

Treatment Options for Glioblastoma and other Gliomas

Prepared by Ben A. Williams
Glioblastoma Diagnosis, March, 1995
Last Updated: August 1, 2005

Copyright 2005, Ben Williams

Disclaimer: the information presented here is the opinion of Ben Williams. It is for informational purposes only, do not consider it medical advice. Discuss the ideas presented here with your own doctors.

Since my own diagnosis of glioblastoma (GBM) I have spent considerable time researching the literature for treatment options, and the following discussion summarizes what I have learned. Most of the information is from medical journals. Some is from information that has been contributed by others to various online brain tumor patient support groups which I have followed up on, and some is from direct communications by phone or e-mail with various physicians conducting the treatments that are described. References are presented at the end for those who would like their physicians to take this information seriously. Although this discussion is intended to be primarily descriptive of the recent development of new treatment options, it is motivated by my belief that the development of new agents, per se, is likely to fall short of providing effective treatment. What is needed, in addition, is a new approach to treatment that recognizes the power of evolution as the enemy of victims of cancer.

A more extensive account of my philosophy of treatment, and the reasons for it, are provided in my (2002) book, 'Surviving "Terminal" Cancer: Clinical Trials, Drug Cocktails, and Other Treatments Your Doctor Won't Tell You About'. It can be ordered elsewhere on this website, from Amazon.com, from your local bookstore, or directly from the publisher:

Fairview Press
2450 Riverside Ave.
Minneapolis, MN 55454
1-800-544-8207
FAX: 612.672.4980
www.fairviewpress.org

Treatment for GBMs and other high-grade gliomas is changing rapidly. Until the last five years there was a standard treatment in the USA, including surgery, radiation, and chemotherapy with a nitrosourea, either BCNU alone or CCNU combined with procarbazine and vincristine (known as the PCV combination). While this treatment has worked for a small minority of people, its 5-year survival rate has been only 2-5%. Median survival has been about a year, which is 2-3 months longer than for patients receiving radiation alone without chemotherapy. Fortunately, as will be discussed in the

next section, the past two years has produced a new “gold standard” of treatment for patients newly diagnosed, the combination of radiation with a new chemotherapy agent, temozolomide (trade name temodar in the USA and temodal elsewhere in the world). While this new standard appears to produce a notable improvement in outcome from previous treatments, it still falls far short of being effective for the great majority of patients. What is needed, therefore, is a new philosophy of treatment that goes beyond rigidly defined protocols to include a variety of different agents used in combination.

There are two general premises to the approach to treatment that will be described. The first of these is borrowed from the treatment approach that has evolved in the treatment of AIDS. Both HIV and cancer involve biological entities that mutate at high rates. This implies that unless a treatment is immediately effective the dynamics of evolution will create new forms that are resistant to whatever the treatment may be. However, if several different treatments are used simultaneously (instead of sequentially, which is typically the case), any given mutation has a much smaller chance of being successful.

A second general principle is that any successful treatment will need to be systemic in nature because it is impossible to identify all of the extensions of the tumor into normal tissue. Moreover, cancer cells are typically evident in locations in the brain distant from the main tumor, indicating that metastases within the brain can occur, although the great majority of tumor recurrences are within or proximal to the original tumor site. Localized treatments such as radiosurgery may be beneficial in terms of buying time, but they are unlikely to provide a cure. Even if the localized treatment eradicates 99.9% of the tumor, the small amount of residual tumor will expand geometrically and soon will cause significant clinical problems.

Until recently, the only systemic treatment available has been chemotherapy, which historically has been ineffective except for a small percentage of patients. An important issue, therefore, is whether chemotherapy can be made to work substantially better than it typically does. Agents that facilitate or augment its effects are critically important. Such agents are available but not widely used. Also becoming available are new systemic treatments that are much less toxic than traditional chemotherapy. The availability of these treatments raises the possibility that some combination of these new agents can be packaged that is substantially less toxic and yet provides effective treatment based on several different independent principles. Thus, the AIDS-type of combination approach is now a genuine possibility whereas it would not have been ten years ago. Because oncologists have been slow to appreciate the significance of the increased availability of these relatively nontoxic treatments, patients learn about them piecemeal if at all. Thus, patients themselves need to become familiar with these new agents and the evidence available regarding their clinical effectiveness. It is possible, although by no means proven, that some combination of these new agents offers the best possibility for survival.

Patients may or may not learn about the treatments that will be described from their physicians. To appreciate why this may be, it is important to understand how American medicine has been institutionalized. For most medical problems there is an accepted standard of what is the best available treatment. Ideally this is based on phase III clinical

trials. Treatments that have been studied only in nonrandomized phase II trials will rarely be offered as a treatment option, even if the accepted "best available treatment" is generally ineffective. What happens instead is that patients are encouraged to participate in clinical trials. The problem with this approach is that most medical centers offer few options for an individual patient. Thus, even though a given trial for a new treatment may seem very promising, patients can participate only if that trial is offered by their medical facility. An even more serious problem is that clinical trials with new treatment agents almost always study that agent in isolation, usually with patients with recurrent tumors who have the worst prognoses. For newly diagnosed patients this is at best a last resort. What is needed instead is access to the most promising new treatments, in the optimum combinations, at the time of initial diagnosis.

Physicians rarely will inform a patient about clinical trials being conducted elsewhere. Moreover, the idea that several different agents from separate phase II clinical trials might be combined will be met with great resistance. Patients themselves will therefore need to become informed about what options are available, and which kinds of combinations seem most promising. In addition to the information that will be presented here, other information, especially about which new clinical trials are available, are available elsewhere on this website (address: www.virtualtrials.com).

The Role of Chemotherapy

Until the past year, neuro-oncologists have debated whether chemotherapy benefits patients with glioblastoma tumors. A number of different clinical trials have failed to show a significant survival advantage from the addition of chemotherapy to radiation, although a meta-analysis (a somewhat controversial statistical procedure) of the entire corpus of clinical trials has shown an increase in the median survival time of 2-3 months. Given such a small increase, the rigors of undergoing chemotherapy, for many, seem to outweigh the minimal increase in survival. This is especially true in Europe.

The debate over the use of chemotherapy has unfortunately focused on the median survival time as the measure of chemotherapy's effects. Chemotherapy, at least that which has been investigated up until the present time, benefits only a minority of patients, but those who do benefit may gain a great deal. Approximately 20-30% of patients receiving traditional chemotherapy show some shrinkage in their tumors, and such shrinkage is associated with increased survival times. The problem with using medians as the primary statistic is that they are insensitive to changes in the distribution of effects that occur in only one tail of the distribution. A much better statistic, in my opinion, is the two-year survival rate. Patients who receive only radiation have a two-year survival rate of 0-10%, while those also receiving chemotherapy have a two-year survival rate of 15-30% (1). Thus, the use of chemotherapy increases two-year survival by a significant amount. On the other hand, it will have little benefit for the majority of patients. But given the poor prognosis from all forms of GBM treatment, a patient cannot afford to

forego the possibility that he/she will be among the minority for whom chemotherapy provides a significant benefit.

The debate over the efficacy of chemotherapy has now more or less ended, as a large randomized European clinical trial has shown clear benefits of adding temodar to the standard radiation treatment (2). One group of patients received radiation alone; the other group received radiation plus temodar, first at low dosages during the six weeks of radiation, followed by the standard schedule of higher-dose temodar for 5 days out of every 28-day cycle.). Median survival was 15 months, compared to a median survival of 12 months for patients receiving radiation only, a difference that was statistically significant. More impressive was the difference in two-year survival rate, which was 27% for the patients receiving temodal but only 10% for those receiving only radiation. Very similar outcome results were obtained in a smaller nonrandomized study in Germany (3) As a result of these new findings, the protocol of temodar presented during radiation is rapidly becoming the most popular first line treatment.

A two-year survival rate of less than 30% obviously cannot be considered an effective treatment, as the great majority of patients receiving the treatment receive at best a minor benefit, accompanied with significant side effects (although temodar is much better tolerated than previous treatments). This raises the issues of how to determine who will benefit from the treatment, and, most importantly how to improve the treatment outcomes.

One approach to determining whether an individual patient will benefit from chemotherapy is simply to try 1-2 rounds to see if there is any tumor regression. The debilitating effects of chemotherapy typically occur in later rounds, at which point there is a cumulative decline in blood counts. The extreme nausea and vomiting most associated with chemotherapy in the mind of the lay public is now almost completely preventable by the new anti-nausea agents, Zofran and Kytril. Marijuana also can be very effective in controlling such effects, and has an appetite-boosting effect as well. Thus, for those patients who are relatively robust after surgery and radiation, some amount of chemotherapy experimentation should be possible without major difficulties.

A possibly significant advance in determining which patients will benefit from temodar was reported by the same research group that reported the definitive trial combining low-dosage temodar with radiation. Tumor specimens from the patients in that trial were tested for the presence of activity from a specific gene that determines chemoresistance. More specifically, there is a gene (known as MGMT), which allows the damaged tumor cells to repair themselves, with the result that both radiation and chemotherapy is less effective. Patients whose MGMT gene is inactivated (which occurs in 45% of patients) have a significantly greater chance of responding to temodar than those for whom the gene is still functional (4). This implies that patients should have specimens of tumor tissue taken at the time of surgery tested for the status of the MGMT gene. However, this issue is still controversial, as others have disputed whether the status of the MGMT gene has predictive value (5). It is also important to appreciate that the MGMT gene is only one of several mechanisms by which chemoresistance is mediated.

An alternative way to ascertain the value of chemotherapy for an individual patient is the use of chemo-sensitivity testing for the various drugs that are possible treatments. Such testing requires a live sample of the tumor and thus must be planned for in advance of surgery. Culturing the live cells is often problematic, but at least a half-dozen private companies across the country offer this service. Cost ranges from \$1000-\$2000, depending on the scope of drugs that are tested. Recent evidence has shown that chemosensitivity testing can significantly enhance treatment effectiveness for a variety of different types of cancer, including a recent Japanese study using chemosensitivity testing with glioblastoma patients (6). In general, when chemosensitivity testing indicates an agent has no effect on a patient's tumor the drug is unlikely to have any clinical benefit. On the other hand, tests indicating that a tumor culture is sensitive to a particular agent do not guarantee clinical effectiveness, but it substantially increases the likelihood that the agent will be beneficial. More information about chemosensitivity testing is presented in a separate article listed in the "noteworthy treatments" section that includes the present paper.

The poor success rate of chemotherapy for glioblastomas is not necessarily true of other types of glioma. For both anaplastic astrocytoma (AAIII) and oligodendrogliomas, the PCV chemotherapy regimen has been shown to have substantial effectiveness. In one of the most recent studies, for example, PCV combined with the radiation sensitizer, DFMO, produced median survival times for AAIII patients of 4-5 years (7). It is yet unclear whether the use of temodar with lower-grade tumors will provide an improvement over the outcomes of the previous chemotherapies.

Chemotherapy in Combination with Other Agents

Although the new protocol involving temodar has been viewed as a significant improvement, it is increasingly clear that treatment outcomes can be improved when temodar is used in combination with other additional treatment agents. The best results from using temodar as the initial treatment comes from a small phase II study done in Switzerland, which combined temodal with thalidomide, starting after the standard radiation treatment (8). Subjects received either thalidomide alone or thalidomide + temodal. The median survival time for the thalidomide-alone group was 63 weeks, while that for the group with thalidomide + temodar was 103 weeks. But the latter group involved only 25 patients, so it is obviously important to replicate these results.

Much of the evidence supporting the improved efficacy for combination treatments comes from small clinical trials with patients with recurrent tumors, i.e., patients for whom initial treatment has not prevented regrowth of the tumor. The clinical history of such patients is highly varied, which greatly complicates the evaluation of the outcomes of the trials. Previous phase II trials have been evaluated in terms of the percentage of patients who have tumor shrinkage as a result of receiving the treatment. But this has become problematic because many of the new biological agents, which will be discussed later, are not directly cytotoxic but work instead by inhibiting tumor growth. New criteria of evaluation have thus been adopted, the most popular being the median time before

tumor progression, and increasingly, the percentage of patients who have no regrowth of tumors six months after treatment initiation (known as "6-month progression-free survival" {PFS-6}). Because phase-II trials have only the outcomes of previous trials as historical controls, the new temozolomide combination trials are being compared to those previous outcomes. A recent compilation of results from eight different phase-2 clinical trials has reported that the average PFS-6 for all trials was 15% (9). The results for temodar as a single agent are slightly better (21%), but hardly enough to be remarkable (10). But when temodar is combined with accutane (also known as 13-cis-retinoic acid, to be discussed later), the PFS-6 improved to 35% (11) When combined with a new drug called marimastat (12), PFS-6 was 39%. Marimastat is one of the new cytostatic drugs which stops tumor growth by inhibiting the enzyme process whereby the tumor digests the extracellular matrix of surrounding cells, allowing the tumor to invade the adjacent tissue.. But marimastat has the unfortunate side effect of severe arthralgia and also is not available outside of clinical trials. Temozolomide has also been combined with interferon alfa-2b, which produced a PFS-6 value of 38% for glioblastoma patients (13).

Temodar has also been combined with several conventional chemotherapies. When combined with CPT-11, drug developed for colon cancer but now being intensively studied in its own right as a treatment for brain cancer, the PFS-6 was 38-39% (14). When combined with VP-16, a drug often used for gliomas in children, the PFS was 67%, although this trial involved only 12 patients (15). The combination of temodar with BCNU is also being studied, but has been complicated by issues of toxicity and the optimal schedule of dose administration for the two drugs. However, a recent published report failed to show any benefit of combining BCNU with temodar, compared to temodar alone, as the PFS-6 for the combination was only 11 weeks, accompanied by considerable toxicity (16). A recent study(17) has used the BCNU-temodar combination with patients with inoperable tumors, after diagnosis before the standard radiation. This patient population has an especially poor prognosis with a historical median survival of 5-9 months. The result of the combination was a median survival of 12.7 months. The authors of the study also noted that the toxicity caused by the combination depended critically on the sequence of the two drugs, as much less toxicity occurred when BCNU was presented first in the sequence. Better results for patients with recurrent tumors have been obtained when temodar has been combined with cisplatin, In a pair of clinical studies performed in Italy (18, 19), the PFS-6 was 34% and 35%. Temodar has also been combined with procarbazine (20). While the report of that study did not include the PFS-6 statistic, it did report an unusually high percentage of tumor regressions, suggesting that this combination might be effective.

There are also several clinical trials underway combining temodar with a variety of new biological agents that hold great promise of improving outcomes without increasing treatment toxicity. These include drugs that target the signaling pathways involved in cell division, and agents that inhibit the growth of new blood vessels. In the latter category is a trial conducted jointly by several hospitals in New York, which combined temodar with celebrex, the anti-inflammatory drug that is now widely used for arthritis (21). For the 29 patients in the study, the PFS-6 was 35%.. I will discuss several of these new agents in greater detail in later sections.

It is important to recognize the limitations of the PFS-6 measure of treatment efficacy. While it does provide a rough means of comparing different treatments, it says very little about whether the various treatment protocols will improve overall survival. It is entirely possible that treatments with low PFS-6 values produce a greater percentage of long-term survivors than those with higher PFS-6 values. Nevertheless, one major conclusion allowed by the above comparisons is that combinations of treatments are notably superior to single-agent treatments, and that the combinations can include agents of relatively mild toxicity (e.g., accutane, celebrex). It is feasible that the use of such lower-toxicity agents will allow combinations involving 3 and 4 different agents, which presumably should improve treatment outcome still further.

In addition to thalidomide, celebrex and, accutane, a variety of other agents seem likely to improve treatment outcome, including prescription drugs developed for other purposes, and agents available without a prescription. Among the most promising is chloroquine, an old anti-malaria drug. In a study conducted in Mexico (22) patients received the traditional chemotherapy agent BCNU, with or without a 150-mg daily dose of chloroquine. The results were that patients receiving chloroquine had a mean survival time of 33 months, while those receiving BCNU alone had a mean survival time of 11 months. Because the rationale of chloroquine's use is that it stabilizes cellular DNA and thus prevents the mutations that generate chemo-resistance, it seems likely that chloroquine should increase the efficacy of temodar as well. The major drawback to its use is that it does increase the risk of seizures, as 5 of the 9 patients receiving chloroquine did have seizures. It is unclear whether these patients had a prior history of seizures but the authors of the study did report that the seizures were controlled by anti-convulsant medication.

Perhaps the most surprising agent that seems to add to treatment effectiveness, is lycopene, the carotenoid found most abundantly in tomatoes and other red vegetables and fruits (e.g., watermelon). Lycopene has been studied as a treatment for prostate cancer, with surprising effectiveness. In a study (23) reported at the 2005 meeting of the American Society of Clinical Oncology (ASCO), brain cancer patients received standard radiation therapy in combination with taxol (which is believed to be a radiation sensitizer). Prior to radiation patients were randomized into those that received 8 mg of lycopene daily or a placebo. Of those receiving lycopene 80% had tumor regressions in response to the treatment while only 44% of placebo patients had a response using the same clinical criteria. Median time to disease progression showed a similar difference, being 39 weeks for those receiving lycopene but only 21 weeks for those receiving the placebo. It should be noted that the lycopene dosage used in this study was substantially less than that commonly used in the treatment of prostate cancer.

A third promising candidate for adding to standard therapy is the old stomach acid drug, cimetidine (trade name tagamet). While no clinical studies have yet been reported using it with brain cancer, very impressive results have been reported from its use with colon cancer (24), the rationale being that it decreases cell migration (and hence the spread of the tumor beyond the original site) by affecting the critical genes controlling cellular

adhesion. Support for its use comes from a recent experimental study using mice with implanted glioblastoma tumors that received either temozolomide or temozolomide + cimetidine(25). Survival was substantially longer in the latter group.

A later section will discuss several other nonprescription items that appear to add to treatment success. These include melatonin, PSK (a mushroom extract used widely in Japan), fish oil, and the seed oil, gamma linolenic acid.

Because of the improved results described above when additional agents have been added to temodar for patients with recurrent tumors, there now have been several recent clinical trials in which additional agents have been added to the initial treatment of patients just after diagnosis. Unfortunately, these trials have produced more confusion than clarification about the utility of combination treatments because the outcomes of different clinical trials have varied considerably. In contrast to the median survival time of 103 weeks from the clinical trial described above using the combination of temodar + thalidomide (8), a recent trial using the same combination with newly diagnosed patients produced a median survival time of only 73 weeks (26).. Two differences in their protocols are evident: (1) The latter study used low-dosage temodar and thalidomide during radiation followed by higher-dosage temodar and thalidomide thereafter; the earlier study began the temodar and thalidomide only after the standard radiation treatment was completed. (2).The dosage of thalidomide was considerably less in the earlier study. This latter difference is interesting because clinical trials using thalidomide as a single agent seem to have produced somewhat better results with lower dosages of the drug. It is possible, but not proven, that the dose-effect curve for thalidomide is non-monotonic just as it appears to be for some other agents that have angiogenesis as their target.

A similar conflict in results is evident in clinical trials with newly diagnosed patients that have combined temodar with accutane. One study)(27) used both accutane and low-dosage temodar during radiation, followed by full-dose temodar + accutane, and produced a median survival time of only 57 weeks and a two-year survival of 20%, both below the survival rates from the large clinical trial with the same protocol that did not use accutane. However, a second smaller retrospective clinical trial (28) produced a median survival of greater than two years, as 75% of the patients were still alive two years after the initiation of treatment. The only discernible difference in the protocol for the two studies is that accutane was given during radiation in the former, but was begun only after radiation was completed in the latter. This possibly could be important because accutane is a form of Vitamin A, and presumably has anti-oxidant properties, which many oncologists believe interfere with the effects of radiation.

The most discouraging results have come from a recently reported trial that combined temozolomide, celebrex, and thalidomide with newly diagnosed patients (29). These were begun after the standard radiation schedule was completed and produced a median survival of only 11.8 months. The reasons for this short survival time are unclear, although the authors did note the combination produced a significant number of long-term survivors. More promising results from a treatment cocktail were reported in a

recent small study combining thalidomide, tamoxifen, and temozolomide (30). Its treatment protocol was comprised of 100 mg/day of thalidomide, 100 mg/day of tamoxifen, and 75 mg/day per square meter of temozolomide administered on a schedule of days 1-21 of each 28-day cycle. Mean survival was 75 weeks, with a median time to progression of 47 weeks. The patient population of this study was mixed with some patients having had prior chemotherapy and radiation, and some not, with the entire group described as having advanced high-grade glioma. Nevertheless, median survival compares favorably with other treatment regimens.

Optimizing the Schedule of Chemotherapy

The standard schedule for using full-dose temodar is days 1-5 out of every 28-day cycle. The recent Swiss study using it during radiation also added daily temodar but at a lower dosage. An alternative schedule that appears to produce better results has been a schedule of one week on, one week off (i.e., days 1-7 and 15-21 of a 28 day cycle (31). Here, with an initial 21 patients, the PFS-6 was 48%, compared to the historical norm of 21% when temodar is used on its usual 5 of 28 day schedule (both studies with patients with recurrent disease). A follow-up report (32) after the number of patients had expanded to 39 yielded a PFS-6 value of 43%. The dosage of temodar used in this study was 150 mg/meter-squared of body surface.

A second issue regarding the timing of chemotherapy has been whether large bolus dosages of chemotherapy every 4-6 weeks should be replaced by continuous low-dosage chemotherapy. Several prominent oncologists have argued that the rationale for periodic administration of the maximum tolerated dosage is based on inadequate experimental data and needs to be reconsidered. They have also reported experimental studies showing that rodents that have become resistant to chemotherapy administered with the usual bolus injections will nevertheless show a clinical response when the same chemotherapy is administered continuously at low dosages (33, 34). Moreover, unlike the bolus dosage, continuous low dosages have minimal toxicity. If this finding turns out to be generally true, it will constitute a major revolution in how chemotherapy is used. The first clinical study using this new approach to chemotherapy has recently been reported with breast cancer patients (35). These patients, who had failed several previous chemotherapy regimens for metastatic cancer, received low dosage cyclophosphamide daily and low dosage methotrexate on days 1 and 2 of each week. Of 63 patients, two had complete remissions, ten had partial remissions, and eight had stable disease for more than six months. Because this was a phase 2 study, there was no control group, but given that the patients had previously failed several other therapies, a plausible interpretation is that the new continuous regimen for chemotherapy improved its efficacy. It remains to be seen whether other types of cancer will show similar effects. It is noteworthy that one of the early trials using temozolomide (36) used a schedule approximating continuous dosing, as patients received temozolomide each day for 7 weeks, with a dosage about 1/3 of that used when the drug is presented for 5 days out of each 28-day block, which is the most commonly used schedule at the present time.. The results were that 7 of 17 glioma patients had tumor shrinkage while another 6 of the 17 had stable disease. However, a subsequent study using a similar protocol(37) failed to show a similar improvement, as

its PFS-6 was 19%, essentially similar to the usual schedule of temodar. However, the dosage used in this study was perhaps too high as it produced considerably toxicity, unlike in the animal models. It is also important to recognize, however, that animal models using the low-dosage protocol have typically combined it with various other agents to obtain the maximum improvement. An example of this approach with newly diagnosed glioblastoma patients (38) was reported in the past year. After completion of standard radiation treatment, continuous daily dosages of temozolomide approximately 1/10 of the typically used full dose were used in combination with viox (celebrex would now be needed instead). Median survival was 16 months and the authors of the report indicated that the protocol had minimal toxicity. However, this study included only 13 patients and needs to be tested for the generality of its results.

While temodar is now the drug of choice for the initial treatment of glioblastoma, the majority of patients will receive minimal benefit. Unlike a generation ago, it is now common for patients who have failed one chemotherapy to proceed to other chemotherapy drugs. These include the nitrosoureas, BCNU and CCNU (and ACNU in Europe and Japan), but also the platinum drugs, and irinotecan, a drug developed for colon cancer known also known as CPT-11.

An important variation in the use of BCNU as the chemotherapy agent has been the development of polymer wafers known as gliadel. A number of such wafers are implanted throughout the tumor site at the time of surgery. The BCNU then gradually diffuses from the wafers into the surrounding brain. A possible problem with the treatment is that the drug will diffuse only a small distance from the implant sites, so that significant portions of the tumor will not make contact with the drug. A phase III clinical trial has demonstrated that survival time for recurrent GBM is significantly increased by the gliadel wafers relative to control subjects receiving wafers without BCNU, although the increase in survival time, while statistically significant, was relatively modest (39). The median survival time from the time of re-operation for the recurrent tumor was 31 weeks, while that for the placebo control group was 23 weeks. Survival rates six months after the treatment were 56% for the gliadel group while 36% for the placebo group. On the other hand, the differences in survival between the two groups was near zero when measured one year after treatment, indicating that the beneficial effects of gliadel were relatively short-term in nature. A second small randomized clinical trial was conducted in Europe, but involving patients who received gliadel at the time of initial surgery as a primary treatment, rather than as treatment for recurrent tumors (40). Here the survival rate after one year was 63% versus only 19% for those receiving the placebo. The two-year survival rate was 31% of the gliadel patients compared to only 6% for the placebo patients. While these differences were statistically significant, it is important to recognize that the comparison condition was a placebo control. It is unclear whether gliadel is superior to other control conditions such as the IV BCNU that is commonly administered (although the two-year survival rate does seem unusually high). Indeed, there is reason to believe that the difference, if any, would be minimal, in that the median survival time for glioblastoma is approximately 1 year. Moreover, both gliadel clinical trials involved patient populations that included approximately 1/3 of the patients with

diagnoses other than glioblastomas, so the survival times that were obtained are somewhat inflated from what they would have been if only glioblastoma patients had been included. Probably the best estimate of the benefit of gliadel as an initial treatment comes from a third much larger randomized clinical, also done in Europe (41) which reported a median survival of 13.9 months for patients receiving gliadel compared to a median survival of 11.6 months for patients implanted with placebo wafers. As with other forms of chemotherapy, however, larger differences are evident for long-term survival. After a follow-up period of 3-4 years, 9 of 120 patients who received gliadel were alive, compared to only 2 of 120 of those receiving the placebo. Although gliadel avoids the systemic side effects of IV BCNU, which can be considerable, not only in terms of low blood counts but also in terms of a significant risk of major pulmonary problems, it produces its own side effects, including an elevated risk of intracranial infections and seizures (42). However, the lack of systemic toxicity for gliadel makes it a candidate for various drug combinations. A recent small trial combining gliadel with carboplatin shows that such combinations are very promising. A single dose of carboplatin was given 3-4 days after surgery during which gliadel wafers were implanted, and carboplatin was resumed after radiation was completed. Median survival was 22 months. (43). Impressive results have also been obtained with newly diagnosed patients who received the combination of radiation with low-dose temozolomide after the gliadel wafers were implanted at the time of initial surgery, followed by full-dose temozolomide after radiation was finished (44). While only 16 patients were enrolled in the study, the median survival time had not been reached at the time of the report of the study. One-year survival rate was 63%.

Many of the standard forms of chemotherapy for other types of cancer have also been tested against glioblastomas. Most of these tests have involved patients with recurrent tumors, for whom the prognosis is especially grim. The historical norm for patients with recurrent glioblastomas who are given some form of additional chemotherapy has been a survival time of 3-6 months, although there is enormous variability. Some of the better results have occurred with the platinum drugs cisplatin and carboplatin, with carboplatin now the preferred drug because it has considerably less toxicity. In a representative study of carboplatin (45), 4 of 29 patients with recurrent glioma achieved partial tumor regressions, and another 10 achieved stable disease, for a response rate of 48%. Of those responding to carboplatin, the median time to tumor progression was 26 weeks. However, other treatment studies using the platinum drugs have produced highly variable results, with the source of the variability not clearly identifiable. Considerable attention has been given to improving the effectiveness of these drugs by combining them with other agents. One recent study of carboplatin has used intra-arterial infusion in combination with RMP-7 (Cereport), an agent that disrupts the blood-brain barrier. A clinical trial presented at the 1998 meeting of the American Society of Clinical Oncology reported a median survival time of 37 weeks for 37 patients with recurrent GBM (46.) However, a subsequent randomized clinical trial compared IV carboplatin with or without RMP-7 and found no advantage to adding RMP-7 (47).

More impressive results using cisplatin have come from its implantation directly into the tumor bed in polymer wafers similar to gliadel. A study in Belarus reported that patients receiving the cisplatin wafers at the time of initial surgery had a median survival time of 428 days, compared to 211 days for patients who received only radiation (48). Positive results using carboplatin in combination with VP-16 (also known as etoposide) have also been recently reported (49). Patients with recurrent gliomas had a median survival time of 14.5 months, with a median time to progression of 9.6 months. This trial included both glioblastoma and grade III gliomas, and the statistics for the different diagnoses were not separately reported.

One of the newer chemotherapy agents is CPT-11 (also known as irinotecan), which has been FDA-approved for the treatment of colon cancer. Its application to gliomas has been pioneered by Dr. Henry Friedman at Duke University and is now undergoing clinical trials at a number of other medical centers as well. The initial results from the early trial were that 9 of 60 patients with recurrent gliomas had a confirmed partial response, while an additional 33 patients had stable disease lasting more than 12 weeks (50). However, results from other reported studies have been less positive (51, 52). Part of the reason for the discrepant outcomes appears to be that CPT-11 interacts pharmacologically with anti-seizure medications, causing its serum concentration to be decreased.

Like temodar, CPT-11 is now being studied in various combinations with other chemotherapy regimens, notably gliadel, intravenous BCNU, and temodar, although the results of these combinations are only now being reported. Some results are available for the combination of CPT-11 with BCNU, which produced a PFS-6 value of 30% for patients who had failed temozolomide-based initial chemotherapy (53).. One interesting sidelight about CPT-11 is that the gastro-intestinal toxicity that it produces, which can be severe, is substantially attenuated by low dosages of thalidomide (see below for further discussion of thalidomide as a treatment agent in its own right). However, there is some concern thalidomide might also interact pharmacologically with CPT-11 metabolism to decrease its concentration in the body. A recent study combining CPT-11 and thalidomide with recurrent GBM tumors produced PFS-6 value of 28%, so clearly the combination does have some activity (54).. Finally, CPT-11 has been combined with celebrex, with patients with recurrent tumors, and produced a PFS-6 value of 25% (55).

A combination trial (56) involving carboplatin and etoposide has also produced promising result, with a PFS-6 value of 33% with 30% of the 30 patients with recurrent tumors showing either a complete or partial tumor regression.

Another promising new chemotherapy protocol (57) for newly diagnosed glioblastoma patients presented topotecan during radiation without further treatment. Median survival of 57 newly diagnosed GBM patients was 15 months, comparable to that seen with the new standard of care for newly diagnosed patients combining low-dosage temodar with radiation.

One of the most promising new chemotherapy regimens, apparently being neglected in this country, involves mitoxantrone, a drug which in cell culture studies has been shown

to be among the most toxic to glioblastoma cells. In a study done in Italy (58) patients with recurrent glioblastomas were treated either with the PCV protocol alone, or in combination with repeated administration of mitoxantrone to the tumor cavity via a catheter placed there during surgery. Median survival, measured from the time of treatment initiation for tumor recurrence, was 6 months for the PCV-only subjects but 12 months for those receiving PCV + mitoxantrone. and 16.8 months for those receiving PCV + mitoxantrone and also surgery to remove the recurrent tumor. Two-year survival was 30% for those receiving mitoxantrone, compared to only 5% for those receiving PCV alone

Increasing Chemotherapy Efficacy

As noted earlier in the section on drug combinations, an important issue is whether chemotherapy can be made more effective by a variety of agents which themselves are not cytotoxic in nature. Brain tumors, and other types of cancer, possess active pump-like mechanisms by which the chemotherapy agent is extruded from the cell body. One of these pump mechanisms utilizes calcium channels, so that calcium channel blockers can interfere with its action, thus allowing the chemotherapy agent longer time to be effective. This is important because chemotherapy is effective only when cells are dividing, and only a fraction of the cell population is dividing at any given time. The longer the chemotherapy remains in the cell, the more likely it will be there at the time of cell division. If the extrusion of the chemotherapy drug could be inhibited, chemotherapy should in principle become more effective. Calcium channel blockers, which include commonly used medications for hypertension such as verapamil, have thus been studied for that purpose (59). Unfortunately, these agents have potent effects on the cardiovascular system, so that dosages sufficiently high to produce clinical benefits usually have not been achievable. However, a recent study (60) did report a substantial clinical benefit for patients with breast cancer with a relatively low dosage (240 mg/day). In addition, the combination of verapamil with tamoxifen (which itself blocks the extrusion pump by a somewhat different mechanism) may possibly increase the clinical benefit (61). In laboratory studies other calcium channel blockers, especially, nifedipine and nimodipine (62 63) have also been shown to effectively increase chemotherapy effectiveness, and may have direct effects on tumor growth themselves.

The statin drugs used for the treatment of high cholesterol levels, such as simvastatin, have also been shown to augment the effects of BCNU in laboratory studies (64), but have not yet been combined with chemotherapy in any reported clinical study. Most recently, a common drug used in the treatment of alcoholism, Antabuse (also known as disulfiram), has been shown in laboratory studies to be a powerful inhibitor of the extrusion pump mechanism, although as yet this has not been studied clinically (65). One potential concern about increasing chemotherapy effectiveness via any of the foregoing methods is that toxicity to normal cells that are in the process of dividing (notably the bone marrow cells producing blood cells) may also be increased. That is, keeping the chemotherapy agent in the cell for a longer period of time may be functionally similar to higher dosages of the chemotherapy agent. As yet it is unclear whether this in fact will be the case. A

promising method of dealing with this problem is to combine these various agents with gliadel or other agents delivered directly to the brain.

As will be discussed in a later section perhaps the most promising methods for improving the efficacy of chemotherapy involve its combination with anti-angiogenic agents and with agents that block the signaling channels that stimulate tumor growth, although the mechanisms underlying such synergies are not now clearly understood.

Timing of Chemotherapy

The usual practice of administering chemotherapy has been to start it soon after the regular external beam radiation has been completed. Alternative schedules are to present radiation and chemotherapy together or to present chemotherapy prior to radiation. After reviewing the different outcomes of these various schedules, no meaningful conclusion is possible. In some cases chemotherapy prior to radiation seems to improve outcome, in others it has produced a worse outcome. Similar variability in outcomes has been reported when chemotherapy is presented concurrently with external-beam radiation, although the recent study described earlier (2) that presented low-dosage temodar during radiation seems to produce a better outcome than other protocols. It is also the case that the effect of scheduling may depend on the type of chemotherapy that is used.

The Role of Radiation

The initial approach to using radiation to treat gliomas was whole-head radiation, but this was abandoned because of the substantial neurological deficits that resulted, sometimes appearing a considerable time after treatment. Current clinical practice uses a more focused radiation field that includes only 2-3 cm beyond the periphery of the tumor site. Because of the potential for radiation necrosis, the currently accepted level of radiation that is considered safe is limited to 55-60 Gy. Even at this level, significant deficits may occur, often appearing several years after treatment. Attempts to minimize this damage are now being developed in the form of the Peacock system, which uses many more individual radiation beams, thus allowing the tissue other than at the tumor site to receive substantially less radiation exposure. Unfortunately, only a few treatment centers have such a system, and there is no published evidence that shows that the new system really does produce a clinical benefit beyond the traditional radiation treatment.

The major additional use of radiation in the treatment of gliomas has been localized radiation to the tumor field, after the external-beam radiation treatment is finished (or sometimes concurrently), either by use of implanted radiation seeds (typically radioactive iodine), a procedure known as brachytherapy, the use of radiosurgery, or by the insertion into the tumor cavity of an inflatable balloon containing radioactive fluid (gliasite). Previous editions of this treatment summary devoted considerable discussion to these treatments, but this now seems unwarranted. Two different randomized trials of brachytherapy failed to show any survival benefit even though the procedure causes

considerable toxicity in terms of radiation necrosis (66). A recent randomized study of radiosurgery (67) similarly failed to show a benefit. Gliasite has yet to be studied in a randomized trial. The presumed reason that the initial studies indicated a survival benefit (usually increasing survival time about a year) was that the procedures were used only with a highly selected patient population, who otherwise had a good prognosis regardless of whether they received the procedure. This does not mean that the procedures are useless, as it is plausible, for example, that patients with small well- defined tumors could be successfully treated with radiosurgery. But given the toxicity associated with the procedures and the improvement in other treatment modalities, these additional forms of radiation are unlikely to be used much in the future.

Radiation via Monoclonal Antibodies

An alternative for providing a radiation boost beyond that from the standard external field radiation involves attaching radioactive iodine 131 to a monoclonal antibody that targets a specific antigen, tenascin, which occurs on almost all high-grade glioma tumors. The monoclonal antibodies are infused directly into the tumor cavity over a period of several days, and reportedly produces less radiation necrosis than either brachytherapy or radiosurgery. The median survival time from a phase 2 clinical trial of this treatment for recurrent GBM tumors was 56 weeks (68). However, it can produce significant suppression of the stem cells in the bone marrow that produce blood cells.. In the first study that reported using this approach as initial treatment (69) patients received the monoclonal antibodies, followed by the standard external-beam radiation and then a year of chemotherapy. Of 33 patients, only one required re-operation for necrotic tissue caused by the radiation. Median survival time was 79 weeks for the patients with glioblastoma (27 of 33 of total patients) and 87 weeks for all patients. Estimated two-year survival rate for GBM patients was 35%. At the present time, however, only one treatment center (Duke University) uses this procedure, as it continues to be studied in clinical trials.

New Treatment Agents Currently Available

In this next section, all of agents described are FDA-approved and thus can be obtained by prescription, despite the fact that their approvals have been for diseases other than brain tumors. This unfortunately causes some oncologists to be unwilling to prescribe them, although there is no legal basis for that reluctance. The drugs that will be described differ from conventional chemotherapy in that they do not kill all dividing cells, and as a result have little of the traditional toxicity for the bone marrow that causes weakening of the immune system and anemia. This makes them ideal candidates for drug cocktails, including combinations with chemotherapy. Several of these combinations were described in the earlier section on chemotherapy, and these leave little doubt that clinical outcomes are improved when these new "biological agents" are added to traditional treatments.

Tamoxifen.

This drug is well known for its usage in the treatment of breast cancer. Its mode of action there is to compete with estrogen for attachment to the estrogen receptors of breast cells, thus reducing estrogen's ability to serve as a growth factor for carcinogenesis. This mode of action has little to do with tamoxifen's ability to serve as a therapeutic agent for gliomas. Effects on glioma are instead due to tamoxifen being an inhibitor of protein kinase C activity - an intracellular enzymatic reaction that is involved in glioma cell proliferation. To obtain inhibition of PKC activity, and thus slow or stop the growth of the cancer cells, very high doses of tamoxifen are used, in contrast to its usage for breast cancer. The typical dosage for breast cancer is 10-20 mg daily, while for gliomas the dosage used has ranged from 160-240 mg per day. This high dosage is potentially problematic and does indeed have side effects. The most important is an increased risk of blood clots. For women, there is also an increase in the risk for uterine cancer, and for men, impotence and loss of libido are frequent problems. Weight gain is another significant side effect. Overall, however, such side effects are mild in comparison to traditional chemotherapy.

A stage II clinical trial (70, 71) evaluating the effects of tamoxifen for patients with recurrent gliomas has reported that it produced tumor regression in 25% of patients and stabilization of tumor growth for an additional 20% of patients. The percentage of patients with responses to treatment was greater with Grade III Astrocytomas than for patients with GBMs. The median survival time from the initiation of tamoxifen treatment was 16 months for Grade III tumors and 7.2 months for glioblastomas. This perhaps seems to be a minimal benefit (survival time for recurrent glioblastomas typically ranges from 3-6 months when second-line chemotherapy is used) but it should also be noted that a percentage of those who had either regression or stabilization had survival times greater than two years. Thus, for those "responders" tamoxifen produced a major benefit.

Tamoxifen has also been used in combination with traditional chemotherapy, because it should in principle reduce the level of chemo-resistance in addition to having its own direct effects on tumor growth. A European clinical trial combined tamoxifen with carboplatin as the initial treatment after radiation (72). Dosages of tamoxifen ranged from 40 to 120 mg/day, all of which were smaller than that used when tamoxifen has been used alone (160-240 mg/day). Combined over all dosages, the 12-month and 24-month survival rates were 52 and 32 %, respectively. For the patients receiving the highest dosage of tamoxifen, 12-month survival rate was 78%. In comparison, a matched set of subjects who received carboplatin alone after radiation had 12- and 24-month survival rates of 30% and 0%. However, a second similar study combining tamoxifen with carboplatin (73) reported a median survival time of only 55 weeks, which was not statistically superior to historical controls using carboplatin alone (48 weeks). However, the latter study noted that a minority of patients did have unusually long survival times, which was not reflected in the median survival times.

Tamoxifen with a dosage of 240 mg/day has also been studied in combination with BCNU as the initial treatment after radiation (74). Median survival time was 66.1 weeks, while the 1-year, 2-year, and 3-year survival rates 65%, 45% and 24%, respectively. It

should be noted that while the 1-year survival rate and median survival time are only marginally greater than those obtained with chemotherapy alone, the 2-year and 3-year survival times are substantially greater. This benefit of a notable increase in the number of longer-term survivors again reflects the fact that tamoxifen is effective only for a minority of patients, but for those its benefits can be very substantial. The fact that tamoxifen benefits only a minority of patients is relevant to the negative results of a phase III trial conducted in France (75). Patients received BCNU alone or BCNU in combination with 40-100 mg/day of tamoxifen (note that these dosages are substantially below that used in the other studies). No increase in median survival time was found, whereas the addition of tamoxifen did significantly increase the frequency of serious blood clots.

Most recent has been the preliminary report of a trial combining tamoxifen with temodar (76). While details of this preliminary report are sketchy, its notable feature is that the combination treatment, presented as the initial treatment after standard radiation, resulted in all of the patients being alive at 12 months after diagnosis. More details are clearly needed, but the results as described are unusually promising.

An important recent development with respect to tamoxifen has been the report (77) that it may be possible to predict which patients will be among the minority that benefit from tamoxifen. This Canadian study compared patients who responded to tamoxifen with those who did not and reported that there was a systematic difference in the metabolites from tamoxifen. This potentially allows a decision very early in treatment about whether tamoxifen is worth continuing. A second major development is that tamoxifen's efficacy may be increased by suppressing thyroid function (78). Thyroid hormones maintain the level of the insulin-like growth factor (IGF), which is now known to play an important role in causing resistance to several different kinds of cancer treatments (to be discussed further in a later section). Eleven of 22 patients with recurrent tumors became hypothyroid as a result of a drug treatment. Their median survival time was 10.1 months, versus 3.1 months for patients whose thyroid function was not effectively suppressed.

Accutane

This drug, which is FDA-approved for the treatment of severe acne, is an acid form of vitamin A chemically known as 13-cis-retinoic acid (also known as isotretinoin). Acid forms of Vitamin A are not stored in the liver; so unlike regular Vitamin A, high dosages may be used with much less risk of liver toxicity. Its presumed mechanisms of action are to activate genes that cause cancer cells to differentiate into normal cells and to block the receptor for the epidermal growth factor (EGFR). High levels of expression of that receptor cause cell division to occur at a rapid rate. A variety of other anti-proliferative effects have been identified as well (79)

A stage II clinical trial evaluating accutane for recurrent gliomas has been conducted at the M. D. Anderson Brain Tumor Center (80). The median survival time was 58 weeks for glioblastoma patients and 34 weeks for grade III gliomas. This difference in survival time is opposite in direction than that obtained with other treatments. However, there was

wide variability in both tumor types, so that the difference was not statistically reliable. Aggregated over all tumor types (43 evaluable patients) 3 achieved a partial tumor regression, 7 had minor regressions, and 13 had tumor stabilization, for a total response rate of approximately 50%. A recent more complete report of using accutane with 86 glioblastoma patients with recurrent tumors was somewhat less impressive. (79). Median survival time from the onset of treatment was 25 weeks and PFS-6 was 19%. Accutane now is used at M. D. Anderson as a "maintenance therapy" for patients after initial treatment with radiation or traditional chemotherapy. It also has been used in Germany for patients who have had a complete response to other treatment modalities as a maintenance therapy (81) The major side effects have been dry skin, cracked lips, and headaches, although occasional liver toxicity has also occurred. Increases in blood lipid levels frequently occur, often requiring anti- cholesterol medication such as Lipitor. Accutane also may produce severe birth defects if taken during pregnancy.

Because accutane's toxicity is very different from that of chemotherapy, it is now often used in combination with chemotherapy, notably temodar. When temodar is used alone for recurrent glioblastomas, the percentage of patients who have are alive without tumor progression six months after the start of treatment is 21%. When accutane is used in combination with temodar, the corresponding number is 32% (11). In the earlier section on drug combinations involving temodar, I discussed two recent studies that combined accutane with temodar in patients receiving their initial treatment. Unfortunately, the results from the two studies appear to be in conflict: the larger prospective study produced a median survival of only 57 weeks while the second, retrospective study produced a median survival greater than two years.

There is also experimental evidence that accutane is synergistic with other drugs that are known to cause cell differentiation (82). This approach to cancer treatment will be discussed more fully in a later section.

The similar pattern of treatment outcomes for tamoxifen and accutane raises an important question. Given that both seem to significantly benefit a minority of patients, the issue is the overlap in the populations helped by the different treatments. That is, would the patients helped by tamoxifen also be those most likely to be helped by accutane, and vice-versa. If so, this suggests that the two agents should be synergistic in their effects, so that a patient receiving both agents should have a very high likelihood of a positive clinical outcome. If not, they should be additive, not necessarily in terms of benefit for individual patients, but instead in terms of the percentage of the total population who respond to one or the other treatment.

Thalidomide

This drug became infamous during the 1950's because it produced a large number of birth defects involving abnormal or completely missing limbs. It is now believed that this was due to its effects on inhibiting new blood vessels because limb buds are especially dependent on the growth of new blood vessels for normal development. Thalidomide has been approved by the FDA for the treatment of leprosy, but it also can be obtained for

off-label uses such as the treatment of cancer. Unfortunately, a considerable amount of paperwork is necessary, both by the pharmacist who supplies it and the physician who prescribes it, so obtaining it for off-label uses is not as simple as having your physician write a prescription. These bureaucratic restrictions have been imposed despite the fact that the majority of potential users of the drug, males, and females past the age of menopause, are in no way affected by the drug's teratological potential.

Thalidomide's utility as a cancer treatment comes from it being the first anti-angiogenic drug that has been FDA approved. Exactly how thalidomide retards the growth of new blood vessels is not entirely understood, and it seems likely that new anti-angiogenic drugs will soon replace it because of their greater effectiveness. To date, however, it has been shown to have significant clinical effectiveness for both Kaposi's sarcoma and multiple myeloma, and is currently being evaluated for other forms of cancer as well.

In the first clinical trial using thalidomide as a single agent for the treatment of recurrent tumors (83), involving 36 patients with GBM or AA-III tumors, there were two partial regressions, two minor regressions, and 12 patients with stable disease for a minimum of 8 weeks. Median survival times were 74 weeks for those with tumor regression, 30 weeks for those with stable disease, and 22 weeks for those classified as nonresponders. However, PFS-6 was only 4%. The major side effects were somnolence (thalidomide was originally introduced for its sedative purposes; presumably such effects could be counteracted by various stimulants) neuropathy of various sorts, and constipation. Because such side effects are greater with higher dosages, it is of interest to note that results very comparable to the preceding study have been obtained in Australia using substantially lower dosages. Whereas the American studies have used a maximum dose of 1200 mg/day, the Australian study use a maximum dose of 500 mg/day (84). The best results using thalidomide as a single agent comes from a recently published study performed in Switzerland (8). Nineteen glioblastoma patients with glioblastomas received 200 mg/day of thalidomide, starting after radiation, escalating to 600 mg/day if tolerated. The actual median dose used was 200 mg/day. Median survival time was 63 weeks. Median progression-free survival was 17 weeks. Some patients had surgery for recurrent tumors so it is difficult to know how much of the survival time was due to the additional surgery.

The same study also reported the results of 25 patients who received the same regimen of thalidomide but in combination with temozolomide. Here the median survival time was 103 weeks and the median progression-free survival was 36 weeks.

Other trials have combined thalidomide with chemotherapy agents other than temozolomide. A clinical trial involving the combination of thalidomide with carboplatin for recurrent glioblastomas was reported at the 1999 meeting of the American Society for Clinical Oncology (85). Of 46 patients assessable for efficacy, 5 had a partial regression, 28 had stable disease and 13 had progressive disease. Estimated median survival for all patients was 40 weeks.

Thalidomide has also been studied in combination with BCNU (86) with patients with recurrent high-grade gliomas. Although the PFS-6 for all patients was only slightly better than temodar alone (27% vs. 21%), 9 of 40 patients had major tumor regressions while an additional 9 had stable disease. Both of these are higher than when temodar is used as a single agent in a similar population. Because of the disparity in the two different measures of treatment efficacy, any evaluation of the combination still remains unclear.

Comparison of the above results suggests an important point to highlight. Thalidomide appears to be more effective as a treatment when given as initial treatment rather than for tumors that have recurred. This appears to be true for anti-angiogenic treatment generally, the rationale being that mature tumors have a more developed vasculature so that preventing the growth of new blood vessels is less effective in starving the tumor.

STI-571 (Gleevec)

This small-molecule (also known as imatinib) treatment, which targets a specific gene involved in the growth of a form of leukemia, recently received a great deal of publicity because of its unprecedented effectiveness. As will be discussed later, this general strategy of identifying the growth signals for tumor growth and then targeting those signals, or their receptors, is one of the major new hot areas in cancer research. Such growth signaling channels often, but not always, are specific to the individual type of cancer. Although Gleevec was developed specifically for chronic myelogenous leukemia, the receptor involved has biochemical similarities to those for a more general type of growth signal, platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), which is also involved in the growth of gliomas and other forms of cancer (e.g., small-cell lung cancer). Laboratory research has supported the importance of this similarity in that gleevec has been shown to strongly inhibit glioma growth (87), with the result that gleevec currently is being studied in clinical trials involving gliomas. Because it has approval for its usage for leukemia, the drug is also available outside of clinical trials. There now have been a number of studies reporting its use with high-grade gliomas. When used as a single agent it appears to have minimal activity, as one study reported a PFS-6 value of only 11%, accompanied by an increased risk of intracranial hemorrhaging(88), although another study, using different dosage levels, did report a number of tumor regressions, which they reported occurred very gradually over time (89). More promising results have been reported when gleevec is combined with hydroxyurea, an older drug that at one time was believed to be a radiation sensitizer among other functions. The initial trial(90) with the combination, performed in Germany, was notably more successful, as 5 of 14 patients with recurrent glioblastomas had tumor regressions, another 5 had stable disease and 4 had disease progression. A more recent study (91) reported at the 2005 ASO meeting confirmed this activity and reported a PFS-6 value of 32%, with 4 of 30 patients alive without evidence of tumor progression over two years after the initiation of treatment. Thus, while Gleevec has only a small degree of activity as a single agent, it is a promising candidate for part of a cocktail treatment with other treatment agents, especially considering it has minimal toxicity with the exception of the risk of intracranial bleeding. .

Iressa, Tarceva, and Erbitux

These three recently FDA-approved drugs have the common feature that they target a growth signaling channel known as the epidermal growth factor. Overexpression of EGF receptors is involved in the growth many different kinds of cancer, including more than half of glioblastomas. Iressa, (also called ZD 1839 and gefitinib) was the first of these drugs to be used with GBM (92); 53 patients with recurrent tumors received Iressa as a single agent, none of whom showed tumor regression. The 6-month PFS was only 13% and the median survival time was 39 weeks. There was no association between the degree of EGFR expression and clinical outcome. In a second study (93) 98 newly diagnosed GBM patients received Iressa as a single agent after radiation therapy. Here the median one-year survival rate was 54%, not obviously better than historical controls receiving radiation only.. Again there was no relation between clinical outcome and the degree of EGFR expression.

A related drug, Tarceva (OSI-774 also known as erlotinib) has also being studied in clinical trials. A phase I trial (94) using it as a single agent for recurrent GBM patients failed to produce tumor regression for any patients and the PFS-6 value was zero. But two subsequent studies have produced substantially better results. A phase II study (95) with 48 patients with recurrent tumors produced complete or partial tumor regressions in four patients and 6-month PFS of 17%. A second study (96) produced tumor regressions of 50% or more in 6 of 30 patients ad a PFS-6 of 27%. Promising results have also come from a phase I trial combining Tarceva with temozolomide (97), which reported the results for 25 patients (6 partial responses, 2 minor responses, and 3 patients with stable disease. Thus, the drug appears to have some effectiveness as a single agent and may be synergistic with chemotherapy, although the latter conclusion requires a more definitive comparison of the combination with chemotherapy alone. Erbitux has not yet been studied with brain tumors, presumably because it is a monoclonal antibody too large to cross the blood-brain barrier.

The most recent attempt to improve the efficacy of this class of drugs has been to combine them with a rapamycin, a drug used in organ transplants to suppress the immune system and prevent organ rejection. A phase I trial (98) combined Iressa with rapamycin for 23 patients with recurrent tumors but the results are still too preliminary to be evaluated. However, the authors did report major tumor regressions with two patients.

It should be noted that several of the supplements to be discussed in a subsequent section have been shown to disrupt the epidermal growth factor signaling channel in various ways, as does accutane. Probably the most important is genistein, but quercetin and curcumin have this property as well.

One recent paper (99) of potential major importance has noted that tumors may become resistant to treatments based on inhibition of the epidermal growth factor because of activation of the gene for a second growth factor known as the insulin-like growth factor (IGF). IGF was also implicated in the effect of tamoxifen, discussed in an earlier section.

It is noteworthy, therefore, that one of the supplements to be discussed, silibinin,, is known to inhibit IGF (100). Lycopene also inhibits IGF. This suggests that silibinin and lycopene might substantially increase the effectiveness of any treatment that relies on EGFR inhibition.

A second possible reason for the ineffectiveness of the new drugs targeting the EGFR signaling channel is that the critical genetic marker for glioblastomas may not be the overexpression of the EGFR receptor, but rather a mutation of the normal receptor which produces activation of the receptor even in the absence of the growth signal. As a result, new drugs are under development that target this mutated receptor, although to date no clinical results have been reported.

Avastin

Avastin (also known as Bevacizumab) is a monoclonal antibody that is the first drug to receive FDA approval that was explicitly designed to inhibit the growth of new blood vessels. It now is used for several different kinds of cancer, almost always in combination with one or another form of chemotherapy. Its first use with brain tumors was reported at a recent European neuro-oncology conference. (101). Avastin at a dose of 5 mg/kg was given every two weeks to 29 patients with recurrent tumors, following by weekly infusions thereafter. Patients also received CPT-11 (irinotecan) concurrently with Avastin. Tumor regressions were evident after the first course of treatment, with 19 patients having either complete or partial regressions. Long-term survival data were not mature at the time of the report. Nevertheless, this protocol seems one of the most promising of any yet reported. It remains to be seen whether Avastin will have comparable effects with chemotherapy drugs other than CCPT-11, e. g. temodar. Avastin does increase the risk of intracranial bleeding, but in the aforementioned clinical trial, this occurred for only 1 of the 19 patients.

Celebrex (and other NSAIDs)

Carcinogenesis of several types involves an inflammatory process. When anti-inflammatory drugs such as aspirin or ibuprofen are taken on a regular basis the incidence of colon cancer is reduced as much as 50%. This astonishing effectiveness has motivated investigation of the mechanisms of these benefits. One component of the inflammatory process is angiogenesis, which is now believed to be a critical component of cancer growth. COX-2 enzymes are believed to play an important role in inflammation, so that COX-2 inhibitors should reduce angiogenesis and inhibit tumor growth (102, 103). Many nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) are known to be COX-2 inhibitors, but most (e.g., ibuprofen) also inhibit COX-1 enzymes, which are necessary for healthy maintenance of the stomach lining, which is why many users of NSAIDs eventually develop intolerance to them. Thus, much recent attention has been given to the new COX-2 inhibitors such as Celebrex and Vioxx, which were developed to avoid COX-1

inhibition for the purposes of arthritis treatment. Because inhibition of angiogenesis is one of the major new approaches to the treatment of cancer (see discussion in a later section) many oncologists have begun adding Celebrex or Vioxx to their regular treatment protocols, based on laboratory findings that Cox-2 inhibitors inhibit tumor growth. In the recent meetings of American Society for Clinical Oncology (ASCO), there were scores of new clinical trials reported that combined one or another Cox-2 inhibitor with conventional radiation, chemotherapy, and new targeted treatments. The great majority of these were phase 2 clinical trials which had only historical controls with the conventional treatment alone to assess the value of the added Cox-2 inhibitors, but almost all concluded there appeared to be a significant benefit, including two clinical trials using such a combination with glioblastomas.. In one representative study with patients with non-small cell lung cancer, 16 patients received 800 mg/day of celebrex between rounds of chemotherapy. Four had a complete response to treatment, 12 had partial responses, and 4 had stable disease (104). While these results were from a phase II clinical trial without a control group, the outcome was better than the historical norms for comparable patients.

In a second study, prostate cancer patients with rising PSAs after initial treatment received 400 mg/day of celebrex (105). Of 11 patients followed for 6 months, 2/11 had a decrease in PSA, and 3/11 had stabilization in the PSA rise. The remainder had a decrease in the rate of PSA rise. The authors concluded that celebrex significantly slowed the progression of prostate cancer, although how long that suppression would continue remains tentative because of the early-stage nature of the clinical trial.

The two clinical trials reported to date that have used celebrex in the treatment of gliomas combined it with temodar (21) or CPT-11 (55) and are described in the section on chemotherapy.

Because of the mild toxicity of NSAIDS, considerable recent research has investigated the mechanisms of its clinical benefit. Whereas initial research focused on the anti-angiogenic properties of this class of drugs, several other mechanisms have been identified, including the enhancement of various aspects of the immune system, and inhibition of the genes that prevent damaged cells from undergoing apoptosis.(106). Not all NSAIDS are equal in their anti-proliferative effects, as there is some evidence that one of them, celebrex, is considerably more potent than others in directly inhibiting tumor growth by down-regulating the cyclin proteins regulating the different stages of cell division (107). It is critical to note that many of the mechanisms by which NSAIDS work are strongly involved in the growth of high-grade gliomas, and that the expression of the cyclogenase enzyme that is the target of COX-2 inhibitors correlates strongly with the proliferation rate of glioblastoma tumors and correlates inversely with survival time (108, 109).

Chlorimipramine

This FDA-approved drug was first used for the treatment of depression and now is used also for the treatment of obsessive-compulsive neuroses. Its rationale as a treatment for

gliomas is that it selectively depresses mitochondrial function in glioma cells while leaving normal cells unaffected, causing the glioma cells to undergo apoptosis (programmed cell death)(110). Reported at the most recent ASCO meeting (111) was a clinical trial evaluating the outcome of its use with 27 patients with high-grade gliomas (the distribution of GBMs vs. grade 3 tumors was not reported in the abstract, nor was the clinical history of the patients). Chlorimipramine was added to their treatment with doses from 25 mg daily escalated to 150 mg daily. Median survival was 27 months, with 20 of the 27 patients showed a partial tumor regressions.. This is among the most promising new treatments, although additional testing with more detailed reporting of the results is clearly needed.

Glitazones (Avandia, Actos)

All of the drugs discussed above in this section have been developed for medical purposes other than the treatment of brain cancer, and only subsequently were their anti-cancer properties discovered. The latest example of such "accidental" anti-cancer drugs is a family of drugs ("thiazolidinediones", also know as "glitazones") developed for type II diabetes that now are used by hundreds of thousands of patients. The two drugs of this category available in the USA are rosiglitazone (trade name Avandia) and pioglitazone (trade name Actos). Their mechanism of action for the treatment of diabetes is to increase cellular insulin sensitivity. But laboratory research has identified multiple other mechanisms of action as well that potentially have major benefit for cancer patients (112, 113), including inhibiting various steps in the cell cycle, induction of cell differentiation, induction of apoptosis (programmed cell death), and inhibition of angiogenesis. Among the experimental studies are those targeting glioblastoma tumors, both "in vitro" studies of cell cultures (114) and "in vivo" studies of implanted tumors in rodents (115). Of special interest is the finding that this class of drugs is synergistic with retinoids such as accutane in regulating the genes necessary for differentiation and apoptosis (116). As yet no clinical trials using these drugs for the treatment of brain cancer have been reported. One small clinical trial with advanced "vascular tumors" was reported using one of these drugs (Actos) as part of a drug cocktail, also involving chemotherapy on a daily low-dosage schedule (metronomic chemotherapy) in combination with Vioxx, a Cox-2 inhibitor (117). Of six patients, all of whom had been heavily pretreated without success, three had complete remission of their disease and a fourth had a partial remission. While such results are difficult to evaluate in the absence of more knowledge about the clinical outcomes of this class of patients, the results at least encourage further investigation. Of special note is that the concentrations of the drug necessary to produce major tumor regressions in animal models (115) are similar to those routinely used by diabetics, which are known to have minimal toxicity.

"Supplements" with Demonstrated Efficacy

Melatonin

This is a naturally occurring hormone secreted by the pineal gland that regulates the body's diurnal rhythm. It is commonly used for the treatment of jet lag and for insomnia. It is readily available in any health food store and most drug stores. Its role in cancer treatment has been predicated on the assumption that it boosts the immune system, with the current hypothesis being that it augments the activity of T-helper cells. It recently also has been shown to inhibit angiogenesis (1118). It may also have direct cytotoxic effects on some types of cancer cells, notably melanoma cells. It has no known toxic side effects.

Clinical research on the use of melatonin for cancer treatment has been done primarily in Italy, where it has been used either as a single agent after radiation treatments, or in combination with various chemotherapy or immunotherapy regimens, most frequently interleukin-2. Part of the rationale for such combinations is that it decreases the side effects of the chemotherapy, especially with respect to blood counts. One of the clinical studies that has been reported (119) randomly assigned GBM patients either to radiation-alone or to radiation concomitant with 20 mg/day of melatonin. Melatonin was continued after completion of the radiation. Survival time was significantly longer for subjects receiving the melatonin. In terms of one-year survival rates, 6/14 patients receiving melatonin were alive, while only 1/16 patients without melatonin was alive.

This GBM study involved a relatively small number of patients, so that the effects might be considered tentative until a larger study is conducted. However, the effect of melatonin was statistically reliable even with the small number of subjects. Moreover, comparable effects have been reported in a similar design for the use of melatonin with advanced lung cancer (120). Like the GBM study, a substantial increase in survival rate occurred for the patients receiving melatonin.

To date there have been at least a dozen phase-2 clinical trials using melatonin either alone or in combination with other agents and five phase-3 trials involving random assignment of subjects to melatonin versus some type of control group. The majority of these have been relatively small and have involved patients in the terminal stages of their disease, which is perhaps why American oncologists have largely ignored them. However, several recent trials have been much larger and seem to leave little doubt that melatonin significantly increases the efficacy of chemotherapy. The most extensive randomized clinical trial involved 250 patients with advanced metastatic cancer of various types (121). Patients were randomly assigned to chemotherapy alone (using different chemotherapies for different types of cancer) or chemotherapy plus 20 mg of melatonin per day. Objective tumor regression occurred in 42 (including 6 complete regressions) of 124 patients receiving melatonin but in only 19/126 (with zero complete regressions) of the control patients. A comparable difference occurred for survival rate: 63/124 of those receiving melatonin were alive after one year while only 29/126 were alive of those receiving chemotherapy alone. A different trial, involving 100 patients with metastatic nonsmall-cell lung cancer (122), compared chemotherapy alone or chemotherapy in combination with melatonin. For the chemotherapy alone patients there were 9 of 51 who had a partial tumor regression, while 17 of the 49 chemo + melatonin patients had either a complete (2) or partial (15) regression. Twenty percent of the chemo-alone patients survived for one year and zero for two years, while the corresponding numbers for chemo + melatonin were 40% and 30%. Melatonin not only

increased the efficacy of chemotherapy, but also significantly reduced its toxicity. These trials leave little doubt that the effects of melatonin are robust and of major clinical significance. Moreover, a recent study has shown that using multiple components of the pineal gland secretions instead of melatonin alone enhances clinical effectiveness still further (123).

PSK and other polysaccharides

PSK is the abbreviation for polysaccharide krestin (sometimes known simply as krestin), which is an extract from the mushroom, *Coriolus Versicolor*. It has become a standard component of cancer treatment protocols in Japan (a Chinese version of the same extract is known as PSP) for many different kinds of cancer, predicated on the assumption that it is an immune-system enhancer. Among the effects on the immune system that have been identified are gamma-interferon production, interleukin-2 production, and an increase in T-cell activity. Other effects include inhibition of matrix-degrading enzymes that underlie tumor invasion of adjacent tissue, and the inhibition of angiogenesis.

In one representative study, with non-small cell lung cancer (124), stage I patients receiving PSK (3 g/day) had a five-year survival rate of 39% compared to 22% for patients not receiving PSK. For stage III patients, the 5-year survival rate with PSK was 16% versus only 5% for those not receiving PSK. Both differences were statistically significant. Other studies involving colon cancer and stomach cancer have also shown that PSK substantially increased survival rates. I have found only one study that used PSK in the treatment of glioma, in combination with ACNU (a chemical cousin of BCNU) and vincristine (125). The survival rate for high-grade patients after one, two, and three years was 77%, 49%, and 47%, respectively. No control condition was studied that did not receive PSK, so exactly what its effect was is unclear. Note, however, that the two-year and three-year survival rates are substantially greater than that typically seen for GBM following traditional treatment with chemotherapy alone. However, the abstract of the study (the study was in an inaccessible Japanese journal) did not report the results separately for glioblastomas versus grade III gliomas.

PSK is not easily obtained in this country. The only source I have found is JHS Natural Products in Eugene, Oregon (phone # 541-344-1396 or 888-330-4691; website: www.jhsnp.com). A month's supply costs \$125. Other mushroom extracts that also have the long-chain polysaccharides (beta-glucans) that appear to be the active ingredient in PSK are more readily available. These include maitake, reishi, and shiitake mushrooms. However, none of these has the same level of scientific evidence for treatment efficacy in human clinical trials. Maitake D-fraction seems an especially promising mushroom extract based on a recent laboratory study of chemically-induced tumors in mice (126). Tumor growth was inhibited 90% when the mushroom extract was combined with chemotherapy versus an inhibition of only 50% when chemotherapy was used alone for control subjects.

Gamma-Linolenic Acid (GLA) and Fish Oil

GLA is an essential fatty acid found in evening primrose oil, borage seed oil, and black currant seed oil. At least 100 laboratory studies have shown it to be highly cytotoxic to many different kinds of cancer cells, with the presumed mechanism that metabolism of GLA by the cancer cells creates high levels of free radicals that are lethal to the cells. Iron and zinc potentiate this cytotoxic effect; Vitamin E (and perhaps other anti-oxidants) counteracts it. GLA is harmless to normal cells and has been shown to have clinical utility for a variety of disorders, notably rheumatoid arthritis and as a topical treatment for superficial bladder cancer. It also has been shown to lower LDL cholesterol and increase insulin sensitivity. GLA is also known to change the structure of cell membranes, which is believed to underlie the finding that it increases the effectiveness of both chemotherapy and radiation. At the same time GLA has been shown to protect normal cells from radiation damage.

Evidence that GLA is effective against gliomas comes from a study conducted in India (127-128) in which GLA was infused directly into the tumor bed. Of the 15 patients treated, most had major tumor regressions, and 12 of the 15 were alive at the time of the report's publication (1-2 years later). The three who died were all quite elderly and probably would not have received any conventional treatment beyond radiation in this country. A subsequent study (129) involving patients with very advanced disease had notably less success but here too there were notable tumor regressions attributable to the treatment.

A critical question is whether oral ingestion of GLA has any clinical effects. A recent clinical trial involving its use for breast cancer substantiates that it does (130). Advanced breast cancer patients received the standard treatment of tamoxifen alone or tamoxifen in combination with GLA, in the form of 2.8 g of GLA/day. The source of GLA was borage seed oil, which is approximately 20% GLA, which meant that the patients were taking 12-15 g of borage seed oil per day. Borage seed oil is available in any health food store, usually in the form of 1000 mg capsules, although supposedly it can also be obtained in liquid oil form and makes tasty salad dressings. It is important to find a reliable source, because some sources have high alkaloid levels that are poisonous. The measure of treatment effectiveness in the breast cancer clinical trial was the status of patients three months after the initiation of treatment. With tamoxifen alone none of the patients had a complete response to treatment, 13% had partial regression of their tumors, while 81% had stable disease. For tamoxifen + GLA the corresponding percentages were 5, 37, and 55%, a significant improvement.

The use of GLA as a cancer treatment is controversial because one of its major metabolites is arachnidonic acid, which is the precursor to both the lipoxygenase and cyclooxygenase inflammatory pathways. These inflammatory pathways are believed to stimulate the growth of cancer cells, which seems to contraindicate using GLA. However, it should be noted that GLA has been used successfully as a treatment for rheumatoid arthritis because of its anti-inflammatory effects, so obviously the story is more complicated. Part of the source of confusion is that the effects of GLA are dose-dependent. In laboratory studies low dosages have been shown to stimulate tumor

growth, while at higher dosages the effect is clearly cytotoxic. (131,132). A second important factor is the presence of n-3 fatty acids (fish oil being the most common). When fish oil is also present, its metabolic pathway competes for enzymes that also are involved in GLA metabolism, thus preventing the formation of arachnidonic acid. The optimal use of GLA may therefore be in combination with fish oil, not as a single agent.

The major fatty acids found in fish oil, eicosapentenoic acid (EPA) and docosahexanoic acid (DHA), have also been demonstrated to have potent cytotoxic effects on cancer cells in numerous laboratory experiments. Part of their mechanism of action is similar to that of GLA, in that the metabolism of these fatty acids creates high levels of free radicals. In addition, a recent laboratory study has shown that EPA-treated tumors showed a significant arrest of cell division due to inhibition of cyclins at the G1 phase of cell division, which resulted in an increased rate of programmed cell death known as apoptosis (133).

A clinical trial comparing fish-oil supplements versus a placebo has also been reported, involving patients with several different types of advanced cancer (134). Thirty malnourished patients suffering from cachexia were randomly assigned to receive 18 g of fish oil per day, in combination with 200 mg of Vitamin E, or a placebo sugar pill. An additional thirty subjects, adequately nourished, received a similar random assignment. For both groups the fish oil significantly increased survival. For the malnourished patients the median survival times, as estimated from their survivor functions, were 110 days for the patients receiving placebo and 210 days for patients in the fish oil group. For the adequately nourished patients, the corresponding numbers were 350 versus 500 days. In laboratory studies (135) fish oil has also been shown to significantly increase the effectiveness of chemotherapy.

Vitamin D

Numerous laboratory studies have shown that Vitamin D is highly cytotoxic to cancer cells, due to several different mechanisms (although it is labeled a vitamin it more properly should be considered a hormone). While most research has focused on its ability to upregulate genes that cause cancer cells to differentiate into mature cells, other effects have also been identified, including cell cycle regulation, inhibition of the insulin-like growth factor, and the inhibition of angiogenesis (136). However the form of Vitamin D most commonly available is not readily usable for cancer treatments because the dosages producing anti-cancer effects also cause hypercalcemia, which can be life threatening (the major function of Vitamin D is to regulate calcium absorption and resorption from the bones and teeth). But like many vitamins/hormones, the generic designation refers not to a specific chemical structure but to a family of related molecules that may have different properties of various sorts. For Vitamin D several of these variants (commonly referred to as analogues) have been shown to effectively inhibit cancer cell growth but without the same degree of toxic hypercalcemia. In a recent paper in the Journal of Neuro-oncology (137), 10 patients with glioblastoma and one with grade III AA tumors received a form of Vitamin D called alfacalcidol in a dosage of .04 micrograms/kg each day, a dosage which

produced no significant hypercalcemia. The median survival was 21 months, and three of the 11 were long-term survivors (greater than 5 years). Although the number of patients who responded to the treatment was not a high percentage, the fact that any relatively non-toxic treatment can produce that number of long-term survivors is remarkable. This is an especially interesting finding because there is strong reason to believe that Vitamin D is synergistic with retinoids such as accutane (138). Its effectiveness is also increased in the presence of dexamethasone (139) and a variety of anti-oxidants, notably carnosic acid, but also lycopene, curcumin, silibinin, and selenium (140).

Unfortunately, alfacalcidol is not available in the USA. But it is available in Europe and Canada. For those in the USA it is possible to obtain it from various online marketers. One source that several members of the brain tumor community have used is Masters Marketing. Its web address is <http://www.mastersmarketing.com>. Undoubtedly there are a number of other possible suppliers. It also should be noted that several other Vitamin D analogues are available, which also have much reduced hypercalcemic effects. One of these, paricalcitol, was developed for treatment of a disorder of the parathyroid gland, and recently has been the subject of several experimental studies (141, 142, 143) that have shown it to be highly cytotoxic to many different types of cancer. Given that other forms of Vitamin D have been shown to be highly cytotoxic to glioblastoma cells, and that glioma cells are known to have receptors for Vitamin D, it seems likely that paricalcitol should have efficacy for glioblastoma as well. Unfortunately, its routine use is complicated by the fact it is available only in a form that requires intravenous injection.

The most common version of Vitamin D found in health food stores is cholecalciferol, which is the precursor of calcitriol, the form of Vitamin D utilized by the body. A recent study of cholecalciferol with prostate cancer patients who had progressed after standard therapy (144) suggests that this common form of Vitamin D may be clinically efficacious. Fifteen patients who had failed standard treatments were given 2000 I.U. daily. PSA levels were reduced or stayed the same for 9 patients, and there was a reliable decrease in the rate of PSA increase for the remainder. No side effects of the treatment were reported by any of the patients.

It is important to note that all forms of Vitamin D can occasionally produce dangerous serum calcium levels, in part because there is a great deal of variability in their effects across individuals. It is thus important that blood calcium levels be monitored, especially while a nontoxic dosage is being established.

Supplements With Potential Efficacy But Not Yet Clinically Tested

Genistein

This is an isoflavone derived from soy products (it is also found in red clover extract) that has been shown in the laboratory to be highly cytotoxic to many different types of

cancer, including glioma cells. In addition to the laboratory evidence, there is also substantial epidemiological evidence that high dietary intakes of soy products decrease cancer mortality by at approximately 50%. Only recently has it begun to be studied in clinical trials, mainly with respect to the treatment of prostate cancer.

Soy extracts containing genistein are available in most health-food stores. The concentration of genistein is often not well specified, so it is unclear what is actually in the extract. Most importantly, the listed amounts of genistein are so low that they are unlikely to provide much clinical benefit. The highest concentration (about 10 times greater than the others that I have found) is made by the Life Extension Foundation (phone: 800-841-5433; website: lef.org). It can be ordered from them or from L&H Vitamins, a discount mail-order company that is a good source for many types of products otherwise found in health-food stores (phone #: 800-221-1152).

Although there is as of yet no direct evidence of the clinical effectiveness of genistein, the laboratory studies that are available make a strong case for its potential efficacy. In one representative laboratory experiment mice received different concentrations of genistein added to their regular diet (145). The measure of its effect was the number of lung metastases caused by melanoma cells injected into the mice. The number of lung tumors was reduced by 50-75% depending upon the amount of genistein added to the diet. Interestingly, even greater inhibition of tumor growth was observed in another study when whole soy extracts were added to the diet, rather than genistein alone (soy contains numerous isoflavones other than genistein).

Recent experimental studies have examined the mechanisms whereby genistein produces its anti-cancer effects (146). The consensus is that this results from its ability to inhibit tyrosine kinase activity. This is a general class of chemical signals that strongly stimulate cell division. The epidermal growth factor, discussed earlier with respect to the mechanism of accutane's effect, is one member of this class of signals, and some investigators believe that genistein works by blocking the EGF receptor. Genistein also appears to produce inhibition of protein kinase C (discussed earlier with respect to the mechanisms of tamoxifen). This in turn suggests that a combination of genistein and tamoxifen might be especially effective. Finally there is increasing evidence that genistein is an inhibitor of angiogenesis.

Of special interest to brain cancer patients is a recent laboratory study in which glioblastomas cells were treated with a combination of genistein with BCNU (147). The result was a highly synergistic suppression of the rate of growth. This observation is important because genistein has much in common with new drugs being developed to block the EGF signaling channel, which themselves seem to be more effective when used in combination with conventional treatment modalities.

Selenium

This is a trace element commonly found in the soil, which is absorbed into various foods, most commonly onions and garlic. Its potency as an anti-cancer agent was discovered

almost by accident in a randomized placebo-controlled trial in which selenium was being tested as a possible preventative agent for skin cancer (148). While selenium had no effect on the incidence of skin cancer, it had substantial effects on the incidence of other types of cancer, including lung, colorectal, prostate, and the total of all cancers. The most dramatic effect occurred for prostate cancer, for which the incidence was reduced by 63% for those receiving selenium relative to the rate in the placebo controls. The incidence of brain cancer was not recorded in this study. An important question is whether selenium is effective as a treatment for existing cancers in addition to being useful as a cancer preventative. Laboratory research suggests that it should indeed be effective, as it has been shown to inhibit tumor growth in a dose-dependent manner in vitro, and its use as a dietary supplement significantly inhibits the growth of pulmonary metastases after injection of melanoma cells into mice (149). Laboratory studies also have shown it to inhibit the growth of glioma cells (150). Recent studies have identified two of its mechanism of action, inhibition of protein kinase C (151), known to be important in the growth of gliomas, and inhibition of angiogenesis (152). It is important to note that selenium can be highly toxic at high dosages, and that the degree of toxicity varies with the compound in which it comes. Selenomethionine is the preferred form because it is the least toxic. The most common dosage used is 200 micrograms/day, although dosages to 400-800 mcg/day have been used without evident toxicity. There is some evidence that its effects may be synergistic with Vitamin D.

Green Tea

Green tea has been consumed in both China and Japan for 5000 years based on its medicinal properties. It is now believed that its primary anti-cancer ingredients are polyphenolic catechins, the most prominent of which is epigallocatechin-3-galate (EGCG). A recent review has summarized its anti-cancer effects in several different animal models using both mice and rats (including major inhibition of glioblastoma cell lines), both when human tumors have been implanted and when they have been induced by various chemical carcinogens (153). In a representative study of chemically-induced tumors in mice (154), green tea was provided as the sole source of fluid, at a concentration of 6% (6 g of tea per liter of water), the incidence of lung tumors was reduced by 30%. The same study identified several different mechanisms of action, the most prominent of which was the inhibition of angiogenesis.

A recent review by the new Division of Alternative Medicine of the National Institutes of Health has identified green tea as the most promising of treatments advocated by proponents of alternative medicine. Accordingly, several clinical trials investigating its efficacy are ongoing. The only one reported to date used green tea in the treatment of patients with androgen independent metastatic prostate cancer (155). Dosage was 6 g of green tea per day. Only limited clinical benefit was reported. It is important to recognize that anti-angiogenic agents generally take a long time to produce clinical regressions, work better with less advanced stages of disease, and also work better in combination with other treatment agents.

Quercetin

This is a member of the class of flavonoids found in fruits and related plant products. Its most abundant sources are onions and apples. Like genistein it appears to be an inhibitor of tyrosine kinase activity, and appears to be synergistic with genistein when the two have been combined in laboratory studies involving both ovarian and breast cancer cell lines. It currently is being investigated in phase-1 clinical trials. Given that apples are one of its major sources, it is interesting that a story in *Nature* (June 22, 2000) has reported that material extracted from fresh apples inhibited in a dose-dependent manner the growth of both colon and liver cancer cell lines.

Curcumin

This is an ingredient in the Indian cooking spice, turmeric. It has been shown to inhibit the growth of cancer cells of various types in laboratory studies (156). Like genistein and quercetin it inhibits the tyrosine kinase signaling and also inhibits angiogenesis. When the three supplements have been directly compared curcumin was the more powerful inhibitor, but it also should be noted that its bioavailability from oral intake is limited. However, bioavailability appears to be significantly increased when curcumin is combined with piperine (the main ingredient in black pepper).

Silibinin (an ingredient of Silymarin)

Silymarin is an extract from the milk thistle plant that has been used extensively in Europe as an antidote for liver toxicity, due to mushroom poisoning and overdoses of tylenol. Its active ingredient is a molecule called silibinin. Recently a great deal of laboratory research has shown it to have anti-cancer effects as well. Like genistein and quercetin it is a tyrosine kinase inhibitor, but it appears to have multiple other effects, including the inhibition of the insulin-like growth factor (IGF) that contributes to the development of chemoresistance (157) (see the section on tamoxifen), and the inhibition of angiogenesis (158). It also inhibits the 5-lipoxygenase inflammatory pathway and suppresses nuclear factor kappa B, which is known to be antagonistic to apoptosis (159). It also appears to protect against common chemotherapy toxicities (160), while at the same time increasing the effectiveness of chemotherapy (161).

Bromelain

This is an extract from pineapple that contains proteinases that have a variety of anti-cancer effects (162). While it has been shown to be cytotoxic to a variety of different cancer cell lines, most germane to the present discussion is its ability to inhibit the growth of glioma cells (163) by a variety of different mechanisms.

Lycopene

This is a carotenoid that is found most abundantly in tomatoes but occurs in various other red-colored vegetables as well (including watermelon). Unlike the most well-known carotenoid, beta-carotene, it does not get transformed into Vitamin A, and thus has no hepatic toxicity. In a small clinical trial involving prostate cancer patients about to undergo surgery (164), for those who consumed lycopene for several weeks before surgery both the size and malignancy of their tumors were significantly reduced relative to those not receiving lycopene. Several other more recent studies have shown that lycopene as a single agent reduces PSA in prostate cancer patients whose tumors have become hormone-independent. In an experimental study involving both cell cultures and implanted glioma tumors in rats (165), lycopene (and beta-carotene) were found to substantially inhibit tumor growth in both experimental preparations, and in fact had a greater inhibitory effect than did a collection of retinoids commonly used clinically. As described in the earlier section on agents that can be combined with chemotherapy, a recent clinical trial (23) with glioma patients assessed the effect of adding 8 mg/day of lycopene to a protocol involving radiation + taxol. Eighty percent of patients receiving lycopene had either complete or partial tumor regressions, while this was true for only 44% of those receiving a placebo. Of further relevance to gliomas is that one of lycopene's mechanisms of action is to inhibit the insulin-like growth factor, which as noted above is involved in the development of resistance to a variety of different treatment agents. (166). Also of interest is evidence that it synergizes with Vitamin D (167).

Boswellic Acid

This is an extract from Indian folk medicine used for its anti-inflammatory effects. Laboratory studies have shown that its mechanism of action is inhibition of the lipoxygenase inflammatory pathway, which is the source of inflammatory leukotrienes (168). This inflammatory pathway is distinct from the cyclooxygenase pathway that was discussed earlier in the section on *Celebrex and other NSAIDs*. Boswellic acid is now used in Germany as a substitute for steroids as a method of reducing the edema associated with gliomas. There have also been reports (169, 170) from in vivo animal laboratory experiments that it has direct anti-cancer effects. It seems plausible that its combination with celebrex or other COX-2 inhibitors might be synergistic.

Broccoli Sprouts

Brassica vegetables such as broccoli, cauliflower, brussels sprouts, and cabbage have long been believed to have anti-cancer properties, with the prevailing theory of the basis of that effect being that they contain a substance known as sulforaphane. Recently it has been discovered that the 3-4 day-old sprouts of these vegetables contain 10-100 times the concentration of sulforaphane as do the full-grown vegetables. To test whether the oral ingestion of sprouts has anti-cancer effects, dried broccoli sprouts were included in the diet of rats with chemically-induced cancers, with the result that considerable regression of the tumors was observed (171). Broccoli sprouts are also very tasty additions to salads.

Ellagic Acid

This is a phenolic compound present in fruits and nuts, including raspberries, blueberries, strawberries, and walnuts. In laboratory experiments it has been shown to potently inhibit the growth of various chemical-induced cancers, with the basis of the effect being an arrest of cell division in the G stage of cell division, thus producing the programmed cell death known as apoptosis. While there have been no trials to assess its clinical effects with human patients, it should be obvious that quantities of berries and nuts are among the more enjoyable dietary components, and even the possibility that they may have anti-cancer effects should encourage their usage.

Berberine

This is an alkaloid extract from *Coptides Rhizoma* commonly used in China as an herbal medicine. It is also found in high concentration in the widely-used supplement, goldenseal. In one laboratory study of using both various kinds of glioma cell cultures and implanted tumors in rodents (172), the cytotoxic effects of berberine were compared to those of BCNU and to the combination of berberine and BCNU. Berberine used alone produced a 91% kill rate in cell cultures, compared to 43% for BCNU. The combination produced a kill rate of 97%. Comparable results were obtained with the in vivo implanted tumors. Such results suggest that berberine is among the most promising treatment agents, but to date very little research using it has been reported.

Resveratrol

This is a naturally occurring polyphenol found most abundantly in grapes and mulberries. Red wine is among the sources. Numerous experimental studies have shown that it inhibits proliferation of various kinds of cancer, including leukemia, prostate, breast, and colon cancer. Among its mechanisms of action are activation of the P53 gene, inhibition of protein kinase C, and the inhibition of new blood vessel growth. In the one recent study of its use with implanted glioma tumors (173), rats received either sub-cutaneous injections or intra-cerebral injections of tumor cells, which in control animals rapidly grew and became fatal. With sub-cutaneous tumors a dose of resveratrol of 40mg/kg produced major growth inhibition with 70% of the rats becoming long-term survivors. A higher dosage (100 mg/kg) was necessary to inhibit the growth of the intracranial tumors, and even it was only marginally effective. The difference in outcome for the two preparations suggests that resveratrol may be impeded by the blood-brain barrier. However, the authors note that it had significant anti-angiogenic effects, which are not affected by the blood-brain barrier. Whether resveratrol has clinical utility for brain cancer is unclear, although it is known that anti-angiogenic agents of various sorts synergize with various kinds of conventional treatment.

Cannabis

After years of governmental discouragement of research on Cannabis (the plant from which marijuana is derived), the last few years has seen a proliferation of research on its mechanisms of action. One result of this research is that it has been shown to inhibit the growth of various kinds of cancer cells, including gliomas (174). In the most recent paper (175), cannabinoids were shown to significantly inhibit angiogenesis in gliomas implanted in mice, which was accompanied by significant inhibition of glioma growth. The result is noteworthy because cannabis is among the more potent anti-nausea agents for controlling the side effects of chemotherapy.

Skeptics of supplements/dietary components such as those discussed above have argued that the laboratory studies providing evidence for their anti-cancer effects have used dosages that can never be achieved in human patients, and therefore the supplements are unlikely to be useful clinically. Without a study of the dose-effect relations in clinical settings there is no easy way to evaluate this concern. However, in several cases investigators of the various substances have noted that their effects in the laboratory were obtained with dosages comparable to what easily can be realized by dietary supplementation. In any event, for most of what has been discussed there is little if any risk to using the supplements, with the only cost being financial in nature. It is important to keep in mind that cancer treatment of all types is probabilistic in its outcome. Thus, any agent that adds even a small amount to the probability that a treatment program will be successful, and which also has no toxicity, is something that should be taken seriously as an additional component of a multi-faceted treatment program.

Noteworthy Clinical Trials

The earlier section on chemotherapy discussed the large number of new clinical trials that are combining different chemotherapy agents, now most commonly temodar, with other treatment agents such as tamoxifen, accutane, thalidomide, etc., as well with other chemotherapy agents (CPT-11, etoposide). It is increasingly clear that these combination treatments are more successful than chemotherapy used as a single agent. In this section I will concentrate on new treatment approaches that are not predicated on the traditional cytotoxic mechanism of killing all dividing cells in the body that come into contact with the chemotherapy agent. These newer treatment agents are the direct result of basic research on the processes of cell division, which have identified numerous new targets for intervention when cells become malignant and multiply wildly without differentiating into mature cells serving their various specialized functions. Only in the last few years have these new approaches been extended to primary brain tumors. The discussion will thus be at the level of the general rationale of the different treatment approaches, along with a report of the results of the initial early-stage clinical trials.

Anti-Angiogenesis

In order for tumors to grow they must recruit new blood vessels to meet the greatly increased energy demands. If the growth of new blood vessels could be prevented, the tumor's growth would necessarily stabilize or decrease, thus giving other treatments the opportunity to kill the cancerous cells. As noted in an earlier section, thalidomide is one drug that has such an inhibitory effect, and its use in clinical trials has had some success with several types of cancer. Its results as a single agent for brain tumors have not been impressive, although its combinations with other agents do seem more promising. The mechanisms of thalidomide's effect on blood vessel growth are not well understood. Celebrex also is now commonly used for its anti-angiogenic effects, although it has other mechanisms of action as well. Avastin is the most recent, and potentially most effective of currently available anti-angiogenic agents, as indicated by the very recent clinical trial in which it was combined with CPT-11 (101). It remains to be seen what its effects will be when combined with temodar or other traditional chemotherapy agents.

Second-generation anti-angiogenesis agents have been developed based on specific hypotheses about how blood vessel growth is regulated. The majority of these new agents have targeted specific growth factors that a tumor sends out to stimulate blood vessel growth, or have targeted the receptors for those growth factors. At least a dozen such factors have been identified, the most important being fibroblast growth factor, platelet-derived growth factor, and vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), which is generally regarded as the most important. The multiplicity of growth factors is important to note because it implies there are redundant processes involved in stimulating blood vessel growth, which in turn suggests that targeting individual growth factors alone is unlikely to be an optimal approach..

Because anti-angiogenesis drugs are considered one of the most promising new approaches to cancer treatment, literally dozens of drug companies are developing their own approach to this new treatment modality. Among these is an analog of thalidomide called CC-5103 (also known as revimid), which was engineered to have thalidomide's therapeutic effects without its side effects. In a phase I trial with recurrent high-grade gliomas (176), little toxicity was observed and several patients had stable disease, although the results were too early to evaluate meaningfully except for toxicity, which was minimal. A second drug, known as PTK787, which inhibits the VEGF signaling channel, has been studied as a single agent and in combination with temodar. Of 47 evaluable GBM patients receiving it as a single agent, there were 2 partial tumor regressions, and 31 with stable disease, along with clear evidence that blood vessel growth had been inhibited (177). When studied in combination with temodar (178), several partial tumor regressions and stabilization of disease were observed, but it is too early to determine whether this is an improvement over temodar used as a single agent. A third anti-angiogenic drug, which seems especially promising, currently being studied in early stage clinical trials at the National Cancer Institute, is LY31765 (also known as enzastaurin), which targets a variant of protein kinase C that has been shown to be a critical part of the signaling pathway for VEGF. Of 92 patients reported on in the last meeting of ASCO (179), tumor regressions have been seen in 22% of GBM patients and 25% of patients with anaplastic astrocytomas. and stable disease in a significant number

of others. In addition, the treatment seems to have minimal toxicity. Still another new anti-angiogenic drug under development is EMD 121974 (also known as celingitide), which disrupts the molecular processes that allow individual cells to be joined to form a coherent blood vessel. In an early-stage clinical trial (180) involving 51 patients (37 with GBM) celingitide as a single agent produced 2 complete tumor regressions, 3 partial regressions, and four disease stabilizations. It remains to be seen how these various different agents will fare when combined with traditional chemotherapy. All of the agents just discussed are still in clinical trials and will likely not be generally available for another 2-3 years. Several other new anti-angiogenic drugs are also being developed but have not yet been tested with brain cancer.

Given that brain tumor patients are unlikely to have access to these new treatments for some time to come, it is of interest to note that at least a half-dozen agents, already discussed in earlier contexts, possess significant degrees of anti-angiogenic activity. These include tamoxifen, accutane, gamma-linolenic acid, genistein, PSK, selenium, curcumin, and green tea. Silymarin, an extract of thistle plants used in Germany as a treatment for liver toxicity, has also been shown in laboratory studies to have anti-angiogenic properties. Vitamin D3 also has potent anti-angiogenic effects

Perhaps the most interesting anti-angiogenic drug developed for other purposes is Rosiglitazone (trade name: Avandia), which was developed to increase insulin sensitivity for type II diabetics (181, 182). One of its properties is that it activates the PPAR-gamma gene which has been shown to inhibit cancer growth by encouraging apoptosis. Both gamma linolenic acid and fish oil, discussed above, has a similar effect on the PPAR-gamma gene.

One class of existing drugs that have significant anti-angiogenic effects are members of the tetracycline antibiotic family, specifically minocycline and doxycycline (183). These drugs also inhibit metalloproteinases, which are enzymes that break down the cell matrix of the surrounding cells that allows cancer cells to invade that tissue (184).

Reports of significant anti-angiogenic activity has been reported for a variety of other drugs,: methotrexate, a chemotherapy agent used in low dosages for the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis (185);, rapamycin (186), an immunosuppression drug used in organ transplants; and perindopril (187), one of the ACE inhibitors used in the treatment of high blood pressure.

The mechanisms underlying the anti-angiogenesis effects of each of these agents are largely unknown and possibly very different. Nevertheless, it seems feasible that a combination of these different agents might produce inhibition perhaps sufficient to be effective in its right, but also to substantially increase the effectiveness of traditional treatments, and that of other anti-angiogenic agents. For example, one recent laboratory study showed that the combination of thalidomide and sulindac (an anti-inflammatory analgesic used for arthritis) produced substantially greater inhibition of new blood vessel growth than did either agent in isolation (188). A number of other studies have also shown synergistic effects from combinations of different anti-angiogenic drugs.

An example of implementing a cocktail treatment using the anti-angiogenic approach comes from a report in USA Today (July 25, 2002) of a dog afflicted with cancer in its

chest cavity (the specific type was not specified). Its successful treatment regimen included celebrex, tamoxifen, and doxycycline. Another successful combination for a bear, reported in the same article, was celebrex, thalidomide, and doxycycline. . Such reports offer support for the cocktail approach.

A very different approach to developing an anti-angiogenic cancer treatment has focused on depletion of copper from the body. Its rationale is that the major growth factors for blood vessels (e.g., VEGF) are copper dependent, and that high copper serum levels are associated with tumor incidence and malignant progression of several types of cancer. Laboratory studies have also shown that the growth of malignant tumors in mice is inhibited when the mice received a drug (tetrathiomolybdate) developed to reduce copper levels in patients with Wilson's disease (a rare genetic disorder associated with high copper levels that are toxic). A phase 1 clinical trial using this drug in combination with a low-copper diet has been conducted at the University of Michigan (189). Of 18 patients with metastatic cancer receiving the treatment, six were successful in achieving the target level of serum copper. For five of these six their cancers stabilized for prolonged periods of time. A subsequent phase II trial was conducted with patients with advanced kidney disease (190). Again the best clinical response was stable disease, and the authors concluded that this approach will need to be combined with other treatment agents for improved effectiveness.

A copper-depletion phase- II clinical trial for brain tumors using a different chemical (penicilliamine) has been conducted by Dr. Stephen Brem at the Moffitt Cancer Center in Tampa, Florida (191). While the drug was effective, in combination with diet, in reducing serum copper levels. there was no relation between serum copper levels and survival time for newly diagnosed patients who otherwise received only radiation. Median survival was 11.3 months, similar to that typical of patients who receive radiation treatment alone.

A final anti-angiogenic approach to therapy is chronic low-dose chemotherapy, otherwise known as metronomic chemotherapy. The underlying premise is that part of the mechanism by which chemotherapy has a therapeutic effective is via its cytotoxic effect on dividing blood cells, which occurs when new blood vessels grow to supply the expanding tumor. However, the usual protocol for chemotherapy of bolus dosages spaced significantly apart, allows the blood vessels to repair themselves. Thus, having a chemotherapy agent chronically present prevents this repair and deprives the tumor of an adequate blood supply. Moreover, dividing blood vessel cells are markedly more sensitive to chemotherapy than are the tumor cells themselves, which permits much lower doses of chemotherapy to be used. As discussed in the section on chemotherapy, the merits of metronomic chemotherapy are now a subject of fierce debate in the general oncology community. It is clear that metronomic chemotherapy does have anti-angiogenic effects, and that these effects are synergistic when other anti-angiogenic agents are combined with low-dosage chemotherapy, but the issue is whether that effect is at the expense of a decreased level of cytotoxic activity on the tumor itself due to the lower dosage. There have numerous recent discussions of this issue (e.g., 192, 193. 194), but it remains controversial.

One speculative hypothesis about an effective anti-angiogenic approach would be to combine metronomic chemotherapy with a collection of agents, each of which targets different signaling channels for stimulating new blood vessel growth. Avastin is known to inhibit VEGF, gleevec is known to inhibit PDGF, and interferon is known to inhibit basic fibroblast growth factor. While these are not the only signaling channels controlling the growth of new blood vessels, it seems plausible that the combined targeting of all of them would be substantially more effective than using the different agents individually.

Receptor/Antigen Targeting

The underlying rationale of this approach is that cancerous cells have proteins expressed on their surface that are not expressed on normal cells. Thus by attacking this protein with some type of toxic payload the tumor cells can be killed with minimal damage to the normal tissues. The difficulty of this approach is that even though a number of antigens are highly expressed by all malignant glioma cells, none are unique to glioma cells, so inevitably some toxicity to normal cells will occur.

An example of this type of treatment approach has already been discussed in the section on radiation, involving monoclonal antibodies with a radiation load to target tenascin, an antigen present on almost all high-grade gliomas. Median survival from the time of diagnosis was approximately 18 months. The therapy was associated with hematologic and neurologic toxicity in 27% and 15% of patients, respectively.

A specific type of protein on the cell surface are receptors that transduce growth signals to the nucleus of the cell. The most intense interest in targeting a specific set of proteins involved in malignant growth has focused on the epidermal growth factor signaling channel. As discussed in an earlier section there are three new drugs that have targeted this signaling channel, erbitux, tarceva, and Iressa. To date considerable efficacy has been shown for tarceva, but evidence for the other two having efficacy against gliomas is still lacking.

It should be noted that several of the supplements discussed previously have been shown to disrupt the epidermal growth factor signaling channel in various ways, as does accutane. Probably the most important is genistein, but quercetin and curcumin have this property as well.

One recent paper (99) of potential major importance has noted that tumors may become resistant to treatments based on inhibition of the epidermal growth factor because of activation of the gene for a second growth factor known as the insulin-like growth factor (IGF). IGF was also implicated in the effect of tamoxifen, discussed in an earlier section. It is noteworthy, therefore, that one of the supplements discussed earlier, silibinin, is known to inhibit IGF (100). Lycopene also inhibits IGF. This suggests that silibinin and lycopene might substantially increase the effectiveness of any treatment that relies on EGFR inhibition.

A second possible reason for the ineffectiveness of the new drugs targeting the EGFR signaling channel is that the critical genetic marker for glioblastomas may not be the overexpression of the EGFR receptor, but rather a mutation of the normal receptor which produces activation of the receptor even in the absence of the growth signal. As a result, new drugs are under development that target this mutated receptor, although to date no clinical results have been reported.

Signal transduction channels have a number of different stages, starting with receptors on the cell membrane, and then a series of enzymes that ultimately result in instructions regarding cell division. An important part of this pathway for glioblastomas is known as the mTOR pathway. An existing drug used for immunosuppression in organ transplantation, rapamycin, has been shown to inhibit intermediate steps in this pathway, and clinical trials are underway with it and a chemical sibling known as CCI-779. The results of a two phase II trials of CCI-779 was reported at the last ASCO meeting (195,196): One of them reported a PFS-6 value of only 8%, while the other reported two tumor regressions and numerous disease stabilizations, which were generally of short duration. Thus, this new agent seems to have limited efficacy as a single agent. Additional trials are underway which combine it with one or another of the new drugs targeting the EPGF signaling channel.

Toxin Therapy

Several other proteins on the cell surface of GBMs have been targeted, typically in combination with some kind of agent that kills the cell whenever it makes contact. The first adaptation of this type of treatment approach involved the infusion of a modified diphtheria toxin into the tumor site, attached to a chemical (transferrin-CRM 107) that selectively binds with tumor cells. The toxin is then incorporated into the tumor and kills it. The results of the phase I clinical trial (197) were that at least a 50% reduction in tumor volume occurred in 9 of 15 patients, including two complete remissions. However, those patients receiving higher dosages of the drug exhibited MRI evidence of significant damage to the small blood vessels, including thrombosis and hemorrhage. In a subsequent phase II trial (198), 35% of 34 evaluable patients with recurrent GBMs had significant tumor regressions, with 5 complete regressions and 7 partial regressions. Median survival time was 37 weeks, and the longest survival time was 3.1 years. Toxicity was mainly significant edema, which could be controlled by steroids.

Yet another version of the same approach involves interleukin-13, which is conjugated with pseudomonas exotoxin, a bacteria-produced toxin which has been shown to be lethal to glioma cells. The results from the most recent trials using this approach were reported at the 2005 meeting of ASCO. Seventy-four patients with recurrent glioblastomas were included across the trials (although dosage varied), with a median survival time of 46 weeks with several complete responses.(199) Several types of neurotoxicity were observed, although none was sufficiently severe to require treatment termination. The report also emphasized the importance of the placement of the catheters, as post-hoc analysis shows that patients with optimally placed catheters had a median survival time

of 70 weeks. A randomized clinical trial comparing this approach to gliadel wafers is nearing completion. A new clinical trial comparing the IL-13 treatment with versus without temodar, is also now beginning. For more information, contact the drug's manufacture, NeoPharm, Inc.

As promising as these targeted treatments appear to be, they may be limited by their use of non-systemic modes of delivery directly into the brain. Such substances do not diffuse widely through the neuropil, so that portions of the tumor not immediately accessible from the site of infusion may not be contacted by the toxic agent. Thus, some portion of the cancer would remain, and given its geometric growth rate, soon would present major clinical problems. This problem of making contact with all of the tumor cells is inherent in any approach that uses intra-cranial infusion, including those involving monoclonal antibodies and gene therapy. It is of course possible that this problem can be mitigated by repeated presentations of the therapeutic procedure, or, as in the case of the IL-13 trials, use of a low-pressure diffusion system that spreads the treatment agent over a wider area of the brain.

Immunological Approaches

Because cancer cells have a genetic structure different from normal cells they generate foreign proteins that in principle should be detected by the immune system and evoke the same type of immune reaction as any foreign virus or bacteria. This basic fact suggests that strengthening one's immune system might be an effective approach to cancer treatment. Such an approach has an immediate appeal because it is surely preferable to strengthen the immune system than to poison the entire body in the hope the cancer cells will be killed before the body is depleted of vital resources. However attractive this philosophy may be, translating it into an effective cancer treatment has proven to be extraordinarily difficult. Contrary to general belief, immunological treatments are not benign to implement. Interferon treatment has very definite aversive side-effects, as do cytokines such as interleukin-2 and tumor necrosis factor, because their modus operandi is essentially to create an inflammatory immune reaction not unlike a severe allergic reaction. When this inflammatory process is too severe, it can in fact be fatal.

One of the most successful examples of the use of cytokine-based immunological treatment was reported in *Cancer* in 1995 (200). Lymphocyte killer cells were created by mixing the white blood cells of individual patients with those of unrelated donors, then allowing them to incubate for several days. The mixture of unrelated blood cells creates "angry white cells" that generate a wide array of different inflammatory cytokines. These cells were then infused through an intracranial catheter into the tumor bed in combination with additional dosages of IL-2. Patients received this regimen for multiple cycles until disease progression. The results were a median survival time of 53 weeks for patients with recurrent glioblastoma, which compares favorably with the 3-7 month survival times when recurrent tumors are treated with additional chemotherapy. The authors also argued that the results might be expected to be yet more positive if the patients received their

treatment as the first option rather than for recurrence, because most patients at the time of recurrence already had chemotherapy, which had failed but nevertheless significantly weakened the immune system. This implies that immunotherapy should be the first treatment to be used, while chemotherapy should be reserved until immunotherapy has been shown to be ineffective.

A somewhat different immunological treatment has utilized a technique that amplifies the T cells that are generated by the individual cancer patient in response to tumor cells. Glioblastoma tumor cells gathered during surgery were cultured in the presence of growth factors and then injected subcutaneously back into the patients. After development of an immune reaction the lymph nodes draining the location of the injection were resected to obtain lymphocytes attacking the tumor cells, and these were cultured with a staphylococcus toxin and a low dosage of interleukin-2. This generated a large number of activated T cells, which then were presented to the patient by intravenous infusion. The results were that two of ten patients had tumor regression, one of which still persisted up to the time of the report of the study (over 17 months). Of the eight patients with progressive disease, four were alive after over one year, suggesting the treatment had some beneficial effect even in the absence of tumor regression (201).

The holy grail of immunological approaches to cancer treatment is the development of effective vaccines. In principle this should be possible because of the differences in the protein structure of cancer cells and normal cells. There are, however, two general problems that must be overcome. The first is that different individuals have tumors with different collections of antigens (proteins), so that generic vaccines are unlikely to be effective; thus patient-specific vaccines are required. The second problem is that the immune system is not an efficient detector of the tumor's foreign antigens. In part this is due to the tumor secreting enzymes that in effect provide a protective cloak preventing such detection. The larger the tumor the stronger is its defense mechanisms to counteract immune-system detection. This is one reason that most vaccines work best when there is a minimum of tumor burden.

Methods to enhance the detection of tumor antigens are now the subject of intensive research, for various types of cancer. For brain tumors the procedure currently being attempted (at UCLA, The Cleveland Clinic, and the Karmanos Cancer Center in Detroit among other places) involves the use of dendritic cells derived from the bone marrow, which have been characterized as "professional antigen-presenting cells". Dendritic cells are co-cultured with cells from the patient's tumor, and stimulated with granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF) and interleukin-4. (GM-CSF is the growth factor used to counteract the decrease in white-cell blood counts due to chemotherapy.) This growth factor causes the mixture of tumor and dendritic cells to be expanded as well. This mixture is then injected into the patient, evoking an increased reaction from the immune system. In a phase -I clinical trial (202) nine newly diagnosed high-grade glioma patients received three separate vaccination spaced two weeks apart. A robust infiltration of T cells were detected in tumor specimens, and median survival was 455 days (compared to 257 days for a control population). A subsequent report (203) involving 8 GBM patients produced a median survival time of 133 weeks, compared to a

median survival of 30 weeks of a comparable set of patients receiving other treatment protocols. Most recently, the same research group (at Cedars-Sinai Medical Center in Los Angeles) reported the results of a clinical trial using chemotherapy after patients received the vaccine protocol. Mean survival for patients receiving only the vaccine was 18 months, with a two-year survival rate of 8%, while those receiving both the vaccine and chemotherapy had a mean survival time of 26 months with a two-year survival rate of 42% (204). The latter figure is among the best in the clinical literature. The authors of the study hypothesized that the improved outcome was due to the vaccine having primed the apoptotic machinery of the cancer cells, such that chemotherapy was then able to trigger the apoptotic pathway.

The fact that immunological treatment procedures have produced at least some degree of success is encouraging, and highlights the need to strengthen the patient's immune function as much as possible. The effects of melatonin and mushroom extracts such as PSK presumably are due to such strengthening, and therefore should be generally useful. But the most impressive evidence for the importance of immune-system function comes from the investigation of POLY ICLC, a double-stranded RNA, which is assumed to work by addressing some as yet unknown tumor suppresser mechanism of the immune system. Its results for AA-III tumors have been truly exceptional: the initial clinical trial with POLY- ICLC (in combination with CCNU for about 1/2 of the patients) reported that all but one patient with AA-III tumors were alive with a median follow-up time of 54 months. It was notably less effective for glioblastomas, with a median survival time of 19 months (but note that this too is greater than the standard treatment). There were minimal side effects except for a mild fever early in treatment. The original clinical trial was conducted at Walter Reed under the direction of Dr. Salazar (205) and was open only to military personnel. A second clinical trial with recurrent glioma patients has also been conducted, but to date its results have not been published. My understanding is that an expanded clinical trial is now in the planning stage. . Contact either Dr. Salazar or Dr. Randall Merchant at the University of Virginia Medical School in Richmond.

The most exciting recent immunological treatments are utilizing viruses. Newcastle disease is a lethal chicken disease, which is caused by a virus that apparently is innocuous to humans, causing only transitory mild flue-like symptoms. It was developed as a cancer treatment in Hungary but has largely been ignored in this country until only recently. A recent paper in the *Journal of Clinical Oncology* reported the first use of a modified Newcastle virus in a phase I trial with various types of advanced tumors (206). Some tumor regressions were observed, along with clear responses of the immune system to the tumor tissue. Another early stage trial (207), again with a modified vaccine derived from the Newcastle virus, was conducted in Germany. Eleven patients with glioblastomas received the vaccine after surgery and radiation and there were noticeable immune responses. However the median survival was 46 weeks, which is not notably different from the standard treatment. However, no toxicity was evident, which strongly suggests that treatment with the Newcastle virus could easily be combined with other treatments.

One reason for believing that the Newcastle virus might increase survival in brain cancer patients is that a phase II study of its use with stage III lymph-node positive melanoma

reported remarkable success, with a 10-year survival rate greater than 60% (208). The developer of the treatment (who is now retired) also recently reported the case histories of five successfully treated five glioblastoma patients using his version of the vaccine (209). Four of these were very young children, and thus atypical of the general GBM population. The report also did not include the number of GBM patients that were unsuccessfully treated. Nevertheless, there are strong reasons to believe that the treatment has considerable potential.

There are several variations of using the Newcastle virus, depending on how the vaccine is prepared. In a German study with 25 glioma patients (210), the patients' tumor cells were infected with the virus and then the infected cells were re-injected for multiple times. Median survival was 92 weeks, compared to 44 weeks to a set of pair-matched controls. The 1-year and 2-year survival rate were 88% and 36% for the patients receiving the vaccine, compared to 40% and 4% for the control patients.

A second virus under investigation in Calgary, Canada is the reovirus, which is found commonly in the human intestines and respiratory system but is innocuous. However, it is apparently lethal to glioma cells, both in the laboratory and in rodents implanted with glioma tumors (211). Its mechanism of action is to co-opt the RAS oncogene pathway, which is activated only in cancer cells. No data from ongoing clinical trials have yet been reported. At last report the investigators are awaiting FDA approval for testing their phase II treatment protocol.

Still a third virus is a modified form of the herpes virus. Initial trials used a retrovirus version, which has the limitation that only the cells that were infected directly by the infused virus were affected, as the virus did not spread beyond cells that were dividing at the time the virus was presented. Subsequent trials have used an adenovirus version, which infects both dividing and non-dividing cells. Because the herpes virus can be lethal to the brain if allowed to proliferate, soon after the virus infusion patients receive ganciclovir, an effective anti-herpes agent. In one study using this technique performed at Mt. Sinai Hospital in New York (212), median survival of 12 patients with recurrent GBM tumors was 59 weeks from the point of treatment, with 50% of the patients alive 12 months after the treatment.. The authors also reported the absence of toxicity from the treatment, which was a major concern due to significant brain damage when the procedure was tested with monkeys. Why the difference from the monkey study's results is unclear.

More recent research with the herpes virus has been focused on forms of the virus that have been engineered to retain the anti-cancer effects of the virus but without its property of producing neurological inflammation. The first use of this modified virus in a clinical trial was in Glasgow, Scotland. Nine patients with recurrent glioblastomas received the virus injected directly into the tumor. Four were alive at the time of the report of the study, 14-24 months after the treatment (213). A subsequent study using this approach, conducted in Finland, reported a median survival time of 62 weeks (for a combination of newly diagnosed and recurrent tumor patients) compared to 38 weeks for a comparable set of control patients. Finally, research is underway to produce a recombinant DNA

version of the polio virus (214), based on findings that the wild version of the virus cures glioma tumors in monkeys. The aim is to find a version of the virus that will retain the ability to kill gliomas but without the paralysis effects that makes polio a feared disease. As yet no clinical trials with this approach have been reported.

Differentiation/Apoptosis Agents

Cancer cells share much in common with fetal cells. Rather than having the specialized properties of mature tissue, they divide rapidly without maturing into the adult form for which they were intended. Differentiation into mature cells is under genetic control, so a major approach to treating cancer is to upregulate the genes that cause the maturation process to occur. Several agents have been identified that serve this differentiation function. Already discussed have been accutane (13-cis retinoic acid) and Vitamin D, but also included in this category are members of the category of aromatic fatty acids, such as phenylbutyrate and phenylacetate. Valproic acid, sometimes used as an anti-convulsant, also is included in this category. Closely related to the control of differentiation are tumor suppressor genes that signal the cell to undergo programmed cell death (apoptosis) when abnormal functions are detected. Unfortunately, the investigation of these differentiation and apoptotic agents has been inhibited because some of the drugs involved are part of the Burzynski anti-neoplaston treatment that has generated enormous controversy. Burzynski is generally considered a pariah by the neuro-oncology community, which has resulted in their derogation of anything associated with his approach. There are several pages of discussion of Burzynski's treatment in my book, cited at the beginning of this article. After years of conflict with the FDA, Burzynski now has approval to conduct clinical trials under FDA supervision. Part of the terms of this agreement is that he supplies detailed records of each of the patients receiving his treatment. Presumably this means that his other reports of his results are reliable. A recent review of those results are presented in an alternative medicine journal (215). Of 80 patients with recurrent glioblastoma tumors, 19% had tumor regressions of greater than 50%, 9% had minor regressions, and 2% had stable disease. Median survival time from the start of treatment was 9 months. A subsequent report (216) of the results from 22 patients had a PFS-6 value of 50%. An individual component of his antineoplaston package is phenylacetate, which is a common fatty acid that smells much like urine, from which it was originally derived. Phenylacetate has been shown to be a potent inhibitor of glioma growth in vitro (cell cultures), and has been subjected to a phase II clinical trial (217). Of forty patients with recurrent gliomas three had significant tumor regression, while another seven had stable diseases. In a second more recent clinical trial using a different dosing schedule (218) there were no objective tumor regressions, but the median survival time was nine months, which is above the norm for patients receiving treatment for recurrent tumors. While the overall response rate in both studies was low, it is important to recognize that phenylacetate is only one of the components of the Burzynski's treatment.

Perhaps more promising than phenylacetate is phenylbutyrate, which is a prodrug for phenylacetate (meaning that it metabolizes into phenylacetate). Laboratory studies have

shown that it strongly inhibits the growth of glioma cells (219), and a recent clinical study has reported a complete regression of an anaplastic astrocytoma tumor, which previously had failed to respond to conventional chemotherapy (220). However, a later report by the same research group reported that this was the only clinical response out of a substantial number of patients. Phenylbutyrate is especially interesting because in laboratory studies it has been shown to be synergistic in its effects with accutane (221), and with Vitamin D (222,223).

References

1. Reni, M. et al.. A retrospective analysis of postradiation chemotherapy in 133 patients with glioblastoma multiforme. *Cancer Investigation*, 2000, 18 (6): 510-515
2. Stupp, R., et al. Radiotherapy plus concomitant and adjuvant temozolomide for glioblastoma. *New England J. Med*, 2005, 352 (22), 987-996
3. Combs, S.E., et al. Temozolomide combined with radiation as first-line treatment in primary glioblastoma multiforme: Phase I/II study. *Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology*, 2004, Abstract No. 1531
4. Hegi, M.E., et al. MGMT gene silencing and benefit from temozolomide in glioblastoma. *New England J. of Med*, 2005, 352(10), 997-1003
5. Blanc, J. L., Correlation of clinical features and methylation status of MGMT gene promoter in glioblastomas. *J. of Neuro-oncology*, 2004, 68 (3), 275-283
6. Iwadate, Y. et al. Promising survival for patients with glioblastoma multiforme treated with individualised chemotherapy based on in vitro drug sensitivity testing. *British Journal of Cancer*, 2003, Vol. 89, 1896-1900
7. Levin, V. A. et al. Phase III randomized postradiotherapy chemotherapy with combination of alpha-difluoromethylornithine-PCV vs. PCV for anaplastic gliomas. *Clinical Cancer Research*, 2003, Vol. 9, 981-990
8. Baumann, F. et al. Combined thalidomide and temozolomide treatment in patients with glioblastoma multiforme. *J. of Neurooncology*, 2004, 67(1-2), 191-2001
9. Wong, E. T., et al. Outcomes and prognostic factors in recurrent glioma patients enrolled onto phase II clinical trials. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, 1999, 17, 257-2
10. Yung, W.K., Future directions for temozolomide therapy. *Seminars in Oncology*, 2001, 28 (4Suppl 13), 43-46
11. Jaeckle, K. A., et al. Phase II evaluation of temozolomide and 13-cis-retinoic acid for the treatment of recurrent and progressive malignant glioma: A NABTC consortium study. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, 21, 2305-2311
12. Groves, M. D., et al. Phase II trial of temozolomide plus the matrix metalloproteinase inhibitor, marimastat, in recurrent and progressive glioblastoma
13. Groves, M.D., et al., A phase II study of temozolomide plus pegylated interferon alfa-2b for recurrent anaplastic glioma and glioblastoma multiforme. 2005 meeting of the American Society of Clinical Oncology, Abstract #1519
14. Gruber, M. L., & Buster, W. P. Temozolomide in combination with irinotecan for treatment for recurrent malignant glioma. *American Journal of Clinical Oncology*, 2004, 27, 33-38

15. Korones D., et al., A phase II trial of temozolomide and oral VP-16 for adults with recurrent malignant glioma. *Proceedings of the Society for Clinical Oncology*, 2003, Abstract No. 447
16. Prados, M. D., et al. Phase 2 study of BCNU and temozolomide for recurrent glioblastoma multiforme: North American Brain Tumor Consortium study. *Neuro-oncology*, 2004, 6, pp. 33-37
17. Barrie, M., et al. Temozolomide in combination with BCNU before and after radiotherapy in patients with inoperable newly diagnosed glioblastoma multiforme. *Annals of Oncology*, 2005, 16(7), 1177-1184
18. Brandes, A. A., et al. First-line chemotherapy with cisplatin plus fractionated temozolomide in recurrent glioblastoma Multiforme: A phase II study of the Gruppo Italiano Cooperativo di Neuro-Oncologia. 2004, 22, pp. 1598-1604
19. Silvani, A., et al. Phase II trial of cisplatin plus temozolomide, in recurrent and progressive glioma patients. *Journal of Neuro-oncology*, 2003, 66, 203-208
20. Newlands, E.S., et al. Phase I study of temozolomide (TMZ) combined with procarbazine (PCB) in patients with gliomas. *British Journal of Cancer*, 2003, 89, 248-251
21. Pannulo, S. et al. Temozolomide plus celecoxib for treatment of malignant gliomas. *Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology*,. 2003, Abstract No. 455
22. Briceno, E., et al. Therapy of glioblastoma multiforme improved by the antimutagenic chloroquine. *Neurosurgical Focus*, 1003, 14(2), e3
23. Puri, T., et al., Role of natural lycopene and phytonutrients along with radiotherapy and chemotherapy in high grade gliomas. 2005 meeting of the American Society of Clinical Oncology, Abstract #1561
24. Matsumoto, S., et al., Cimetidine increases survival of colorectal cancer patients with high levels of sialyl Lewis-X and sialyl Lewis-A epitope expression on tumor cells. *British J of Cancer*, 2002, 86(2), 161-167
25. Lefranc, F., et al., Combined cimetidine and temozolomide, compared with temozolomide alone: significant increases in survival in nude mice bearing U373 human glioblastoma multiforme orthotopic xenografts. *J. of Neurosurgery*, 2005, 102(4), 706-714
26. Chang, S.M., et al. Phase II study of temozolomide and thalidomide with radiation therapy for newly diagnosed glioblastoma multiforme. *Int .J. Radiation Oncology, Biol&Phys.*, 2004, 60 (2), 353-357
27. Butowski, N., et al., A phase II study of concurrent temozolomide and cis-retinoic acid with radiation for adult patients with newly diagnosed supratentorial glioblastoma. *Int. J. of Rad. Oncol., Biol., & Phys.*, 2005, 61(5), 1454-1459
28. Eisenstat, D. D., et al., Chemoradiation or standard radiation followed by adjuvant temozolomide (TMZ) and 13-cis-retinoic acid (CRA) for high grade glioma in adults – a regional cancer centre study. 2005 meeting of the American Society of Clinical Oncology, Abstract #1557
29. Wen, P. Y., et al. Phase II study of temozolomide, thalidomide, and celecoxib for newly diagnosed glioblastoma Ninth Annual Meeting of the Society for Neuro-Oncology, Abstract TA-64

30. Ahmed, T., et al., Phase II trial of thalidomide (TD), tamoxifen (TX), and temozolomide (T) for patients with advanced malignant gliomas (MG). Proceedings of the 2005 meeting of the American Society for Clinical Oncology, Abstract #1575
31. Wick, W., et al. One week on/one week off: a novel active regimen of temozolomide. *Neurology*, 2004, 62, 2113-2115
32. Wick, W., & Weller, M., How lymphooxic is dose-intensified temozolomide? The glioblastoma experience. *J. of Clinical Oncology*, 2005, 20(18), 4235-4236
33. Browder, T., et al. Antiangiogenic scheduling of chemotherapy improves efficacy against experimental drug-resistant cancer. *Cancer Research*, 2000, Vol. 60, pp. 1878-1886
34. . Man, S., et al. Antitumor effects in mice of low-dose (metronomic) cyclophosphamide administered continuously through the drinking water. *Cancer Research*, 2002, Vol. 62, 2731-2735
35. Colleoni, M., et al. Low-dose oral methotrexate and cyclophosphamide in metastatic breast cancer: antitumor activity and correlation with vascular endothelial growth factor levels. *Annals of Oncology*, 2002, Vol. 13, 73-80
36. . Brock, C. S., et al. Phase I trial of temozolomide using an extended continuous oral schedule. *Cancer Research*, 1998, Vol. 58, 4363-4367
37. Khan, R. B., et al. A phase II study of extended low-dose temozolomide in recurrent malignant gliomas. *Neuro-oncology*, 2002, 4, 39-43
38. Tutenberg, J., et al. Continuous low-dose chemotherapy plus inhibition of cyclooxygenase-2 as an anti-angiogenic therapy of glioblastoma multiforme. *J.Cancer Research & Clinical Oncology*, 2004, Sept. 28 E.Pub.
39. Brem, H. et al. Placebo-controlled trial of safety and efficacy of intraoperative controlled delivery by biodegradable polymers of chemotherapy for recurrent gliomas: The Polymer Brain-Tumor Treatment Group. *Lancet*, 1995, Vol. 345 (8956), 1008-1012
40. Valtonen, S. et al. Interstitial chemotherapy with carmustine-loaded polymers for high-grade gliomas: a randomized double-blind study. *Neurosurgery*, 1997, Vol. 41, pp. 44-48
41. . Westphal, M. et al. A phase 3 trial of local chemotherapy with biodegradable carmustine (BCNU) wafers (Gliadel wafers) in patients with primary malignant glioma. *Neuro-oncology*, 2003, 5, 79-88
42. Subach, B. R. et al. Morbidity and survival after 1,3-bis (2-chloroethyl)-1 nitrosourea wafer implantation for recurrent glioblastoma: a retrospective case-matched cohort series. *Neurosurgery*, 1999, Vol. 45, pp. 17-22
43. Limentani, S.A., et al. A phase I trial of surgery, Gliadel wafer implantation, and immediate postoperative carboplatin in combination with radiation therapy for primary anaplastic astrocytoma or glioblastoma multiforme. *J of NeuroOncology*, 2005, 72(3), 241-244
44. Larocca, R.V., et al A phase II study of radiation with concomitant and then sequential temozolomide (TMZ) in patients with newly diagnosed supratentorial high grade malignant glioma who have undergone surgery with carmustine (BCNU) wafer insertion. Proceedings of the 2005 meeting of the American Society for Clinical Oncology, Abstract #1547

45. Yung, W.K., et al. Intravenous carboplatin for recurrent malignant glioma: a phase II study. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, 1991, Vol. 9, pp. 860-864
46. Cloughesy, T. F. et al. Intra-arterial Cereport (RMP-7) and carboplatin: a dose escalation study for recurrent malignant gliomas. *Neurosurgery*, 1999, Vol. 44, pp. 270-278
47. Prados, M. D., et al. A randomized double-blind placebo-controlled phase 2 study of RMP-7 in combination with carboplatin administered intravenously for the treatment of recurrent malignant glioma. *Neuro-oncology*, 5, 96-103
48. Sheleg, S. V., et al. Local chemotherapy with cisplatin-depot for glioblastoma multiforme, *Journal of Neuro-oncology*, 2002, 60, 53-59
49. Cavallo, G., et al. Phase II trial with carboplatin (CBCDA) and etoposide (VP-16) in recurrent high-grade gliomas. *Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology*, 2002, Abstract No. 307.
50. Friedman, H. S. et al. Irinotecan therapy in adults with recurrent or progressive malignant glioma. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, 1999, Vol. 17, 1516-1525
51. Buckner, J. et al. A phase II trial of irinotecan (CPT-11) in recurrent glioma. *Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology*, 2000, Abstract 679A
52. Chamberlain, M. C. Salvage chemotherapy with CPT-11 for recurrent glioblastoma multiforme. *Journal of Neuro-oncology*, 2002, Vol. 56, 183-188
53. Brandes, A.A., et al. Second-line chemotherapy with irinotecan plus carmustine in glioblastoma recurrent or progressive after first-line temozolomide chemotherapy: A Phase II study of the Gruppo Italiano Cooperativo di Neuro-Oncologia (GICNO). *J. of Clinical Oncology*, 2004, 22(23), 4727-4734
54. Puduvalli, V.,K., et al. Phase II trial of thalidomide in combination with irinotecan in adults with recurrent glioblastoma multiforme. 2005 *Proceedings of the American Society for Clinical Oncology*, Abstract #1524
55. Reardon, D.A., et al. Phase II trial of irinotecan plus celecoxib in adults with recurrent malignant glioma. *Cancer*, 2004, 103(2), 329-338
56. Franceschi, E., et al. Phase II trial of carboplatin and etoposide for patients with recurrent high-grade glioma. *British J of Cancer*, 2004, Aug. 10 (E-pub)
57. Gross, M. ., et al. Open-label simultaneous radio-chemotherapy of glioblastoma multiforme with topotecan in adults. *Clinical Neurology and Neurosurgery*, 2005, 107(3), 207-213
58. Boiardi, A., et al. Effect of intratumoral delivery of mitoxantrone in recurrent malignant glial tumors. *Journal of Neuro-oncology*, 2001, 54, 39-47
59. Bowles, A. P. Jr. et al. Use of verapamil to enhance the antiproliferative activity of BCNU in human glioma cells: an in vitro and in vivo study. *Journal of Neurosurgery*, 1990, Vol. 73, pp. 248-253
60. Belpomme, D., et al. Verapamil increases the survival of patients with anthracycline-resistant metastatic breast carcinoma. *Annals of Oncology*, 2000, Vol. 22, pp. 1471-1476
61. Figueredo, A., et al.. Addition of verapamil and tamoxifen to the initial chemotherapy of small cell lung cancer: A phase I/II study. *Cancer*, 1990, Vol. 65, pp. 1895-1902

62. . Huang, C. X. Growth inhibition of epidermal growth factor-stimulated human glioblastoma cells by nicardipine in vitro. *Hunan Yi Ke Da Zue Zue*, 2001, 26, 211-214 (article in Chinese but abstract on PubMed)
63. . Durmaz, R, et al. The effects of anticancer drugs in combination with nimodipine and verapamil on cultured cells. *Clinical Neurology & Neurosurgery*, 1999, 101, 238-244
64. Soma, M. R., et al. Simvastatin, an inhibitor of cholesterol biosynthesis, shows a synergistic effect with N, N'-bis (2-chlorethyl)-N-nitrosourea and beta-interferon on human glioma cells. *Cancer Research*, 1992, Vol. 52, pp. 4348-4355.
65. Loo, T. W. and Clarke, D. M. Blockage of drug resistance in vitro by disulfiram, a drug used to treat alcoholism. *Journal of the National Cancer Institute*, 2000, Vol. 92, pp. 898-902
66. Vitaz, T. W., et al. Brachytherapy for brain tumors. *J. of Neuro-Oncology*, 2005, 73, 71-86
67. Souhami, I. et al. Randomized comparison of stereotactic radiosurgery followed by conventional radiotherapy with carmustine to conventional radiotherapy with carmustine for patients with glioblastoma multiforme: Report of Radiation Therapy Oncology Group 93-05 protocol. *Int. J. of Radiation Oncology, Biol Phys.* 2004, 60(3), 853-860
68. . Cokgor, G. et al. Results of a Phase II trial in the treatment of recurrent patients with brain tumors treated with Iodine 131 anti-tenascin monoclonal antibody 81C6 via surgically created resection cavities. *Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology*, 2000, Abstract 628
69. Reardon, D. A., et al. Phase II trial of murine (131) I-labeled antitenascin monoclonal antibody 81C6 administered into surgically created resection cavities of patients with newly diagnosed malignant gliomas. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, 2002, Vol. 20, 1389-1397
70. . Couldwell, W. T. et al. Clinical and radiographic response in a minority of patients with recurrent malignant gliomas treated with high-dose tamoxifen. *Neurosurgery*, 1993, Vol. 32 (3), pp. 485-489
71. Couldwell, W. T., et al. Treatment of recurrent malignant gliomas with chronic oral high-dose tamoxifen. *Clinical Cancer Research*, 1996, Vol. 2, pp. 619-622
72. Mastronardi, L. et al. Tamoxifen and carboplatin combinational treatment of high-grade gliomas. Results of a clinical trial on newly diagnosed patients. *Journal of Neuro-Oncology*, 1998, Vol. 38, pp. 59-68
73. Puchner, M. J., et al. Surgery, tamoxifen, carboplatin, and radiotherapy in the treatment of newly diagnosed glioblastoma patients. *Journal of Neuro-oncology*, 2000, 49, 147-155
74. . Vertosick, F. T. and Selker, R. G. The treatment of newly diagnosed glioblastoma multiforme using high dose tamoxifen (TMX), radiotherapy and conventional chemotherapy. *Proceedings of the American Association for Cancer Research*, 1997, Abstract # 2887
75. Napolitano, M. et al. Treatment of a supratentorial glioblastoma multiforme with radiotherapy and a combination of BCNU and tamoxifen: a phase II study. *Journal of Neuro-oncology*, 1999, Vol. 45, 229-235

76. . Beretta C. et al. Modified protocol with temozolomide in combination with tamoxifen as adjuvant chemotherapy after surgery of high grade gliomas. Proceedings of the European Association for Neuro-oncology, 2002, Abstract No. 71
77. . Preul, M. C., et al. Using proton magnetic resonance spectroscopic imaging to predict in vivo the response of recurrent malignant gliomas to tamoxifen chemotherapy. Neurosurgery, 2000, Vol. 46, 306-318
78. Hercberts, A. A., et al. Propylthiouracil-induced chemical hypothyroidism with high-dose tamoxifen prolongs survival in recurrent high grade glioma: A phase I/II study. AntiCancer Research, 2003, Vol. 23, 617-626
79. See, S. J. et al. 13-cis-Retinoic acid in the treatment of recurrent glioblastoma multiforme. Neuro-oncology, 2004, 6, 253-258
80. Yung, W. K. A. et al. Treatment of recurrent malignant gliomas with high-dose 13-cis-retinoic acid. Clinical Cancer Research, 1996 Vol. 2, pp. 1931-1935
81. . Wismeth, C., et al. Maintenance therapy with 13-cis retinoid acid in high-grade glioma at complete response after first-line multimodal therapy--a phase II study. Journal of Neuro-oncology, 2004, 68, 79-86
82. . Pili, R., et al. Effect of combination of phenylbutyrate and 13-cis retinoic acid on tumor cell proliferation, in vivo growth and angiogenesis. Proceedings of the American Association for Cancer Research, 1999, Abstract #405
83. Fine, H. A. et al. Phase II trial of the antiangiogenic agent thalidomide in patients with recurrent high-grade gliomas. Journal of Clinical Oncology, 2000, Vol. 18, pp. 708-715
84. . Marx, G. M., et al. Phase II study of thalidomide in the treatment of recurrent glioblastoma multiforme. Journal of Neuro-oncology, 2001, Vol 54, 31-38
85. Glass, J. et al. Phase I/II study of carboplatin and thalidomide in recurrent glioblastoma. Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology, 1999, Abstract #551
86. Fine, H. A., et al. Phase II trial of thalidomide and carmustine for patients with recurrent high-grade gliomas. Journal of Clinical Oncology, 2003, Vol. 21, 2299-2304
87. . Kilic, T., et al. Intracranial inhibition of platelet-derived growth factor-mediated glioblastoma cell growth by an orally active kinase inhibitor of the 2-phenylaminopyrimidine class. Cancer Research, 2000, Vol. 60, pp. 5143-5150.
88. .Wen, P. Y., et al. Phase I study of STI 571 (Gleevec) for patients with recurrent malignant gliomas and meningiomas (NABTC 99-08). Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology, 2002, Abstract # 288
89. . Raymond, E., et al. Multicentre phase II study of imatinib mesylate in patients with recurrent glioblastoma: An EORTC:NDDG/BTG Intergroup study. Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology, 2004, Abstract #1501
90. . Dresemann, G., et al. Imatinib (STI571) plus hydroxyurea: Safety and efficacy in pre-treated progressive glioblastoma multiforme (GBM) patients (pts). Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology, 2004, Abstract #1550
91. Dreseman, G., Imatinib (STI 571) plus hydroxyurea: Safety and efficacy in pre-treated, progressive Glioblastoma Multiforme (GBM) patients –an update on the

- initial 30 patients. Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology, 2005, abstract #91
92. Rich, J. N., et al. Phase II trial of gefitinib in recurrent glioblastoma. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, 2004, 22, 133-142
 93. Uhm, J. H. Phase II study of ZD1839 in patients with newly diagnosed grade 4 astrocytoma. Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology, 2004, Abstract #1505
 94. Raizer, J. J., et al. A phase II trial of erlotinib (OSI-774) in patients (pts.) with recurrent malignant gliomas (MG) not on EIAEDs. Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology, 2004, Abstract #1502
 95. Cloughesy, T., et al., Phase II study of erlotinib in recurrent GBM: molecular predictors of outcome. Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology, 2005, Abstract #1507
 96. Vogelbaum, M. A., et al., Response rate to single agent therapy with the EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitor Erlotinib in recurrent glioblastoma multiforme: Results of a Phase II study, Proceedings of the Ninth meeting of the Society for Neuro-Oncology, 2004, Abstract # TA-59
 97. Prados, M., et al. Phase I study of OSI-774 alone or with temozolomide in patients with malignant glioma. Proceedings of the 2003 ASCO meeting, Abstract #394
 98. Rich, J. N., et al., A phase I trial of gefitinib (Iressa; ZD1839) plus rapamycin for patients with recurrent malignant glioma. Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology, 2005, Abstract # 1565
 99. Chakravarti, A., et al. Insulin-like growth factor receptor I mediates resistance to anti-epidermal growth factor receptor therapy in primary human glioblastoma cells through continued activation of phosphoinositide 3-kinase signaling. *Cancer Research*, 2002, Vol. 62, 200-207
 100. Singh, R. P., et al., Dietary feeding of silibinin inhibits advanced human prostate carcinoma growth in athymic nude mice and increases plasma insulin-like growth factor-binding protein-3 levels. *Cancer Research*, Vol. 62, 3063-3069
 101. Stark-Vance, V., Bevacizumab (Avastin®) and CPT-11 (Camptosar®) in the Treatment of Relapsed Malignant Glioma. Presentation at the meeting of the European Society of Neuro-oncology, April, 2005
 102. Jones, M. K. et al. Inhibition of angiogenesis by nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs: insight into mechanisms and implications for cancer growth and ulcer healing. *Nature Medicine*, 1999, Vol. 5, 1418-1423
 103. Gately, S. The contributions of cyclooxygenase-2 to tumor angiogenesis. *Cancer Metastasis Review*, 2000, 9, 19-27
 104. Altorki, N. K., et al. Celecoxib (Celebrex) a cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) inhibitor, may enhance response to preoperative chemotherapy in patients with resectable non-small cell lung cancer. Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology, 2002, Abstract #101
 105. Derksen, E., et al. Cox-2 inhibitors in PSA recurrent prostate cancer: A pilot study. Proceedings of the American Urological Society, 2002, Abstract # 2930
 106. Dang, C. T., et al. Potential role of selective Cox-2 inhibitors in cancer management. *Oncology*, 2004, 16 (supplement 5) 30-36

107. Kardosh, A., et al. Differential effects of selective COX-2 inhibitors on cell cycle regulation and proliferation of glioblastoma cell lines. *Cancer Biological Ther.*, 2004, 3, 55-62
108. New, P. Cyclooxygenase in the treatment of glioma: Its complex role in signal transduction. *Cancer Control*, 2004, 11, 152-16
109. Giglio, P., & Levin, V. Cyclooxygenase-2 inhibitors in glioma therapy. *American Journal of Therapeutics*, 2004, 11, 141-143
110. Daley, E., et al., Chlorimipramine: a novel anticancer agent with a mitochondrial target. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*, 2005, 328(2), 623-632
111. Beaney, R.P., et al., Therapeutic potential of antidepressants in malignant glioma: clinical experiment with clomipramine. *Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology*, 2005, Abstract #1535
112. Panigrahy, D., et al. Therapeutic potential of thiazolidinediones as anticancer agents. *Expert Opinion on Investigational Drugs*, 2003, 12, 1925-1937
113. Grommes, C., et al. Antineoplastic effects of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma agonists. *The Lancet: Oncology*, 2004, 5, 419-429
114. Morosetti, R., et al. The PPARgamma ligands PGJ2 and rosiglitazone show a differential ability to inhibit proliferation and to induce apoptosis and differentiation of human glioblastoma cell lines. *International Journal of Oncology*, 2004, 25, 493-502
115. Panigrahy, D., et al. PPARgamma ligands inhibit primary tumor growth and metastasis by inhibiting angiogenesis. *Journal of Clinical Investigation*, 2002, 110, 923-932
116. Zang, C., Ligands for PPARgamma and RAR cause induction of growth inhibition and apoptosis in human glioblastomas. *Journal of Neuro-oncology*, 2003, 65, 107-118
117. Vogt, T., et al. Antiangiogenic therapy with pioglitazone, rofecoxib, and metronomic trofosfamide in patients with advanced malignant vascular tumors, *Cancer*, 2003, 98, 2251-2256
118. Lissoni, P., et al. Anti-angiogenic activity of melatonin in advanced cancer patients. *Neuroendocrinology Letters*, , 2001, Vol. 22, 45-47
119. Lissoni, P., et al. Increased survival time in brain glioblastomas by a radioneuroendocrine strategy with radiotherapy plus melatonin compared to radiotherapy alone. *Oncology*, 1996, Vol. 53, pp. 43-46
120. Lissoni, P., et al. Randomized study with the pineal hormone melatonin versus supportive care alone in advanced non-small cell lung cancer resistant to a first-line chemotherapy containing cisplatin. *Oncology*, 1992, Vol. 49, pp. 336-339
121. Lissoni, P., et al. Decreased toxicity and increased efficacy of cancer chemotherapy using the pineal hormone melatonin in metastatic solid tumor patients with poor clinical status. *European Journal of Cancer*, 1999, Vol. 35, pp. 1688-1692
122. Lissoni, P. et al. Five year survival in metastatic non-small cell lung cancer patients treated with chemotherapy alone or chemotherapy and melatonin: a randomized trial. *Journal of Pineal Research*, 2003, Vol. 35, 12-15
123. Lissoni, P., et al. Total pineal endocrine substitution therapy (TPEST) as a new neuroendocrine palliative treatment of untreatable metastatic solid tumor patients: a phase II study. *Neuroendocrinology Letters*, 2003, 24, 259-262

124. . Hayakawa, K., et al. Effect of krestin (PSK) as adjuvant treatment on the prognosis after radical radiotherapy in patients with non-small cell lung cancer. *Anticancer research*, 1993, Vol. 13, pp. 1815-1820
125. . Kaneko, S., et al. Evaluation of radiation immunochemotherapy in the treatment of malignant glioma. Combined use of ACNU, VCR and PSK. *Hokkaido Journal of Medical Science*, 1983, Vol. 58, pp. 622-630
126. Nanba, H. and Kubo, K. Effect of maitake D-fraction on cancer prevention. *Annals of New York Academy of Sciences*, 1997, Vol. 833, pp. 204-207
127. . Naidu, M. R., et al. Intratumoral gamma-linoleic acid therapy of human gliomas. *Prostaglandins Leukotrienes and Essential Fatty Acids*, 1992, Vol. 45, pp. 181-184
128. . Das, U. N. et al. Local application of gamma-linolenic acid in the treatment of human gliomas. *Cancer Letters*, 1994, Vol. 94, pp. 147-155
129. . Bakshi, A, et al. Gamma-linolenic acid therapy of human gliomas. *Nutrition*, 2003, Vol. 19, 305-309
130. Kenny, F. S. et al. Gamma linolenic acid with tamoxifen as primary therapy in breast cancer. *International Journal of Cancer*, 2000, Vol. 85, 643-648
131. Leaver, H. A., et al. Antitumor and pro-apoptotic actions of highly unsaturated fatty acids in glioma. *Prostaglandins, Leukotrienes and Essential Fatty Acids*, 2002, Vol. 66, pp. 19-29
132. Bell, H. S., et al. Effects of N-6 essential fatty acids on glioma invasion and growth: experimental studies with glioma spheroids in collagen gels. *Journal of Neurosurgery*, 1999, Vol. 91, pp. 989-996
133. Palakurthi, S. S. et al. Inhibition of translation initiation mediates the anticancer effect of the n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid eicosapentaenoic acid. *Cancer Research*, 2000, Vol. 60, pp. 2919-2925
134. Gogos, C. A., et al. Dietary omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids plus vitamin E restore immunodeficiency and prolong survival for severely ill patients with generalized malignancy: a randomized control trial. *Cancer*, 1998, Vol. 82, pp. 395-402
135. Hardman, W. E., et al. Three percent dietary fish oil concentrate increased efficacy of doxorubicin against MPA-MB 231 breast cancer xenographs. *Clinical Cancer Research*, 2001,, Vol. 71, pp. 2041-2049
136. van den Bemd, G. J., & Chang, G. T. Vitamin D and Vitamin D analogues in cancer treatment. *Current Drug Targets*, 2002, Vol. 3, 85-94
137. Trouillas, P, et al. Redifferentiation therapy in brain tumors: long-lasting complete regression of glioblastomas and an anaplastic astrocytoma under long-term 1-alpha-hydroxycholecalciferol. *Journal of Neuro-oncology*, 51, 57-66
138. Bollag, W. Experimental basis of cancer combination chemotherapy with retinoids, cytokines, 1, 25-hydroxyvitamin D3, and analogs. *Journal of Cellular Chemistry*, 1994, Vol. 56, 427-435
139. Bernardi, R. J., et al. Antiproliferative effects of 1alpha,25-dihydroxyvitamin D(3) and vitamin D analogs on tumor-derived endothelial cells. *Endocrinology*, 2002, Vol. 143, 2508-2514
140. Danilenko, M., et al. Carnosic acid potentiates the antioxidant and prodifferentiation effects of 1 alpha,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3 in leukemia cells but

- does not promote elevation of basal levels of intracellular calcium. *Cancer Research*, 2003, Vol. 63, 1325-1332
141. Chen, T. C., et al. The in vitro evaluation of 25-hydroxyvitamin D3 and 19-nor-1 alpha, 25-dihydroxyvitamin D2 as therapeutic agents for prostate cancer. *Clinical Cancer Research*, 2000, Vol. 6, 901-908
 142. Kumagai, T., et al. Vitamin D2 analog 19-nor-1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D2: antitumor activity against leukemia, myeloma and colon cancer cell lines. *Journal of the National Cancer Institute*, 2003, Vol. 95, 896-905
 143. Molnar, I., et al. 19-nor-1alpha, 25-dihydroxyvitamin D(2)(paricalcitol): effects on clonal proliferation, differentiation, and apoptosis in human leukemia cell lines. *Journal of Cancer Research and Clinical Oncology*, 2003, Vol. 129, 35-42
 144. Woo, T.C.S, et al. Pilot study: Potential role of Vitamin D (Cholecalciferol) in patients with PSA relapse after definitive therapy. *Nutrition and Cancer*, 2005, 51(1),32-36
 145. Li, D., et al. Soybean isoflavones reduce experimental metastasis in mice. *Journal of Nutrition*, 1999, Vol. 129, pp. 1628-1635
 146. Peterson, G. Evaluation of the biochemical targets of genistein in tumor cells. *Journal of Nutrition*, (1995), 125,S784-789
 147. Khoshyomn, S., et al. Synergistic effect of genistein and BCNU in growth inhibition and cytotoxicity of glioblastoma cells. *Journal of Neuro-oncology*, 2002, Vol. 57, 193-210
 148. Clark, L. C. et al. Effects of selenium supplementation for cancer prevention in patients with carcinoma of the skin. A randomized controlled trial. Nutritional Prevention of Cancer Study Group. *JAMA*, 1996, Vol. 276 (24), pp. 957-1963
 149. Yan, L. et al. Dietary supplementation of selenomethionine reduces metastasis of melanoma cells in mice. *Anticancer Research*, 1999, Vol. 19 (2A), pp. 1337-1342
 150. Sundaram, N., et al. Selenium causes growth inhibition and apoptosis in human brain tumor cell lines. *Journal of Neuro-Oncology*, 2000, Vol. 46, pp. 125-133
 151. Gopalakrishna, R., & Gundimedia, U. Protein kinase C as a molecular target for cancer prevention by selenocompounds. *Nutrition and Cancer*, 2001, Vol. 40, 55-63
 152. Lu, J., & Jiang, C., Antiangiogenic activity of selenium in cancer chemoprevention: metabolite-specific effects. *Nutrition and Cancer*, 2001, Vol. 40, 64-73
 153. Kuroda, Y. and Hara, Y. Antimutagenic and anticarcinogenic activity of tea polyphenols. *Mutation Research*, 1999, Vol. 436, pp. 69-97
 154. Liao, J., et al. Inhibition of lung carcinogenesis and effects on angiogenesis and apoptosis in A/J mice by oral administration of green tea. *Nutrition and Cancer*, 2004, 48, 44-53
 155. Jatoi, A., et al. A phase II trial of green tea in the treatment of patients with androgen independent metastatic prostate carcinoma. *Cancer*, 2003, 97, 1442-1446
 156. Aggarwal, B. B., et al. Anticancer potential of curcumin: preclinical and clinical studies. *Anticancer Research*, 2003, Vol. 23, 363-398
 157. Singh, R. P., et al. Dietary feeding of silibinin inhibits advanced human prostate carcinoma growth in athymic nude mice and increases plasma insulin-like growth factor-binding protein-3 levels. *Cancer Research*, 2002, Vol. 62, 3063-3069

158. Jiang, C., et al. Anti-angiogenic potential of a cancer chemopreventive flavonoid antioxidant, silymarin: inhibition of key attributes of vascular endothelial cells and angiogenic cytokine secretion by cancer epithelial cells. *Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications*, 2000, Vol. 276, 371-378
159. Saller, R., et al. The use of silymarin in the treatment of liver diseases. *Drugs*, 2001, 61, 2035-2063
160. Bokemeyer, C., et al. Silibinin protects against cisplatin-induced nephrotoxicity without compromising cisplatin or ifosfamide anti-tumor activity. *British Journal of Cancer*, 1996, Vol. 74, 2036-2041
161. Scambia, G., et al. Antiproliferative effect of silybinin on gynecological malignancies: synergism with cisplatin and doxorubicin. *European Journal of Cancer*, 1996, Vol. 32A, 877-882
162. Maurer, H. R. Bromelain: biochemistry, pharmacology and medical use. *Cellular & Molecular Life Sciences*. 2001, Vol. 58, 1234-1245
163. Tysnes, B. B., et al. Bromelain reversibly inhibits invasive properties of glioma cells. *Neoplasia*, 2001, Vol. 3, 469-479
164. Kucuk, O. et al. Phase II randomized clinical trial of lycopene supplementation before radical prostatectomy. *Cancer Epidemiology, Biomarkers and Prevention*, 2001, Vol. 10, 861-868
165. Wang, C.J., et al. Inhibition of growth and development of the transplantable C-6 glioma cells inoculated in rats by retinoids and carotenoids. *Cancer Letters*, 1989, 48, 135-142
166. Karas, M., et al. Lycopene interferes with cell cycle progression and insulin-like growth factor I signaling in mammary cancer cells. *Nutrition and Cancer*, 2000, Vol. 36, 101-111
167. Amir, H., et al. Lycopene and 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3 cooperate in the inhibition of cell cycle progression and induction of differentiation in HL-60 leukemic cells. *Nutrition and Cancer*, 1999, Vol. 33, 105-112
168. Safayhi, H. et al. Boswellic acids: novel, specific, nonredox inhibitors of 5-lipoxygenase. *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics*, 1992, Vol. 261, 1143-1146
169. Glaser, T., et al. Boswellic acids and malignant glioma: induction of apoptosis but no modulation of drug sensitivity. *British Journal of Cancer*, 1999, Vol. 80, 756-765
170. Winking, M., et al. Boswellic acids inhibit glioma growth: a new treatment option? *Journal of Neuro-oncology*, 2000, Vol. 46, 97-103
171. Fahey, J. W., et al. Broccoli sprouts: an exceptionally rich source of inducers of enzymes that protect against chemical carcinogens. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 1997, Vol. 94 (19), pp. 10367-10372
172. Zhang, R. X., et al. Laboratory studies of berberine used alone and in combination with 1,3-bis(2-chloroethyl)-1-nitrosourea to treat malignant brain tumors. *Chinese Medical Journal*, 1990, 103, 658-665
173. Tseng, S. H. et al. Resveratrol suppresses the angiogenesis and tumor growth of gliomas in rats. *Clinical Cancer Research*, 2004, 10, 2190-2202
174. Velasco, G., et al., et al. Hypothesis: cannabinoid therapy for treatment of gliomas? *Neuropharmacology*, 2004, 47, 315-323

175. Blasquez, C., et al. Cannabinoids inhibit the vascular endothelial growth factor pathway in gliomas. *Cancer Research*, 2004, 64, 5617-5623
176. Fine, H. A., et al. A phase I trial of CC-5103, a potent thalidomide analog, in patients with recurrent high-grade gliomas and other refractory CNS malignancies. *Proceedings of the 2003 Proceedings of the American Society for Clinical Oncology*, Abstract # 418
177. Conrad, C., et al. A phase I/II trial of single-agent PTK 787/ZK222584 (PTK/ZK), a novel, oral angiogenesis inhibitor, in patients with recurrent glioblastoma multiforme (GBM). *Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology*, 2004, Abstract #1512
178. Reardon, D. et al. A phase I trial of PTK787/ZK222584 (PTK/ZK), an oral VEGF tyrosine kinase inhibitor, in combination with either temozolomide or lomustine for patients with recurrent glioblastoma multiforme. *Proceedings of the 2003 meeting of the American Society for Clinical Oncology*, Abstract #412
179. Fine, H. A., et al. Results from Phase II trial of Enzastaurin (LY317615) in patients with high grade gliomas. *Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology*, 2005, Abstract #1504
180. Nabors, L. B. et al. NABTT 9911: A phase I trial of EMD121974 for treatment of patients with recurrent malignant gliomas. *Ninth Annual Meeting of the Society for Neuro-Oncology*, 2004, Abstract # TA-39
181. . Xin, X, et al. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma ligands are potent inhibitors of angiogenesis in vitro and in vivo. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 1999, Vol. 274, 9116-9121
182. Murata, T., et al. Peroxisome proliferator-activated-receptor-gamma ligands inhibit choroidal neovascularization. *Investigations in Ophthalmology and Visual Science*, 2000, Vol. 41, 2309-2317
183. Gilbertson-Beadling, S., et al. The tetracycline analogs minocycline and doxycycline inhibit angiogenesis in vitro by a non-metalloproteinase-dependent mechanism. *Cancer Chemotherapy and Pharmacology*, 1995, Vol. 36, 418-424
184. Inhibition of MMP synthesis by doxycycline and chemically modified tetracyclines (CMTs) in human endothelial cells. *Advances in Dental Research*, 1998, Vol. 12, 114-118
185. Jousseaume, A. M. et al. Topical application of methotrexate for inhibition of corneal angiogenesis. *Graefes Archives of Clinical and Experimental Ophthalmology*, 1999, Vol. 237, 920-927
186. Guba, M. et al. Rapamycin inhibits primary and metastatic tumor growth by antiangiogenesis: involvement of vascular endothelial growth factor. *Nature Medicine*, 2002, Vol. 8, 128-135
187. Yoshiji, H., et al. The angiotensin-I-converting enzyme inhibitor perindopril suppresses tumor growth and angiogenesis: possible role of the vascular endothelial growth factor. *Clinical Cancer Research*, 2001, Vol. 7, 1073-1078
188. Verheul, H. M. et al. Combination oral antiangiogenic therapy with thalidomide and sulindac inhibits tumour growth in rabbits. *British Journal of Cancer*, 1999, Vol. 79 , pp. 114-118

189. Brewer, G. et al. Treatment of metastatic cancer with tetrathiomolybdate, an anticopper antiangiogenic agent: Phase I study. *Clinical Cancer Research*, 2000, Vol. 6, pp. 1-10
190. Redman, B. G., et al. Phase II trial of tetrathiomolybdate in patients with advanced kidney disease. *Clinical Cancer Research*, 2003, Vol. 9, 1666-1672
191. Brem, S., et al. Phase II trial of copper depletion as angiostatic treatment in newly diagnosed Glioblastoma Multiforme: Final report. *Proceedings of the American Society of Clinical Oncology*, 2004, Abstract #1530
192. Kamen, B. A., et al. High-time chemotherapy or High Time for Low Dose. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, 2000, 18, 2935-2937
193. Gasparini, G. Metronomic scheduling: the future of chemotherapy? *Lancet Oncology*, 2001, 2, 733-740
194. Kerbel, R. S., et al. "Accidental" anti-angiogenic drugs: Anti-oncogene directed signal transduction inhibitors and conventional chemotherapeutic agents as examples. *European Journal of Cancer*, 2000, 36, 1248-1257
195. Chang, S.M. et al. Phase II study of CCI-779 in patients with recurrent glioblastoma multiforme. *Investigational New Drugs*, 2005, 23(4), 357-361
196. Galanis, E., et al. Phase II trial of temsirolimus (CCI-779) in recurrent glioblastoma multiforme: North Central Cancer Treatment Group. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, 2005, July 5 epub
197. Laske, D. W., et al. Tumor regression with regional distribution of the targeted toxin Tf-CRM107 in patients with malignant brain tumors. *Nature Medicine*, 1997, Vol. 3, pp. 1362-1368
198. Weaver, M., & Laske, D. W. Transferrin receptor ligand-targeted toxin conjugate (Tf-CRM107) for therapy of malignant gliomas. *Journal of Neuro-oncology*, 2003, 65, 3-13
199. Prados, M. et al., Final results of Phase I/II studies of IL13-PE38QQR administered intratumorally (IT) and/or peritumorally (PT) via convection-enhanced delivery (CED) in patients undergoing tumor resection for recurrent malignant glioma. *Proceedings of the American Society for Clinical Oncology*, 2005, Abstract #1506
200. Hayes, R. L., et al. Improved long-term survival after intracavitary interleukin-2 and lymphokine-activated killer cells for adults with recurrent malignant glioma. *Cancer*, 1995, Vol. 76, pp. 840-852
201. Plautz, G. E. et al. Systemic T cell adoptive immunotherapy of malignant gliomas. *Journal of Neurosurgery*, 1998, Vol. 89, pp. 42-51
202. Yu, J. S., et al. Vaccination of malignant glioma patients with peptide-pulsed dendritic cells elicits systemic cytotoxicity and intracranial T-cell infiltration. *Cancer Research*, 2001, 61, 842-847
203. Yu, J. S., et al. Vaccination with tumor lysate-pulsed dendritic cells elicits antigen-specific, cytotoxic T cells in patients with malignant glioma. *Cancer Research*, 2004, 64, 4973-4979
204. Wheeler, C. J., et al. Clinical responsiveness of glioblastoma multiforme to chemotherapy after vaccination. *Clinical Cancer Research*, 2004, 10, 5316-5326
205. Salazar, A. M., et al. Long-term treatment of malignant gliomas with intramuscularly administered polyinosinic-polycytidylic acid stabilized with

- polylysine and carboxymethylcellulose: an open pilot study. *Neurosurgery*, 1996, Vol. 38, pp. 1096-1103.
206. Pecora, A. L., et al. Phase I trial of intravenous administration of PV701, an oncolytic virus, in patients with advanced solid cancers. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, Vol. 20, 2251-2266
 207. Schneider, T., et al. Preliminary results of active specific immunization with modified tumor cell vaccine in glioblastoma multiforme. *J of Neuro-oncology*, 2001, Vol. 53, 39-46
 208. Batiwalla, F. M. A 15-year follow-up of AJCC stage III malignant melanoma patients treated postsurgically with Newcastle disease virus (NDV) oncolysate and determination of alteration in the CD8 T cell repertoire. *Molecular Medicine*. 1998, Vol. 4, 783-794
 209. Csatory, L. K., et al. MTH-68/H Oncolytic viral treatment in human high-grade gliomas. *Journal of Neuro-oncology*, 2004, 67, 83-93
 210. Herold-Mende, C., et al. Antitumor vaccination of patients with glioblastoma multiforme in a case-control study: feasibility, safety, and clinical benefit. *Proceedings of the 15th International Conference on Neuro-oncology*, Abstract #50
 211. Wilcox, M. E., et al. Reovirus as an oncolytic agent against experimental human malignant gliomas. *Journal of the National Cancer Institute*, 2001, Vol. 93, 903-912
 212. Germano, I. M., et al. Adenovirus/herpes simplex-thymidine kinase/ganciclovir complex: preliminary results of a phase I trial in patients with recurrent malignant gliomas. *Journal of Neuro-oncology*, 2003, 65, 279-289
 213. Rampling, R. et al. Toxicity evaluation of replication-competent herpes simplex virus (ICP 34.5 null mutant 1716) in patients with recurrent malignant glioma. *Gene Therapy*, 2000, Vol. 7, 859-866
 214. Gromeier, M., et al. Intergeneric poliovirus recombinants for the treatment of malignant glioma. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Science*, 2000, Vol. 97, 6803-6808
 215. Burzynski, S. R., The present state of antineoplastic research. *Integrative Cancer Therapy*, 2004, 3, 47-58
 216. Weaver, R.A., et al. Phase II study of antineoplastons A10 and AS2-1 (ANP) in recurrent glioblastoma multiforme. *Ninth Annual Meeting of the Society of Neuro-Oncology*, 2004, Abstract #TA-62
 217. Chang, S. M., et al. Phase II study of phenylacetate in patients with recurrent malignant glioma: a North American Brain Tumor Consortium report. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, 1999, Vol. 17, 984-990
 218. Chang, S. M., et al. A study of a different dose-intense infusion schedule of phenylacetate in patients with recurrent primary brain tumors. *Investigational New Drugs*, 2003, 21, 429-433
 219. Engelhard, H. H., et al. Inhibitory effects of phenylbutyrate on the proliferation, morphology, migration and invasiveness of malignant glioma cells. *Journal of Neuro-oncology*, 1998, Vol. 37, 97-108
 220. Baker, M. J., et al. Complete response of a recurrent multicentric malignant glioma in a patient treated with phenylbutyrate. *Journal of Neuro-oncology*, 2002, Vol. 59, 239-242

221. Pili, R., et al. Combination of phenylbutyrate and 13-cis retinoic acid inhibits prostate tumor growth and angiogenesis. *Cancer Research*, 2001, Vol. 61, 1477-1485
222. Zheng, X, et al. Synergistic effects of clinically achievable concentrations of 12-O-tetradecanoylphorbol-13-acetate in combination with all trans retinoic acid, 1alpha, 25-dihydroxyvitamin D3, and sodium butyrate on differentiation in HL-60 cells. *Oncology Research*, 2001, Vol. 12, 419-427
223. Matsui, W. H., et al. The role of growth factors in the activity of pharmacological differentiation agents. *Cell Growth and Differentiation*, 2002, 13, 275-283