

Medical Treatment of Endocrine Gastroenteropancreatic Tumors

Paola Tomassetti, Davide Campana, Francesca Nori, Lidya Piscitelli, Luisa Salomone,
Raffaele Pezzilli, Roberto Corinaldesi

Department of Internal Medicine, Sant'Orsola-Malpighi Hospital. Bologna, Italy

Introduction

Neuroendocrine gastroenteropancreatic (GEP) tumors are rather rare neoplasms with an incidence of 1-2 cases per 100,000 people [1, 2, 3, 4]. They originate from any of the various cell types belonging to the neuroendocrine system. A general characteristic of GEP endocrine tumors is that the vast majority produce and secrete a multitude of peptide hormones and amines. Several syndromes can be associated with GEP endocrine tumors, caused by hyperproduction of a specific hormone, and usually liver metastases are present in patients because of the malignancy of the tumors [5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]. The syndromes include: carcinoid syndrome [10], Zollinger-Ellison syndrome [6], the so-called "insulinoma syndrome" [5], "glucagonoma syndrome" [7], Verner-Morrison syndrome, which is brought about by high circulating levels of vasointestinal peptide (VIP) [8], and finally the "somatostatinoma syndrome" [9]. Otherwise, there are some endocrine tumors, usually located in the pancreas, that are not associated with signs or symptoms of hormone hypersecretion, and therefore they are called nonfunctioning.

Because of the rarity of these types of tumors, their possible episodic expression and the variable clinical symptoms, the patients are often diagnosed late in the advanced stages of

the disease. In contrast to other metastasized tumors, the patients with gut and pancreatic neoplasms often survive for long periods due to the slow tumor progression; instances of survival greater than 10 years have been reported [11]. For these reasons, the patients with advanced metastatic disease should be treated aggressively with medical and surgical therapies aimed at reducing both symptoms and complications through strategies that reduce tumor bulk and block hormonal effects.

Neuroendocrine tumor treatment is aimed at reducing the tumor mass and inhibiting hormonal release. Therefore, a multimodal approach is necessary where different therapeutic means can be used synchronously or metachronously [12].

Therapeutic Options

The surgical approaches consist of:

- radical resection of the mass;
- debulking procedures;
- palliative surgery.

Medical treatment includes:

- chemotherapy;
- somatostatin analogs;
- alpha-interferon (alpha-INF) alone or associated with analogs;
- radiolabeled somatostatin analogs;
- chemoembolization.

Chemotherapy

In general, neuroendocrine tumors are not highly chemosensitive; this may be due to their generally low rate of mitosis which is the target of many cytotoxic drugs, and also to their biological properties [13]. In well-differentiated endocrine tumors, chemotherapy must be used only when the disease is in progression and when other types of treatment have already been tried. Otherwise, in poorly differentiated tumors and in pancreatic ones, streptozotocin (STZ) and 5-FU or cisplatin (CDDP) and etoposide (VP-16) represent the therapy of choice [14]. Therefore, chemotherapy is not the therapy of choice in patients with GEP tumors. In fact, it is indicated only in progressive, highly proliferating tumors not treatable by other methods [15] irrespective of the localization of the primary tumor [14]. Some authors, in particular Bajetta *et al.* [16], have tested new active chemotherapy regimens; they have proposed a polychemotherapy regimen (5-FU, dacarbazine and epirubicin) in patients with progressive advanced neuroendocrine GEP tumors, with promising results.

Somatostatin Analogs

Somatostatin (SST) and its analogs inhibit the release of a variety of hormones and several intestinal peptides. Furthermore, it is known that they can exert an antiproliferative effect on endocrine tumors using at least two mechanisms: the inhibition of the release of peptides from the pituitary gland, the intestine and the pancreas, and the direct antagonism of growth factor effects on tumor cells. They exert their effect through somatostatin receptors (SSTRs); in particular, somatostatin 14, the natural compound, binds all five subclasses (SSTR 1-5), whereas octreotide and lanreotide bind mainly type 2 and 5 [17]. The antiproliferative effects seem to be mediated by receptor 2 and 5; these effects can be obtained also by using of high dose of SST analogs [12].

The formulations currently available on the market are listed below:

- octreotide: 0.2, 0.2, 0.5 mg s.c. daily;
- lanreotide: 30 mg i.m. every two weeks;
- long acting release octreotide (octreotide LAR): 10, 20, 30 mg i.m. monthly;
- lanreotide injectable solution: 60, 90, 120 mg i.m. monthly.

The s.c. octreotide is useful in testing the tolerability of somatostatin, in preventing carcinoid crisis during surgical procedures and in those cases in which the syndrome is not under control. The standard dose of s.c. octreotide is 150 µg every 8 hours but this dose can be increased up to 500 µg to achieve better control of the carcinoid syndrome. Otherwise the long acting release SST analogs require monthly i.m. administration [18].

With regard to side effects, abdominal pain, nausea and flatulence may occur at the beginning of treatment and diarrhea is often present. After long term treatment, asymptomatic gallbladder microlithiasis has been reported on ultrasound examination [18]. In a recent consensus report, Oberg *et al.* [18] underlined the fact that somatostatin analogs represent the therapy of first choice as concerning endocrine GEP tumors and they must be used when the Octreoscan is positive. Furthermore, SST analogs must be used when there is a syndrome related to the tumor and when the disease is in progress. The use of these drugs is also necessary in preventing a carcinoid crisis during surgery [18]. Still controversial is the use of SST analogs after debulking or ablative procedures, after radical surgery as adjuvant therapy and in asymptomatic patients with metastases. Furthermore, Oberg *et al.* [18] considered several studies concerning the use of SST analogs and concluded that the stable disease was obtained in 36-70% of patients with GEP tumors whereas the objective response was rare (0-7%).

Alpha-INF and SST Analogs

The use of alpha-INF was introduced for the first time by Oberg [14]. Alpha-INF has an

antiproliferative effect and inhibits some hormones and growth factors and also inhibits angiogenesis [14].

Alpha-IFN has been combined with the somatostatin analogs, especially octreotide with a significant potentiation of the clinical effects. In a recent study by Fjallskog ML *et al.* [19], 16 patients with metastatic endocrine pancreatic tumors were studied. The combination of octreotide or lanreotide and interferon alpha at a median dose of 9-25 MU/week produced a biochemical response in 62.5% of the patients (median duration 22 months) and a radiological response in 19% (median duration 23 months) [19].

The most common side effects of alpha-INF are flu-like symptoms, weight loss, anemia, allergic reactions, vasculitis and hypothyroidism [14].

Some Authors have studied the association between alpha-INF and chemotherapy, 5-FU or STZ or doxorubicin, but this combination did not seem to present any advantages over alpha-INF alone and the side-effects were considerable [20, 21].

Chemoembolization

This treatment represents the therapy of choice when there are hepatic lesions due to a well-differentiated extra-pancreatic endocrine tumors [22]. Chemoembolization can be considered as complementary or alternative to chemotherapy or biotherapy when hepatic lesions are unresectable and when there are post-surgical relapses. The contraindications are: the involvement of hepatic parenchyma, more than 50%, renal failure, biliary anastomosis, ascites and portal thrombosis [11].

The drugs most frequently used are STZ, 5-FU and adriamycin which can be associated with lipiodol, while the most frequently used embolizing substance is gelfoam. The method carried out using, for the most part, adriamycin associated with spongel and sipiodol produced a control of the symptoms in 73-100% of patients with a decrease of the 5-hydroxyindolamine acetic acid (5-HIAA)

which varies from 57 to 91%. Regarding tumor size (according to WHO criteria), the majority of authors have observed an objective response in about 50% of patients with duration of the response varying from 6 to 42.5 months [23, 24, 25, 26, 27].

Chemoembolization can be repeated at intervals of 3-6 months according to individual tolerability and tumoral response. The most frequent collateral effects are nausea, vomiting, abdominal pain, hyperpyrexia and an increase in transaminase levels which constitute the so-called post-chemoembolization syndrome. The most important complications are acute cholecystitis and hepatic and/or renal failure. In functioning tumors of the pancreas and in carcinoids, pre-medication with somatostatin in continuous infusion or with s.c octreotide. is indicated in order to prevent complications caused by the release of peptides and amines which is seen during necrosis of the neoplastic cells [12].

Therefore, chemoembolization could be an alternative treatment for progressive liver metastases, mainly following unsuccessful systemic chemotherapy. As concerns survival, currently there are no precise or definitive results therefore further studies on a larger number of patients are required.

Radiometabolic Therapy

In recent years some researchers have tried to develop a somatostatin analog which has a high affinity for somatostatin receptors and which could be linked to a therapeutic beta-emitting radioisotope. The crossfire of beta-particles can destroy both somatostatin receptor-positive and receptor-negative tumor cells Therefore, there is a new generation of SST analogs which ensure better stability of the radiometal-peptide complex incorporating the chelator DOTA and labelling with ⁹⁰Y (DOTATOC) or ¹⁷⁷Lu (DOTATATE) [28, 29, 30].

Many reports show the usefulness of peptide receptor radionuclide therapy (PRRT) in neuroendocrine functioning tumors [31, 32].

In a recent study by Kwekkeboom *et al.* [33] with 177Lu-octreotide, DOTA(0), tyrosyl(3) in patients with GEP tumors, it was found that this type of treatment obtains a partial response in 20-63% of the patients and a stable disease in 12-42%. Furthermore, serious side effects are rare and the results are better in patients with limited tumor load. Therefore, early treatment, even in patients who have stable disease, may be better [33].

Keywords Chemoembolization, Therapeutic; Endocrine Gland Neoplasms; Octreotide; Radioimmunotherapy

Abbreviations 5-HIAA: 5-hydroxyindolamine acetic acid; CDDP: cisplatin; GEP: gastroenteropancreatic; INF: interferon; octreotide LAR: long acting release octreotide; PRRT: peptide receptor radionuclide therapy; SST: somatostatin; SSTR: somatostatin receptor; STZ: streptozotocin; VP-16: etoposide

Correspondence

Paola Tomassetti
Dipartimento di Medicina Interna e
Gastroenterologia
Policlinico Sant'Orsola-Malpighi
Via Massarenti, 9
40138 Bologna
Italy
Phone: +39-051.636.4186
Fax: +39-051.051.636.4186
E-mail: paola.tomassetti@unibo.it

References

1. Godwin JD 2nd. Carcinoid tumors. An analysis of 2,837 cases. *Cancer* 1975; 36:560-9. [PMID 1157019]
2. Newton JN, Swerdlow AJ, dos Santos Silva IM, Vessey MP, Grahame-Smith DG, et al. The epidemiology of carcinoid tumours in England and Scotland. *Br J Cancer* 1994; 70:939-42. [PMID 7947101]
3. Modlin IM, Sandor A. An analysis of 8305 cases of carcinoid tumors. *Cancer* 1997; 79:813-29. [PMID 9024720]

4. Levi F, Te VC, Randimbison L, Rindi G, La Vecchia C. Epidemiology of carcinoid neoplasms in Vaud, Switzerland, 1974-97. *Br J Cancer* 2000; 83:952-5. [PMID 10970700]
5. Creutzfeldt W. Insulinomas: clinical presentation, diagnosis, and advances in management. In: Jensen RT, Mignon M, eds. *Endocrine Tumors of the Pancreas: Recent Advances in Research and Management*. Basel, Switzerland: Karger, 1994:148-65. [ISBN 3-8055-5953-4]
6. Mignon M., Jais P., Cadiot G., Ben Yadder D., Vatie J. Clinical features and advances in biological diagnostic criteria for Zollinger-Ellison syndrome. In: Jensen RT, Mignon M, eds. *Endocrine Tumors of the Pancreas: Recent Advances in Research and Management*. Basel, Switzerland: Karger, 1994:223-39. [ISBN 3-8055-5953-4]
7. Guillausseau PJ, Guillausseau C, Villet R, Kaloustian E, Valleur P, Hautefeuille P, Lubetzki J. Glucagonomas. Clinical, biological, anatomopathological and therapeutic aspects (general review of 130 cases). *Gastroenterology Clin Biol* 1982; 6:1029-41. [PMID 6131007]
8. Matuchansky C, Rambaud J. VIPomas and endocrine cholera: clinical presentation, diagnosis and advances in management. In: Jensen RT, Mignon M, eds. *Endocrine Tumors of the Pancreas: Recent Advances in Research and Management*. Basel, Switzerland: Karger, 1994:166-82. [ISBN 3-8055-5953-4]
9. Vinik AI, Strodel WE, Eckhauser FE, Moattari AR, Lloyd R. Somatostatinomas, PPomas, neurotensinomas. *Semin Oncol* 1987; 14:263-81. [PMID 2820062]
10. Tomassetti P. Clinical aspects of carcinoid tumours. *Ital J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 1999; 31(Suppl 2):S143-6. [PMID 10604119]
11. Oberg K. Advances in chemotherapy and biotherapy of endocrine tumors. *Curr Opin Oncol* 1998; 10:58-65. [PMID 9466486]
12. Tomassetti P, Migliori M, Campana D, Brocchi E, Piscitelli L, Salomone T, Corinaldesi R. Basis for treatment of functioning neuroendocrine tumours. *Dig Liver Dis* 2004; 36(Suppl 1):S35-S41. [PMID 15077910]
13. Arnold R, Frank M. Gastrointestinal endocrine tumours: medical management. *Baillieres Clin Gastroenterol* 1996; 10:737-59. [PMID 9113320]
14. Oberg K. Chemotherapy and biotherapy in the treatment of neuroendocrine tumours. *Ann Oncol* 2001; 12(Suppl 2):S111-4. [PMID 11762335]

15. Rougier P, Mitry E. Chemotherapy in the treatment of neuroendocrine malignant tumors. *Digestion* 2000; 62(Suppl 1):73-8. [PMID 10940691]
16. Bajetta E, Ferrari L, Procopio G, Catena L, Ferrario E, Martinetti A, et al. Efficacy of a chemotherapy combination for the treatment of metastatic neuroendocrine tumours. *Ann Oncol* 2002; 13:614-21. [PMID 12056713]
17. Patel YC, Greenwood MT, Panetta R, Demchyshyn L, Niznik H, Srikant CB. The somatostatin receptor family. *Life Sci* 1995; 57:1249-65. [PMID 7674817]
18. Oberg K, Kvols L, Caplin M, Delle Fave G, de Herder W, Rindi G, et al. Consensus report on the use of somatostatin analogs for the management of neuroendocrine tumors of the gastroenteropancreatic system. *Ann Oncol* 2004; 15:966-73. [PMID 15151956]
19. Fjallskog ML, Sundin A, Westlin JE, Oberg K, Janson ET, Eriksson B. Treatment of malignant endocrine pancreatic tumors with a combination of alpha-interferon and somatostatin analogs. *Med Oncol* 2002; 19:35-42. [PMID 12025889]
20. Hughes MJ, Kerr DJ, Cassidy J, Soukop M, McGregor K, Blackburn N, et al. A pilot study of combination therapy with interferon-alpha-2a and 5-fluorouracil in metastatic carcinoid and malignant endocrine pancreatic tumours. *Ann Oncol* 1996; 7:208-10. [PMID 8777180]
21. Janson ET, Ronnblom L, Ahlstrom H, Grander D, Alm G, Einhorn S, Oberg K. Treatment with alpha-interferon versus alpha-interferon in combination with streptozocin and doxorubicin in patients with malignant carcinoid tumors: a randomized trial. *Ann Oncol* 1992; 3:635-8. [PMID 1450046]
22. Roche A, Girish BV, de Baere T, Baudin E, Boige V, Elias D, et al. Trans-catheter arterial chemoembolization as first-line treatment for hepatic metastases from endocrine tumors. *Eur Radiol* 2003; 13:136-40. [PMID 12541121]
23. Ruzsniwski P, Rougier P, Roche A, Legmann P, Sibert A, Hochlaf S, et al. Hepatic arterial chemoembolization in patients with liver metastases of endocrine tumors. A prospective phase II study in 24 patients. *Cancer* 1993; 71:2624-30. [PMID 8384072]
24. Therasse E, Breittmayer F, Roche A, De Baere T, Indushekar S, Ducreux M, et al. Transcatheter chemoembolization of progressive carcinoid liver metastasis. *Radiology* 1993; 189:541-7. [PMID 7692465]
25. Mavligit GM, Pollock RE, Evans HL, Wallace S. Durable hepatic tumor regression after arterial chemoembolization-infusion in patients with islet cell carcinoma of the pancreas metastatic to the liver. *Cancer* 1993; 72:375-80. [PMID 8391377]
26. Clouse ME, Perry L, Stuart K, Stokes KR. Hepatic arterial chemoembolization for metastatic neuroendocrine tumors. *Digestion* 1994; 55(Suppl 3):92-7. [PMID 7698544]
27. Diaco DS, Hajarizadeh H, Mueller CR, Fletcher WS, Pommier RF, Woltering EA. Treatment of metastatic carcinoid tumors using multimodality therapy of octreotide acetate, intra-arterial chemotherapy, and hepatic arterial chemoembolization. *Am J Surg* 1995; 169:523-8. [PMID 7747834]
28. Otte A, Mueller-Brand J, Dellas S, Nitzsche EU, Herrmann R, Maecke HR. Yttrium-90-labelled somatostatin-analogue for cancer treatment. *Lancet* 1998; 351:417-8. [PMID 9482300]
29. Otte A, Herrmann R, Heppeler A, Behe M, Jermann E, Powell P, et al. Yttrium-90 DOTATOC: first clinical results. *Eur J Nucl Med* 1999; 26:1439-47. [PMID 10552085]
30. Breeman WA, de Jong M, Kwekkeboom DJ, Valkema R, Bakker WH, Kooij PP, et al. Somatostatin receptor-mediated imaging and therapy: basic science, current knowledge, limitations and future perspectives. *Eur J Nucl Med* 2001; 28:1421-9. [PMID 11585303]
31. Waldherr C, Pless M, Maecke HR, Haldemann A, Mueller-Brand J. The clinical value of [90Y-DOTA]-D-Phe1-Tyr3-octreotide (90Y-DOTATOC) in the treatment of neuroendocrine tumours: a clinical phase II study. *Ann Oncol* 2001; 12:941-5. [PMID 11521799]
32. Slooter GD, Mearadji A, Breeman WA, Marquet RL, de Jong M, Krenning EP, van Eijck CH. Somatostatin receptor imaging, therapy and new strategies in patients with neuroendocrine tumours. *Br J Surg* 2001; 88:31-40. [PMID 11136306]
33. Kwekkeboom DJ, Teunissen JJ, Bakker WH, Kooij PP, de Herder WW, Feelders RA, et al. Radiolabeled somatostatin analog [177Lu-DOTA0,Tyr3]octreotate in patients with endocrine gastroenteropancreatic tumors. *J Clin Oncol* 2005; 23:2754-62. [PMID 15837990]