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Author(s)	Shih, KC; Man, K
Citation	Transplantation Reviews, 2010, v. 24 n. 1, p. 1-10
Issued Date	2010
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Small-for-size liver graft injury—impact on tumor behavior

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Abstract

The success of liver transplantation has led to an ever-increasing demand for liver grafts. Since the first successful living donor liver transplantation, this surgical innovation has been well established in children and has significantly relieved the crisis of donor organ shortage for children. However, the extension of living donor liver transplantation to adult recipients is limited by the graft volume. The major concern of adult-to-adult living donor liver transplantation is the adequate graft that can be harvested from a living donor. Small-for-size graft injury is frequently observed. To develop novel effective treatments attenuating small-for-size liver graft injury during living donor liver transplantation, it is important to explore the precise mechanism of acute phase small-for-size graft damage. Recently, a number of clinical studies and animal experiments have been conducted to investigate the possible key issues on acute phase small-for-size liver graft injury, such as mechanical injury from shear stress, subsequent inflammatory responses, and imbalance of vasoregulatory factors. This review focuses on the mechanism of small-for-size liver graft injury based on the number of clinical and experimental studies. The latest research findings of the significance of acute phase liver graft injury on late phase tumor recurrence and metastasis are also addressed.

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1. Background

The emergence of adult-to-adult living donor liver transplantation (ALDLT) over the last decade has led to a dramatic increase in the number of liver grafts available. With a continued shortage of cadaveric donor livers, ALDLT currently offers a significant survival advantage to patients listed for liver transplantation [1]. In single-center series, candidates with potential living related donors are twice as likely to undergo transplantation than those awaiting cadaveric donor grafts, reducing waiting list mortality by half [2,3]. Furthermore, a liver graft from a living related donor allows earlier intervention and lowers dropouts from disease progression, leading to a higher life expectancy [4-6].

A major limitation of ALDLT is the size of the graft that can be safely harvested from the living donor. In an adult recipient, the liver graft from a living related donor is almost always small-for-size. Owing to the reduced liver volume, a small-for-size graft is less effective in coping with the portal flow of an adult recipient. The shear stress from transient portal hypertension causes acute phase mechanical injury [7-9], which subsequently induces severe inflammatory

responses and then has a deleterious effect on the posttransplantation outcome. In spite of rapid hepatic regeneration, small-for-size liver grafts are associated with worse graft function and survival [7-9]. More recently, studies have reported an association between small-for-size liver grafts and higher tumor recurrence after transplantation for hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) [10-12]. Despite its limitations, the small-for-size graft remains the most promising solution to the severe shortage of liver donors, and the pursuit of its interests should be continued.

Recent evidence has shed new light on the understanding of small-for-size liver graft injury. This review examines the pathogenesis of small-for-size liver graft injury as well as its effect on graft and patient survival. The recent link between small-for-size liver graft injury and tumor recurrence after transplantation for HCC, albeit controversial, will also be discussed.

2. The issue of liver graft size

The size of a liver graft selected varies according to the patient, the donor, and the transplant center [13]. In essence, the choice is a delicate balance between donor safety and recipient graft survival. However, as living donors are

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61 healthy, their survival is given precedence over graft efficacy
62 [14]. The normal liver has a large functional reserve. Starzl
63 et al [15] reported that a minimum residual liver volume of
64 30% was required for patient survival. Similar results were
65 reported by Shindl et al [16], where a residual liver volume
66 of less than 27% was associated with a marked increase in
67 the incidence of hepatic dysfunction. The ethical preference
68 for donor safety and a limit on the size of obtainable donor
69 liver mass explain why, with the exception of pediatric
70 patients, almost all partial liver grafts are suboptimal in size.

71 At the moment, the extended right liver graft technique
72 harvests the largest possible liver size (roughly 66% of the
73 donor liver) [17]. To obtain a graft of suitable size, ALDLT
74 often mandates the use of donor right hepatectomy. This
75 procedure has a donor safety profile much less favorable than
76 left hepatectomy, a large and potentially risky operation in its
77 own right. [18]. Donor morbidity and mortality are estimated
78 at 20% [19] and 0.5% [20], respectively, which have been
79 confirmed by a recent series [21].

80 3. Definition of the small-for-size graft

81 An accepted definition of the small-for-size graft has not
82 been established within the transplantation community.
83 There are currently 2 schools of thought.

84 Small-for-size liver grafts can be classified as those with
85 graft weight to estimated standard liver weight ratio of less
86 than 40% [22–24]. Grafts below the critical size are
87 associated with poor early graft function and a marked
88 reduction in graft and patient survival after transplantation
89 [13]. Alternatively, the definition of small-for-size liver
90 grafts can be extended to include all grafts smaller than the
91 standard liver volume (calculated using the formula by Urata
92 et al [25]) [26].

93 The former definition focuses on grafts with unacceptable
94 survival, whereas the latter classifies virtually all liver grafts
95 from living related donors as small-for-size [27]. Because of
96 the increasing evidence that size-related injury extends
97 beyond grafts less than 40% of the standard liver weight, the
98 latter definition is preferred because it represents a more
99 complete picture of the pathologic process. The cohort
100 described by the former will be referred to as marginal grafts.

101 4. Small-for-size liver graft injury

102 Small-for-size liver graft injury refers to the insult related
103 to the small size of the graft in addition to ischemia/
104 reperfusion injury [27]. The initiating event is transient
105 portal hypertension after reperfusion due to graft size
106 mismatch [7,28]. High portal pressure causes mechanical
F1 107 damage to the hepatic sinusoids (Fig. 1), which in turn leads
108 to tissue ischemia, imbalance of vasoregulatory factors,
109 increase in free radical formation, and exaggerated inflam-
110 matory response. The consequence of small-for-size liver

graft injury is dependent on the extent of damage, which is 111
inversely proportional to the graft size. The possible 112
mechanism of small-for-size liver graft injury was summar- 113
ized in Fig. 2. 114 F2

115 4.1. Transient portal hypertension

116 The liver has 2 major sites of vascular inflow: the portal 116
vein and the hepatic artery. Although portal blood flow 117
undergoes very little autoregulation within the liver, a 118
buffer system is in place to prevent excessive blood flow 119
from damaging the liver. An increase in portal pressure can 120
be countered by the hepatic arterial buffer response, where a 121
change in portal flow induces reciprocal effects on arterial 122
flow [29]. Through this buffer system, a liver can tolerate a 123
maximum of 20% increase in blood flow [30]. Such a buffer 124
system is present after transplantation [31] but is not enough 125
to compensate for the mismatched portal flow in small-for- 126
size grafts [32]. Because the portal flow destined for a 127
whole liver is directed through a partial liver, excessive 128
portal pressure is built up in small-for-size grafts, resulting 129
in portal hypertension. The increase in portal pressure due 130
to graft size mismatch is transient in nature and lasts for 30 131
minutes after reperfusion. 132

133 Shear stress from the transient portal hypertension 133
inflicts mechanical damage upon the hepatic sinusoidal 134
endothelium. Using a novel porcine liver transplantation 135
model, Kelly et al [33] demonstrated an inverse relationship 136
between the graft size and the extent of hepatic sinusoidal 137
injury. The presence of severe sinusoidal injury was 138
reported in grafts with an estimated standard liver volume 139
(ESLV) of 20% or less. The damage was less severe in 140
grafts with an ESLV of 30% and was further lessened in 141
grafts with an ESLV of 60%. Damage was virtually 142
nonexistent in whole grafts [28]. 143

144 4.2. Severer ischemia injury

145 Being the principle vessels involved in transvascular 145
exchange between the blood and the liver parenchymal cells, 146
the sinusoids are critical in the maintenance of hepatic 147
functions [28]. A healthy microcirculatory environment is 148
vital to the recovery of graft function after reperfusion 149
[34,35]. Injury to the sinusoidal cells results in sinusoidal 150
stasis and congestion [36], and a lack of functional 151
microcirculation exposes the liver tissue to ischemia [37]. 152
Although the hemodynamic changes are transient, tissue 153
ischemia secondary to sinusoidal insult causes progressive 154
cellular damage. The histologic hallmarks of prolonged 155
ischemia include swelling of mitochondria and hepatocytes 156
as well as presence of apoptosis [28]. 157

158 4.3. Imbalance of vasoregulatory peptides

159 In the normal liver, the maintenance of hepatic micro- 159
circulation relies heavily on the delicate balance of vasocon- 160
striction and vasodilatation. Prolonged ischemia from 161
sinusoidal damage tips the balance in favor of vasoconstriction 162

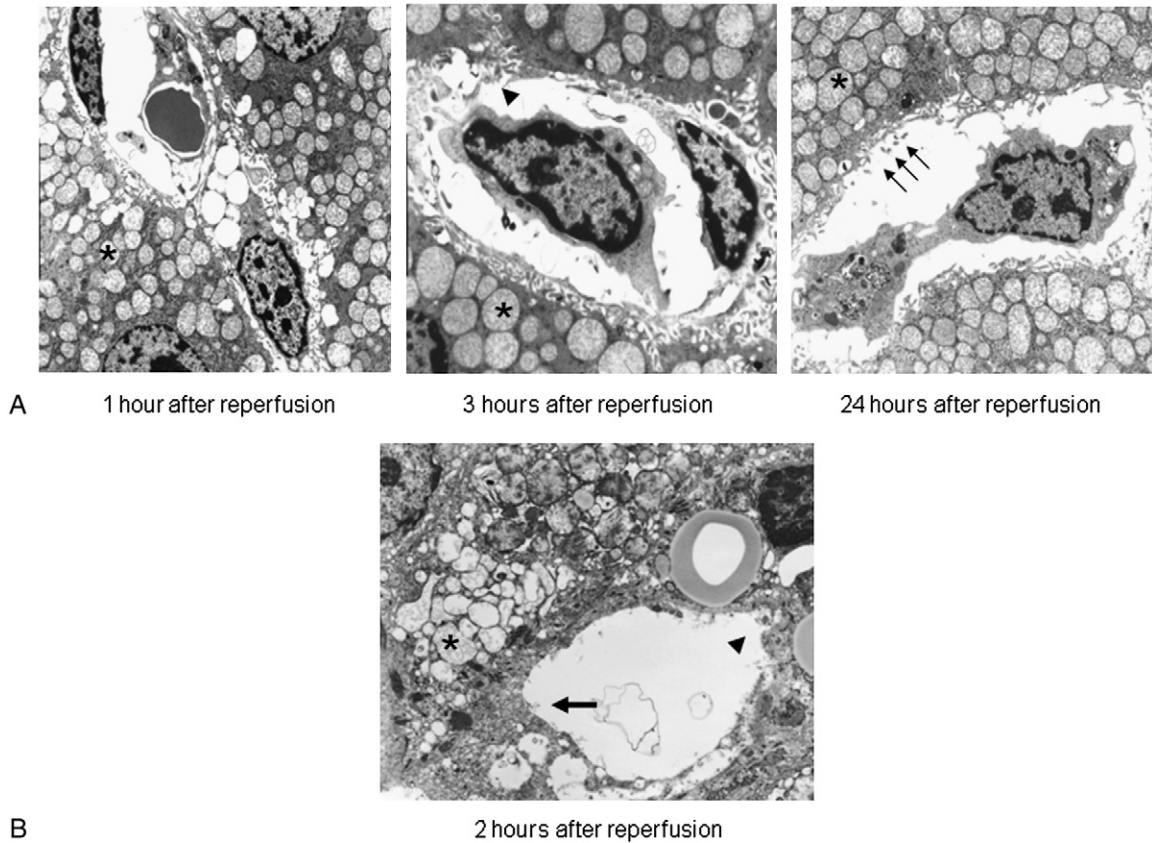


Fig. 1. Hepatic ultrastructural changes after liver transplantation in animal (A) and human (B) studies. A, Tremendous mitochondrial swelling with unvisualized cristae (*) was found in the hepatocytes. Collapse of the Disse space (arrow) and an irregular large gap (arrow head) between the sinusoidal lining cells also occurred. Total disruption of hepatic sinusoidal lining cells (arrows) was presented at 24 hours after reperfusion in animal study (animal study from Man et al [28]; human study from Man et al [7]).

163 [7]. The gene for endothelin 1 is overexpressed as a result of
 164 ischemia, resulting in its overproduction [38]. Endothelin 1 is
 165 the most potent constrictor peptide of vascular smooth muscle

[39] and increases intrahepatic resistance by directly constricting
 166 the remaining hepatic sinusoids. On the other hand, the
 167 gene for endothelial nitric oxide synthase is underexpressed.
 168

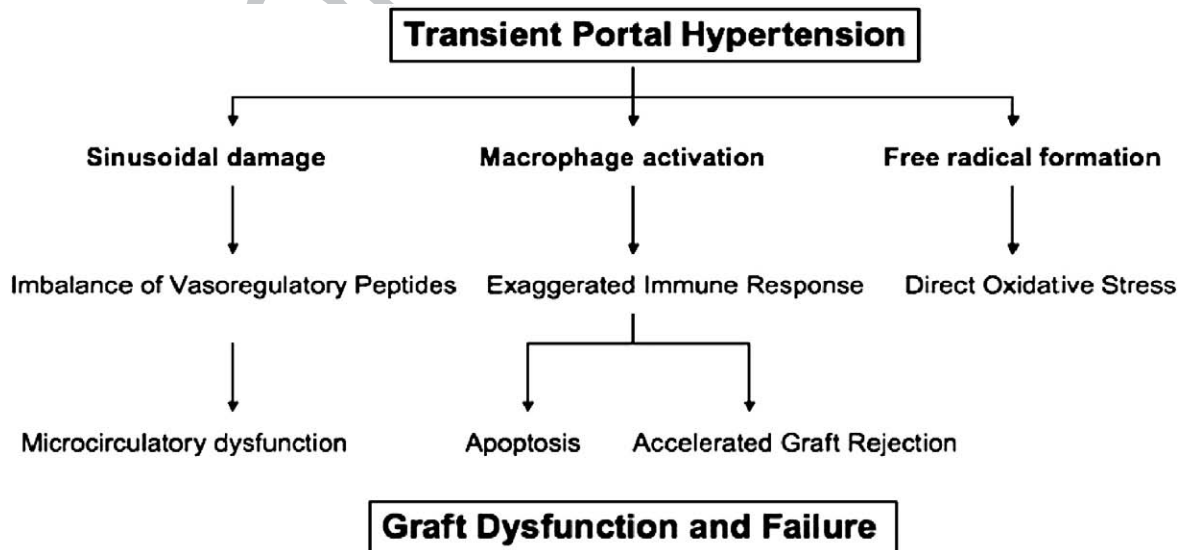


Fig. 2. Pathways to small-for-size liver graft injury.

169 Endothelial nitric oxide synthase is involved in the main- 222
 170 tenance of vasodilatation through the production of endogen- 223
 171 ous nitric oxide [40]. Endogenous nitric oxide in turn is vital in 224
 172 the physiological regulation of blood flow [41]. This results in 225
 173 a further shift of balance toward vasoconstriction. 226

174 Furthermore, genes for heat shock protein 70 and heme 227
 175 oxygenase 1, which are important for tissue repair [42] and 228
 176 protection against vascular constriction [43], respectively, 229
 177 are also underexpressed in small-for-size grafts. A shift 230
 178 toward vasoconstriction results in further ischemic damage. 231

179 4.4. Increase in free radical formation 232

180 The production of free radicals is markedly increased in 233
 181 small-for-size grafts shortly after reperfusion [44]. Zhong et al 234
 182 [44] suggested 2 possible mechanisms of free radical 235
 183 formation in small-for-size grafts. First, a reduction in graft 236
 184 size increases the metabolic burden on the graft. As 237
 185 metabolism increases, mitochondria produce more oxygen 238
 186 radicals. At the same time, reduced glutathione, a potent 239
 187 antioxidant, is consumed more rapidly in smaller grafts. The 240
 188 result is a net increase in free radicals and more severe graft 241
 189 injury [45]. A second explanation involves Kupffer cells. Each 242
 190 individual Kupffer cell in a small-for-size graft is exposed to 243
 191 higher amounts of endotoxin than that in a whole liver graft 244
 192 [46]. In turn, the exposure to endotoxin triggers Kupffer cells 245
 193 to release a large quantity of free radicals. Regardless of the 246
 194 method of release, the free radicals cause direct oxidative 247
 195 damage to the remaining hepatocytes and sinusoids. An 248
 196 increase in free radical formation is associated with increased 249
 197 graft injury and worse graft function, as indicated by increased 250
 198 serum alanine transferase and bilirubin levels as well as 251
 199 histologic signs of necrosis and leukocyte infiltration. 252

200 4.5. Exaggerated inflammatory response 253

201 A common finding in liver grafts after transplantation is a 254
 202 cellular infiltrate secondary to ischemia/reperfusion injury. 255
 203 The cellular infiltrate predominantly consists of macro- 256
 204 phages. As a result of transient portal hypertension, the 257
 205 macrophage cell number and activity are substantially 258
 206 increased in small-for-size grafts. Using a rat liver 259
 207 transplantation model, Yang et al [47] demonstrated a 260
 208 significantly higher macrophage infiltrate in the periportal 261
 209 area of small-for-size grafts compared with that of whole 262
 210 grafts during early phase after reperfusion. The number of 263
 211 macrophages expanded to reach a peak at 72 hours after 264
 212 reperfusion. In addition to an increase in the cell number, the 265
 213 activity of the macrophages was also enhanced in small-for- 266
 214 size liver grafts. This was represented by exaggerated 267
 215 expression of inducible nitric oxide synthase by the 268
 216 macrophages in small-for-size grafts. 269

217 The invading macrophages in small-for-size grafts secrete 270
 218 high levels of cytokines, specifically interleukin 1 β and 271
 219 interleukin 2, during early phase after reperfusion. In the in 272
 220 vitro setting, Yang et al [47] demonstrated that interleukin 1 β 273
 221 transforms macrophages into antigen-presenting cells, as 274

evidenced by the expression of CD80 and CD86. These 2 222
 2 molecules provide vital stimuli to prime T cells against 223
 2 antigens presented by antigen-presenting cells. The presence 224
 2 of a larger number of antigen-presenting cells in small-for- 225
 2 size grafts enhances alloantigen recognition and subse- 226
 2 quently results in accelerated graft rejection. 227

In a separate study by Yang et al [48], vascular endothelial 228
 2 growth factor (VEGF) was put forward as the vital link 229
 2 between transient portal hypertension and macrophage 230
 2 activation in small-for-size grafts. Microcirculatory injury 231
 2 after reperfusion triggers VEGF secretion from hepatocytes, 232
 2 a vital physiological process needed for rapid hepatic 233
 2 regeneration. However, VEGF is also an important mediator 234
 2 of monocyte and activities, and excessive VEGF is produced 235
 2 in small-for-size grafts because of more profound micro- 236
 2 circulatory damage. Subsequently, an increase in production 237
 2 of intragraft VEGF results in the enhancement of migratory 238
 2 activities of monocytes in small-for-size grafts [48]. 239

240 5. Clinical consequence of small-for-size liver 241 242 graft injury 243

The most severe consequence of small-for-size liver graft 242
 2 injury is small-for-size syndrome, defined as graft dysfunc- 243
 2 tion or graft failure during the first postoperative week after 244
 2 the exclusion of other causes [49]. This syndrome is almost 245
 2 exclusive to marginal grafts. Several notable studies have 246
 2 reported different cutoff points for marginal grafts. Kawa- 247
 2 saki et al [50] set the limit of safe liver graft size at 30% of 248
 2 ESLV. This threshold point is shared by Nishizaki et al [51]. 249
 2 Lo et al [52] reported that graft sizes below 40% of ESLV 250
 2 have low success rates. Lee et al [72] used a graft-recipient 251
 2 weight ratio (GRWR) of less than 0.8% as the limit, whereas 252
 2 Ben-Haim et al [53] reported that a GRWR as low as 0.6% 253
 2 is suitable for patients with less severe end-stage liver 254
 2 disease. It is important to note, however, that these limits are 255
 2 mainly arbitrary. 256

Small-for-size syndrome is attributable solely to size of the 257
 2 graft because not every marginal graft results in dysfunction 258
 2 or failure. Small-for-size syndrome is a multifactorial disease. 259
 2 Other factors involved in small-for-size syndrome include 260
 2 graft-related causes (a lack of liver regeneration [54], high 261
 2 portal inflow [55], low venous outflow [56], preexisting 262
 2 steatosis in the donor [57]), and recipient-related causes 263
 2 (severe preoperative end-stage liver disease [53], presence of 264
 2 cirrhosis [58], and poor preoperative health status). 265

For small-for-size liver grafts with GRWR of more than 266
 2 0.8%, a difference in survival compared with whole liver 267
 2 grafts is less convincing. Earlier reports on short-term 268
 2 survival after liver transplantation suggested poorer graft 269
 2 survival in ALDLT recipients. Using the United Network for 270
 2 Organ Sharing data in a retrospective analysis, Abt et al [8] 271
 2 discovered a significantly higher rate of allograft failure in 272
 2 ALDLT recipients compared with deceased donor liver 273
 2 transplantation (DDLTL) recipients (hazards ratio, 1.66; 274

confidence interval, 1.30–2.11). With the same database, Thuluvath and Yoo [9] reported a 2-year graft survival of 64.4% in ALDLT recipients compared with 73.3% in the DDLT recipients. The difference in graft survival between the 2 groups was statistically significant. However, because of the availability of retransplantation for recipients who developed allograft failure, patient survival after ALDLT remained similar to that of DDLT. A crucial limitation of the United Network for Organ Sharing database is omission of data on graft size. It is impossible to confirm whether size plays a role in the poorer graft survival.

A more recent study on long-term survival after liver transplantation refutes previous evidence of poorer survival in ALDLT recipients. Maluf et al [59] found no statistical differences between ALDLT and DDLT in the patient or graft survival rates at 5 years after transplantation. A possible reason for the discrepancy in results is an improvement of surgical technique at a high volume center. Results from our center also demonstrated a lack of significant difference in patient and graft survival between the 2 groups. With a median follow-up time of 27 months, the graft and patient survival rates were 88% and 90%, respectively, in the ALDLT group, whereas the survival rates were both 84% in the DDLT group. In this study, the ALDLT grafts had a significantly lower median graft weight to estimated standard liver weight ratio (48.9% vs 98.2%). Liu et al [46] cited that their regular inclusion of the middle hepatic vein in partial liver grafts, which allows good venous drainage to meet the high metabolic demand of recipients, might have resulted in the more favorable survival outcomes in ALDLT.

6. Small-for-size liver graft injury on late phase tumor recurrence

6.1. Background

Although ALDLT confers a substantial survival advantage for patients with HCC awaiting transplantation, the preference of ALDLT to DDLT is based primarily on hypothetical studies using decision analysis models [4,5]. Such studies assume comparable tumor recurrence rates and patient survival after ALDLT and DDLT. With the adoption of the Milan criteria, DDLT offers a tumor recurrence rate of less than 10% [60]. This in turn confers a patient survival rate comparable to patients undergoing DDLT without HCC (75% survival at 4 years) [61,62]. In comparison, the tumor recurrence rate after ALDLT remains controversial.

6.2. Clinical evidence of inferior oncologic outcome

Recently, a number of centers have compared the outcomes of ALDLT and DDLT using retrospective clinical data. The inability to conduct a randomized controlled trial has led to conflicting results in different centers. However,

there is increasing evidence that partial liver grafts lead to higher tumor recurrence after ALDLT for HCC.

On one hand, Hwang et al [63] reported no significant difference in the HCC recurrence rates between the 2 cohorts. Instead, tumor size, gross major vessel invasion, and histologic differentiation were cited as the major risk factors for tumor recurrence. Gondolesi et al [64] also observed comparable tumor recurrence rates between ALDLT and DDLT.

On the other hand, an increasing amount of evidence points to a higher tumor recurrence rate after transplantation using ALDLT. In 2004, Kulik et al [12] reported higher HCC tumor recurrence rates in the “fast tracked” ALDLT cohort (22%) compared with the DDLT cohort (3%). They reasoned that the shorter waiting time did not allow an adequate period to assess the tumor’s biological behavior. Hence, the ALDLT group included more aggressive tumors, which may have accounted for the higher tumor recurrence rate. However, the team also hypothesized that, by virtue of its relatively small size, the liver graft from a living donor could potentially promote tumor growth and metastasis independently and, thus, result in a higher tumor recurrence rate. This theory has become the focus of more recent studies on the topic.

In 2007, Lo et al [11] reported a 5-year recurrence rate of 22% in the ALDLT cohort and a 5-year recurrence rate of 0% in the DDLT cohort. In the study, tumor recurrence was the major cause of death after transplantation, with 6 of the 10 deaths attributable to tumor recurrence [11]. Furthermore, the 5-year patient survival rate was substantially lower in the ALDLT cohort (58% vs 94%), which, however, without statistical significance, was most likely because of the small sample size. In the same year, the multicenter Adult-to-Adult Living Donor Liver Transplantation Cohort Study reported a 3-year higher tumor recurrence rate in the ALDLT cohort (29% vs 0%) [10]. This time, however, there was little difference in the overall patient survival of the 2 groups. A striking similarity in the 2 studies was the lack of tumor recurrence in the DDLT cohort. The finding that even transplantation for tumors outside the Milan and University of California, San Francisco, criteria lacked recurrence suggested that factors other than tumor aggressiveness before transplantation were responsible for the findings. Again, both studies proposed that the small size of the living donor liver graft was potentially responsible for the higher recurrence rate. However, the hypothesis yet remains unproven.

Most recently, Hwang et al [65] tested the effect of GRWR on tumor recurrence with a retrospective study on past transplantations. The study found no statistical differences in the overall patient survival ($P = .105$) and recurrence-free survival ($P = .406$) among grafts with GRWR less than .8 (small grafts), GRWR of .8–1.0 (mid sized), GRWR greater than 1.0 (large sized), and those with GRWR greater than 1.5 (whole grafts). However, because of a high amount of sample stratification, the sample size of each group and, hence, the power were not large enough to detect a statistical difference. Table 1 shows the results of the aforementioned studies. In the face of such controversy, an

t1.1 Table 1

t1.2 Tumor recurrence after liver transplantation using DDLT and LDLT

t1.3 Author	Sample size	Date	Tumor recurrence rate			Patient survival rate		
			LDLT vs DDLT	DDLT	LDLT	P	DDLT	LDLT
t1.5 Kulik	41 vs 33	2004	0%/9 mo	15%/8 mo	.044	–	–	–
t1.6 Gondolesi	36 vs 165	2004	83%/2 yrs	74%/2 y	.300	70%/2 y	60%/2 y	.200
t1.7 Hwang	237 vs 75	2005	82%/2 y	79.7%/2 y	.884	61%/3 y	73%/3 y	.043
t1.8 Lo	43 vs 17	2007	0%/5 y	29%/5 y	.029	94%/5 y	58%/5 y	.187
t1.9 Fisher	58 vs 34	2007	0%/3 y	29%/y	.002	63%/3 y	67%/3 y	.910

381 in-depth examination on the molecular aspect of the topic
382 is necessary.

383 *6.3. Molecular pathways linking small-for-size liver graft*
384 *injury to tumor recurrence after transplantation for HCC*

385 Crucially, there is an overlap of processes in small-for-
386 size graft injury with those involved in tumor invasion. Such

factors may provide a favorable environment for tumor
recurrence in small-for-size grafts.

The main pathway in which the outgrowth of preexisting
micrometastases can be promoted in small-for-size grafts is
through tissue ischemia. It is present in small-for-size grafts
secondary to portal hyperperfusion injury. The ischemia is
exacerbated by the hepatic arterial buffer response because it
leads to a decrease in hepatic arterial flow. In a study by Doi

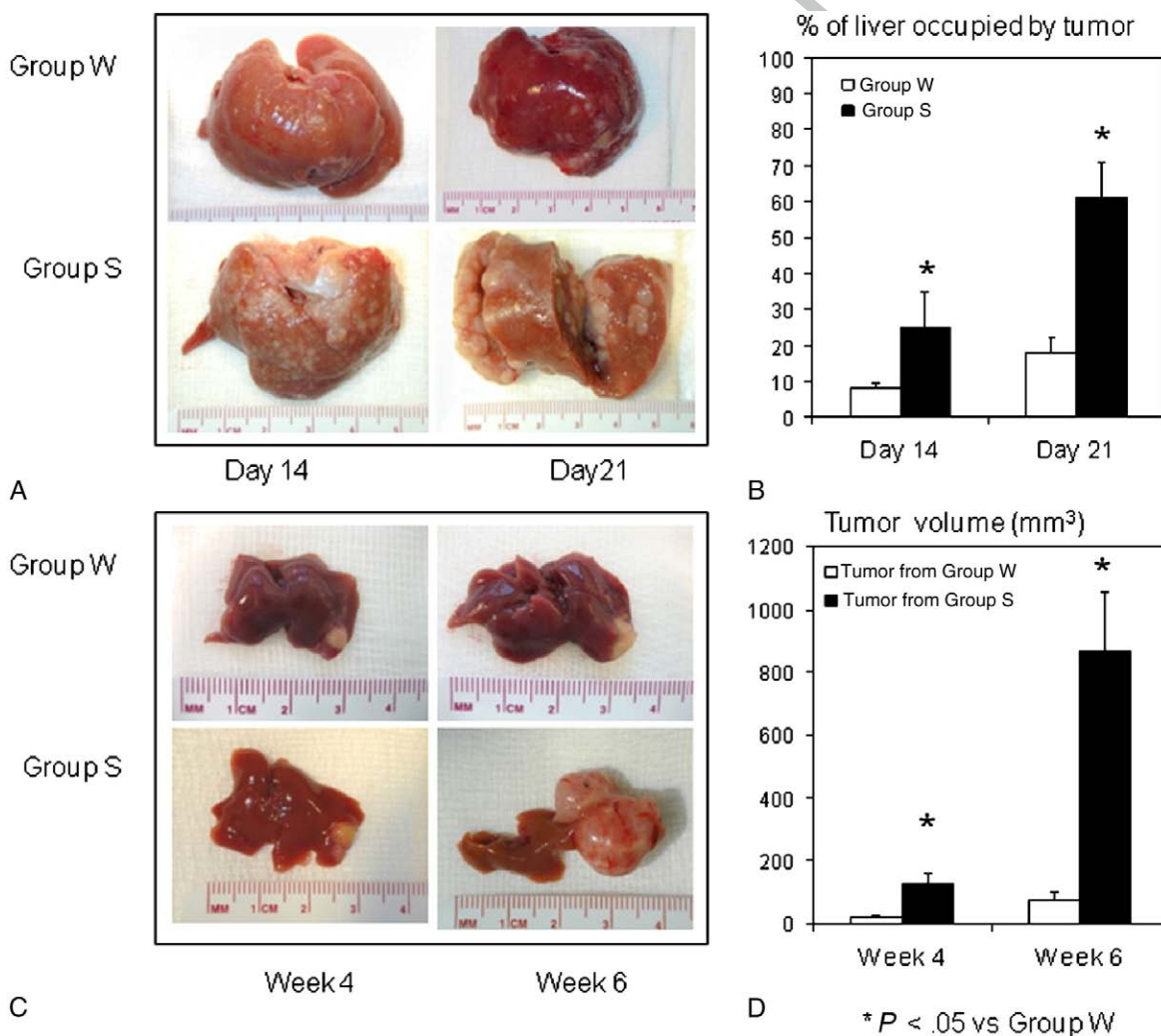


Fig. 3. A, Liver tumor development after liver transplantation using whole or small-for-size liver grafts at day 14 and day 21. B, The liver occupied by tumor was compared at different time points. C, Liver tumor growth in nude mice at week 4 and week 6 after tumor implantation from group W or group S. D, The volume of tumors from nude mice was also compared. * $P < .05$ group W vs group S. (From Man et al., *Ann Surg*, in press).

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et al [66], prolonged liver ischemia induced higher secretion of inflammatory cytokines, increased free radical formation, and subsequently increased liver metastasis of colon cancer. van der Bilt et al [67] reported that ischemic lobes in murine livers had a 5-fold to 6-fold increase in outgrowth of micrometastases compared with nonischemic lobes. The same study also discovered that a decrease in ischemic time would drastically decrease the incidence of metastasis.

6.4. Liver graft injury and tumor recurrence

Recently, we have demonstrated the significance of surgical stress on tumor behavior in a rat liver tumor model undergoing ischemia/reperfusion injury and major hepatectomy. The surgical stress resulting from hepatic ischemia/reperfusion injury and/or major hepatectomy did not only make the hepatic microenvironment (“soil”) favorable for tumor cell growth, migration, and invasion through stimulation of acute phase inflammatory response and disturbance of microcirculatory barrier function but also made the tumor cells (“seeds”) more aggressive for local and distant metastases by directly activating cell migration and invasion pathways in the tumor cell itself [68]. We also demonstrated the significance of graft size in tumor growth and invasiveness after liver transplantation in a rat model. More rapid and invasive tumor development in small-for-size liver grafts was evident in morphological examination and was supported by the signaling linking to angiogenesis and tumor invasiveness. We further confirmed the invasiveness of tumors developed from small-for-size grafts in a novel orthotopic nude mice implantation model (Fig. 3) [69]. It was found that acute phase small-for-size

liver graft injury does not only provide a microenvironment that favors tumor development but also promotes the invasiveness of tumor cells.

The small liver remnants and small-for-size liver graft expressed significantly high levels of early overexpression of early growth response 1, focal adhesion kinase, and VEGF [68,69]. Early growth response 1 switches on several cascades of inflammatory response as well as angiogenesis and cell adhesion [70]. The activation of focal adhesion kinase is related to microvascular barrier dysfunction and has been demonstrated to promote an invasive tumor cell phenotype [71]. Vascular endothelial growth factor is a major promoter of angiogenesis [72].

From the studies, there are several possible mechanisms in which small-for-size liver graft injury can increase the incidence of tumor recurrence. They may include increase in cell adhesion factors, liver parenchyma damage/microvascular barrier dysfunction, and angiogenesis.

6.5. Cell adhesion

Prolonged ischemia is associated with higher expression of E-selectin and, consequently, a higher incidence of tumor metastasis [73]. E-selectin is a molecule that is important in inflammatory responses [74] because it facilitates the adhesion of leukocytes to endothelial cells [75]. It is also reportedly involved in liver cancer growth and metastasis [76] by facilitating the adhesion of cancer cells to the endothelium [77]. Expression of E-selectin increases with the length of ischemic period. This is because E-selectin is up-regulated by tumor necrosis factor α and interleukin 1 [78], whose expression is in turn promoted by liver ischemia

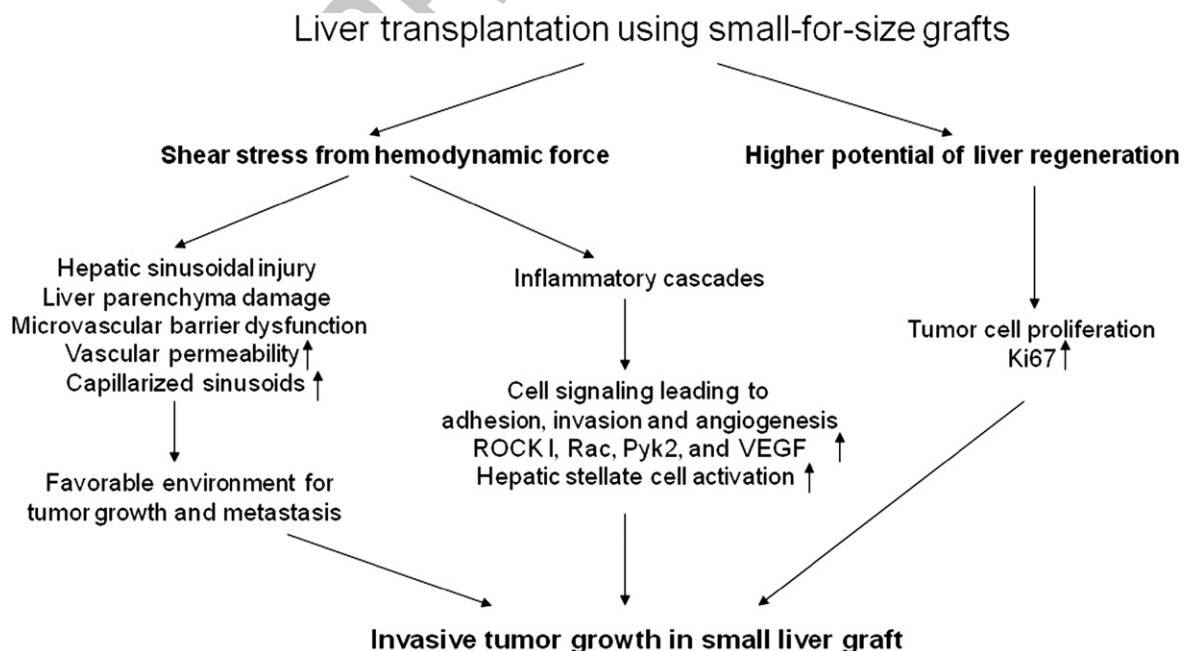


Fig. 4. Possible mechanism of invasive tumor growth after transplantation using small-for-size grafts.

455 [79]. It is also possible that other adhesion molecules
456 expressed during ischemia may have similar effects on
457 tumor recurrence.

458 6.6. Microvascular dysfunction

459 Apoptosis is the most important mechanism of ischemia-
460 induced cell death and was shown by van der Bilt et al [67] to
461 be also important in tumor metastasis. Liver ischemic injury
462 induces areas of apoptosis, resulting in infiltration of
463 lymphocytes into the area. Areas of necrosis then develop
464 in the liver parenchyma. This facilitates the growth of tumor
465 cells [67] as they preferentially invade into zones surround-
466 ing tissue necrosis.

467 6.7. Angiogenesis

468 Vascular endothelial growth factor, as mentioned
469 previously, is a major angiogenic factor and is up-regulated
470 by tissue hypoxia secondary to microvascular dysfunction.
471 Previous studies demonstrated the ability of VEGF to
472 induce angiogenesis in cerebral ischemia [72]. Vascular
473 endothelial growth factor was also reported to be important
474 in ischemic wound healing [80]. A crucial study discovered
475 a direct correlation between vascular clamping time and
476 intrahepatic VEGF levels [81], which led to a less favorable
477 oncologic outcome in these patients. As Yang et al [48]
478 reported an increase in VEGF expression in small-for-size
479 grafts, it is possible that small-for-size graft injury-induced
480 ischemia may result in VEGF overexpression and, conse-
481 quently, angiogenesis.

482 In summary, although partial liver grafts provide earlier
483 transplantation and lowers waiting list mortality, the major
484 concern is posttransplantation survival. Small-for-size liver
485 graft injury is virtually present in all partial liver grafts. It is a
486 multistep detrimental process reinforced by strong collater-
487 als. The process begins with transient portal hypertension
488 due to graft size mismatch, which inflicts mechanical
489 damage on the hepatic sinusoidal endothelium. Dysfunction
490 of the hepatic sinusoidal endothelium results in global
491 ischemia to the liver graft, which triggers a cascade of
492 vasoconstriction, free radical production, and monocyte
493 migration to the liver graft. The consequence is acute phase
494 graft injury. The extent of damage and graft dysfunction is
495 dependent on the size of the partial liver graft. Clinical
496 studies have, however, demonstrated that with good surgical
497 technique and the use of grafts with graft weight to estimated
498 standard liver weight ratio greater than 40%, acute graft
499 failure can be minimized to levels comparable with whole
500 liver grafts. Further evidence though is needed for
501 comparison of the long-term outcome (>5 years).

502 7. Conclusions

503 Acute phase small-for-size graft injury may not only
504 affect short-term graft survival but may also contribute to late

phase tumor recurrence and metastasis in liver transplanta- 505
tion for liver cancer (Fig. 4). An improved understanding of 506 F4
small-for-size liver graft injury will facilitate preventive and 507
therapeutic measures not only for early graft dysfunction but 508
also for late phase tumor recurrence and metastasis. 509

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