Diagnostic Validity of Serum and Peritoneal CA125, CA19.9 and plasma Cell-Free Nuclear DNA (ccf nDNA) as Biomarkers of Pelvic Endometriosis:

A Case Control Study

Submitted as Partial Fulfillment of MD Degree in Obstetrics and Gynecology

BY

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Abb.	Meaning
ASRM	American Society of Reproductive Medicine
AUC	Area under the curve
BMI	Body mass index
CA-125	Cancer antigen 125
CA19.9	Cancer antigen 19.9
ccf DNA	Circulating cell fre DNA
ccf nDNA	Circulating cell free nuclear DNA
CGRP	Calcitonin gene-related protein
COCs	Combined oral contraceptives
COX-1	Cyclo oxygenase isoenzyme 1
COX-2	Cyclo oxygenase isoenzyme 2
CPP	Chronic pelvic pain
CRP	C-reactive protein
СТ	Computed tomography
DC	Dendritic cells
DIE	Deeply infiltrating endometriosis
DMPA	Depot medroxyprogesterone acetate
DNA	Deoxyribo nucleic acid
EC	Endometrial cells
ECM	Extracellular matrix proteins
EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
ELISA	Enzyme linked immunosorbant assay
EPF	Endometriotic peritoneal fluid
ERα	Estrogen receptor alpha
ERβ	Estrogen receptor beta

List of Abbreviations

Abb.	Meaning
ESHRE	European Society for Human Reproduction and
	Embryology
EUS	Endoscopic ultrasonography
FasL	Fas- ligand
GAPDH	Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase
GI	Gastrointestinal
GnRH	Gonadotrophin releasing hormone
HS	Highly significant
hs-CRP	High sensitive C reactive protein
ICAM1	Intercellular adhesion molecule-1
IFN-γ	Interferon-y
IgG	Immunoglobulin G
IL	Interleukin
IUD	Intrauterine device
KAR	Killer activating receptor
KIR	Killer inhibitory receptor
LNG.IUS	Levonorgestrel intrauterine system
MCP1	Monocyte chemotactic protein 1
MHC	Major histocompatibility complex
ml	Millilitre
MM	Minimal-mild
MMP	Matrix metalloproteinases
MRI	Magnetic resonance imaging
mRNA	Messenger ribonucleic acid
MS	Moderate-severe
mt DNA	Mitochondrial DNA

Π

Abb.	Meaning
NF	Neurofilament
ng	Nanogram
NK	Natural killer
NPV	Negative predictive value
NPY	Neuropeptide Y
NS	Non significant
PBMs	Peripheral blood monocytes
PC	Peritoneal cavity
PF	Peritoneal fluid
Pg	Picogram
PGE2	Prostaglandin E2
PGF2a	Prostaglandin F2α
PGP9.5	Protein gene product 9.9
PGs	Prostaglandins
PID	Pelvic inflammatory disease
PIGF	Placental growth factor
PM	Peritoneal macrophages
PP14	Placental protein 14
PPV	Positive predictive value
PRα	Progesterone receptor alpha
ΡRβ	Progesterone receptor beta
r-AFS	Revised American fertility society
RANTES	Regulated on activation, normal T cell expressed
	and secreted
r-ASRM	Revised four staging scoring system of American
	society of reproductive medicine

III

Abb.	Meaning
ROC	Receiver operating characteristic
ROS	Reactive oxygen species
RT-PCR	Real time polymerase chain reaction
S	Significant
S.ICAM1	Soluble form of intercellular adhesion molecule-1
SD	Standard deviation
SLE	Systemic lupus erythematosus
SP	Substance P
SPRMS	Selective progesterone receptor modulators
TGF.B	Transforming growth factor B
TIMP	Tissue inhibitor of metallo proteinases
TNF-α	Tumor necrosis factor alpha
TVS	Transvaginal sonography
TVU	Transvaginal ultrasound
VEGF	Vascular endothelial growth factor
VIP	Vasoactive intestinal peptide

IV

V

Introduction

Endometriosis is a benign gynecological disease defined as the presence of endometrial-like glands and stroma outside the uterine cavity, most commonly implanted over visceral and peritoneal surfaces within the female pelvis (*Van Gorp et al.*, 2004; Flores et al., 2007).

Although the exact prevalence of endometriosis in the general population is not clear, the prevalence in women of reproductive age is estimated to range between 10 and 15%.

Endometriosis occurs mainly in women of reproductive age (16–50 years) and has a progressive character in at least 50%, but the rate and risk factors for progression are unknown (*D'Hooghe et al., 2006*). It is commonly associated with subfertility and a range of pelvic pain symptoms such as chronic dysmenorrhea, premenstrual abdominal and pelvic pain, back pain, dysuria, dyschezia and dyspareunia. However, the relationship between different pains and endometriosis is not well understood and there is poor correlation between the severity of pain symptoms and anatomical staging of the disease (*Chapron et al., 2003*).

The diagnosis of endometriosis can be suspected in women with pelvic pain and/or subfertility, although endometriosis may be completely asymptomatic (*Kennedy et al., 2005*). Clinical detection of abdominal or pelvic pain can be suggestive of endometriosis. Vaginal ultrasound is an adequate diagnostic method to detect ovarian endometriotic cysts and deeply infiltrative endometriotic noduli, but does not rule out peritoneal endometriosis or endometriosis-associated adhesions. The gold standard for the diagnosis of endometriosis is laparoscopic inspection, ideally with histological confirmation (Kennedy et al., 2005)

The diagnosis of endometriosis is a major stumbling block for both clinical management and research studies of this enigmatic disease. At the moment, there is no simple, reliable, non-invasive way to diagnose endometriosis, although there are a number of studies currently underway to try and identify 'biomarkers' of this disease (*Kennedy et al., 2005*).

Development of a non-invasive diagnostic test for endometriosis would have a groundbreaking impact on the patients' quality of life, on the efficacy of available treatment as well as on the cost of endometriosis. However, a recent survey completed in 7025 women with endometriosis (*European Endometriosis Alliance, 2006*) demonstrated that 65% of the women with endometriosis were first misdiagnosed with another condition, and 46% had to see five doctors or more before they were correctly diagnosed, resulting in an average delay of 8 years between the onset of symptoms and the diagnosis of endometriosis (*Zondervan et al., 1999*; Ballard et al., 2006). A simple diagnostic test is urgently needed.

So far, non-invasive approaches such as ultrasound, magnetic resonance imaging or blood tests have not yielded sufficient power for the diagnosis of endometriosis (Chen et al., 1998; Mol et al., 1998; Zondervan et al., 1999; Harada et al., 2002; Somigliana et al., 2004; Kennedy et al., 2005; Ballard et al., 2006). However, most studies evaluating biomarkers for the diagnosis of endometriosis have shown various limitations: low patient number, mostly assessment of only one biomarker, univariate analysis only if multiple biomarkers were tested, or lack of consideration for biomarker variability according to menstrual cycle phase (O'Shaughnessy et al., 1993; Tabibzadeh et al., 1995a, b; Abrao et al., 1997; Bon et al., 1999; Harada et al., 2002; Somigliana et al., 2004; Xavier et al., 2005, 2006).

Cancer antigen 125 (CA125), a high molecular weight glycoprotein, is widely used for differentiation of benign and malignant ovarian masses in gynecology. It is the most significant tumor marker for the diagnosis of epithelial ovarian carcinomas. It has been reported that more than 80% of patients with ovarian carcinoma have a CA125 concentration above 35 IU/mL, compared to 1% of normal women. (*Boyer et al. 1994*).

Elevated serum CA125 concentrations have been recognized in a variety of other gynecological malignancies such as tubal, endometrial, endocervical. Although the positive predictive value of CA125 >95 IU/mL for ovarian cancer is quite high (96%) in postmenopausal women with an adnexal mass, the specificity is lower in premenopausal women, as elevations may occur in the presence of adenomyosis, uterine fibroids, pelvic inflammatory disease, pregnancy, menstruation, or especially in endometriosis.

Serum CA125 concentrations patients with in endometriosis are seldom >100 IU/mL. Sometimes, serum CA125 concentrations in women with endometriosis can elevate rapidly as a consequence of peritoneal irritation as a result of acute rupture of an endometriomal cyst (Harada et al. 2002). In two different reports CA125 concentrations of 9300 IU/mL (Ye et al. 1994), and 6114 IU/mL (Ferrero et al. 2007) demonstrated in association with were ruptured endometriomas.

The human endometrium produces and secretes CA125, thus serum concentrations of CA125 during menstruation are approximately threefold higher than those before menstruation in women with endometriosis. Another tumour marker is CA19-9 that is elevated in patients with malignant and benign ovarian tumours in gynecology (*Ye et al. 1994*).

Serum CA19-9 concentrations are elevated in patients with gastrointestinal system malignancies, or malignant and benign ovarian tumours. However, there are some reports showing elevated serum CA19-9 concentrations in endometriosis (*Harada et al. 2002*).

Increased concentrations of ccf DNA have been found in inflammatory conditions, such as systemic lupus erythematosus and rheumatoid arthritis (*Galeazzi et al., 2003; Zhong et al., 2007a*). The discovery of circulating cell-free (ccf) DNA in circulation has opened up the possibilities of non-invasive diagnosis and monitoring of a wide variety of malignant diseases.

Additionally, there have been several recent studies demonstrating the existence of another species of circulating nucleic acids, i.e. mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA). Both ccf nDNA and ccf mtDNA in circulation have been found to be elevated in trauma (*Lo et al., 2000; Lam et al., 2004*), suggesting that cell death is the source of ccf DNA, including the proportion of histone-protein bound molecules and unbound part molecules (*Seefeld et al., 2008*).