

What's new in pancreatic cancer treatment?

MAN C. FUNG and TOHRU SAKATA

Oncology Department, Lilly Research Laboratories-Japan, Eli Lilly Japan, Sanomiya Plaza Building, 7-1-5 Isogamidori, Chuo-ku, Kobe 651-0086, Japan

Abstract Pancreatic cancer represents a major challenge to oncologists because of its high chemoresistant nature and dismal outcomes. Conventional therapy for advanced disease relied for a long time on palliative 5-fluorouracil (5-FU)based chemotherapy, but with unsatisfactory results. The introduction of the novel antimetabolite gemcitabine provides new optimism for patients with advanced pancreatic cancer, as multiple clinical trials have demonstrated the superiority of gemcitabine over 5-FU and other agents for these patients. The benefits of gemcitabine over conventional therapies include improved response rate and enhanced survival, as well as improvement in disease-related symptoms and quality of life in these patients. With these data, gemcitabine is widely accepted worldwide as the therapy of choice by many oncologists for advanced pancreatic cancer. The current review presents an overview of the clinical studies of gemcitabine over the past decade for the treatment of patients with advanced pancreatic cancer. Other investigational regimens or uses (e.g., fixed dose-rate infusion, intraarterial infusion, adjuvant use, chemo-radiation, etc) are also reviewed.

Key words Adjuvant therapy \cdot Chemotherapy \cdot Clinical benefit response \cdot Chemoradiation \cdot Gemcitabine \cdot Neo-adjuvant therapy \cdot Pancreatic cancer \cdot Review

Introduction

Pancreatic cancer accounts for approximately 2%–3% of all malignant neoplasms worldwide.¹⁻⁶ It causes around 200 000 deaths yearly and is the fifth most common cause of cancer mortality in the world. Pancreatic

cancer is a major challenge to oncologists because of its high frequency of oncogene mutations and highly chemoresistant nature.^{6,7} Disease progression is often associated with debilitating symptoms, such as abdominal and back pain, anorexia, weight loss, nausea, jaundice, fatigue, and depression. Unfortunately, because of the lack of early symptoms, most patients would present with advanced disease when diagnosed, and the outcome has generally been very poor. The median survival for patients with advanced disease is in the range of only a few months.^{3–6}

Many chemotherapeutic agents were previously tested as single or combination therapies for pancreatic cancer.⁸⁻¹⁹ However, the response rates have been highly variable, and are often unreproducible. Among these agents, fluorouracil (5-FU) perhaps was the most extensively studied.¹²⁻¹⁹ However, the response rates of 5-FU were quite variable, as well as not showing a consistent benefit on either survival or improvement of symptoms. Other chemotherapy agents or combinations have also failed to demonstrate any improved response rates or survival compared with 5-FU.¹⁶⁻¹⁹ Because of the lack of satisfactory treatment for advanced pancreatic cancer, there is a need for new oncolytic agents to be evaluated.

Gemcitabine is a pyrimidine antimetabolite that exhibits a broad range of activity against a variety of solid tumors.^{20,21} Preclinical studies had demonstrated the activity of gemcitabine in the inhibition of human pancreatic cells in vitro. Over the past decade, multiple clinical studies have illustrated the benefits of gemcitabine for pancreatic cancer, especially in terms of disease stabilization, clinical benefit response (CBR), and survival. Since its first approval for use in the United States and Europe in the mid-1990s, gemcitabine has become the agent of choice for the treatment of advanced pancreatic cancer. The current report provides an overview of the published clinical data for the use of gemcitabine in pancreatic cancer.

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Single-arm studies

To date, there have been ten studies published using gemcitabine as a single agent for advanced pancreatic cancer.^{22–32} These studies were published from 1994 to 2001. All studies used 800-1500 mg/m² of gemcitabine on a weekly basis, in either the conventional 4-week schedule (on days 1, 8, and 15) or the 7-week first regimen (continuously for 7 weeks with 1 week of rest, followed by the regular 4-week schedule). Table 1 depicts the details of these studies. As can be seen from the data presented, although the objective responses observed were relatively low (4.3% to 18.2%), there were a substantial number of patients with stable disease (18.8% to 50.0%). Excluding the study of Rothenberg et al.,³² which was conducted in patients who failed prior 5-FU therapy, the median overall survival reported was 5.0 to 9.8 months, which was higher than the customary 3–6 months approximate survival for these patients without treatment. One-year survival was reported as being between 14.3% and 39.0%.

Interestingly, the investigators in these studies also noted that symptom improvement had occurred in patients not achieving an objective tumor response. This was an important observation, because many patients with advanced pancreatic cancers were symptomatic and experienced debilitating pain, severe anorexia, weight loss, and low performance status. This observation led to the use of the clinical benefit response (CBR) as an alternative outcome measurement to evaluate the efficacy of gemcitabine in pancreatic cancer. CBR is a measure of clinical improvement in terms of pain intensity, analgesic consumption, performance status, and weight change.33,34 A patient will be considered a responder if rated "positive" for either of the primary measures of pain or performance status without a negative rating in the other parameters. A patient could also be a responder if both of the two primary parameters are stable and there is a weight gain. Among the studies reviewed, CBR was achieved in 26.6% to 48.0% of the patients.

Toxicities were generally modest and manageable, as few patients needed discontinuation of the therapies as a consequence. Among these studies, the grade 3-4 hematological toxicities observed were leukopenia (6.1%-27.3%), neutropenia (6.6%-36.4%), thrombocytopenia (0.0%-18.0%), and anemia (3.0%-22.0%), which were quite acceptable from the perspective of cytotoxic agents. In addition, the hematological toxicities were generally reversible over time or during the resting week and rarely led to significant infections, bleeding, or toxic deaths. Nonhematological toxicities were also modest, with nausea and vomiting, transaminase elevations, fever, and rash the most commonly reported. One study perhaps worthy of further discussion was the one from Rothenberg et al.³² This study investigated the use of gemcitabine in patients who failed prior 5-FU treatment. Of the 63 assessable patients, partial responses were seen in 10.5% of the patients, with an additional 29.8% who had stable disease. CBR was noted in 27% of the patients, and the median survival was 3.85 months. This study illustrated the utility of gemcitabine in 5-FU-failure patients and the lack of cross-resistance between these two agents.

Randomized studies

To date, eight randomized studies have been published comparing gemcitabine with either another chemotherapeutic agent or with a combination of another agent plus gemcitabine.35-42 Table 2 depicts the details of these studies. The first, and perhaps the most discussed study, was the randomized phase III study by Burris et al.,35 which substantiated the efficacy of gemcitabine noted in earlier studies, as well as demonstrating the advantage of gemcitabine over 5-FU as first-line treatment for patients with locally advanced or metastatic pancreatic cancer. In that study, 126 symptomatic patients were randomized to receive either gemcitabine (63 patients) or 5-FU (63 patients). The regimen of gemcitabine was 1000 mg/m², using the 7-week initial regimen, while patients on 5-FU received a dose of 600 mg/m² once weekly. There were 23.8% of the patients who achieved CBR in the gemcitabine arm compared with 4.8% for the 5-FU patients (P = 0.0022). Median survival was 5.65 months for the gemcitabinetreated patients compared with 4.41 months for those who received 5-FU (P = 0.0025). In addition, other efficacy parameters, such as median time to progressive disease (2.1 vs 0.9 months) and 1-year survival probability (18% vs 2%), were all more favorable for the gemcitabine-treated patients. Both treatments were well tolerated, despite a slightly higher incidence of hematologic events noted in the gemcitabine arm. Table 2 depicts the details of the comparison.

Three other randomized studies were completed comparing agents of newer therapeutic classes that were being developed for pancreatic cancer (i.e., the matrix metallo proteinase inhibitor [MMPI] or farnesyl transferase inhibitor [FTI] classes) with gemcitabine. The first of these was a study conducted by Bramhall et al.³⁶ in the United Kingdom comparing three doses of marimastat (an MMPI) against gemcitabine. A total of 414 patients were enrolled in this four-arm study, in which gemcitabine was administered at 1000 mg/m² in the 7-week first schedule against three other arms, of marimastat (10 mg, 20 mg, and 50 mg/day). Except in the high-dose arm, in which the 1-year survival was similar

Table	1. Single-ag	ent studies of gem-	lcitab	ine ir	n adva	inced pi	ancreat	ic cance	3r						
															Toxicity
Study		Gemcitahine dose		ЪВ	CIS.	DR+SD	CBR	1-Year	ТТР	MST	H	ematologi	cal (G3/4; %	(
no.	Authors	(mg/m ²)	и	(%) ^a	(%)	(%)	(%)	.mc (%)	(months)	(months)	Leuko	Neutro	Thromb	Anemia	Nonhematological
1	Casper ²²	800 × q3 of 4 wk (max, 1500)	4 4	11.0	31.8	42.8	NA	23.0	3.7	5.6	Median (1.6–9.3) 10 ³ /μl (0. nadir, 12	WBC nadi , Median / (4−7.2), Me	ir, 3.8×10^3 ANC nadir, dian platele (30-245)	(μl 2.0 × t	Mild to moderate flu-like syndrome: all pts Mild hemolytic-uremic syndrome: 1 pt
0	Carmichael ²³	800 × q3 of 4 wk (max, 1000)	34	6.3	18.8	25.1	NA	NA	AN	6.3	6.1	24.5	9.1	3.0	G3 (nausea/vomiting 26.7%, diarrhea 3.3%, pain 3.3%, state of consciousness 3.3%), G2 (eutaneous 10%, fever 20%, infection 6.7%, nausea/vomiting 20.0%, state of consciousness 13.3%)
б	Petrovic ²⁸	1000×7 wk, then q3 of 4 wk	11	NA	NA	NA	33.0	26.0	NA	6.65					Well tolerated
4	Manzano ²⁷	$1000 \times 7 \text{ wk},$ then q3 of 4 wk	15	NA	NA	NA	26.6	39.0	NA	NA	NA	6.6	NA	NA	G4 asthenia 6.6%
Ś	Kurtz ²⁹	$1000 \times 7 \text{ wk}$, then q3 of 4 wk	74	4.3	39.1	43.4	48.0	AN	AN	5.0	AN	27.0	14.0	22.0	G3/4 (asthenia, 5 pts; nausea/vomiting, 4 pts; anorexia, 3 pts; partial occlusion-occlusion, 3 pts; edema, 1 pt; cardiac insufficiency, 1 pt; embolization of catheter, 1 pt; arterial hypotension, 1 pt; jaundice, 1 pt; dehydration, 1 pt; abdominal pain, 1 pt)
9	$Aykan^{26}$	$1000 \times 7 \text{ wk},$ then q3 of 4 wk	14	14.3	50.0	64.3	NA	14.3	NA	6.0					No G3/4 toxicity
٢	Meyer ³⁰	1000×7 wk, then q3 of 4 wk	28	7.2	39.2	46.4	NA	14.3	NA	9.8	11	NA	18	8.0	G3 (diarrhea, 7%; nausea, 7%; edema, 4%; alopecia, 20%)
8	Crino ²⁴	1000×7 wk, then q3 of 4 wk	33	12.1	45.5	57.6	NA	ΝA	NA	7.6	6	NA	12.0	12.0 (G2/3)	Nausea/vomiting G1/2 (24%/9%); G1/2 skin rash, 9%; peripheral edema 24%; asthenia, 39%; G1, alopecia 3%
6	Rothenberg ²²	1000×7 wk, then q3 of 4 wk (max, 1250)	74	10.5	29.8	40.3	27.0	4.0	2.53	3.85	9.8	26.2 ^b	4.9	11.4	G4 (hemorrhage, 1.6%; vomiting, 1.6%), G2/3 (constipation, 4.8%/1.6%; cutaneous, 9.5%0%; fever, 14.3%/1.6%; hair loss, 1.6%0%; infection, 0%/3.2%; nausea/voniting, 28.6%6.3%; oral mucositis, 1.6%0%; pain, 3.2%/1.6%; peripheral neuropathy, 1.6%0%; state of consciousness, 1.6%/3.2%)
10	Okada ³¹	(a) $1000 \times q_3$ of 4 wk (b) 1000×7 wk, then q3 of 4 wk	11	18.2	36.4	54.6	28.6	18.2	NA	6.3	27.3	36.4	0.0	9.1	G3/4 anorexia, 27.3%, G3 (nausea/vomiting, 9.1%; fatigue, 18.2%; GOT/GTP, 9.1%; weight loss, 9.1%)
n, Nun	nber of patients;]	PR, partial response; SD), stabl	e disea	ise; CBI	R, clinical bil count:	benefit re NA not	esponse;]	TTP, time to j	progression;	MST, me	dian surviv	val time; G,	toxicity gra	ade; leuko, leukopenia; neutro, neutropenia; thromb,

survival ē Ъ, thrombocytopenia; WBC, white blood cell; ^a Calculated including complete response ^b Granulocytopenia

																Toxicity
Study			Dose	д	Ř	L L	R+SD	CBR	1 Year sur	PFS	MST	He	matologic	al (G3/4):	%	
no.	Authors	Drug	(mg/m^2)	u (9	%) ^a ('	(%	(%)	(%)	(%)	(months)	(months)	Leuko	Neutro	Thromb	Anemia	Nonhematological
1	Burris ³⁵	Gem	1000×7 wk, then q3 of 4 wk (max, 1250)	63	5.4 3	0.6	44.4	23.8	18.0	NA	5.65 TTP (2.1)	9.7	25.9	9.7	9.7	G3/4 (nausea/vomiting 12.7%), G3 (diarrhea, 1.6%; constipation, 3.2%; state of consciousness, 1.6%; pain, 1.6%)
		5FU	600 weekly	63	0.0 1	0.6	19.0	4.8	2.0	NA	4.41 TTP (0.9)	1.6	4.9	1.6	0.0	G3 (nausea/vomiting. 4.8%; diarrhea, 4.8%; constipation, 1.6%; state of consciousness, 1.6%)
7	Bramhall ³⁶	Gem	1000×7 wk, then q3 of 4 wk	03 20	6.0 N	AV	NA	NA	19.0	3.8	5.5	2.0	7.0 ^b	5.0	2.0	G3/4 (cardiac function, 1%; constipation, 1%; fever in absence of infection, 1%; infection, 2%; local, 1%; nausea, 4%; neurocortical [cortical], 5%; [motor], 4%; pulmonary, 9%; skin, 3%)
		Marimastat	5 mg b.i.d.	04	2.8 D	AV	NA	NA	14.0	1.8	3.6	0.0	1.0 ^b	3.0	4.0	G3/4 (cardiac dysrhythmias, 1%; diarrhea, 1%; musculoskeletal, 7%; nausea, 2%; neurocortical[cerebellar], 2%; [vision], 1%; pulmonary, 3%; weight gain or loss, 1%)
			10 mg b.i.d.	05	2.8 D	٩A	NA	NA	14.0	1.9	3.5	0.0	0.0 ^b	0.0	3.0	G3/4 (musculoskeletal, 7%; nausea, 1%; neurocortical[motor], 1%; vomiting, 1%)
			25 mg b.i.d.	02	2.8 D	٩A	NA	NA	20.0	1.9	4.1	0.0	0.0 ^b	2.0	2.0	G3/4 (musculoskeletal, 12%; nausea, 1%; neurocortical[motor], 1%; pulmonary, 1%)
б	Moore ³⁷	Gem	1000×7 wk, then q3 of 4 wk	39	4.3 4	4.6	48.9	NA	25.0	3.4	6.7	NA	34.5	6.5	10.1	G3/4 (nausea, 3.6%; vomiting, 5.0%; lethargy, 5.8%)
		Bay-12- 9566	800 mg p.o. b.i.d.	38 (0.7 2	2.5	23.2	ΝA	10.0	1.7	3.7	NA	2.2	0.0	10.1	G3/4 (Nausea, 8.0%; vomiting, 2.9%; lethargy, 6.5%)
4	Lersch ³⁸	Gem	1000×7 wk, then q3 of 4 wk	30	3.3 3	6.7	40.0	NA	NA	NA	4.4	NA	17.0	17.0	NA	Nausea/vomiting, diarrhea were reported equally with both drugs, but were more severe with gem
		SCH66336	200 mg p.o. b.i.d.	33	6.1 1;	8.2	24.3	NA	NA	NA	3.3	ΝA	3.0	0.0	NA	
5	Colucci ⁴¹	Gem	$1000 \times 7 \text{ wk}$ then q3 of 4 wk	51 1(4	٩A	NA	45	NA	NA	NA	3.0	13.0	3.0	3.0	G3/4 nausea/vomiting, 3%
		Gem + CDDP	1000×7 wk, then q3 of 4 wk. 25 D1	52 3	4	٩A	NA	38	NA	NA	NA	6.0	26.0	3.0	10.0	G3/4 (nausea/vomiting. 23%; diarrhea. 3%)
9	Di Costanzo ³⁹	Gem	1000×7 wk, then q3 of 4 wk	49	8.3 2	9.2	37.5	NA	NA	3.2	7.2	2.0	NA	0.0	6.0	G3 (asthenia, 2%; fever, 2%)
		Gem + 5FU	1000×7 wk, then q3 of 4 wk. 200×6 wk, CI, then q3 of 4 wk	45 1.	1.6 2	6.7.	39.5	NA	NA	4.2	6.9	2.0	NA	2.0	7.0	G3 (mucositis, 5%; nausealvomiting, 2%; asthenia, 2%; fever, 5%)
7	Berlin ⁴⁰	Gem	$1000 \times q3$ of 4 wk $^{-1}$	63 N	IA D	٩A	NA	NA	NA	NA	5.4	16.0	5.0°	NA	NA	G3/4 diarrhea, 4%
		Gem + 5FU	$1000 \times q3$ of 4 wk $600 \times q3$ of 4 wk	64 N	4 V	٩A	NA	NA	NA	NA	6.7	29.0	7.0°	NA	NA	G3/4 diarrhea, 10%
8	Heinemann ⁴²	Gem	$1000 \times q3$ of 4 wk	54 N	A N	٩A	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	5.5	NA	7.4	9.2	G3/4 (mucositis, 3.7%; diarrhea, 7.4%), G3 nausea/vomiting, 3.7%
		Gem + CDDP	1000 × q3 of 4 wk. 50 (d1,15) q4 w	46 N	V P	٩A	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	13.0	NA	8.6	13.0	G3/4 (mucositis, 4.3%; diarrhea, 10.8%), G3 nausea/vomiting, 33%
Gen, G, tox	Gemcitabine; N icity grade: leul	Aax, maximur ko, leukopeni	n; <i>n</i> , number of patient a: neutro. neutropenia	s; PR, _I	partial nb, thr	respon	se; SD, st. vtopenia;	able dise 5FU, 5	ease; CB fluorour	R, clinical b acil: CDDP	enefit respo	nse; PFS	, progress	ion-free su	rvival; MS	T, median survival time; TTP, time to progression;

Table 2. Randomized studies of gemcitabine in Advanced pancreatic cancer

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to that with gemcitabine, all other efficacy variables (median survival, progression-free survival, improvement of performance status, and pain) were all better for the patients who underwent gemcitabine treatment than for those treated with any doses of marimastat. Table 2 depicts the details of these data.

Another study was also conducted to compare gemcitabine versus yet another MMPI (Bay 12-9566).³⁷ This study, led by Moore et al.,³⁷ was conducted by the National Cancer Institute of Canada Clinical Trials Group (NCIC-CTG) at 41 sites throughout North America. However, this study was terminated early because the results were too unfavorable for this new agent, which made further enrollment unethical for the patients. Overall, among the 277 patients enrolled (out of the original plan for 350 patients), gemcitabine was superior to Bay 12-9566 in terms of overall survival (6.7 vs 3.7 months), progression-free survival (3.4 vs 1.7 months), and objective responses (partial response [PR] + stable disease [SD]; 48.9% vs 23.2%). Side effects were manageable for both treatments.

Another randomized study was published recently using an FTI (SCH 66336) against gemcitabine.³⁸ The study, led by Lersch et al.,³⁸ enrolled 63 patients in two arms (30 patients for gemcitabine and 33 for SCH 66336). The primary endpoint was 3-month progression-free survival, which was 31% for the gemcitabine-treated patients and 23% for the SCH 66336 patients. Response rate (see Table 2) and median survival time were also higher for the gemcitabine arm. Besides these studies, four other randomized studies have compared gemcitabine alone versus gemcitabine combinations (i.e., with 5-FU or cisplatin).³⁹⁻⁴² They are discussed below, under the heading "Gemcitabine in combination with other cytotoxic drugs".

Treatment investigational new drug program

A large-scale Treatment Investigational New Drug Program (TIND) for gemcitabine was conducted in 1995-1996 in 3023 patients with locally advanced or metastatic pancreatic cancer.43 Gemcitabine was administered using the 7-week initial regimen. There were 1.4% complete responses (CRs) and 10.6% partial responses (PRs), with an overall response rate of 12% noted. The median overall survival was 4.8 months, and 1-year survival was 15%. A parameter similar to CBR, called disease-related symptom improvement (DRSI) was used in this study. DRSI was defined as improvement in either pain, or analgesic class, or a 20 point increase in the Karnofsky performance scale; or, if all three were stable, a 7% increase in dry weight compared with baseline. Cumulative DRSI responses were observed in 13.5%, 16.6%, 18.0%, and 18.4% after the first, second, third, and fourth treatment cycles of gemcitabine, respectively. The most commonly reported toxicities were fever (7.3%), pain (6.8%), asthenia (6.0%), and abdominal pain (5.5%), with only 4.6% of patients needing to discontinue therapy because of adverse events. Overall, this large scale, openenrollment study confirmed the safety and efficacy profiles of gemcitabine observed in earlier studies.

Other administration modalities for gemcitabine

Fixed dose-rate infusion regimen (10 mg/min per m²)

Because of its unique metabolic mechanism, it was found that if gemcitabine was administered at an infusion rate of 10 mg/m² per min instead of the conventional 30-min infusion schedule, the level of its active metabolite, gemcitabine triphosphate (dFdCTP) would be increased, and thus might result in a potential increase in cell killing.44 A phase II trial was conducted by Tempero et al.⁴⁵ to test this hypothesis. Patients were randomized to receive either gemcitabine 2200 mg/m² as a 30-min infusion or gemcitabine 1500 mg/m² at 10 mg/ m² per min. The dosing schedule for both regimens was the same, at every 3 out of 4 weeks. In the 67 patients that were enrolled, the overall response rate was 16.6% in the fixed dose-rate arm compared with 2.7% in the standard infusion arm. In addition, both the median survival (6.1 vs 4.7 months) and 1-year survival (23% vs 0%) were in favor of the fixed dose-rate infusion regimen. However, hematological toxicities observed in the patients treated with this fixed dose-rate infusion were about twice as high as those in the other arm (with approximately triple the level of the active metabolite, dFdCTP, detected), although this was still manageable, with no major sequela noted. Overall, further studies will be helpful to better define the role of this infusion schedule for other patients in the future.

High-dose infusion

While most studies used the customary 1000–1250 mg/ m² dose, a higher dose of gemcitabine might be feasible. A phase I study was performed by Fossella et al.⁴⁶ in patients with non-small cell lung cancer, using a dosing range of 1000–2800 mg/m². The maximum tolerated dose was found to be 2200 mg/m² per week for a 3 out of 4-week schedule. Ulrich-Pur et al.⁴⁷ subsequently conducted a phase II study in pancreatic cancer patients, using 2200 mg/m² every other week. Among the 43 patients treated, there was 1 CR and there were 8 PRs, with an overall response rate of 20.9%. In addition, 18 other patients (41.9%) had SD. The median survival was 8.8 months, and 1-year survival was 26.3%; 44% of

the patients also had CBR, with a median duration of response of 27 weeks. Toxicities were modest, with grade 3 leukopenia (12%), neutropenia (23%), anemia (2%), and alopecia (5%) being the most commonly noted. Overall, this study suggested that this alternateweek high-dose regimen was feasible for pancreatic cancer patients.

Intraarterial infusion of gemcitabine

Intraarterial administration has provided yet another alternative for the treatment of pancreatic cancers, especially in earlier-stage diseases in which the tumor burden was mainly locoregional in nature. Two pilot studies were conducted to test such use.48,49 In the study of Spagnuolo et al.,48 gemcitabine was administered at a dose of 1500 mg/m² through superselective arterial or celiac axis infusion every 28 days. The median number of cycles of treatment was 2 (range, 1–3). Ten patients were treated, and PRs were noted in 2 patients, with 4 additional patients achieving minor responses. The authors reported no significant adverse events for this regimen. The second study was by Weissmann and Ludwig,49 in which gemcitabine, at 1200 mg/m², was intraarterially administered to the celiac artery every 28 days. The median number of cycles of therapy was 2 (range, 1-6). Among the 15 pancreatic cancer patients, 2 achieved CRs, with an additional 4 patients achieving minor responses. The regimen was well tolerated, with hematologic toxicities noted in 4 patients. Future studies will be helpful in further define this mode of treatment in view of these early encouraging data.

Gemcitabine in combination with other cytotoxic drugs

The mild toxicity profile of gemcitabine, along with its therapeutic efficacy and lack of cross-resistance with 5-FU, makes it an attractive partner as combination therapy with other oncolytic agents. Quite a few studies have been published, and below is a review of those with the greatest interest.

Gemcitabine and 5-FU. Many phase II studies have evaluated gemcitabine with 5-FU in different settings (e.g., bolus, continuous IV infusion, high dose, and with/without folinic acid).^{18,50-54} Results have been somewhat variable, although a number of the studies showed some increase in response rate, CBR, and/or survival. However, two randomized studies recently published showed a somewhat different picture. The study by Di Costanzo et al.³⁹ in Italy showed that the outcomes of the 43 patients who underwent standard schedule gemcitabine with 5-FU (as continuous IV infusion) were not significantly better than those of the 48 other patients treated with gemcitabine alone. Overall, both response rate and survival were not remarkably different between the two arms (see Table 2).

Another larger-scale randomized phase III study (Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group [ECOG] 2297), led by Berlin et al.,40 also showed similar findings. In this study of 327 patients, patients were randomized to receive either gemcitabine monotherapy at the standard schedule (n = 163) or gemcitabine plus 600 mg/m^2 of 5-FU (n = 164) as IV bolus weekly in a 3 out of 4 weeks cycle. Overall survival, the primary study objective, was 6.7 months for the combination arm and 5.4 months for the monotherapy, but the results were statistically insignificant (P = 0.11). In addition, there was slightly more leukopenia and diarrhea reported for the combination than for the gemcitabine monotherapy. Thus, despite the early optimism for the gemcitabine/5-FU combination, unless other large-scale randomized studies, using perhaps a different dose or dosing schedule of 5-FU, are able to demonstrate otherwise, there is currently no clinical evidence to suggest that combination gemcitabine therapy with 5-FU is better than gemcitabine alone.

Gemcitabine and cisplatin. The clinical efficacy of gemcitabine and cisplatin for several solid tumors (e.g., nonsmall cell lung cancer [NSCLC], bladder, breast, ovarian, etc), along with the synergism demonstrated in preclinical evaluations has led to the investigation of this combination in patients with pancreatic cancer.^{55–59} Two nonrandomized phase II studies have been published in which the survival and responses seemed to be in favor of the combination, in terms of objective response and/or CBR observed.60,61 On the other hand, in a randomized study, by Colucci et al.,41 in which gemcitabine plus cisplatin were compared against gemcitabine alone, the outcomes were mixed. Among the 62 assessable patients from the 103 patients enrolled, the combination provided a much higher objective response (31% vs 10%), but more patients achieved CBR in the gemcitabine alone arm (45% vs 38%; see Table 2). Toxicities observed were also higher in the combination arm, although they were manageable. Additional analyses for the entire 103 patients enrolled were pending. Another randomized study, by Heinemann et al.,42 using a different dose and schedule for the gemcitabine-cisplatin combination was also ongoing. Early data release showed a slightly better tolerated safety profile than other Gem/Cis studies data, although efficacy data were not yet available. Details of these two randomized studies are depicted in Table 2. Overall, until the final data become available, it is probably a little premature to speculate on the role of this combination.

Gemcitabine and other oncolytic agents

Many other gemcitabine combination studies have been published.^{62–79} For example, studies with combinations with taxotere, oxaliplatin, epirubicin, mitomycin C, octreotide, tamoxifen, marimastat, capecitabine, and irinotecan, as well as multidrug regimens (epirubicin, cisplatin, and 5-FU), have been conducted. Some of these studies have had encouraging results. However, because the majority of these studies had small sample sizes and were nonrandomized in nature, until the time when larger randomized phase III data become available, these results could only be viewed as encouraging early data at present.

Gemcitabine and radiation therapy

Gemcitabine is known as a potent radiosensitizer from preclinical studies, and there is much interest in investigating its use with radiation in pancreatic cancer.⁸⁰⁻⁸² Such use has often involved expansion beyond the customary focus of treatment of advanced pancreatic cancer to earlier-stage diseases. Quite a few studies have been published, and the objectives varied from palliative to curative or neoadjuvant or adjuvant use.⁸³⁻¹⁰² Besides the different intentions, the dosing strategies also varied, from simultaneous administration to sequential delivery. However, data of most of these studies were not fully available as they were published mainly in the abstract format. Table 3 depicts the details of these studies.

As can be seen from the data presented, in Talbe 3, a wide variety of regimens was tested. Nonetheless, it seemed obvious that, because of the radiosensitization effect involved, when gemcitabine was given simultaneously with radiation, the dose of one of the two would likely need to be reduced. Because the majority of these studies were dose-finding in nature, only some of the studies had efficacy reported, and these early data seemed encouraging. Overall, among this wide variety of regimens, the response rates varied from 16.7% to 57.1%, and 1-year survival was 60%–70%, with downstaging of as much as 70% noted in some cases.

With a reduced dose, toxicities were generally more manageable, with leukopenia, thrombocytopenia, fatigue, anorexia, nausea/vomiting, diarrhea, and dehydration the most commonly noted. Also, there were suggestions from some studies that toxicities might be reduced with the shrinking field technique, and/or with three-dimensional planning, as toxicities were generally dependent on the radiation volume. However, a word of caution seems necessary; despite these encouraging data, the optimal regimen(s), in terms of dose, schedule, and sequence, have not been completely clarified at present. Thus, chemoradiation therapy with gemcitabine should only be considered as experimental in nature and patients should not be treated outside a controlled clinical trial setting.

Adjuvant use

While there have been scattered anedoctal successes with the use of adjuvant gemcitabine after pancreatic cancer surgery, there has been no randomized study completed thus far to establish such use. An animal study published recently showed that nude mice implanted with BxPC-3 pancreatic cancer cells achieved a much lower rate of local recurrence if adjuvant gemcitabine was added after surgery compared with results without it (28.6% vs 70.6%).¹⁰³ In addition, distant metastases were also found to be 58% lower in the surgery + gemcitabine group than in the group with surgery alone.

Only a handful of small pilot studies have been published so far on the adjuvant use of gemcitabine. The first was a phase II study by van Laethem et al.¹⁰² in Belgium. Seventeen patients with stage II and III pancreatic cancers underwent surgical resection, and within 8 weeks after the operation, they received gemcitabine 1000 mg/m² on days 1 and 8 every 21 days for three cycles, followed by the simultaneous use of gemcitabine 300 mg/m² per week with 40 Gy of radiation, delivered over 6 weeks. Results showed that the 1-year survival was 70%, overall survival was 12 months, and diseasefree survival was 8 months. Toxicities were moderate, with 3 of the 17 patients having experienced grade 3–4 hematological toxicities and 4 patients with nausea and vomiting.

Another study, by Kachnic et al.,¹⁰¹ investigated the adjuvant use of gemcitabine, at 40 mg/m² per week, along with 50.4 Gy of radiation, for patients after pancreatic cancer resection. Subjects without disease progression after the initial chemoradiation were given two additional cycles of gemcitabine at 1000 mg/m², administered in a 4-week schedule. Fifteen patients had been enrolled, and 9 completed the whole treatment. Concurrent gemcitabine and radiation were administered successfully in 80% of the patients without treatment delays. Responses were too early to assess, but 12 patients were alive without disease progression at a median follow-up of 5 months. Toxicities were modest, with only grade 3 anemia/thrombocytopenia (3 patients), fatigue (3 patients), and nausea (1 patient) noted.

Two small studies also investigated the use of a sequential adjuvant regimen with initial 5-FU plus radiation followed by gemcitabine.^{104,105} The data from these studies were early, but both suggested the feasibility of such an approach. On the other hand, a large-scale randomized phase III study comparing gemcitabine at a

Table	3. Studies o	f gemcitabine	e with radiation in pancreatic ca	ancer						
							PR	1 Year		
Study no.	Authors	RT dose (Gy)	Gemcitabine dose (mg/m ²)	и	PR (%) ^a	SD (%)	+SD (%)	sur (%)	MST (months)	Toxicity
Definit	ive therany)			~	~			
1	McGinn ⁸³	50.4	200, 300, 400, 500 1/wk	13	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	300 mg/m², DLT, 1 pt G3 neutro 400 mg/m², no DLT 500 mg/m², ongoing
7	Wolff ⁸⁴	30	400, 500 \times 7 wk (48–72 h before RT)	12	30	NA	NA	NA	NA	400 mg/m ² , hospitalization (4/9) 500 mg/m ² , hospitalization for nausea, vomiting and dehydration (3/3) 350 mg/m ² , ongoing
б	Abad ⁸⁵	cycle 1: 45 cycle 2: — cycle 3: 22.5	cycle 1: 200 – 600 × 6 wk cycle 2: 1000 × 3 wk cycle 3:	9	16.7	33.3	50	NA	NA	200 mg/m ² , G4 diarrhea (1/3) G1/2 nausea/vomiting (4 pts), G1 diarrhea (1 pt) 2 pts, too early for evaluation of efficacy MTD, 200 mg/m ²
4	Brierley ⁸⁶	25, 30, 35, 40	40×2 /wk	14	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	 25 Gy, no G3/4 tox 30 Gy, G3 thromb/neutro, 1 pt; G4 diarrhea/G3 fatigue, 1 pt 35 Gy, no G3/4 tox 40 Gy, ongoing
Ś	Wong ^{er}	A: 25-40 (split) B: 35-52.5 (continuous)	40×2 /wk	23	AN	ΝA	NA	NA	AN	 25 Gy (split), no DLT 30 Gy (split), DLT 1 pt (G4 diarrhea/fatigue) 35. 40 Gy (split), no DLT 35. Gy (continuous 4 wk), DLT 1/6 (G3 diarrhea/fatigue) 43. 47 Gy (continuous 5 wk), DLT 2/12 G3 (nausea/fatigue, dehydration) 52.5 Gy, ongoing
9	Herscher ⁸⁸	54-55.8	$350, 440, 550 \times 1/\text{wk} \times 5$	19	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	DLT, neutro, thromb; MTD, 440 mg/m ²
٢	Epelbaum [®]	50.4	Gem (alone) 1000 × 7 wk 400 × 3 wk q4 w × 2 Gem (alone) 1000 × 3 wk q4 w	20	20	30	50	NA	12	G3/4 (nausea/vomiting, diarrhea, 5 pts; neutropenic fever, 2 pts) in case of chemo RT severe abdominal wall pain (few months after completion of RT), 3 pts; pancreatectomy (2 pts), histological no active tumor (1 pt), complete surgical resection (1 pt); CBR after induction phase, 50%
8	Blackstock ⁹⁰	50.4	40 2/w \times 5.5 wk Gem (alone) 1000 \times 3 wk q4 w \times 5	43	ΝA	NA	ΝA	NA	7.9	G $3/4$ hemato tox, $42\%/18\%$; G $3/4$ gastrointenstinal tox, $34\%/8\%$
6	Mustacchi ⁹¹	45-55.8	$\begin{array}{l} \mbox{Gem (alone) 1000 \times 3 wk q4 w \times 2} \\ \mbox{500 \times 6 wk} \\ \mbox{Gem (alone) 1000 \times 3 wk q4 w \times 2} \end{array}$	15	35.7	35.7	71.4	60	17.3	G3 abdominal pain (9/15), G2/3 asthenia (13/15), anorexia (13/15), G2 diarrhea (2/15), G1/2 [nausea (3/15), abdominal discomfort (4/15), thromb (1/15)]

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Palliat	tive therany									
10	Maurer ⁹²	50.4	200, 250, 300, 350 (1 h before RT) day 1, 8, 15, 22, 29	16	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	200 mg/m²/250 mg/m², no G3/4 300 mg/m², G3 leuko (2/6), G1/2 nausea/vomiting, 1 pt; G4 AST/ALT, 1 pt
11	Reyes-Vidal ⁹³	45	200, 225, 300, 325 × 5 wk (4–8 h before RT)	14	57.1	42.9	100.0	NA	NA	Nausea/vomiting (12/14, G1/2 7 pts/5 pts) G4 diarrhea, 1 pt G3 (neutro, 3 pts; anemia, 1 pt; diarrhea, 1 pt; respiratory, 1 pt; hepatitis, 1 pt)
12	McGinn ⁹⁴	24-42	1000 \times 3 wk q4 w followed by gem (alone) 1000 \times 3 wk \times 1	37	30	NA	NA	NA	11.6	30 Gy. 1 pt DLT, G4 vomiting 42 Gy. 2 pts (DLT G4 vomiting, ulceration [gastric/duodenal]) (no investigation of higher dose because of DLT[2/6], the potential for late tox)
13	Antonisse ⁹⁵	24	300 × 3 wk q4 w followed by gem (alone) 1000 weekly	21	NA	NA	NA	NA	16.2	Mild nausea/vomiting, 17 pts; mild abdominal pain, 7 pts; CA19-9 reduction, 82% (14/17); palliation of pain, 72% (13/18); pain medication reduced, 73% (11/15)
Neoac 14	djuvant therapy Blackstock%	50.4	20, 40, 60 imes 2/wk	19	20	NA	NA	NA	12.3	Diarrhea Neutro Thromb vomition
										$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
15	Wolff ⁹⁷	30	$400 \times 7 \text{ wk}$	18	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	9 pts completed treatment G3 neutro, 44%; G3 thromb, 11%; 6 pts successful pancreaticoduodenectomy, histological complete response (2/6)
16	Hoffman ⁹⁸	50.4	$300, 400, 500, 600 \times 6 \text{ wk}$ followed by gem (alone) $1000 \times 3 \text{ wk} \text{ q4 w} \times 4$	18	NA	NA	ΝA	NA	NA	400 mg/m ² : G4 (GI hemo, 1 pt; nausea/vomiting, 1 pt), G3 nausea, 1 pt 500 mg/m ² : G4 (neutro, 1 pt; anorexia, 1 pt), G3 anorexia, 1 pt 600 mg/m ² : G4 dehydration, G3 (thromb, 1 pt; pulmonary embolus, 1 pt) 12 pts (71%) had resection
17	Lange ⁹⁹	24	300×3 wk q4 w followed by gem alone $\times 3$ wk q4 w	22	31.8	45.0	76.8	NA	6	G3/4 (neutro, 4.5%; thromb, 13%); G1/2 (nausea/vomiting, 86%; diarrhea, 45%), ulceration[gastric/duodenal], 31.8% (bleeding 18%)
18	Hietaniemi ¹⁰⁰	50.4	$20, 50, 100 \times 2/wk$	16	45.5	27.3	72.8	NA	ΝA	100 mg/m ² , DLT (G4 fatigue, 2 pts; G4 nausea, 1 pt; G3 thromb, 1 pt; G3 diarrhea, 1 pt; infection, 1 pt) MTD, 50 mg/m ² ; 10/16 (62.5%) received surgery (radical, 8 pts; palliative, 2 pts)
Adjuv 19	/ant therapy van Laethem ¹⁰²	: 40	Gem (alone) 1000 \times 2 wk q3 w \times 3 300 weekly	17	NA	NA	NA	70	12	G3/4 hemato, 17% (3/17); G3/4 nausea/vomiting, 23% (4/17)
20	Kachnic ¹⁰¹	50.4	40×2 /wk followed by gem (alone) 1000×3 wk q4 w $\times 2$	15	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	G3 (anemia/thromb, 3 pts; fatigue, 3 pts; nausea, 1 pt) No radiation recall
RT, R respor ^a Calcı	tadiation therapy; nse; leuko, leukop ulated including co	<i>n</i> , number of pi enia; neutro, ni omplete respon	atients; PR, partial response; SD, stable di eutropenia; thromb, thrombocytopenia; C ise	isease; CA-19-	MST, n 9, carbc	nedian sı hydrate	urvival ti antigen	me; G, tox 19-9	icity grade	; DLT, dose-limiting toxicity; MTD, maximum tolerated dose; CBR, clinical benefit

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standard dose for six cycles versus observation alone after pancreatic cancer surgery might provide a better answer in the future.¹⁰⁶ This study, led by Oettle et al.,¹⁰⁶ is now underway in Germany. The study planned to enroll 368 patients, and the published data for the first 113 patients enrolled so far have revealed no major toxicities. Efficacy data are pending at the present time.

Neoadjuvant use

Very few data are available on the neoadjuvant use of gemcitabine, and all such studies were with radiation. Sasson et al.¹⁰⁷ conducted a retrospective review of 107 patients who underwent curative surgery for pancreatic cancer (90 Whipples, 11 total, and 6 distal pancreatectomies). Of these patients, 49 had surgery alone and 58 received neoadjuvant chemoradiation (25 with gemcitabine and 33 with 5-FU-mitomycin C) prior to the operation. It was found that neoadjuvant therapy resulted in greater fibrosis (74%) in the tumor compared with findings in patients without this therapy (39%), which in turn was correlated with positive survival outcomes. The median survival for the neoadjuvant groups was higher than that for those without it (21 vs 16 months). Although this study did not distinguish individual differences in the outcomes between the gemcitabine and 5-FU-mitomycin C groups, the findings were suggestive of gemcitabine being feasible for neoadjuvant use.

Another neoadjuvant study, conducted by Hietaniemi et al.,100 also showed encouraging results. In that study, a total of 50.4 Gy radiation (in 180-cGy fractions) was delivered, along with an escalating dose of gemcitabine, at 20, 50, and 100 mg/m² administered twice weekly. Of the 11 evaluable patients among the 16 enrolled, there were 1 with CR, 4 with PRs, 3 with SD, and 3 with progressive disease, with an overall response rate of 45.5%. Except for 2 patients who had distant metastasis, 10 patients proceeded with surgery (8 radical and 2 palliative) after the neoadjuvant treatment, and surgeries for the other 4 patients were pending. Dose-limiting toxicities were grade 4 fatigue (2 patients), nausea (1 patient), and grade 3 thrombocytopenia-diarrhea-infection (1 patient). Most toxicities occurred at the 100 mg/m² dose, and the maximum tolerated dose of gemcitabine was therefore identified at 50 mg/m². Results of other similar studies for neoadjuvant use can be found in Table 3. Overall, despite these interesting data, a large-scale randomized study will be needed in the future to further clarify the role of gemcitabine in this setting.

Treatment cycles versus objective responses and survival

There has been a lot of controversy in regard to the optimal number of cycles of treatment for patients to accomplish the best therapeutic outcomes. The number of treatment cycles would obviously depend on the patients' tolerance to the therapy, which, in turn, would be related to factors such as performance status, underlying medical conditions, disease stage, etc. In addition, with a higher dose or a longer exposure, the potential increase in cancer kill might be negated by the corresponding increase in toxicities for most cytotoxic agents. However, gemcitabine is known to be an agent with a relatively mild toxicity profile. In fact, results from the Ulrich-Pur study (high-dose infusion)47 and the Tempero study (fixed dose rate infusion with higher active metabolites)⁴⁵ were both suggestive that increased responses and survival could be achieved with manageable toxicities. In the Treatment IND program reported by Storniolo et al.,43 cumulative DRSI responses were noted to be increased from 13.5% after the first cycle to 18.4% at the fourth cycle of gemcitabine treatment. In the study by Heinemann et al.,¹⁰⁸ remission of the tumor was not noted until a median of five cycles of chemotherapy had been delivered.

In this review of the presented studies, there are some suggestions that perhaps the number of cycles of therapy (depicted as the number of treatment courses delivered) might have some positive correlation with the observed responses and survival. Figure 1 depicts a plot of this relationship. Unfortunately, there were only very few studies in which these data were available to be included in the figure. Nevertheless, there seems to be a tendency towards a finding that perhaps a sufficient number of cycles might be needed for the benefits of gemcitabine therapy to be fully appreciated. Thus, patience in administering a sufficient amount of treatment may pay off in some cases.

Summary and conclusions

From the data of the various clinical trials reviewed in this report, gemcitabine has been shown to benefit patients with advanced pancreatic cancer in multiple areas. Figure 2 illustrates the overall results of gemcitabine treatment in ten single-agent studies, along with the data from the gemcitabine arm of eight randomized studies. Overall, these data show that gemcitabine has consistently benefited these patients, in terms of objective responses, especially in terms of disease stabilization, survival, and clinical benefit responses, such as pain alleviation and improved performance status. Gemcitabine has also demonstrated, in randomized tri-



Fig. 1. a Median survival time versus number of treatment courses of gemcitabine therapy. **b** Objective reseponses versus number of treatment courses of gemcitabine therapy. **a** y =



Fig. 2. Overall summary of median and ranges of various efficacy parameters for all studies of gemcitabine as single therapy (plus data from the gemcitabine arm of eight randomized studies) in advanced pancreatic cancer. *MST*, Median survival time; *TTP*, time to progression; *PR*, partial response; *SD*, stable disease; CBR, Clinical benefit response; *sur*, survival; *M*, months

als, superiority over 5-FU, MMPIs, and FTI, as well as efficacy in patients that failed prior 5-FU therapy. Overall, with its proven efficacy and favorable safety profile, gemcitabine has been widely accepted as the standard of care for patients with advanced pancreatic cancer worldwide.

Numerous clinical studies also show the combinability of gemcitabine with other oncolytic agents in combination use, although the optimal agent or dosing regimen has not yet been established. Different modalities of administration, such as fixed dose-rate infusion of 10 mg/m^2 per min, high-dose infusion, or intraarterial use, have also been tested, with encouraging results. Combination with radiation, as well as exploration of neoadjuvant or adjuvant uses, have been attempted, but data from many of these ongoing studies are pending at present. In summary, gemcitabine represents a major



0.332060x + 2.915521; r = 0.63644 (P = 0.0653). **b** y = 1.309950x + 30.838905; r = 0.43922 (P = 0.2762)

step forward in the chemotherapy of advanced pancreatic cancer and this agent has undoubtedly established its role as the standard of care in the management of these patients. With further understanding of the genetics and disease mechanism of pancreatic cancer, it is anticipated that future studies will test combinations of gemcitabine with other target biological agents.^{109,110} Thus, in the future, new optimism for the better management of patients with this dismal disease, using novel therapies along with gemcitabine, will not be an unreasonable expectation.

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