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World Journal of Hematology

Contents

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- | | | |
|--------------------|----|---|
| EDITORIAL | 18 | <i>Ex vivo</i> expansion of hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells: Recent advances
<i>Kita K, Xiu F, Jeschke MG</i> |
| REVIEW | 29 | Anti-CD20 monoclonal antibodies and associated viral hepatitis in hematological diseases
<i>Yang SH, Hsu C, Cheng AL, Kuo SH</i> |
| CASE REPORT | 44 | Chronic disseminated candidiasis complicated with a ruptured intracranial fungal aneurysm in ALL
<i>Okawa T, Ono T, Endo A, Takagi M, Nagasawa M</i> |

Contents

APPENDIX I-V Instructions to authors

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Ex vivo expansion of hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells: Recent advances

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Abstract

Hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs) have become the most extensively studied stem cells and HSC-based cellular therapy is promising for hematopoietic cancers and hereditary blood disorders. Successful treatment of patients with HSC cells depends on sufficient number of highly purified HSCs and progenitor cells. However, stem cells are a very rare population no matter where they come from. Thus, *ex vivo* amplification of these HSCs is essential. The heavy demands from more and more patients for HSCs also require industrial-scale expansion of HSCs with lower production cost and higher efficiency. Two main ways to reach that goal: (1) to find clinically applicable, simple and efficient methods (or reagents) to enrich HSCs; (2) to find new developmental regulators and chemical compounds in order to replace the currently used cytokine cocktails for HSCs

amplification. In this Editorial review, we would like to introduce the current status of *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs, particularly focusing on enrichment and culture supplements.

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Key words: Hematopoietic stem cell; *Ex vivo* expansion; Serum-free culture; Cell surface markers; Enrichment; Stem cell isolation

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INTRODUCTION

The early evidence and definition of hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs) came from studies of people exposed to lethal doses of radiation in 1945 and the pioneering studies by Till and McCulloch^[1]. But it took until late 1980s and early 1990s for researchers to show the isolation and characterization of HSCs from human and rodents^[2-4]. Since then, HSCs have become the most extensively studied stem cells (SCs), and HSC-based cellular therapy is promising to treat hematopoietic cancers, such as leukemia and lymphoma, and hereditary blood disorders such as inherited anemia.

HSCs are a small sub-set of SCs generated by the bone marrow (BM) niche which are essential for self-renewal and derivation of whole blood systems. Therefore, any deficiency of HSCs will cause serious, mostly fatal, outcomes as seen in patients of hematopoietic malignancies treated with high doses of chemotherapy and radiation. To treat patients with these complica-

tions, BM transplantation has been widely used since 1980s. Although whole BM transplantation used to be the only clinically viable option, increased numbers of *ex vivo*-expanded HSCs isolated from either the BM, or peripheral blood or cord blood cells are being used for current transplantation procedures in clinics. Currently, approximately 3000 clinical trials can be found in US with 1/3 of trials focused on the applications of HSCs for leukemia treatment (<http://www.clinicaltrials.gov/>). Hereafter we use the term HSCs to represent both HSCs and hematopoietic progenitor cells. We should emphasize that cells used in clinical settings are HSC-enriched but do contain progenitors. Thus, the term “HSCs” used throughout this review includes the CD34⁺ fraction. HSCs only constitute a very minor fraction of the whole blood or BM cells, 1/10000 for BM SCs and 1/100000 for peripheral blood SCs. Thus, it is absolutely essential to develop large-scale culture methods for *ex vivo* expansion. Although HSC culture is the most advanced system among SC culture, further improvement of *ex vivo* culture for HSC expansion is important. Particularly, animal product (*e.g.*, serum)-free cell culture media will be one of the most important factors to be considered. In this short review, we would like to introduce the current status of *ex vivo* culture of HSCs and the most recently emerging reagents. Although culture devices (such as bioreactors) are another important component in *ex vivo* expansion, the main purpose of this Editorial review is to concisely summarize the new advances in enrichment of HSCs and *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs. For additional information on culture devices, we recommend reading Nielsen’s excellent review^[5]. We also suggest a few recent review articles that nicely and concisely summarized recent advances in the area of *ex vivo* expansion of hematopoietic stem/progenitor cells^[6,7].

SOURCES OF HSC

There are potentially three main sources of hematopoietic stem cells for transplantation - BM, peripheral blood stem cells and umbilical cord blood stem cells. Table 1 summarizes advantages and disadvantages of 3 sources. Over the past 40 years, BM transplantation and stem cells isolated from BM has been widely used to treat numerous malignant and nonmalignant diseases. In spite of increasing therapeutic applications utilizing G-CSF to mobilize HSCs into circulation and CD34⁺ cells are collected^[8], BM cell isolation is still a widely accepted HSC source worldwide^[9,10]. However, isolation of HSCs from BM is not a comfortable experience for donors, and it carries the risk of infection transmission. Increasing numbers of studies have used umbilical cord blood (UCB) as an alternative source to obtain HSCs. UCB has fewer ethical issues for obtaining cells, rapid availability and reduced stringency for HLA matching^[11] make them another promising source of HSC for transplantation. Probably because of lower effective infused cell dose, slower engraftment of UCB-derived HSCs than BM-derived HSCs has been reported^[12,13]. In addition, some

progenitor cell populations (myeloid progenitors) in UCB were reported to be more chemoresistant^[14], which could be beneficial when combined with high-dose chemotherapies. The most recent study describing the isolation of single HSC capable of long-term, multi-lineage engraftment derived from UCB, which suggests UCB cell may contain functionally most primitive HSCs^[15]. Although UCB is likely to be more popular as a source to obtain HSCs, further research and careful examinations will certainly be necessary to determine the pros/cons, similarities/differences, and quantity/quality of HSCs isolated from both BM and UCB.

ENRICHMENT OF HSC

As previously mentioned, Weismann’s group was the first group demonstrating isolation and purification of HSCs (from mouse BM)^[2]. This first study used multiple HSC markers including Thy-1^{low}, Lin⁻ and Sca-1⁺, a widely used criteria nowadays, to purify HSCs^[2]. Note that Sca-1 is not found in human HSCs. Since HSCs are a very rare population in whole BM cells (1 in 10000-15000 BM cells), enrichment of HSCs certainly is a very important step for effective *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs. CD34 is a widely recognized cell surface marker to enrich HSCs (as reviewed in^[16]). Immunoselection based on cell surface CD34 expression is well accepted in clinical settings, although it should be noted that the CD34⁺ fraction does contain many progenitor cells such as endothelial progenitor cells^[17]. Since a CD34⁺ fraction still consists of crude cell populations, a CD34⁺CD38⁻ fraction may contain a higher percentage of primitive HSCs^[18]. Therefore, a CD34⁺CD38⁻Lin⁻Sca-1⁺ selection criteria may be reasonable for selecting a highly enriched, primitive fraction of HSCs. c-Kit (stem cell factor receptor/CD117)^[19,20] and CD133^[21,22] are also the markers for the selection, although combination of too many antibodies may not be realistic in clinical settings because of a significant loss of HSCs during purification. We would like to note that these selections would certainly help enrich for higher quality HSCs; however, the above processes are still not enough to identify a nearly pure, HSC population. Most recently, John Dick’s group isolated single hematopoietic stem cells^[15] whose phenotype is Lin⁻CD34⁺CD38⁻Thy1⁺CD45RA⁻Rho^{low}CD49f⁺ can regenerate the entire hematopoietic system.

It should also be noted that there is evidence showing a considerable number of HSCs can be CD34 negative^[23-25]. There are two possibilities accounting for why some studies have shown apparently different trends (cite examples of CD34 negative). First of all, CD34-positive and -negative cells may be interchangeable^[26]. This means that HSCs may retain CD34 in intracellular compartments upon induction of cell surface CD34 molecules. Since the majority of anti-CD34 antibodies used for flow cytometric analyses recognize the extracellular domain of CD34, CD34 expression will appear to be negative when intracellular accumulation of CD34 occurs (unless the plasma membrane of the cells are

Table 1 Comparison of the sources for hematopoietic stem cells

	Advantages	Disadvantages
Bone marrow	1 The longest history as a source of HSC 2 Well established procedure	1 High stringency for HLA matching 2 Some complications associated with harvesting 3 Risk of GVHD
Umbilical cord blood	1 Off-the-shelf availability 2 Reduced stringency for HLA matching 3 Low risk of infection/transmission 4 Absence of donor risk	1 Delayed engraftment 2 Lower yield 3 Lack of additional immune cells
Peripheral blood	Compared to BM, 1 More comfortable for donors 2 Better yield with mobilization	1 Extremely low level of HSC (1/100000) without “mobilization” 2 Risk of GVHD

HSC: Hematopoietic stem cell; HLA: Human leukocyte antigen; BM: Bone marrow; GVHD: Graft-versus-host disease.

Table 2 Cell-surface makers of undifferentiated hematopoietic stem cells

Mouse	Human
CD34 ^{low/-}	CD34 ^{low/-}
Sca-1 ⁺	Sca-1 ⁺
CD90/Thy-1 ^{+/low}	CD90/Thy-1 ^{+/low}
c-Kit ⁺	c-Kit ⁺
CD38 ⁺	CD38 ⁺
CD150 ⁺	CD7
Side population (high hoechst-efflux activity)	CD49f ⁺
CD48 ⁻	Rhodamine 123 ^{low}
CD244 ⁻	CD133/AC133 ⁻
Lin ⁻	CD45RA ⁻
	Lin ⁻

permeabilized). The exact mechanism why CD34⁺ HSCs and CD34^{low} HSCs have interchangeable phenotypes remains unresolved. In mouse, the most primitive HSCs can be either CD34⁺ or CD34^{low}. Nevertheless, human HSCs can be found in CD34⁺ fraction^[27] (Table 2). The other potential pitfall is a technical issue related to anti-mouse CD34 monoclonal antibodies (mAbs). There are several anti-mouse CD34 mAbs available to stain cell surface CD34. At least two clones widely used among researchers, clones MEC14.7^[28] and HM34^[29], have different characteristics in regard to staining. HM34 is reported to be unable to stain CD34 expression on marrow cells by some unknown mechanism. In addition, clone MEC14.7 is known to show relatively low affinity against CD34; therefore, it is recommended to incubate the mAb with samples for a prolonged period of 90-120 min (in contrast, the majority of commonly used protocols in flow cytometry suggest a 30-60 min incubation). Some of the murine HSC studies might not have carefully checked these technical tips requiring careful interpretation of studies reporting CD34 mouse HSCs.

It should likewise be noted that positive selection leaves antibodies attached on the cell surface which may not be favorable in terms of quality control issues. Furthermore, as most recently discussed by Lodish's group^[30], the large amount of antibodies used for a clinical scale (10⁹ per unit for cord blood transplantation) will certainly raise the cost for purification of HSCs. Therefore, development of chemical or enzymatic

activity-based substrates may be a great advantage to enrich HSCs in clinical settings. Chemical substrates could help lowering production costs, and simplifying quality control compared to mAbs. In addition, substrate-based selection may shorten the time and reduce the labors to prepare a HSC-rich fraction. Interestingly, hematopoietic progenitor cells have been shown to highly express cytosolic aldehyde dehydrogenase (ALDH)^[31]. A fluorescent dye-conjugated ALDH substrate, developed by Storms and colleagues^[32], enabled them to conduct a relatively simple, ALDH activity-based selection of HSCs and hematopoietic progenitor cells. Prior to this method, side populations selected based on influx of the DNA staining dye, Hoechst 33342 had been reported^[33-36]. The combination of Hoechst dye efflux activity and ALDH activity was first shown by Pearce and Bonnet^[37]. Their study showed that Hoechst side population (SP) only contained CD34⁺ cells, thus, SP-based selection may not be suitable to enrich certain sub-populations such as CD34⁺CD38⁺ cells; which suggests that, at least in mouse, SP may not contain the most primitive HSC. Therefore, further studies need to confirm whether SP contains the primitive HSC population in humans. The authors concluded that Hoechst exclusion may not be appropriate for HSC isolation^[37]. It was also reported that Hoechst 33342 is even more toxic than the other most commonly used DNA staining dye, 4',6-diamidino-2-phenyl indole dihydrochloride^[38], by interrupting DNA topoisomerase I^[39]. Topoisomerases play an essential role in cutting damaged DNA during DNA replication. Even temporary inhibition of a topoisomerase, might cause accumulation of unfavorable mutations during *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs; therefore, careful assessment on the long-term effects of the use of Hoechst 33342 must be assessed to pursue an application of Hoechst 33342 for HSC selection. Overall, currently ALDH-based selection may be the best option to sort/enrich HSCs.

Although it is very important to explore the best set of markers to purify the most primitive fraction of HSCs for *ex vivo* expansion and transplantation, significant technical hurdles exist. The combination of many surface antigens to purify HSCs causes a considerable reduction of the number of cells, which may limit the application in clinical settings. The other potentially impor-

tant issue is that maintaining the capacity of self-renewal while preserving the primitive capabilities of these HSCs during expansion of HSCs may require paracrine signals from other less primitive progenitor cells or differentiated leukocytes in culture. As we will describe in the following section, keeping the number of primitive HSCs in HSC-enriched (but still crude) fractions is certainly important. In fact, a simple CD34⁺ fraction gives cells with enough *ex vivo* expansion capacity^[40] to be used in clinical settings. In addition, the most “primitive” HSCs are quiescent, and rapid proliferation of these cells may cause the loss of primitive HSCs^[41]. Therefore, rapid expansion of the small number of HSCs may often force HSCs to exit from the resting cycle and lead to HSC exhaustion. It is worthy of note that a nearly pure HSC fraction may not be suitable for large-scale expansion. Another critical issue needs to consider is the long-term repopulation capability of *ex vivo*-expanded fractions. This capability may depend on the number of primitive HSCs after *ex vivo* culture. Therefore, from the clinical stand point, the most important goal in *ex vivo* expansion of HSC may be to develop simple and efficient protocols to obtain HSC-enriched fractions containing a sufficient number of HSCs that would result in satisfactory *in vivo* engraftment after transplantation. Faster recovery of the number of neutrophils in the body seems to be an indicator of successful engraftment of transplanted cells^[42], which again justifies the possible advantage of HSC-enriched fractions over nearly pure HSCs. In summary, even great efforts have been made to search the markers for HSCs, it is important to stress that none of the surface markers is entirely specific to the long-term HSCs.

EX VIVO CULTURE MEDIA FOR HSC EXPANSION

Since the limited number of HSCs is the major obstacle in clinical applications of *ex vivo*-expanded HSCs, successful *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs is one of the critical determinants emphasized throughout this review. This is particularly important for adult patients, who require increased units of HSCs in comparison to pediatric patients. The HSC field is relatively well established in comparison to the other SCs, and serum-free culture systems have already been used to expand HSCs. Development of serum-free culture is necessary to avoid the use of animal products such as bovine serum. As mentioned above, it is very important to avoid the use of animal products: (1) to prevent transmission of any possible diseases from animals, such as Creutzfeldt-Jacob disease (caused by Prion protein); (2) to achieve good quality control of expanded cells. In addition, accumulation of animal serum proteins in HSCs might increase the risk of host immune response upon transplantation of *ex vivo* cultured HSCs. The current research has focused on a cytokine cocktail-based culture to allow significant expansion of enriched HSCs.

Another major hurdle in current *ex vivo*-expanded HSCs (or HSC-enriched units) in their clinical applications is that some primitive HSCs are lost during *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs. Since the most primitive HSCs are thought to be in a resting state, the goals to achieve rapid expansion of HSCs and retain primitive HSCs stand at odds to one another. Therefore, to achieve better clinical outcomes (to reduce morbidity and mortality after transplantation of *ex vivo*-expanded cells), it is also essential to improve the number of long-term repopulating cells; *i.e.*, to maintain the number of primitive cells that retain self-renewal capacity. We will address this issue later in the section “Expansion versus *in vivo* reconstitution”. Co-culture of feeder cells such as a monolayer of mesenchymal stem cells with HSCs may be a better method, since theoretically feeder cell layers should be able to provide a physiologically more relevant environment (stromal cell-HSC interaction and simultaneous feeding of sets of growth factors/cytokines that facilitate expansion of HSCs without unfavorable differentiation). However, co-culture with a feeder cell layer is not suitable for large-scale culture, and thus is difficult to translate into clinical settings. Most recently, an attempt to introduce computer simulations was made to help understand complicated paracrine mechanisms involving progenitor cells and differentiated cells in HSC culture^[43]. This study may bring a paradigm shift in *ex vivo* culture of HSCs. In the following sub-sections, we would like to discuss emerging substrates as well as currently used soluble factors.

Soluble factors (*i.e.*, growth factors and cytokines)

Soluble factors, such as Flt3/Flk2 ligand^[44,45], stem cell factor (SCF)^[46,47], interleukin-3 (IL-3)^[48-50], IL-6^[51], and thrombopoietin (Tpo)^[52-54] are commonly used as culture supplements for HSCs. Flt3/Flk2 ligand was discovered as a factor promoting proliferation of primitive hematopoietic cells, and^[55] is more effective than SCF^[56], although SCF probably has the longest history as a supplement. IL-3's effect *in vitro* was first reported by Spivak *et al*^[57]. However, there is a report showing the suppression of the number of colony-forming cells by IL-3^[58], thus, the effect of IL-3 may need careful re-evaluation. This study also showed that IL-3 reduced the reconstituting activity of HSCs in a mouse model system^[58]. Other interleukins, such as IL-7 and IL-11, are also included as additional supplements in serum-free culture systems because of their potential to promote HSC proliferation. IL-7 was originally discovered as an interleukin that stimulated proliferation of B cell progenitors in mouse^[59]. Although IL-7 alone did not show significant expansion of Lin⁻Sca-1⁺ HSCs, potent synergistic effect on proliferation of Lin⁻Sca-1⁺ HSCs was observed when IL-7 was combined with IL-3^[60]. IL-11 was cloned as a gene product produced by BM-derived stromal cell lines in 1990^[61], and the following study by Ogawa's group showed that IL-11 could also synergistically help expansion of primitive hematopoietic progenitor cells with either IL-3 or IL-4^[62].

One interesting study showed that gp130 signaling

(*via* IL-6) synergistically enhanced the effect of Flt3 ligand^[63] as well as SCF^[64]. Interestingly, IL-6 alone was not enough to trigger this effect^[48,63,64]. These findings suggest that gp130 signaling appears to be somewhat supportive in its role of potentiating the effects of SCF and Flt3 ligand as culture supplements. Commonly-used cytokine cocktails often contain IL-6. Sustained activation of the Janus kinase (JAK)-STAT signaling pathway may be an important element in *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs. It is noteworthy that thrombopoietin was reported to activate JAK-STAT signaling and thereby helping to protect CD34⁺ cells from apoptosis in serum-free media^[65]. Moreover, activation of c-Kit and gp130 was shown to synergistically induce thrombopoietin production by cord blood CD34⁺ cells themselves^[66]. It should note that there is a report describing impaired engraftment of murine BM cells cultured in the presence of IL-6^[67]. Similar to IL-6, it was reported in the same year that IL-3 reduced the number of colony-forming cells^[58], impaired engraftment might be mainly associated with IL-3 in the culture. It was surprising that SCF and some of the interleukins could have adverse effects upon transplantation^[67]; although SCF is a well-accepted growth factor for serum-free culture of HSCs or HSC-enriched fractions. In addition to the previously mentioned cytokines, fibroblast growth factors (FGFs) were also found to be effective to help *in vitro* culture of whole blood cells or enriched hematopoietic cells^[68,69]. The later study also showed that FGF receptors were not expressed on human CD34⁺ cells^[70]. Thus, the effect of FGF may be controversial.

Recent studies by Lodish have added three endothelial growth factors (angiopoietin-like 5, insulin-like growth factor-binding protein 2, and pleiotrophin) as potential soluble factors that may further help *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs^[71].

Although great efforts has been made to improve the rate of HSC engraftment, *ex vivo* cytokine-based expansion protocols may have reached plateau. The use of cytokine cocktails can raise the cost for *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs, too. Therefore, there are a great need of additional factors/molecules in order to support HSC self-renewal and amplification *in vitro*.

Exposure to developmental regulators

It has been suggested recently that some developmentally conserved pathways or transcriptional factors are important in the regulation of the adult stem cell compartment, such as wingless-type (Wnt), Notch, Hox transcription factors and Sonic hedge hog Shh/BMP signaling^[72]. Among them, Notch signaling is the most extensively studied. Notch ligand may be the most promising recombinant protein product to assist in *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs. In 1994, CD34⁺ cells were shown to express high levels of the human homolog of *Drosophila* Notch^[73], and this initial observation led to hypothesize the role of Notch signaling in maintenance of undifferentiated status of HSCs. Immobilized Notch ligand (Delta-1) was shown to dramatically increase (up to

approximately 100-fold) the number of CD34⁺ cells^[74]. More importantly, the expanded cells enhanced repopulating ability of hematopoietic cells in NOD/SCID mice^[74]. The effectiveness of Notch ligand was further confirmed by a follow-up study by the same group^[75]. The outcome of their clinical trial is very encouraging, because preliminary data of a phase I clinical trial showed engraftment of the CD34⁺ cord blood cells has significant advantage over the controls including shorter periods for neutrophil recovery after transplantation^[75]. One potential side-effect of Delta-1 is that it has potential to cause density-dependent apoptosis of cells^[76], and it is necessary to carefully control ligand density to minimize the loss of cells or unfavorable phenotypic changes during expansion. Interestingly, the most recent study by Rafii's group highlighted the critical role of Notch signaling in the BM microenvironment, where Notch activation by BM endothelium is essential for self-renewal of long-term HSCs^[77]. This study clearly indicates that Notch signaling is a naturally-occurring, critical signal for maintenance of HSCs.

Besides Notch 1 ligand, TAT (HIV virus-derived cell permeable peptide)-tagged HOXB4 protein was shown to be effective to expand HSCs *in vitro*^[78]. The advantage of TAT-HOXB4 protein over Notch ligands is the lack of a requirement to immobilize it onto the culture apparatus. Overexpression of HOXB4 had been shown to be one of the most potent stimulators of HSC expansion^[79,80]; however, recently it was reported that there was high incidence of leukemia in large animals two years after receiving HOXB4-carrying retrovirus-introduced HSC gene therapy^[81]. Therefore, the use of the plasma membrane-permeable recombinant HOXB4 protein may be a reasonable alternative for *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs. Although Krosi *et al.*^[78] study showed the effectiveness of recombinant HOXB4, the study did not show long-term repopulating activity of expanded cells. Therefore, further studies examining any potential safety issues caused by HOXB4 would be necessary. Overall, Notch ligands seem to be the most promising peptide-type supplements for HSC expansion at current moment.

Stromal support

In the BM niche, HSCs interact with stromal cells, and direct interaction of HSCs with stromal cells or extracellular matrices in the BM may help maintain small populations of primitive HSCs. Thus, it was quite reasonable to hypothesize that major extracellular matrices in the BM niche facilitated sustained hematopoiesis. In fact, a major extracellular matrix, fibronectin, was found to be perhaps the most important extracellular matrix protein to facilitate proliferation/self-renewal as well as adhesion of HSCs and progenitor cells in the BM niche^[82,83]. The initial studies showed that stromal support increased not only gene transduction efficiency but also successfully preserved the ability of human CD34⁺ cells to sustain long-term hematopoiesis in immune deficient mice^[84]. This study also showed that a C-terminal fragment of

fibronectin could help successful long-term engraftment of human HSCs and progenitor cells to bnx/hu mice. This C-terminal fragment contains both CS-1 and RGD(S) domains. The CS-1 domain is known to interact with VLA-4 (integrin $\alpha 4\beta 1$)^[85], and interestingly, Verfaillie *et al.*^[82] reported that primitive progenitors bound to fibronectin CS-1 *via* VLA-4, but expression of VLA-4 was lost upon differentiation of the cells. Immobilized fibronectin peptides were also shown to help *ex vivo* expansion of human cord blood HSCs (CD34⁺ fraction)^[86]. In this study, the authors used several fibronectin peptides including those carrying mutations on binding domains. Although all peptides they used showed significant increase in colony forming units as well as expansion of cells, only the peptide containing the intact CS-1 domain could give successful long-term engraftment of transplanted cells and survival of NOD/SCID mice^[86]. Thus, short C-terminal fragments of fibronectin containing the CS-1 domain may be a good coating material for *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs or progenitor cells.

The major disadvantage of these proteins/peptides, except TAT-HOXB4 protein, is their requirement of immobilization onto the surface of cell culture apparatuses. This will increase culture volume as well as cost of industry-scale production of cells; thus, development of suspension culture systems that allow both self-renewal of HSCs and a reasonable level of expansion would be desirable.

Small molecules

It would be desirable to use chemical compounds as supplements for serum-free culture systems, which may significantly help reduce production costs of HSCs at the industrial scale and at the same time, facilitate efficient *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs.

Most recently, one study has shown that a chemical compound could also be used for *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs^[87]. Chemical compounds would be superior to biological compounds because of potentially lower production costs and easier quality control.

These promising chemical compounds include the retinoic acid receptor agonist all-trans retinoic acid, copper chelator tetraethylenepentamine (TEPA), histone deacetylase inhibitors, acryl hydrocarbon receptor antagonist [referred to as StemRegenin1 (SR1)] and, PGE2^[72]. Among them, TEPA are the most promising chemical to be used for expansion of human HSCs at current moment. TEPA-supplemented, *ex vivo* cultures of CD34⁺ cord blood cells significantly increased the number of HSCs and enhanced NOD/SCID repopulating capacity^[88]. A phase I/II clinical trial of TEPA-cultured cord blood cells showed the safety of this approach^[89]. The efficiency of TEPA-cultured HSPC is currently under investigation in an ongoing phase II/III study.

Aryl hydrocarbon receptor antagonists (SR1) were identified as potential drug candidates for promoting *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs by microscopy-based high-throughput screening^[87]. The antagonist was subsequently tested with a feedback culture system^[43]. Aryl

hydrocarbon receptor signaling emerged as an important element in HSC functions^[87]. Currently, these compounds require the supplementation of cytokines, and thus further studies will be necessary to apply this strategy for large scale expansion of HSCs without animal serum. Nevertheless, this discovery may eventually pave a way for establishing industrial-scale production of HSCs with chemically defined culture media.

EXPANSION VS *IN VIVO*

RECONSTITUTION

Although finding the optimum conditions for clinical-scale *ex vivo* expansion culture is an absolutely important determinant to use HSCs in clinical settings, another important factor in determining the clinical outcomes of HSC transplantation is engraftment and reconstitution of the hematopoietic system in a recipient. Successful engraftment requires repopulation of transplanted cells to irradiated BM, of which success may mainly rely on the ability of transplanted cells to migrate toward BM. (SDF-1/CXCR4 axis). Therefore, it is also essential to test repopulation and engraftment of expanded cells by immunologically incompetent small animal models such as severe combined immunodeficient (SCID) mice. On the other hand, reconstitution of the hematopoietic system requires *de novo* production of hematopoietic lineages from donor-derived HSCs. This function requires self-renewable, primitive HSCs in the BM after transplantation to prevent exhaustion of self-renewable HSCs in BM niche. The CD34⁺ fraction, which is commonly used in the current clinical settings as a source of HSC-enriched cells, should be T cell-free to avoid graft-versus-host-disease. Successful engraftment is likewise likely to be associated positively with the number of neutrophils present in the body^[42].

Before closing this section, we also would like to comment on the quiescence of stem cells under normal conditions. HSCs retain labeled thymidine, indicating replicative quiescence in their niche^[41]. We speculate that this may be because HSCs need to maintain longevity and to minimize mutations concomitant with replication errors. Therefore, a line of studies may be necessary to confirm that rapid *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs does not generate and accumulate genetic mutations that can lead to the formation of cancerous cells. In addition, we should always keep in our mind that rapid *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs may often cause the loss of long-term engraftment capacity of HSCs or exhaustion of the most primitive HSC pool. It was demonstrated for more than a decade ago that HSCs proliferate slow *in vivo*^[90,91]. Therefore, it is postulated that HSC quiescence is critical in maintaining the stem cell compartment. Weissman's group estimated that approximately 8% of long-term self-renewing HSCs enter the cell cycle per day^[91]. However, contradictory results appeared later showing traditionally used DNA labeling dye, BrdU (5-bromo-2-deoxyuridine), may not be specific enough to label slow-dividing cells^[92]. More recently, different labeling

strategies have been proposed as alternative methods to trace slowly dividing HSC fractions^[93,94]. Proliferation of cells requires the entry to G₁ cycle, thus, it is quite natural to hypothesize that perturbation of cyclin dependent kinase inhibitors may initiate dramatic cell proliferation followed by the exhaustion of HSC pools. Scadden's group showed for the first time, p21^{cip/waf1} deletion eventually causes exhaustion of HSCs in a mouse model system^[95].

Since phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN)/Akt pathway plays a critical role in cell proliferation, survival and growth, it was predicted that mis-regulation of this pathway could cause problems on hematopoiesis. In fact, PTEN knockout mice study showed decreased numbers of HSCs^[96]. PTEN knockout mice also developed leukemia, suggesting there is a critical factors suppressing cell cycle progression. The phenotype of Foxo3a knockout mice is quite interesting. Foxo3a-KO significantly decreased the number of colony forming cells in BM. Age-dependent decrease of HSC pool was also observed. However, Foxo3a-KO little effects on hematopoietic progenitor cells except a decreased number of erythrocytes^[97]. More interestingly, distribution of Foxo3a in a cell further implies Foxo3a's specific role in maintaining primitive HSCs; Foxo3a accumulate in inside of a nucleus in a CD34⁻c-Kit⁺Sca-1⁺lineage⁻ cell, however, Foxo3a no longer accumulates in a nucleus and translocates to a nuclear envelop in a CD34⁺c-Kit⁺Sca-1⁺lineage⁻ cell, which is less primitive than CD34⁻c-Kit⁺Sca-1⁺lineage⁻ cells. Thus, it appears that Foxo3a may hold a key role in the maintenance of HSCs in BM.

Although c-Kit may be dispensable for extensive proliferation of HSCs, mice carrying c-Kit mutation (W41/W41) were reported to show approximately 2-fold reduction of long term-HSCs^[98]. This study was further reinforced with the result that multipotent progenitor cells were less affected by this mutation, suggesting that c-Kit function may also be very important for maintenance of primitive HSCs for sustained hematopoiesis.

Thus, we should keep in our mind that our attempt to improve *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs by manipulating some signaling pathways could be a "double-edged sword".

CONCLUSION

HSC-based cellular therapy is promising for hematopoietic cancers and hereditary blood disorders. Adaptive transfer of sufficient number of enriched HSCs is the key for successful transplantation. Besides BM, peripheral blood and umbilical cord blood also are the sources of HSCs. Traditionally, BM is the main source of HSCs, but peripheral blood and UCB are increasingly used as sources due to non-invasive harvesting procedures. Soluble growth factors, signaling molecules, small molecules and extracellular matrix support are commonly-used methods to amplify isolated HSCs, but chemical compounds such as TEPA is promising because of its lower cost and easier quality control.

A rapidly increasing number of studies and clinical trials have demonstrated very promising applications of HSCs in clinical settings. Currently, applications of HSCs are often limited to children mostly due to restrictions in the quantity of HSCs that can be obtained. Increased demand of HSC therapies, including those for adult patients, is expected. Therefore, it is necessary to establish large-scale production of HSCs to supply enough units of HSCs in the near future. In addition to cytokine cocktails, most recent studies have added several other options such as recombinant proteins and chemical compounds for *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs. Chemical-based culture would be advantageous, however, it will take some time until it is ready for clinical application.

Using multiple cell surface markers, including CD34, CD38, Thy-1, CD45, c-kit, CD133, CD49f and Lineage cocktail, it is possible to isolate single HSCs with the full capacity to regenerate the entire hematopoietic system. However, it is worthy to note that purification of ultimately primitive HSCs may not be necessary for clinical-scale production of cells. Instead, "HSC-enriched" fractions would be useful because of the possible positive feedback by the other less primitive cells in the culture. Thus, the effective *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs or hematopoietic progenitor cells may require inclusion of precise feedback regulation (*i.e.*, autocrine and paracrine), since the hematopoietic system is a highly complicated system requiring maintenance of a highly ordered hierarchy. Further investigation should develop more promising methods which will substantially enhance generation of HSCs with high efficiency for clinical application.

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Anti-CD20 monoclonal antibodies and associated viral hepatitis in hematological diseases

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Abstract

Over the past decade, the administration of anti-CD20 monoclonal antibodies such as rituximab has demonstrated various degrees of effectiveness and has improved patients' outcomes during the treatment of autoimmune hematological disorders and hematological malignancies. However, the depletion of B-cells, the distribution of T-cell populations, and the reconstruction of host immunity resulting from the use of anti-CD20 mono-

clonal antibodies potentially lead to severe viral infections, such as hepatitis B virus (HBV), hepatitis C virus (HCV), parvovirus B19, and herpes viruses, in patients who are undergoing immune therapy or immunotherapy. Of these infections, HBV- and HCV-related hepatitis are a great concern in endemic areas because of the high morbidity and mortality rates in untreated patients. As a result, prophylaxis against HBV infection is becoming a standard of care in these areas. Parvovirus B19, a widespread pathogen that causes red blood cell aplasia in immunocompromised hosts, also causes hepatitis in healthy individuals. Recently, its association with hepatitis was recognized in a patient treated with rituximab. In addition, adenovirus, varicella-zoster virus, hepatitis E virus, and rituximab itself have been linked to the occurrence of hepatitis during or after rituximab treatments. The epidemiologies and pathogenesis of these etiologies remain unknown. Because of the increasing use of anti-CD20 monoclonal antibodies for the treatment of hematological malignancies or autoimmune hematological disorders, it is imperative that physicians understand and balance the risks of hepatotropic virus-associated hepatitis against the benefits of using anti-CD20 monoclonal antibodies.

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Key words: CD20; Monoclonal antibody; Hepatitis; Hepatitis B virus; Hepatitis C virus

Core tip: Anti-CD20 monoclonal antibodies are widely used for the treatment of hematological malignancies and autoimmune disorders. These agents produce prolonged B-cell depletion and significant immune suppression. In this review, we summarized the clinical use of anti-CD20 monoclonal antibodies and the reports of acute or chronic hepatitis associated with the use of these agents. Most of these hepatitis cases had viral etiologies. We discuss the mechanisms of the hepatitis caused by these drugs. These infections not only interrupted the immunotherapy but are also associated with high mortality and morbidity.

This review may prompt physicians to monitor patients' liver function more closely and to provide adequate prophylaxis while using these agents.

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INTRODUCTION

The nonglycosylated transmembrane phosphoprotein CD20 is a differentiation marker of B cells that was characterized over 30 years ago^[1]. CD20 is expressed from early pre-B cells to mature B cells but not in plasma cells^[2]. The majority of B-cell lymphomas variably express the CD20 surface marker^[3]. CD20 can form multimeric complexes^[4,5], interact with B-cell receptors in lipid rafts^[5-7], mediate calcium influx^[4,7], and regulate the cell cycle and apoptosis^[8-11].

Because of the ubiquitous expression of CD20 in normal and malignant B cells, CD20 is an excellent target molecule for the treatment of B cell-related diseases. Rituximab, a genetically engineered chimeric murine/human monoclonal antibody (mAb)-targeting CD20, contains murine light- and heavy-chain variable regions and human constant regions^[12]. Rituximab is used to exert cytotoxic effects on B cells by 3 mechanisms: antibody-dependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity (ADCC), complement-mediated lysis (CDC), and a direct apoptosis-inducing effect on CD20⁺ cells^[12,13].

Based on a pivotal trial, rituximab was first approved by the United States Food and Drug Administration in 1997 for relapsed or refractory follicular and low-grade B-cell non-Hodgkin's lymphoma (NHL)^[14]. New anti-CD20 mAbs have been developed over the last few years, and these mAbs have been classified into 2 groups (type I and type II) according to their different activities in inducing CDC, ADCC, apoptosis, and lipid raft redistribution while binding to CD20^[15,16]. Because anti-CD20 mAbs have optimized antibody structures and sometimes conjugated radioisotopes, they are used and indicated for the treatment of not only hematological malignancies but also autoimmune diseases^[17]. However, following the widespread use of these agents, reports of infections related to B-cell depletion began to appear increasingly. Here, we discuss the clinical applications, the immunocompromising effects, and the association with hepatitis of anti-CD20 mAbs.

APPLICATIONS OF ANTI-CD20 MABS IN HEMATOLOGICAL DISEASES

Malignancies

Rituximab, the first mAb approved for the treatment

of malignancies, was initially indicated for relapsed or refractory indolent B-cell NHL^[14]. In this pivotal trial, the schedule consisted of 4 weekly doses of 375 mg/m². Nearly half of the 166 patients responded, with a projected median time-to-progression of 13 mo. Infusion reactions were the most frequently encountered acute adverse event^[14]. The promising response and excellent tolerance to rituximab in indolent B-cell NHL cases were further demonstrated in clinical trials involving extended use and retreatment^[18,19]. The excellent single-agent activity of rituximab was demonstrated not only in relapsed or refractory cases but also in newly diagnosed indolent B-cell NHL cases. In a phase II trial of single-agent rituximab for patients with low-grade NHL, the initial response rate (RR) after 4 weekly doses of rituximab was 54%, and the RR improved to 64% when rituximab retreatment was administered^[20]. In addition to rituximab monotherapy, several studies have demonstrated that the combination of rituximab and chemotherapeutic agents provided high RRs and long time-to-progression in relapsed, refractory, or newly diagnosed indolent B-cell NHL cases^[21-25]. To prolong disease control after the initial treatment, maintenance therapies after initial chemotherapy alone^[21,26] or rituximab in addition to chemotherapy^[21,27,28] have been tested in relapsed, refractory, or newly diagnosed indolent B-cell NHL cases. All of these studies demonstrated considerable improvement in the response duration or progression-free survival^[21,26-28]. Moreover, the clinical successes of rituximab were partially recapitulated in diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL)^[29-35]. The benefits of maintenance therapy were not observed after first-line chemotherapy with or without rituximab or autologous stem-cell transplantation used for treating cases of relapsed DLBCL^[34,35]. The difference may reflect the distinct nature of the indolent and aggressive B-cell NHLs.

Because of the clinical benefits demonstrated in rituximab-based regimens, efforts have been made to improve the efficacy of rituximab through the development of new anti-CD20 mAbs or the conjugation of radioisotopes (Table 1). Overall, the administration of yttrium-90 ibritumomab tiuxetan or iodine-131 tositumomab radioimmunotherapy (RIT) has not consistently yielded improved efficacy and survival in relapsed, refractory, or newly diagnosed B-cell NHL cases^[36-44]. However, the use of RIT, which offers the theoretical benefits of radiotherapy, can be a viable option for patients who have not responded to prior rituximab treatments or as an alternative or a supplemental method to stem-cell transplantation. Second- and third-generation humanized anti-CD20 mAbs were designed with improved binding affinities for CD20 or the FcγRIIIa receptor for enhanced CDC or ADCC. The efficacy of these agents was also investigated with or without chemotherapy in relapsed, refractory, or newly diagnosed B-cell NHL cases^[45-59]. Details regarding these anti-CD20 mAbs are summarized in Table 1.

Autoimmune hematological diseases

The essential mechanism of autoimmune diseases is the

Table 1 Anti-CD20 monoclonal antibodies and associated hepatitis

Antibody	Structure	Clinical applications	Associated hepatitis	Ref.
Rituximab	IgG1, chimeric murine/human mAb	B-cell NHL, RA, SLE, MS, AIHA, TTP, ITP, acquired hemophilia, cryoglobulinemia	HBV, HCV, parvovirus B19, VZV, adenovirus, HEV, drug-related? HBV	[14,18-35,60-65,71, 73,74,78,85,89-93,102-111, 140-147,172,174-179] [36-38,112]
Y-90 ibritumomab tiuxetan	IgG1, mouse mAb, conjugated with tiuxetan to yttrium-90	B-cell NHL	None	[39-44]
I-131 tositumomab	IgG2, mouse mAb, covalently bound to iodine-131	B-cell NHL	None	[39-44]
Ofatumumab	IgG1, human mAb	CLL, B-cell NHL, RA, MS, AIHA	HBV or drug-related?	[45-50,68,114-116]
Veltuzumab	IgG1, humanized mAb	B-cell NHL, ITP	Drug-related?	[51,69]
Ocrelizumab	IgG1, humanized mAb	B-cell NHL, RA, SLE, MS	None	[52]
Obinutuzumab	IgG1, humanized mAb, modified Fc	CLL, B-cell NHL	Drug-related?	[53-57]
PRO131921	IgG1, humanized mAb, modified Fc	CLL, B-cell NHL	None	[58]
Ocaratuzumab	IgG1, humanized mAb, modified Fc	B-cell NHL	None	[59]

mAb: Monoclonal antibody; NHL: Non-Hodgkin lymphoma; RA: Rheumatoid arthritis; SLE: Systemic lupus erythematosus; MS: Multiple sclerosis; AIHA: Autoimmune hemolytic anemia; TTP: Thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura; ITP: Immune thrombocytopenic purpura; DM: Diabetes mellitus; HBV: Hepatitis B virus; HCV: Hepatitis C virus; VZV: Varicella-zoster virus; HEV: Hepatitis E virus; CLL: Chronic lymphocytic leukemia; None: No associated hepatitis reported in hematological autoimmune disorders or malignancies at the time of review (excluding non-hematological diseases).

loss of self-tolerance, which enables the immune system to evoke autoreactive humoral and cellular responses. Elimination of B cells with rituximab is effective in the treatment of autoimmune hematological diseases such as autoimmune hemolytic anemia (AIHA)^[60], immune thrombocytopenic purpura (ITP)^[61], acquired hemophilia^[62], thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura (TTP)^[63], and cryoglobulinemia^[64,65]. B cells produce autoantibodies and cytokines, act as antigen-presenting cells, promote naïve CD4⁺ T-cell differentiation, and affect dendritic cell homeostasis^[66]. However, the responses of these autoimmune diseases to the off-label use of rituximab varied widely^[67]. The varied results may be partially attributed to the underlying heterogeneity in the etiologies and pathogenesis of these diseases.

The data about the use of non-rituximab anti-CD20 mAbs for the treatment of autoimmune diseases are extremely limited. RIT may also be a valuable option, but its use for the treatment of autoimmune hematological diseases has not been reported. Ofatumumab, approved by the US Food and Drug Administration for treating chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL) refractory to fludarabine and alemtuzumab, was demonstrated to be effective in CLL complicated with AIHA^[68]. In a phase I trial, veltuzumab demonstrated a RR of 55% in relapsed ITP cases, and long durations of response were observed in some patients^[69]. Second- and third-generation humanized anti-CD20 mAbs are being developed for treating nonhematological autoimmune disorders, such as rheumatoid arthritis, systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE), and multiple sclerosis.

HEPATITIS RELATED TO RITUXIMAB AND OTHER ANTI-CD20 MABS

Immune system changes after anti-CD20 mAb treatments

In general, peripheral blood B cells are depleted rapidly

and effectively after anti-CD20 mAb treatment. The level of peripheral B cells remains extremely low and recovers gradually until 6 to 12 mo after the last dose of rituximab^[61-65,70,71]. The depletion or recovery of B cells is not uniform among the various subsets and locations of B cells and may also depend on the baseline B-cell counts, the nature of the disease, and the dose, duration and type of anti-CD20 mAbs used^[36,40,45,46,49-53,55,56,65,71,72]. The recovery of B cells starts with the immature or transitional B cells (CD38⁺, CD24⁺, CD10⁺, CD27⁺, IgD⁺) followed by naïve B cells (CD38⁺, CD27⁺, IgD⁺); however, memory B cells (CD27⁺, CD38⁺, IgD⁺) may remain considerably depleted for at least 2 years^[73-76]. The pattern of B-cell repopulation is similar between autoimmune disease and B-cell NHL cases^[73-76]. The effects of B-cell depletion on plasma immunoglobulin levels and blunted responses to immunization are individualized and heterogeneous among the different diseases treated with rituximab^[18,19,21,29,60-65,70,77-80]. Typically, the levels of complements do not change substantially^[64,70], but a major increase of C4 levels in the serum was noted after rituximab treatment in type II mixed cryoglobulinemia cases^[65]. The levels, subsets, and functional status of T cells and natural killer (NK) cells after rituximab treatment are more complex because these factors depend on the expression of CD20 on T and NK cells^[74] and the nature of the disease process^[17,18,45,46,61,62,64,74,81-87]. Early and persistent reduction of peripheral CD4⁺/CD40L⁺ T cells was observed after treatment of SLE with rituximab^[84]. The abnormalities of T-cell homeostasis can be reversed after rituximab administration^[81-83,87], accompanied by increased CD4⁺CD25⁺ regulatory T cells^[82,84,85,87], CD8⁺CD25⁺ T cells^[85], or decreased autoreactive CD4⁺ T cells^[81]. In a mouse model, B-cell depletion inhibited CD4⁺ but not CD8⁺ T-cell activation and clonal expansion in response to new exogenous antigens. Therefore, adequate antigen-specific CD4⁺ T-cell responses still

required the presence of B cells^[88]. The limited data on T cell, NK cell, complement, and immunoglobulin levels following treatments with anti-CD20 mAbs other than rituximab were highly similar compared with those with rituximab^[36,51-54,69]. Because of the immunodeficiency induced by anti-CD20 mAbs, hepatitis and other infections have become a growing concern since the approval of rituximab.

Hepatitis B virus

Acute hepatitis and even fulminant hepatic failure are a well-documented threat in patients receiving chemotherapy, particularly in lymphoma cases^[89]. In a prospective study, 44% (34/78) of hepatitis B virus (HBV; hepatitis B surface antigen, HBsAg⁺) carriers developed some form of hepatitis. Of these cases, 44% (15/34) were attributed to HBV reactivation^[89]; 6 of these 15 were patients with lymphoma, and all of them had been treated with adriamycin, cyclophosphamide, vincristine, and prednisolone, also known as the CHOP regimen^[89]. In addition, 4 of these 6 patients with lymphoma were seropositive for hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg) at baseline and developed HBV reactivation sooner than the HBeAg-negative carriers^[89]. In addition to those observations in lymphoma cases, HBV reactivation has been frequently reported in other hematological malignancies^[90]. Corticosteroids, which are immunosuppressive agents frequently used in hematological malignancies and autoimmune diseases, may increase the risk of liver injury in HBV carriers^[90,91]. Steroid-sparing regimens can be used to reduce the risk of HBV reactivation^[92]. Additionally, adriamycin, a component of the CHOP regimen, can stimulate the replication of HBV^[93]. Because the use of anti-CD20 mAb is common, designing a treatment plan that prevents the risk of HBV reactivation may be more complex than administering chemotherapy for hematological malignancies or immunosuppressants for autoimmune diseases.

The natural history of HBV infection depends on the interaction of the host immunity, hepatocytes, and viral replication. Chronic HBV infections acquired early in life have 3 phases: the immune tolerance phase, the immune active phase, and the low-replication phase^[94-96]. Some inactive HBV carriers (HBeAg seroconversion) can unexpectedly reenter the immune clearance phase and experience HBV reactivation with elevated HBV DNA and/or HBeAg reversion^[97]. The incidence of HBV flares varies among studies and may depend on sex, HBV genotype, age at HBeAg seroconversion, and HBV DNA levels^[96,97]. In adults, NK cells and type I interferon responses induced by HBV infection were observed before HBV-specific CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell responses^[98]. In chronic HBV infections, HBV-specific CD8⁺ T cells presented HBV antigens regardless of the status of antibody to hepatitis B core antigen (anti-HBc)^[99]. Both anti-HBc⁺ patients and inactive HBV carriers exhibited strong memory CD8⁺ T-cell responses^[99]. However, the levels of FoxP3⁺, CD25⁺, and CD4⁺ regulatory T cells that inhibit HBcAg-specific responses were also higher in chronic HBV infection cases^[100].

HBV replication within the liver and the subsequent spread of virions into the circulation may occur in cancer patients with immunosuppression induced by the diseases or treatments. Hepatitis flares can develop early or late, during immunosuppressive therapy or after its completion. The effects can range from asymptomatic elevation of HBV DNA to fulminant hepatitis. HBV reactivation has been reported not only in patients undergoing chemotherapy or steroid therapy but also in patients undergoing rituximab treatment, regardless of their HBV status^[101-104]. In HBsAg⁺ carriers with B-cell NHL, HBV reactivation occurred in 80% (8/10) of patients without prophylaxis^[105]. Significantly fewer cases of HBV reactivation were consistently observed in HBsAg⁺ carriers with prophylaxis^[101]. In patients with resolved HBV (HBsAg⁻/anti-HBc⁺) and B-cell NHL, the rituximab-CHOP regimen led to more cases of HBV reactivation (reverse seroconversion or elevated HBV DNA) than the CHOP regimen alone did (23.8% *vs* 0%)^[102]. The incidence rates of HBV reactivation and HBV hepatitis flare were reported as 10.4 and 6.4 per person-year in this group of patients, respectively^[106]. The timing of HBV reactivation is closely associated with the lymphopenic state. The reconstruction of host immunity induced by rituximab and the recovery of B- and T-lymphocytes after rituximab may result in damage to HBV-infected hepatocytes by cytotoxic T-lymphocytes^[90,104,106,107]. The impairment of the immune system appears to be more severe in patients treated with rituximab-CHOP than in those treated with rituximab alone^[107].

Rituximab treatments, with or without steroids, were generally well-tolerated by patients with autoimmune hematological disorders such as AIHA^[60,108], ITP^[61,109], acquired hemophilia^[62], TTP^[63], and cryoglobulinemia^[64,65]. No HBV reactivation was reported, most likely because of the exclusion of patients with positive HBV serology, a limited number of cases, or lesser immunosuppression in these autoimmune diseases compared with hematological malignancies. However, HBV reactivation is a major threat in patients with autoimmune disorders who are undergoing immunosuppressive therapy^[110]; therefore, concurrent antiviral treatments are often prescribed to reduce the risk of reactivation^[111].

Patients with chronic or resolved HBV receiving RIT or anti-CD20 mAbs are subject to the same or an even greater risk of HBV reactivation, and although these effects were not fully characterized in most prospective trials^[36-59], scattered cases have been reported^[111,112], both of which were successfully treated with lamivudine^[112,113]. The United States Food and Drug Administration announced that physicians should be alert to potential HBV reactivation caused by ofatumumab^[114]. Liver toxicities had been reported with ofatumumab with or without chemotherapy in hematological malignancies. However, the data on HBV reactivation in these cases were lacking^[45,50,115,116].

HBV is endemic in the Asia-Pacific region with a prevalence of more than 10% in Taiwan, southern China, and certain areas of Southeast Asia^[117]. In clinical prac-

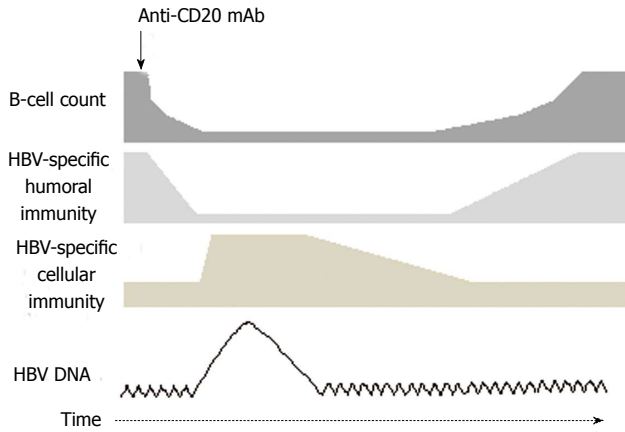


Figure 1 Anti-CD20 monoclonal antibodies and dynamic immunity in hepatitis B virus infection. This illustration summarizes the dynamic changes of hepatitis B virus (HBV) DNA and immune responses during HBV reactivation. Notably, the viral-specific T-cell immunity before and after the administration of anti-CD20 monoclonal antibody (mAb) depends on the carrier status, that is, hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg)⁺ carrier or resolved HBV (anti-HBc/HBsAg⁻, anti-HBs⁺) status. HBV prophylaxis should be considered to maintain low level of HBV replication and prevent HBV-specific T-cell-mediated liver damage. The prophylaxis should be maintained for at least 6 mo after anti-CD20 mAb when HBV-specific T-cell immunity recovers.

tice, a greater than 10-fold increase above the baseline in serum HBV DNA levels, an absolute increase of more than 9 log₁₀ copies/mL, a reappearance of HBV DNA in HBsAg, or a new onset of HBV DNA viremia in HBsAg-negative patients can be considered as an indication of HBV reactivation. In addition, an hepatitis flare is considered if the serum alanine transaminase (ALT) level is 3 times greater than the normal upper limit, or if an ALT level of more than 100 IU/L with a concomitantly increased HBV DNA level of more than 10 times the typical level is detected^[89,118]. In high-risk endemic areas, HBV screening must be considered before implementing anti-CD20 mAb treatment^[119-123]. In a cost-effectiveness study, screening for HBsAg in all patients about to receive rituximab-CHOP treatment considerably reduced the rate of HBV reactivation and cost the least^[124]. The recommended tests for screening include HBsAg, anti-HBc, and anti-HBs (according to the CDC)^[122], HBsAg and anti-HBc (AASLD and EASL)^[121,125], and HBsAg with or without anti-HBc (ASCO)^[123]. A more complex algorithm for screening in different at-risk populations was proposed^[126]. Currently, oral agents approved for HBV treatment include lamivudine, adefovir, telbivudine, tenofovir, and entecavir. Based on research findings, the optimal start time and duration of HBV prophylaxis has not yet been determined^[119-123]; however, initiating short-term antiviral therapy before starting anti-CD20 mAb treatment appears to be beneficial and safe. In a randomized trial involving HBsAg⁺ patients with NHL, the prophylactic use of lamivudine reduced considerably the occurrence of HBV reactivation and hepatitis flares^[127]. In a meta-analysis, all-cause mortality, HBV reactivation, HBV-related mortality, and interruption of anti-CD20 mAb therapy were considerably reduced with lamivudine prophylaxis^[128]. One major problem of lamivudine, telbi-

vudine, and adefovir is that drug resistance and hepatitis flares increase with continuous use^[125,129]; therefore, the use of entecavir and tenofovir was suggested for longer duration of prophylaxis^[125]. In addition to HBsAg⁺ patients, HBV prophylaxis must be considered in patients with resolved HBV because the risk of reactivation remains (Figure 1)^[106,130]. In a recent retrospective study of HBV reactivation by the Asia Lymphoma Study Group, the authors showed that patients receiving entecavir prophylaxis had a lesser incidence of HBV reactivation than those with lamivudine. Prospective studies to validate these findings are warranted.

Hepatitis C virus

The epidemiology of hepatitis C virus (HCV) differs from that of HBV, particularly because of the existence of a wide variation of HCV genotypes worldwide^[131]. The most common types in Taiwan, China, Japan, and Korea are genotypes 1b and 2; by contrast, more diversity exists in North America and Europe^[131]. The natural history of HCV infection consists of ramp-up and plateau phases in acute infections and various spontaneous clearances in chronic phases depending on several viral and host factors, including HCV genotypes, host immunity, and the genetic polymorphism of *IFNL3* (*IL-28B*)^[131]. The treatment of chronic HCV consists primarily of interferon- α , ribavirin, and protease inhibitors that are accompanied by major toxicities^[131].

During acute infections, HCV-specific T cells activated by CD8⁺ and CD4⁺ are generated readily against multiple epitopes within 10 wk^[132]. In patients with chronic infections and persistent viremia, HCV-specific CD8⁺ T cells are rarer and responsive to fewer epitopes than in those without viremia, where even HCV-specific CD8⁺ T cell responses are mounted^[132]. In addition, CD8⁺ T cells are exhausted in chronic HCV with increased expression of programmed death-1 and cytotoxic T-lymphocyte-associated antigen-4^[133]. HCV-specific CD8⁺ T cells are suppressed by increased CD25⁺ and CD4⁺ regulatory T cells^[134]. In addition to evading CD8⁺ T-cell responses, HCV also evades CD4⁺ T-cell responses and humoral immunity with escape mutants because of its error-prone RNA polymerase^[135-137].

HCV itself is highly associated with the development of lymphoproliferative disorders, particularly with B-cell NHL with or without mixed cryoglobulinemia^[138,139]. HCV-related fulminant hepatitis occurring after chemotherapy with or without corticosteroids was rare in patients with lymphoma^[140,141]. Liver dysfunction after chemotherapy was less common in HCV than in HBV patients (18.2% vs 75.0%) with hematological malignancies^[142]. The incidence of HCV-associated liver dysfunction appeared to be higher in rituximab-containing regimens^[143,144]. In addition, increased HCV RNA levels were common during or after rituximab-based chemotherapy and were followed by hepatitis flares and decreased HCV RNA levels in various intervals^[144-146]. In contrast to persistent B-cell depletion for several months after rituximab treatments, the HCV viral load and the number of

regulatory T cells were elevated initially, then decreased, indicating that B-cell depletion and HCV-specific T-cell responses participate in the mechanism of HCV reactivation in patients treated with rituximab-based regimens^[64,147,148]. Although the elevation of HCV RNA load was not the major problem for lymphoma patients treated with standard courses of immunochemotherapy, the persistent elevation of HCV RNA load and subsequent liver cirrhosis can occur in follicular lymphoma patients treated with rituximab-maintenance therapy^[147]. However, these studies evaluated HCV reactivation during and after rituximab regimens according to different criteria. The HCV RNA levels may increase up to 10 times above the baseline in chronic HCV infections^[149]. In a retrospective study involving cancer patients, the acute exacerbation of chronic HCV was defined as a 3-fold or greater increase in ALT levels without tumor infiltration within the liver, without the use of hepatotoxic drugs or blood transfusion, and no concomitant systemic infections^[150]. In addition, an at least 1 log₁₀ IU/mL increase in HCV RNA levels after treatment with immunosuppressive agents was considered for HCV reactivation^[150]. The same criteria may apply for HCV reactivation in anti-CD20 mAb treatments. A simple algorithm for monitoring ALT and HCV RNA in patients undergoing immunosuppressive therapy was proposed^[151]. Although rituximab was also widely used in autoimmune hematological disorders such as HCV-related cryoglobulinemia, HCV reactivation with hepatitis flares was rare^[65,152,153]. No data were available for RIT and non-rituximab anti-CD20 mAbs.

Traditionally, anti-HCV therapy is not considered in patients receiving immunosuppressive agents because of potential drug-drug interactions, the major side effects of anti-HCV therapy, and the rarity of severe HCV-related hepatitis flares. Currently, there is no consensus regarding the optimal strategy for the treatment and prevention of HCV reactivation in patients undergoing immunosuppressive therapy even though ribavirin with or without interferon- α has been successfully administered to patients with hematological malignancies^[154,155].

Parvovirus B19

Parvovirus B19 infections are common infections that spread through respiratory droplets or blood, and seropositivity rates are increasing in people of all ages^[156]. The disease spectrum can range from asymptomatic disease to hydrops fetalis, fifth disease, arthropathy, aplastic anemia, autoimmune disorders, meningitis, encephalitis, and even fulminant hepatitis^[156,157]. This virus has a tropism for erythroid progenitors in the blood, bone marrow, and fetal liver^[156]. In healthy adults, acute infections result in viremia within 2 wk, immediately followed by virus-specific IgM and IgG responses and clearance of the virus in the serum^[158]. Humoral immunity appears to be critical for controlling this virus, and patients with immunodeficiency disorders can have chronic infections^[159]. Virus-specific CD8⁺ T cell responses toward multiple epitopes also develop soon after acute infec-

tion, and these striking CD8⁺ T-cell responses may have long durations with continuous viremia^[160]. In addition, interferon- γ -secreting, virus-specific CD62L⁺ and CD4⁺ T cells developed within 3 mo of acute infection^[161].

Parvovirus B19 infection is a major problem in immunocompromised hosts^[162-164]. The seropositivity rate was high in cancer patients receiving chemotherapy^[162,165], and half of patients exhibited detectable viral DNA in their serum^[165]. Several studies have demonstrated that acute parvovirus B19 infections are associated with fever, arthralgia, hepatitis, myocarditis, pneumonia, pancytopenia, and even graft dysfunction^[162-164]. Most importantly, immunosuppressive therapies can impair humoral immunity, exposing patients to a high risk of parvovirus B19 infection^[164,166]. Several case studies have reported that parvovirus B19 infection-related symptoms can develop in B-cell NHL or immune thrombocytopenia patients treated with rituximab-containing regimens or after being treated with rituximab-containing regimens^[167-172]. The major parvovirus B19 infection-related symptom was cytopenia in the erythroid lineage, but neutropenia or thrombocytopenia without anemia occurred in some patients. The onset was preceded by fever and skin eruptions in 2 patients^[169,171]. Our group identified the first case with acute hepatitis^[172]. Most patients developed the clinical manifestations at least 2 mo after the initiation of rituximab. The patients in 2 cases recovered without treatment, and the others responded positively to intravenous immunoglobulin (IVIG). However, the hepatitis flare in our patient persisted for 7 mo and was paralleled with cytopenia, which was correlated with the recovery of B cells after rituximab treatment^[172]. The effects of other anti-CD20 mAbs on parvovirus B19 are unknown.

The diagnosis of parvovirus B19 reactivation or infection is based on serology and viral DNA analysis^[156]. However, conducting virus-specific serology may be problematic in immunocompromised hosts^[164,166]. The pathogenesis of parvovirus B19-related hepatitis is largely unknown, and either direct cytopathic or indirect immunity-related mechanisms are possible. In addition, the pathology images obtained during liver biopsies are nonspecific. Although viral DNA or RNA can be detected in hepatocytes, the clinical significance remains to be defined^[173]. The most reasonable diagnostic sequence may be to exclude the other common hepatotropic viruses first, such as HBV or HCV, and then to analyze serum serology and viral DNA if the tests for hepatotropic viruses are negative. Because liver biopsy is invasive, it must be considered last. The most effective treatment and prevention methods for parvovirus B19-related hepatitis remain unknown; however, IVIG can be used for treating severe cases because of the clinical success achieved in using it in other parvovirus B19-related diseases^[156,166-169,171].

Other causes

In addition to HBV, HCV, and parvovirus B19, critical viral infections from cytomegalovirus, varicella-zoster virus (VZV), herpes simplex virus, echovirus, enterovirus,

influenza A virus, or BK/JC virus can occur in lymphoma patients treated with rituximab regimens^[174]. Most of them did not induce hepatitis. However, there are reports of 2 cases of hepatitis associated with adenovirus, one case of hepatic necrosis associated with disseminated VZV, and one of chronic hepatitis E virus infection that developed after rituximab treatment^[175-178]. These pathogens are rarely connected to the use of rituximab, and the underlying mechanisms of these pathogenesis associated with hepatitis are less characterized. However, the actual incidence rates of these uncommon viral infections in lymphoma patients treated with rituximab regimens may be underestimated. One patient with ITP experienced drug-induced acute hepatitis, and the pathogen was not identified; however, the patient recovered soon after rituximab treatment was stopped^[179]. There were also scattered reports of anti-CD20 mAb-related liver function abnormalities in patients with hematological disorders. However, the etiology was most likely related to anti-CD20 mAb^[45,50,51,55,69,115,116].

Future in vivo or in vitro studies

There are numerous reports of animal lymphoma models to test the preclinical activity of anti-CD20 mAbs^[180-182]. However, the safety data in liver toxicities of these animal models are very limited^[180-182]. In addition, no animal or in vitro models of viral hepatitis-induced by anti-CD20 mAbs has been established. It would be very difficult to establish the animal model with viral hepatitis reactivated by anti-CD20 mAbs because most of previous studies used tumor xenografts implanted into mice with severe combined immunodeficiency in their animal model. However, immune-mediated liver damage is important for anti-CD20 mAb-associated viral hepatitis. Most likely, this may work in evaluating the precise mechanism of hepatitis caused by the aforementioned viruses during and after anti-CD20 mAbs alone when using the immunocompetent animal model.

CONCLUSION

This review summarized the clinical use of anti-CD20 mAbs and reports of acute or chronic hepatitis associated with the use of these agents. Most data are from cases where rituximab was used to treat hematological malignancies. The majority of diseases studied were caused by viral infections. These infections must be clinically recognized soon after their occurrence because they not only interrupt immunotherapy but are also associated with high mortality and morbidity. Close monitoring of HBV and HCV infections before and during anti-CD20 mAb treatment is highly recommended in endemic areas. The prophylactic therapy for HBV has become standard of care, but patient selection and the optimal regimen or duration remain to be defined. Physicians must monitor patients being treated with rituximab-based regimens for the risks of hepatotropic viruses, including HBV, HCV,

parvovirus B19, and other viruses. Nevertheless, this review has limitations. Some pathogens that rarely induce hepatitis may not be reported in the literature; therefore, the causal relation, epidemiology, and pathogenesis of these pathogens are not the most accurate. Occasionally, the causal association between hepatitis and rituximab is difficult to confirm because of the concurrent use of multiple immunosuppressants or hepatotoxic drugs. The data on non-rituximab anti-CD20 mAbs are limited, likely because most clinical trials employ strict case selection criteria and exclude patients with hepatitis. Therefore, in vivo or in vitro studies are warranted to establish the actual roles of these viruses in the pathogenesis of hepatitis during and after anti-CD20 mAb treatments.

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Chronic disseminated candidiasis complicated with a ruptured intracranial fungal aneurysm in ALL

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Key words: Disseminated candidiasis; β -D-glucan; Fungal cranial aneurysm; Acute lymphocytic leukemia; Bone marrow transplantation

Core tip: Chronic disseminated candidiasis and resulting fungal intracranial aneurysm is a life-threatening complication during the induction therapy of leukemia with a poor survival rate. However, intensive and patient anti-fungal treatment made the patient receive unrelated bone marrow transplantation successfully.

Okawa T, Ono T, Endo A, Takagi M, Nagasawa M. Chronic disseminated candidiasis complicated with a ruptured intracranial fungal aneurysm in ALL. *World J Hematol* 2014; 3(2): 44-48 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/2218-6204/full/v3/i2/44.htm> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5315/wjh.v3.i2.44>

Abstract

An 11-year-old boy with acute lymphocytic leukemia (ALL) contracted disseminated candidiasis during induction therapy, which was complicated with rupture of a fungal cranial aneurysm. Ventricular drainage and coil embolization of a residual aneurysm in combination with intensive antifungal therapy rescued the patient. Although clinical improvement was achieved, high fever and elevated levels of C-reactive protein and β -D-glucan continued for more than 10 mo. One year later, the ALL relapsed during maintenance therapy with methotrexate and 6-mercaptopurine. After salvage chemotherapy, the patient received unrelated bone marrow transplantation (BMT) in a non-complete remission condition and survived. During subsequent chemotherapy and BMT, no recurrence of the fungal infection was observed under the prophylactic anti-fungal therapy with micafungin.

INTRODUCTION

Disseminated fungal infection in acute leukemia patients is a serious complication, not only because it is difficult to manage and cure, but it also interferes with continuation and completion of the standard treatment regimen for leukemia, which consequently leads to an unfavorable outcome. We experienced an acute lymphocytic leukemia child who contracted a disseminated candidiasis with a resultant rupture of intracranial fungal aneurysm during the induction chemotherapy. Our clinical experience in this patient is very useful and informative for physicians in this field.

CASE REPORT

An 11-year-old boy with B-precursor acute lymphocytic

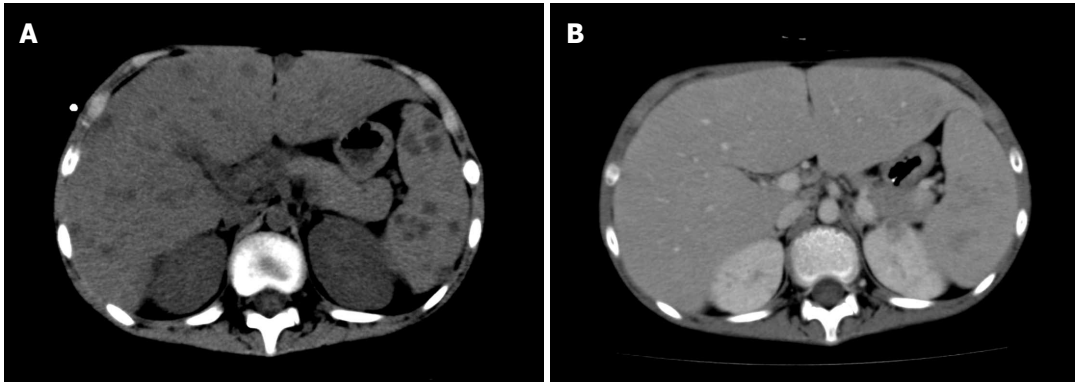


Figure 1 Computer tomography scan images of the liver. Computed tomography (CT) scans of the liver performed on the 51st (upper panel) and 239th d (lower panel) are presented. A: A simple CT scan; B: CT is enhanced.

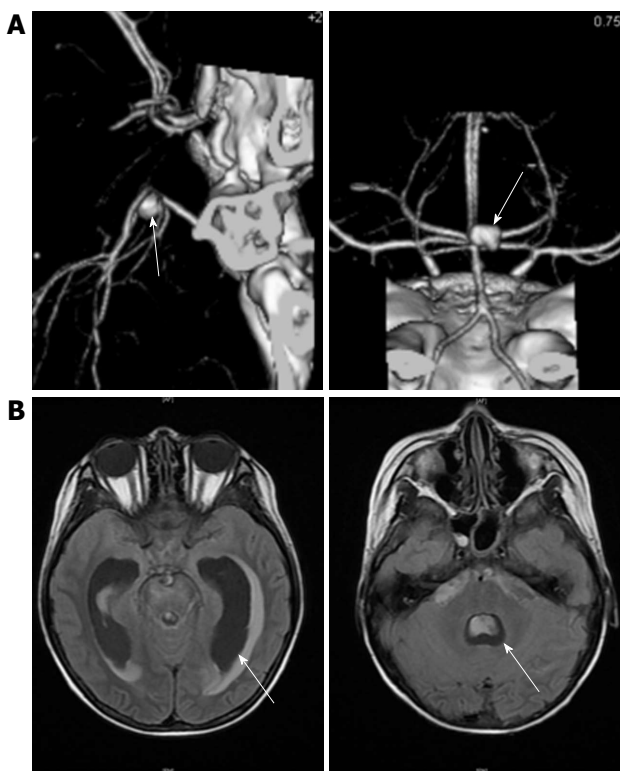


Figure 2 Three-dimensional reconstituted image of the intracranial aneurysm (A) and computer tomography scan (B). A: Arrows indicate intracranial aneurysm; B: Arrows indicate dilated ventricles and subdural hemorrhage.

leukemia (ALL) was admitted to our hospital. After confirming a good response to preceding prednisolone, TCCSG L09-16 (UMIN000003375) high risk (HR) induction chemotherapy was started. Two weeks later, the patient's white blood cell count (WBC) fell below 100/ μ L and fever was noted on day 19. Serum C-reactive protein (CRP) level was 2.38 mg/dL. Intravenous antibiotic [cefpirome sulfate (CPR)] was started on the same day. On the 22nd d, the patient's β -D-glucan level was below 6.0 pg/mL. Panipenem/betamipron (PAPM/BP) was administered instead of CPR, but changed to meropenem. Micafungin (MCFG; 6 mg/kg per day) was added and induction therapy was discontinued on the 29th d. The values of β -D-glucan and CRP increased to 27.4 pg/mL

and 10.52 mg/dL, respectively, on the same day. Granulocyte colony-stimulating factor was started on the 37th day and liposomal amphotericin B (L-AMB; 6 mg/kg per day) was administered instead of MCFG on the 40th day. Whole-body computed tomography (CT) on the 40th day revealed no diagnostic findings. WBC increased to 3500/ μ L (neutrophils > 90%) on the 44th d. MCFG was re-started on the 48th d in addition to L-AMB. Although a repeated blood culture was negative, serum *Candida* antigen value was greater than 2 ng/mL on the 49th d. On the 51st d, the patient began to complain of an intermittent temporal headache. Whole-body CT on the 54th d revealed multiple lesions in the liver (Figure 1) and flucytosine (5-FC; 150 mg/kg per day) was added. On the 56th day, the patient's consciousness level suddenly dropped and he experienced vomiting and incontinence. CT and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) (Figure 2) indicated subarachnoid hemorrhage and drainage from both lateral ventricles was performed. The cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) was bloody and negative for bacteria and fungi. On the next day, brain angiography revealed an aneurysm with a diameter of 7 mm on the right basilar artery and coil embolization was successfully performed on the same day.

The patient's condition was stabilized. His consciousness level occasionally fluctuated according to increased ventricular pressure, which rapidly improved on adjustment of ventricular drainage.

Because induction therapy for ALL was discontinued, maintenance therapy consisting of daily 6-mercaptopurine and weekly methotrexate was started on the 76th d. High-grade fever and elevated CRP levels were sustained, although the patient was clinically improving. Unexpectedly, the plasma β -D-glucan level gradually increased to more than 500 pg/mL. A CT scan on the 265th d revealed complete disappearance of multiple lesions in the liver. Five months later, CRP and β -D-glucan levels began to decrease slowly. 5-FC and L-AMB were discontinued on the 265th d and 335th d, respectively (Figure 3). On the 319th d, a ventricle-peritoneal shunt was performed. Ten months later, WBC gradually decreased with the progression of thrombocytopenia. A bone marrow examination on the 356th d confirmed the first relapse of ALL. Although the patient's β -D-glucan

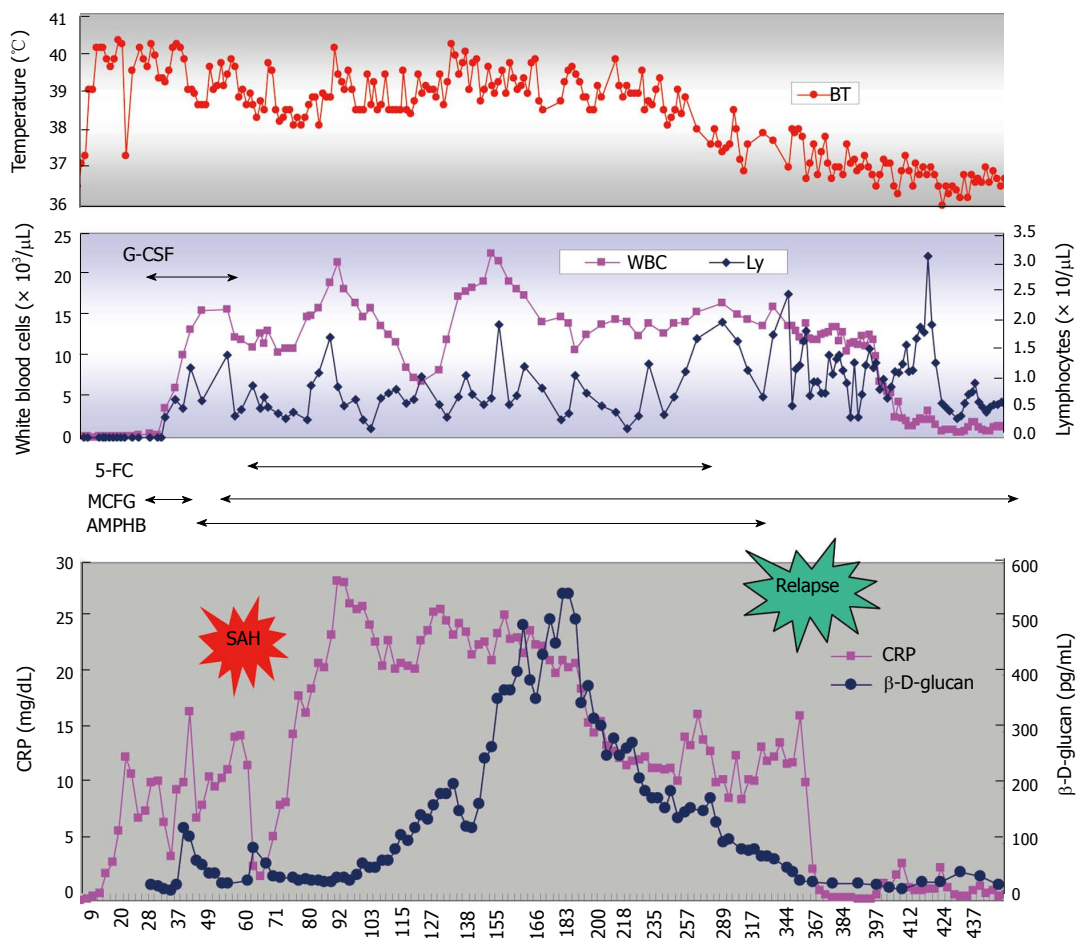


Figure 3 Clinical course of the patient. Initiation of prednisolone was designated as day 1. WBC: White blood cell; 5-FC: 5-flucytosine; MCFG: Micafungin; CRP: C-reactive protein.

level was still above 50 pg/mL, induction therapy based on the BFM95 protocol was started. After being in remission, he relapsed on the 680th d and on the 825th d. He received unrelated bone marrow transplantation (BMT) during non-remission status on the 839th d with a myeloablative conditioning regimen consisting of total body irradiation (TBI; 12 Gy), cyclophosphamide (60 mg/kg × 2) and etoposide (60 mg/kg). Graft versus host disease prophylaxis consisted of tacrolimus and short term methotrexate. Engraftment was on the 16th d and he became free of red cell and platelet cell transfusion on the 15th and 37th d after BMT respectively. He has been in remission for more than 3 mo after BMT. During the subsequent chemotherapy/BMT and thereafter, no recurrence of fungal infection was observed under the prophylactic use of MCFG.

DISCUSSION

Fungal infections account for 4% to 9% of neutropenic infections in patients with hematological malignancy^[1]. Additionally, it has been reported that patients with ALL are at the highest risk for invasive candidiasis during the neutropenic period following induction chemotherapy^[2]. Disseminated candidiasis is a rare, life-threatening extended form of *Candida* infection and its mortality exceeds

10%-50%^[3]. Fungal aneurysms of the intracranial circulation are an extremely rare complication and clinically differ from the more common bacterial “mycotic” aneurysms, which are usually associated with infectious endocarditis^[4-6]. Contrary to bacterial “mycotic” aneurysms, fungal aneurysms usually affect the circle of Willis and the proximal arterial tree, and surgical treatment is extremely difficult^[6]. Mortality related to fungal aneurysms is extremely high and it exceeds 80%-90% when the aneurysms rupture^[7,8]. According to the literature, cases of pediatric fungal aneurysm are very rare and most of them are complicated in patients with chronic mucocutaneous candidiasis, a rare primary immunodeficiency^[9-11].

In our case, progression of disseminated candidiasis occurred within 3 wk after chemotherapy, which seems relatively fast. Once disseminated, a great deal of time is needed to treat the fungal infection even when the neutrophil count recovers^[12]. It is known that liver lesions are not apparent under agranulocytic conditions because of the lack of inflammation^[13]. It may be possible that an increase in neutrophils induces excessive inflammation, which sometimes results in tissue destruction. With intensive anti-fungal chemotherapy and surgical and endovascular treatment, our patient survived through the early critical episode. However, the subsequent clinical course of the patient was difficult and challenging. Once

CRP and β -D-glucan levels decreased after surgery, the CRP level increased again above 20 mg/dL and the β -D-glucan level increased gradually. Additionally, high fever continued for months.

In our case, clinical evidence of disseminated candidiasis was based on elevated β -D-glucan levels, the presence of serum *Candida* antigen and multiple liver lesions. Repeated blood or CSF cultures could not detect *Candida* spp. It has been reported that the positive predictive value of blood cultures for *Candida* is relatively low and the typical findings of a CT scan are clinically valuable for diagnosis with serological data^[13]. Although histological and microbiological evidence could not be obtained, it is more likely that intracranial aneurysm was due to disseminated candidiasis from the clinical point of view. Guidelines for disseminated candidiasis recommend fluconazole, amphotericin B, voriconazole or caspofungin^[14,15]. MCFG was recently reported to be as effective as caspofungin^[16]. Because some strains of *Candida*, such as *C. glabrata* and *C. krusei*, are resistant to fluconazole, we selected a higher dose of MCFG for the first-line therapy. Considering the severity of infection, we added L-AMB to MCFG. Although elevated CRP and β -D-glucan levels with high fever continued as shown in Figure 3, the patient was clinically improving and we continued anti-fungal therapy. It is well known that humans do not produce enzymes that metabolize β -D-glucan. There may be 2 possible explanations for why β -D-glucan was increasing in the middle of the treatment course: one is that the destruction of *Candida* was accelerated at that time and another is that the *Candida* antigen was sequestered from circulation and drained into systemic circulation at that time. In light of the sustained high level of CRP and its later decrease in parallel with β -D-glucan, the former scenario seems to be more likely.

Fortunately, our patient survived and received BMT successfully with no recurrence of candidiasis or other fungal infections under the prophylactic use of MCFG thereafter. He has been in remission for more than 3 mo after BMT, although we have to be careful how long the patient remains in remission. With the recent advance of anti-fungal drugs, disseminated candidiasis is still a challenging complication during the treatment of hematological malignancy and is difficult to manage. However, intensive patient treatment has enabled us to accomplish chemotherapy and BMT successfully even in a high-risk patient with ALL^[17].

COMMENTS

Case characteristics

An 11-year-old boy with acute lymphocytic leukemia who suffered from chronic disseminated candidiasis during remission induction chemotherapy.

Clinical diagnosis

Chronic disseminated candidiasis and fungal intracranial aneurysm and its rupture.

Differential diagnosis

Bacterial infection and intracranial hemorrhage due to granulocytopenia and thrombocytopenia

Laboratory diagnosis

Increased β -D-glucan and candida antigen in the serum

Imaging diagnosis

Whole computed tomography scan revealed multiple masses in the liver. Angiography disclosed intracranial aneurysms.

Treatment

Coiled embolization and long-term chemotherapy with combination of multiple anti-fungal drugs

Experiences and lessons

This case report emphasizes the difficulties of management of fungal infection during the chemotherapy of leukemia. Once it has occurred, not only control of fungal infection but also the control of leukemia is disturbed. However, bone marrow transplantation is not a contraindicated choice of therapy.

Peer review

This article is well described and some important messages emerge. This paper will therefore be very useful for hematologists and infectiologists.

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In press

- 3 **Tian D**, Araki H, Stahl E, Bergelson J, Kreitman M. Signature

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Organization as author

- 4 **Diabetes Prevention Program Research Group**. Hypertension, insulin, and proinsulin in participants with impaired glucose tolerance. *Hypertension* 2002; **40**: 679-686 [PMID: 12411462 PMID:2516377 DOI:10.1161/01.HYP.0000035706.28494.09]

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- 5 **Vallancien G**, Emberton M, Harving N, van Moorselaar RJ; Alf-One Study Group. Sexual dysfunction in 1, 274 European men suffering from lower urinary tract symptoms. *J Urol* 2003; **169**: 2257-2261 [PMID: 12771764 DOI:10.1097/01.ju.0000067940.76090.73]

No author given

- 6 21st century heart solution may have a sting in the tail. *BMJ* 2002; **325**: 184 [PMID: 12142303 DOI:10.1136/bmj.325.7357.184]

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- 7 **Geraud G**, Spierings EL, Keywood C. Tolerability and safety of frovatriptan with short- and long-term use for treatment of migraine and in comparison with sumatriptan. *Headache* 2002; **42** Suppl 2: S93-99 [PMID: 12028325 DOI:10.1046/j.1526-4610.42.s2.7.x]

Issue with no volume

- 8 **Banitt DM**, Kaufer H, Hartford JM. Intraoperative frozen section analysis in revision total joint arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 2002; (**401**): 230-238 [PMID: 12151900 DOI:10.1097/00003086-200208000-00026]

No volume or issue

- 9 Outreach: Bringing HIV-positive individuals into care. *HRS-A Careaction* 2002; 1-6 [PMID: 12154804]

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Personal author(s)

- 10 **Sherlock S**, Dooley J. Diseases of the liver and biliary system. 9th ed. Oxford: Blackwell Sci Pub, 1993: 258-296

Chapter in a book (list all authors)

- 11 **Lam SK**. Academic investigator's perspectives of medical treatment for peptic ulcer. In: Swabb EA, Azabo S. Ulcer disease: investigation and basis for therapy. New York: Marcel Dekker, 1991: 431-450

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- 12 **Breedlove GK**, Schorfheide AM. Adolescent pregnancy. 2nd ed. Wiczorek RR, editor. White Plains (NY): March of Dimes Education Services, 2001: 20-34

Conference proceedings

- 13 **Harnden P**, Joffe JK, Jones WG, editors. Germ cell tumours V. Proceedings of the 5th Germ cell tumours Conference; 2001 Sep 13-15; Leeds, UK. New York: Springer, 2002: 30-56

Conference paper

- 14 **Christensen S**, Oppacher F. An analysis of Koza's computational effort statistic for genetic programming. In: Foster JA, Lutton E, Miller J, Ryan C, Tettamanzi AG, editors. Genetic programming. EuroGP 2002: Proceedings of the 5th European Conference on Genetic Programming; 2002 Apr 3-5; Kinsdale, Ireland. Berlin: Springer, 2002: 182-191

Electronic journal (list all authors)

- 15 Morse SS. Factors in the emergence of infectious diseases. *Emerg Infect Dis* serial online, 1995-01-03, cited 1996-06-05; 1(1): 24 screens. Available from: URL: <http://www.cdc.gov/ncidod/eid/index.htm>

Patent (list all authors)

- 16 **Pagedas AC**, inventor; Ancel Surgical R&D Inc., assignee. Flexible endoscopic grasping and cutting device and positioning tool assembly. United States patent US 20020103498. 2002 Aug 1

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Write as mean \pm SD or mean \pm SE.

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