforts include elimination of risk factors, particularly viral hepatitis. Vaccination programs against HBV initiated in areas of high endemic infection in the 1980s are already showing success in HCC prevention. Although HCV vaccine development has been hindered by the genetic complexity of the virus, treatment of HCV-infected patients with interferon α reduces HCC risk. However, the magnitude of risk reduction is low (approximately threefold) and is strongest among the minority of patients (15%–25%) who achieve sustained response. Glycyrrhizin, commonly used in HCV patients who fail interferon α treatment, has suggested efficacy against HCC. Unfortunately, interferon α administered to patients with HBV-related cirrhosis appears to be without effect on HCC development. L(-)nucleoside analogues that are approved or under development for HBV treatment may hold promise in this regard. Several chemopreventive agents (*eg*, oltipraz and chlorophyllin) have recently proven efficacious in modulating important clinical biomarkers of aflatoxin metabolism and excretion. Preclinical chemopreventive efficacy studies have identified additional agents that may prove to be successful upon further preclinical and clinical testing against HCC development.

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