Management of Hepatocellular carcinoma in cirrhotic patients

Essay

submitted for fulfillment of master degree in general surgery

<u>By</u>

Gamal Ragab Ahmed Hassan

M.B.B.CH, Ain Shams University

Supervised by

Prof. Dr: Mohamed Naguib Hassan

Professor of General surgery

Ain Shams University

Prof. Dr. Amr Kamel El Feky

Assistant Professor of General surgery

Ain Shams University

Dr. Hany Said Abd El-Baset

Lecturer of General surgery

Ain Shams University

Ain Shams University

2010

طرق علاج سرطان الكبد في مرضى التليف الكبدي

رسالة توطئة للحصول على درجة الماجستير في الجراحة العامة

مقدمة من الطبيب جمال رجب أحمد حسن بكالوريوس الطب و الجراحة جامعة عين شمس

تحت إشراف

أ.د / محمد نجيب حسن

أستاذ الجراحة العامة جامعة عين شمس

أ.د / عمرو كامل الفقى

أستاذ مساعد الجراحة العامة جامعة عين شمس

د / هانی سعید عبد الباسط

مدرس الجراحة العامة جامعة عين شمس

جامعة عين شمس ٢٠١٠

List of Abbreviations

| AFB1 | Aflatoxin -B1 | |
|-----------|-------------------------------------|--|
| ALT | Alanine transaminase | |
| ALD | Alcohol liver disease | |
| ALP | Alkaline phosphatase | |
| AFP | Alpha feto protein | |
| AJCC | American joint committee on cancer | |
| AST | Aspartate transamin | |
| ATH | Auto –immune hepatitis | |
| BCIC | Barcelona clinic liver cancer | |
| BC | Biliary complications | |
| CIIP | Cancer of the liver Italian Program | |
| CEA | Carcino- embryonic antigen | |
| CT | Computed tomography | |
| CEMRI | Contrast- enhanced MRI | |
| CSE | Contrast spin echo | |
| CECT | Contrast-enhanced CT | |
| DGCP | Des – gamma carboxy prothrombin | |
| DSA | Digital subtraction angiography | |
| DPD | Dihydropyrimidine hydrogenase | |
| DNA | Dinuclic acid | |
| M | Distant metastasis | |
| FNA | Fine needle aspiration | |
| FNAC | Fine Needle aspiration cytology | |
| FNB | Fine needle biopsy | |
| 18 F- FDG | Fluorine – 18 fluorodeoxy glucose | |
| FNH | Focal nodular hyperplasia | |

| FLR | Future liver remnant | | |
|-----------------|---|--|--|
| GD- DTPA | Gadolinium diethylene triamine Pentaacetic acid | | |
| GD – EOP – DTPA | Gadolinium ethoxy benzl diethylene Triamine pentaacetic acid | | |
| GPC-3 | Glypican – 3 | | |
| HSEC | Hepatic sinusoidal endothelial cell | | |
| HBsAg | Hepatitis B surface antigene | | |
| HBV | Hepatitis B virus | | |
| HCV | Hepatitis C virus | | |
| НСС | Hepatocellular carcinoma | | |
| HCFU | Hexyl carbamoyl -5-fluorouracil | | |
| ICG | Indocyanine green | | |
| IVC | Inferior vena cava | | |
| ICU | Intencive care unit | | |
| INR | International normalize ratio | | |
| ILC | Interstitial laser coagulation | | |
| MRNs | Macro-regenerative nodule | | |
| MRI | Magnetic Resonance imaging | | |
| MTC | Metastatic tumor cryosurgery | | |
| MTC | Microwave tissue coagulation | | |
| MDRG | Multi-drug resistance gene | | |
| NCB | Needle core biopsy | | |
| NASH | Non alcoholic steatohepatitis | | |
| NSD | Non significant difference | | |
| NCCTG | North central cancer treatment group | | |
| OLT | Orthotopic liver transplantation | | |

| PEI | Percutaneous ethanol injection | |
|-------------------|---|--|
| PS | Performance status | |
| P-gp | P-glycoprotein | |
| PVE | Portal vein embolization | |
| PET | Positron emission tomography | |
| PBC | Primary biliary cirrhosis | |
| PSC | Primary sclerosing cholangitis | |
| TNM: T | Primary tumor | |
| PT | Prothrombim time | |
| RFA | Radio frequency ablation | |
| N | Regional lymph nodes | |
| RRs | Response rates | |
| SE | Spin echo | |
| SIRS | Systemic inflammatory response syndrome | |
| ^{99M} TC | Technetium | |
| Th1 | T-helper 1 | |
| TAE | Transarterial emblization | |
| TACE | Transarterial chemo emblization | |
| US | Ultra sound | |
| UNOS | United networks for organ sharing | |
| USA | United states | |
| VEGF | Vascular endothelial growth factor | |
| Wnt | Wingless – type | |

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INTRODUCTION

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is a common cancer that typically occurs in the setting of cirrhosis and chronic hepatitis virus infections.

Hepatitis B and C account for approximately 80% of cases worldwide. HCC is currently the fifth most common malignancy in men and the eighth in women worldwide; its incidence is increasing dramatically in many parts of the world (*Snowberger*, et al. 2007).

The incidence of HCC has both geographic and time-dependent variation related to the prevalence of viral hepatitis in the population over recent decades (*Durand*, et al. 2007).

All HCC occurs in the setting of cirrhosis or advanced fibrosis. Thus, any cause of liver disease that can result in cirrhosis should be considered a potential risk factor for HCC. Not surprisingly, the most common causes of cirrhosis (hepatitis B virus [HBV], HCV, and alcohol) are also the most common causes of HCC (Fuss, et al. 2005).

HCC is seen less commonly, in genetic hemochromatosis, autoimmune hepatitis, primary sclerosing cholangitis, nonalcoholic fatty liver disease, alpha-1 antitrypsin deficiency, Wilson disease, primary biliary cirrhosis, and certain metabolic liver diseases (*Ries, et al. 2008*).

Recognition of those at risk and early diagnosis by surveillance with imaging, with or without serologic testing, are extremely important (*Krinsky and Taouli, 2006*).

AFP has been used as a serum marker for HCC for decades. In the years prior to sensitive imaging techniques any focal lesion in a patient with cirrhosis should be suspected of being HCC. The ability of

abdominal imaging to detect HCC has improved dramatically over the last 2 decades (*Daniele*, et al. 2005).

The role of biopsy in confirming HCC is controversial. While biopsy was often required for definitive diagnosis before the advent of more sensitive and specific imaging tests (*Liaw*, et al. 2006).

Many highly effective and even curative therapies are now available that include resection and liver transplantation. Appropriate application of these interventions offers hope of prolonged survival to many patients with this otherwise lethal complication of liver disease (Colli, et al. 2006).

Surgical resection of HCC, either partial hepatectomy or total hepatectomy with transplantation, offers the best long-term recurrence-free outcome (60%–70% 5-year survival) (*Lopez, et al. 2006*).

Locoregional ablation refers to a variety of intervention techniques that specifically target a tumor or a tumor and surrounding tissue with a process to directly destroy the tumor. Numerous methods of ablation have been developed. Percutaneous ethanol injection utilizes direct injection of absolute ethanol into the tumor, resulting in dehydration of cells and protein degradation with coagulative necrosis of the tumor and surrounding tissue (*Lopez, et al. 2006*).

Temperature-based methods, including cryoablation, laser-induced thermal ablation, or microwave thermal ablation, utilize drastic temperature changes to cause cell disruption and necrosis (**Avila**, et al. 2006).

Recently, several technological modifications of external beam radiation have allowed delivery of tumoricidal radiation doses the most popular methods of locoregional ablation are radiofrequency ablation (RFA) and transarterial chemoembolization (TACE) (Sutherland, et al. 2005).

Most HCC tumours are highly vascular with rich blood supply making transarterial chemoembolization an attractive therapeutic option (Sangiovanni, et al. 2006).

Aim of the work

To review different modalities of management of hepatocellular carcinoma in cirrhotic patients

ANATOMY

Gross anatomy of the liver:

The liver can be described according to different aspects:

- 1. Morphological anatomy:
- 2. Functional or surgical anatomy:

Morphological anatomy:

The liver is the largest gland in the body, weighs approximately 1200-1500 gm and receives about 1500ml of blood per minute. The wedge-shaped organ occupies most of the right hypochondrium and epigastrium. It has two surfaces, diaphragmatic and visceral (inferior). Its upper border lies anteriorly at the level of fifth or sixth intercostal space (*Chummy*, 1999).

Development:

The liver develops by proliferation of cells from the blind ends of a Y shaped diverticulum which grow from the foregut into the septum transversum. The cranial part of the septum transversum becomes the pericardium and the diaphragm while the caudal part becomes the ventral mesogastrium into which the liver grows (*Chumny*, 1999).

Surface anatomy (of anterior surface)

1. Upper border:

A line, concave upwards, which extends from the left 5th rib in midclavicular line to the 4th right intercostal space in midclavicular line, passing by the xiphisternal joint, then continuous to the right 7th rib in

midaxillary line.

2. Right border:

Vertical line from right 7th to 11th ribs in midaxillary line then extends for 1/2an inch below costal margin.

3. Inferior border:

Oblique line which joins the ends of upper and right borders crossing the left 8th then right 9th costal margin, (shilla and Dolley, 1997). (Fig.1)

Surfaces of the liver:

The diaphragmatic surface is boldly convex, modulated to the undersurface of diaphragm, which separates it from pleura, lungs, pericardium and heart. It is descriptively subdivided into anterior, superior, posterior and right surfaces, which merge into one another without any clear demarcations. The inferior or (visceral) surface, is moulded to adjacent viscera and is therefore irregular in shape, it lies in contact with the abdominal part of the esophagus, the stomach, the duodenum, the right colic flexure, the right kidney and supra-renal gland, and the gall bladder. The porta hepatis, or the hilum of the liver, is found on the inferior surface and lies between the fossa for the gall bladder and the upper end of the fissure for ligamentum teres (Fig.2) (*Chummy*, 1999).