

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Irreversible electroporation (Nanoknife® treatment) in the field of hepatobiliary surgery: Current status and future perspectives

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Summary

Purpose: We aimed to provide an overview of current understanding on the potential use of irreversible electroporation (IRE) in the field of hepatobiliary surgery with a focus on current results in hepatic and pancreatic cancers, its limitations, and its current directions.

Methods: Through a review of the literature we have gathered the key articles and trials that are shaping our understanding of the current status of IRE and its prospective uses, and organized them in an easily understandable format showcasing the most up to date results.

Results: IRE appears to be comparable in effectiveness and postoperative pain to the more established thermal ablation methods, while having the benefit of avoiding their detrimental thermal effects. In liver cancer, IRE was shown to be efficacious with low levels of local recurrences and only minimal complications. In pancreatic cancer it proved to have significant survival benefits but more significant (al-

though rare) complications compared to the ones seen when IRE is used in liver cancer. Current evidence suggests a promising future for IRE, but clinical randomized control trials, and further developments of treatment protocols are required to come to more stable conclusions on the effectiveness and safety of IRE.

Conclusions: IRE is proving to be an adequate method for the treatment of tumors of the pancreas and liver in cases where traditional methods are unavailable. It has been proven particularly efficacious in patients with masses in close proximity to vital structures such as vessels, as well as major biliary and hepatic structures where thermal methods of ablation would cause significant complications.

Key words: ablation, hepatobiliary surgery, irreversible electroporation, liver cancer, pancreatic cancer, tumor

Introduction

The past 20 years have witnessed much research on the various ablative modalities for the treatment of focal liver and pancreatic tumors. This has led to tumor ablation being a recognized adjunct in the arsenal of hepatobiliary cancer treatment options for patients where surgical

resection is not an option [1,2]. More specifically, ablation is now broadly indicated for patients with inoperable malignancies that do not show spread of the tumor to other parts of the body [3].

Through the use of local ablative modalities, various types of energy can be implemented to

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pass through a tumor in a controlled manner, so as to induce tissue destruction [4,5]. These ablative methods are grouped into thermal and non-thermal modalities which are separated based on the mechanism by which they induce cell death [4]. The most common thermal modality of ablation is Radiofrequency Ablation (RFA), while the most common non-thermal modality of ablation is IRE. Among others, RFA and IRE are reported as the most emerging local ablative methods used in hepatobiliary surgery [6].

Ablative techniques are used to cause a focal destruction of a tumor which in turn has the therapeutic potential to slow down disease progression and improve survival [4,7]. Within the field of hepatobiliary surgery, the aims of ablation include improving quality of life by cytoreduction leading to better symptom palliation, downstaging for subsequent resection, and prolonging survival [1,8,9].

Among hepatobiliary surgeons, IRE is of special interest as its non-thermal properties of ablation allow it to be implemented in anatomical regions which were previously considered inaccessible. More specifically, IRE is a modality of ablation which can be used in the treatment of tumors located near bile ducts and blood vessels which are ineligible for surgical resection or thermal ablation [1].

The IRE procedure itself is performed under general anesthesia, and can be done transcatheterically, laparoscopically, or by open procedure [1,3,10]. The full operation lasts between 2 to 4 hrs, with active ablation times lasting 2 to 3 min [3,10-12]. Under optimal circumstances, IRE allows patients to be discharged as early as the following day [3].

Methods

The review of the literature focused on keyword searches of electronic databases, such as MEDLINE, Embase, Cochrane Library, and Google Scholar for articles dated past the year 2000. Our search terms included 'irreversible electroporation', 'pancreatic cancer', 'liver cancer', 'ablation', 'tumor', 'resection', 'indications', in various configurations. We selected relevant case series, retrospective studies, case-control studies, and narrative and systematic reviews. Through further review of the selected articles and hand-picked references, we formulated this narrative review.

Results

Irreversible electroporation

IRE was first introduced as a method of tumor

ablation by Roubinky's group in 2005 [10,13-15]. Until then, IRE was only known as an unintentional complication of reversible electroporation which was used in conjunction with cytotoxic drugs to treat cancer through electrochemotherapy [10,13]. This led to the first reported *in vivo* use of IRE on animals by Edd et al. in 2006 [14], and the first reported use of IRE on humans by Pech et al. in 2011 [11]. In 2007, Bertacchini et al. were the first to report an IRE system approved for clinical use [12].

Since then, multiple studies have demonstrated the efficacy of IRE in inducing cell death in a multitude of organs [10]. Animal studies have reported successful use of IRE for the ablation of cancers in the liver [13,14,16-18], pancreas [19,20], breast [21], prostate [22], kidney [23], lung [24], brain [25-30], and sarcomas [31,32]. In humans, IRE has been successfully used for the ablation of cancers in the liver [33,34], lung [35,36], pancreas [37-40], kidney [23,41,42], and prostate [43].

IRE works by manipulating the normal electric potential gradient which is present across all cellular membranes. Through creation of electric energy pulses, the transmembrane potential is affected leading to the disruption of the lipid bilayer. This then leads to the creation of permanent pores in the cell membrane which inhibit the cell's ability to maintain homeostasis and thus induces cell apoptosis [1,6,10,13-15,17,44-46].

The unique non-thermal properties of IRE lead to its ability to spare structures with high quantities of collagen and elastic fibers [10]. By keeping the collagen scaffold intact, vital structures such as the pancreatic ducts, bile ducts, portal triad, blood vessels, and nerves can be spared of destruction. Furthermore, these structures are then able to regenerate so as to bring back full function of the cells which were ablated [1,10,13-17,19,20,22,23,33,47-57]. An example of this property is nerve cells ablated through IRE showing a regenerative potential due to the retained intact architecture of the endoneurium and perineurium [1,10,52,55].

IRE is also not affected by heat sink, the cooling effect which is seen in thermal ablative methods mediated by adjacent blood flow in the area of ablation [48,51]. This is of crucial importance to hepatobiliary surgeons as IRE permits the ablation of tumors close to vascular structures [17,22,49,50], which is not an option with thermal ablative techniques due to heat sink.

Finally, IRE is a method which can be performed through minimally invasive procedures,

largely in part to the feasibility of periprocedural imaging [6,10]. Lee et al. [16,17] have demonstrated real-time ultrasound (US) image-guided percutaneous IRE in which a spherical hypoechoic area of ablation is created during and immediately after the procedure. The finding is reported to last 24 hrs before it turns from a hypoechoic area to a hyperechoic area [16,17]. In addition to real-time imaging, studies have also demonstrated the ability of computed tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) to demarcate measurable areas of ablation within the first 24 hrs after ablation [3,6,10,16,25,58-63].

Taking into account the non-thermal properties of IRE including the lack of heat sink, its well demarcated histological borders, and its feasibility with the use of real-time US imaging, IRE enjoys the benefit of being able to be implemented in the ablation of much larger lesions in addition to causing much less complications compared to other ablative methods [10,13-15,17,44,50,64].

IRE compared to thermal ablative methods

As a non-thermal ablative method, IRE differs from other ablative methods in a number of ways. When compared to thermal ablative methods, such as RFA, IRE has a number of advantages that stem from the difference in the mechanism of induced cell death. Namely, IRE induces cell apoptosis compared to RFA which causes coagulative cell necrosis [10]. Apoptosis by IRE leads to cell removal by phagocytosis, meaning that the abil-

ity for innate cellular regeneration by surviving adjacent cells is retained and thus function may return in the ablated region [17,50]. Coagulative necrosis by thermal ablation does not possess this property as protein denaturation in conjunction with the subsequent scarring and fibrosis of the ablated region leads to tissue losing its potential for regeneration [17,50]. In addition to the retained regenerative potential, IRE also benefits from well demarcated borders of ablation which are not seen in thermal ablative methods where heat dissipates to adjacent tissue [17,50].

Some potential drawbacks of IRE which are not seen in other ablative methods stem from the powerful electric field which is required to be applied to the tumor [1]. In particular, these potential complications include cardiac arrhythmias and severe muscle contractions [1,66]. Measures do exist to reduce, or eliminate, the occurrence of these complications. Cardiac arrhythmias may be prevented through the careful use of electrocardiograph (ECG) synchronizers which allow for the administration of electrical field pulses in rhythm with the heart's refractory period [10-12,65-67]. The potential for severe muscle contractions may be reduced through the use of neuromuscular blocking agents, under general anesthesia, to prevent any muscle contractions [10,68]. This can be done during the interval of 90 to 100 IRE electrical pulses typically required for the full administration of ablation, which is synchronized to 90 to 100 heartbeats [10-12].

Table 1. Summary of major IRE trials for liver cancer

<i>Authors</i>	<i>No. of patients</i>	<i>No. of lesions</i>	<i>Tumor type (No. of cases)</i>	<i>Primary efficacy %</i>	<i>Complications</i>	<i>Follow up time</i>
Cannon et al. [34]	44	48	HCC (14) CRLM (20) Other (10)	97	5	12 months
Cheung et al. [72]	11	18	HCC (11)	67	4	18 months
Kingham et al. [33]	28	65	HCC (11) CRLM (21) Other (5)	96	4	6 months
Narayan et al. [70]	21	29	HCC (21)	-	3	-
Nissen et al. [75]	1	1	HCC (1)	100	0	-
Nissen et al. [74]	1	1	CRLM (1)	100	0	-
Scheffer et al. [76]	10	10	CRLM (10)	90	0	4 weeks
Silk et al. [73]	9	19	CRLM (8) Other (1)	-	3	9 months
Sugimoto et al. [77]	5	6	HCC (6)	83	0	9 months
Thomson et al. [67]	13	45	CRLM (6) Other (7)	67	2	-

CRLM:colorectal liver metastasis, HCC:hepatocellular carcinoma

Postoperative pain is a variable that has also been examined. Thus far, the research shows no significant difference in postoperative pain between patients that have undergone IRE and RFA ablation [69,70].

IRE in the field of hepatobiliary surgery

Liver cancer

IRE was found effective for ablating liver malignancies in preclinical studies. In a study of 35 New Zealand White Rabbits implanted with large VX2 liver tumor, those treated with multiple IRE cycles consistently showed complete cell death and complete tumor ablation [71].

In clinical studies IRE was also deemed to be efficacious (Table 1). In a retrospective study of 28 patients treated with IRE, only 4 out of the 65 tumors treated showed local recurrence at 6 months [33] and no mortality was associated with the procedure itself. Another study looking at 44 patients having undergone IRE for liver tumors and metastases near vital structures also showed a 97% initial procedure success rate without any mortality associated to the procedure itself [34]. This study also showed a 94% recurrence free survival at 6 months from the procedure, but that number dropped to 59.5% at the 12-month mark [34]. One other study of 11 patients treated for 18 lesions showed 6 local recurrences within an 18-month follow up [72].

Minimal complications were seen from IRE procedures. Amongst the studies looking at patients having undergone IRE, only few complications were reported, the majority of which were considered to be minor and unrelated to the IRE itself. The relevant complications related to IRE included pneumothorax, pleural effusion, hemothorax, transient arrhythmias, uncontrolled muscle contractions, transient increase in systolic blood pressure, pain, liver capsule puncture without subcapsular hemorrhage, neurogenic bladder, and different-sites pain [34,67,69,70,72-77].

Pancreatic cancer

Initially trialed in swine, IRE was found efficacious in producing irreversible cell death in healthy pancreatic tissue in two independent studies [19,20]. It was also observed that if the spacing between the probe was more than 15 mm with the lower voltage used, the electroporation was reversible [19]. A study in 40 mice implanted with human pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma, 24 of which were treated with IRE, once the tumor grew to 2-5 mm in diameter a 25% complete ablation rate was noticed with an 18% recurrence rate, increasing the median survival from 42 days in the untreated group to 88 days in the IRE group [57].

Fewer clinical studies have been performed on the use of IRE for pancreatic cancer (Table 2). Martin et al. released the first trial of IRE on pancreatic cancer showing only one single 90-day mortality out of the 27 patients that underwent the intervention [37]. Also two studies by Narayanan et al. [39] with 14 patients and Martinet et al. [40] with 54 patients showed no mortality. A multicenter study by Philips et al. showed a demonstrable learning curve of at least 5 cases before becoming proficient with the use of IRE [78] suggesting that training has the capacity to decrease those rates.

Complications encountered in pancreatic IRE are incomplete ablation, duodenal leaks, pancreatitis, nausea/vomiting, infection, severe pain, DVT with PE, bile leak, biliary strictures, pancreatic abscess, and pancreaticoduodenal fistula [37,39,40,78-80]. A contraindication to the procedure would be prior presence of a metallic bile stent, as it could lead to perforation of the duodenum and colon, and potentially death by hemorrhage [80].

Mortality data from varying sources following IRE procedures, in addition to standard chemotherapy, have shown survival ranging from medians of 7.5 months to 24.9 months [37-40,78,79],

Table 2. Summary of major IRE trials for pancreatic cancer

<i>Authors</i>	<i>No. of patients</i>	<i>Primary efficacy (%)</i>	<i>Complications (No. of patients)</i>	<i>Follow up time</i>
Bagla et al. [38]	1	100	0	6 months
Martin et al. [37]	27	96	4	90 days
Martin et al. [40]	54	94	32	12 months
Martin et al. [79]	200	-	74	20 months
Narayanan et al. [39]	14	100	4	14 months
Paiella et al. [80]	10	100	2	15 months
Philips et al. [78]	59	-	-	18 months

with the largest study of 200 patients showing a median survival of 24.9 months [79].

Current status and future perspectives of IRE

IRE is a relatively new ablative method that has not yet seen wide implementation and requires further research to examine its efficacy and safety. In the UK, IRE is only partly offered by the National Health Service (NHS) through few clinical trials, or can be performed privately at a price of roughly 15,000 pounds [3]. With regard to the current status of scientific knowledge on IRE, there is still insufficient evidence to safely come to conclusions about its long term benefits [6]. In addition, higher level research studies such as randomized controlled trials comparing IRE to other ablative methods are still not available in the literature [6]. A number of topics that are yet to be fully investigated and answered in IRE include its potential for adverse thermal effects, its necessity for an immune reaction following ablation, the potential use of concurrent electrochemotherapy, novel methods of monitoring ablation, and determining the ultimate treatment protocol.

Currently, IRE is described as a non-thermal ablative process, however tissue damage due to thermal energy has been reported in the literature [1,82]. More specifically, heat damage following IRE has been described immediately adjacent to the IRE electrodes [82], as well as around metallic stents which could be heated up due to the conductive nature of the metal [6,84]. As the possibility of thermal injury and occlusion of vital structures during IRE has not yet been ruled out, it has been recommended that electrodes should be placed at least 2 mm away from central bile ducts, pancreatic ducts, and intestinal tissue [1,73].

Another field of interest for its potentials in the use of IRE ablation is the molecular events that take place following the procedure. One such example is the involvement of the immune system after performing IRE [6]. While there is evidence to support enhanced immune antitumor stimulation after IRE [84,85], Al-Sakere et al. demonstrated a lack of local infiltration of tumor cells in the ablated tissue [31]. This is a point of interest as further evidence to support a lack of immune system involvement in the process of ablation could lead to the successful implementation of IRE in immunosuppressed patients [6]. An additional point of interest in the molecular level is the concurrent use of electrochemotherapy to kill any remnant tumor cells [1,86]. Successful use of concurrent electrochemotherapy has the poten-

tial for a reduced rate of recurrence, especially for larger tumors which currently show the greatest likelihood of local recurrence [33,34,67,72,73].

Further knowledge on the monitoring methods and their capabilities in IRE is also required. In addition to monitoring IRE ablation by US, CT, and MRI in the first 24 hrs, particular interest exists in the results of real-time monitoring modalities, and their subsequent correlations to long-term treatment outcomes [1,16,63,71,87]. Potential interest for IRE monitoring also exists in the measurement of changes in the electric conductivity of the ablated tissue. This is a technique reported as another potential mode of measuring the ablation effect [1,87-90].

One more frontier in our current knowledge of IRE with great potential to enhance our future implementation of this technique is the treatment protocol. The outcome of ablation by IRE depends on a number of IRE parameters (number, shape, and length of electrical pulses, interval between pulses, field amplitude, polarity) [10,91], and cell parameters (type, morphology, age, size) [10,15,92-97]. Determining the ideal IRE parameters for the treatment protocol by mathematical models has proven difficult, as tumor cell populations *in vivo* are never homogeneous and always in different stages of development [10,91]. This adds a considerable level of complexity in finding ideal IRE treatment protocols [10,91].

Last but not least, reports in the literature identify accurate electrode placement as the most challenging IRE parameter to optimize, even with an open surgical approach [10,98]. Updated electrodes, electrode stabilizers, and imaging guiding systems are currently being researched and their results are awaited [10].

Conclusion

In conclusion, IRE appears to be a promising technique in the field of hepatobiliary surgery. It emerges as an adequate method for the treatment of tumors of the pancreas and liver in cases where traditional methods are unavailable or deemed to have a high risk for complications. IRE has been proven particularly efficacious in patients with masses in close proximity to vital structures such as vessels, as well as major biliary and hepatic structures. It is of major importance that IRE avoids thermal effects where traditional methods of ablation would cause significant complications related their thermal effects. As rigorous studies addressing much of the unknown variables left to

be polished, we strongly believe that IRE is set to become the next breakthrough in late-stage pancreatic and liver cancer treatment.

Conflict of interests

The authors declare no conflict of interests.

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