LYMPHOID MALIGNANCIES & NEW IDEAS

LEUKEMIAS AND LYMPHOMAS. Malignancies of B, T, or NK cells are lymphoid; of any other hematopoietic cells, myeloid. We’ll only discuss lymphoid malignancies here. When many abnormal cells are found in the blood, the condition is leukemia; if in the tissues, including lymph nodes and bone marrow, it is lymphoma. The malignant process is probably always in the tissues, with cells escaping into the blood stream in some conditions. The USA incidence is about 45,000 new cases of leukemia and 75,000 cases of lymphoma per year.

When lymphoid cells undergo malignant transformation, the predominant cell type usually exhibits a phenotype similar to that of a normal cell, and we can classify the leukemia on this basis. The Revised European-American Classification of Lymphoid Neoplasms\(^1\) (REAL) was created to include all of the lymphoid malignancies, characterized by both morphology of the cells and immunological markers, and to some extent disease prognosis and response to treatment. We provide the REAL classification here for your interest and convenience, but will only discuss a few of the more immunologically-interesting conditions.

To begin, lymphoid malignancies are classified as either Hodgkin’s\(^2\) or Non-Hodgkin’s.

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<th>REAL: Hodgkin's lymphoma (Hodgkin's Disease)</th>
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<td>a.  Nodular lymphocyte predominant Hodgkin's lymphoma</td>
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<td>b.  Classical Hodgkin's lymphoma</td>
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<td>• Nodular sclerosis Hodgkin's lymphoma</td>
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<td>• Lymphocyte-rich classical Hodgkin's lymphoma</td>
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<td>• Mixed cellularity Hodgkin's lymphoma</td>
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<td>• Lymphocyte-depleted Hodgkin's lymphoma</td>
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HODGKIN’S LYMPHOMA is a mystery, which centers on an abnormal, highly dysregulated and probably malignant, cell in lymph nodes (the Reed-Sternberg cell, often binucleate with prominent nucleoli, right) which can usually be identified as a B cell and may be carrying Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) genes. It is recognized and attacked by normal T cells, but resists apoptosis; the result is a fierce proliferative and inflammatory response in the nodes. Secondary changes make interpretation of subsequent events difficult. T cell immunodeficiency often develops. This disease, which carried a 95% mortality rate in 1940, now has a 95% survival rate, due to new forms of chemotherapy and radiation therapy. The incidence of

\(^1\) Of course, not everyone likes the system but it is the one that’s used the most. A recent version with a nice nesting diagram was published by Morton, LM *Blood* (2007) 110:695-708. Proposed classification of lymphoid neoplasms for epidemiologic research from the Pathology Working Group of the International Lymphoma Epidemiology Consortium (InterLymph). WHO has a revision (2008) based on REAL; it’s not much different, for a non-specialist.

\(^2\) Thomas Hodgkin, 1798-1866, English pathologist.
Hodgkin’s is falling slowly. There is one new case of Hodgkin’s for every 7 new cases of Non-Hodgkin’s lymphoma.

REAL: B-Cell Neoplasms

I. Precursor B-cell neoplasm:
   a. Precursor B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma

B CELL PRECURSOR MALIGNANCIES. Acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL) is the most common leukemia of children. In about 85% of cases the cells can be identified as belonging to the B cell lineage not because there is cytoplasmic or surface immunoglobulin expressed, but because the Ig genes are rearranged (these are therefore “null cells,” that is, lymphocytes that cannot easily be typed using fluorescent antibodies as either B or T). A minority have cytoplasmic Ig, and a handful have surface Ig. ALL patients with the B cell precursor form of the disease have a poorer prognosis than those with the T cell form (below).

REAL: B-cell neoplasms

II. Mature (peripheral) B-cell neoplasms
   a. B-cell chronic lymphocytic leukemia / small lymphocytic lymphoma
   b. B-cell prolymphocytic leukemia
   c. Lymphoplasmacytic lymphoma (includes Waldenstrom’s)
   d. Splenic marginal zone B-cell lymphoma (+/- villous lymphocytes)
   e. Hairy cell leukemia
   f. Plasma cell myeloma/plasmacytoma (Multiple myeloma)
   g. Extranodal marginal zone B-cell lymphoma of mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue type
   h. Nodal marginal zone lymphoma (+/- monocytoid B-cells)
   i. Follicle center lymphoma, follicular,
   j. Mantle cell lymphoma
   k. Diffuse large cell B-cell lymphoma
      • Mediastinal large B-cell lymphoma
      • Primary effusion lymphoma
   l. Burkitt lymphoma

B CELL NEOPLASMS. About 70% of Non-Hodgkin’s lymphomas are of B cell type, and most of the rest are T cell type. B cell lymphomas have a better prognosis. This is a large and heterogeneous category of diseases. It is 45 to 100 times more common in immunosuppressed people than in normals. NHL is the 6th leading cause of cancer death in the USA, and rising at an alarming rate. We do not know the causes.

The most common B cell disease (and about a third of all leukemias in the U.S.) is chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL), most often seen in older people (mean age 65; men more often than women). It is a malignancy of resting B cells, which are slg+ but rarely secrete immunoglobulin. The prognosis is good, because these cells and their precursors divide slowly and secrete no harmful products such as inflammatory cytokines.
Hairy cell leukemia is another chronic leukemia of B cells, in which the malignant cells have peculiar cytoplasmic projections. Perhaps this explains their ability to burrow into and replace lymphoreticular tissues such as spleen and bone marrow, leading to splenomegaly, leukopenia and susceptibility to infection.

Burkitt\textsuperscript{3} lymphoma is a solid tumor of B cells, very common in Africa. It is triggered by the Epstein-Barr virus (EBV), which infects B cells and causes their intense proliferation. People with normal immune systems clear the infected B cells by a killer T cell response; while this is going on the patient feels terrible and may be susceptible to secondary infections, typically Strep throat; the condition is infectious mononucleosis. A preexisting immunodeficiency (in Africa, originally due to malaria and now also to AIDS) may thus predispose to malignancy by impeding removal of the overgrowing B cell population. (Recall, this is what happened to David, the boy in the bubble.) Eventually, a chromosomal rearrangement takes place in one of the dividing cells, bringing the cellular proto-oncogene \textit{c-myc} close to one of the immunoglobulin chain genes (which have strong promoters and enhancers), and that cell is now truly malignant and independent of further EBV requirements. Burkitt lymphoma responds well to chemotherapy.

Multiple myeloma has already been mentioned when we discussed electrophoresis. It is a malignancy of activated B (plasma) cells, which produce not only immunoglobulins but also several osteoclast activating factors including RANKL which are responsible for extensive bone lesions. The disease may be first recognized in a patient who suffers a fracture without significant trauma (these are called pathological fractures). In the pathological cells, L and H chain synthesis becomes unregulated. Free light chain dimers (Bence-Jones\textsuperscript{4} protein) are sometimes found in the urine. Because of the dysregulation of H and L chain production, the myeloma cell is critically dependent on good proteasome function to remove otherwise toxic misfolded proteins. The new myeloma drug Velcade (bortezomib) targets the proteolytic sites on the central 20S proteasome subunit, so the cell chokes to death on its own trash.

Waldenstrom’s\textsuperscript{5} macroglobulinemia is a form of plasmacytoma which secretes IgM. Some patients have severe complications from high serum viscosity, and thick blood does not clot well so chronic bleeding at the mucous membranes is seen. This condition is reported to respond well to treatment with rituximab, an anti CD20 monoclonal (CD20 being a common B cell surface marker). Most multiple myeloma patients do not respond significantly to rituximab, probably because CD20 expression is greatly reduced on mature plasma cells.

\textsuperscript{3} Denis Burkitt, Irish physician, 1911-1993.
\textsuperscript{4} Henry Bence Jones, English physician and chemist, 1813-1873.
\textsuperscript{5} Jan G. Waldenström, Swedish physician, 1906-1996.
T CELL MALIGNANCIES. Acute lymphoblastic leukemia is the most common form of malignancy up to age 35. Most seem to be of precursor B cells. About 15% of children with ALL have leukemic cells with T cell markers. These children often have a thymoma as well, and it may be that the malignancy originated there.

The Sézary syndrome and the closely related cutaneous T cell lymphomas (WHO prefers mycosis fungoides but it’s less used in the USA and Canada) are T cell tumors that primarily affect the skin. Many cases are associated with the human T-lymphotropic retrovirus HTLV-1. These viruses are also implicated in the very common adult T cell leukemia of the Far East, and are beginning to be seen in the U.S. in drug addicts. The intense inflammatory response that is often seen in the skin suggests that these CD4+ malignant cells can be activated and secreting lymphokines. They have markers of memory T cells.

CANCER STEM CELLS. The leukemias are an especially good model for looking at malignant stem cells, as the normal stem cells are familiar and there exist good surface markers for studying them. Working with leukemias led investigators to suspect that there must be a minor population in a tumor that is truly malignant. In chronic lymphocytic leukemia, for example, the cells in the blood have a nearly normal phenotype and dividing cells are rare; furthermore, they will not give rise to leukemia in immunodeficient mice. But a very small fraction of them may have that property, and the first cancer stem cell was described in acute myelogenous leukemia; it represents only about 0.1% of the total leukemic cell population. The rest of the cells are to a greater or lesser extent differentiated. We are beginning to understand that most of our cancer therapies are directed against the differentiating cell compartments, which have surface markers we exploit (like the tumor antigen Her2/Neu) or are in cell cycle; whereas true stem cells divide rarely. This probably explains why treatments are commonly only partly effective, and relapses, even after years, are frequent.

NEW DIRECTIONS IN IMMUNOLOGY

WHAT’S NEW? Where do you look for the latest, especially if you don’t want to read the entire world’s primary literature in about 150 immunology journals?

For medical people and those interested in human immunology, the best nonspecialist sources of updated immunology information are the New England Journal of Medicine and JAMA. They have frequent reviews of basic science as it applies to clinical medicine, and as you’d expect many of these deal with immunology. Both are available online from AMC/Fitzsimons computers.

No graduate student can afford not to read Nature, regardless of the field she or he is in. Especially important is the front material, News and Views, in which hot new topics are discussed as or before they are published. Science, the equivalent American journal, is equally good, and most of the Job ads are North American. Online.

If you need a review article, look up Advances in Immunology, Annual Review of Immunology, Trends in Immunology, Immunological Reviews, and Current Opinion in Immunology in the Library. On the web trust .gov and .edu but avoid .com sites. And if you don't already know it, learn how to use Medline at its user-friendly interface, PubMed, at http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi

And wherever you go, you can always call, write, or e-mail JJC; I’m always happy to hear from you. The course website is always available and frequently updated.

BEHAVIORAL IMMUNOLOGY. This term refers to the study of the connections between the immune system and the brain. There are many, and they go both ways. It’s a new and growing area, not well regarded by traditional immunologists, at least not yet. There is plenty of evidence linking behavior and diseases of the immune response, as well as stress and personality. Much of the evidence is weak, though, and this area needs good research. [The big reference book: Psychoneuroimmunology. Robert Ader, ed., Academic Press, 4th Edition, 2006]

One illustrative experiment, just to give you a taste of this interesting field: Robert Ader showed that you could condition immunosuppression, the way Pavlov conditioned gastric secretion. He gave mice an injection of the immunosuppressive drug cyclophosphamide, and coupled it with a novel stimulus, saccharin, in their drinking water. Of course, such mice make a poor (suppressed) response to antigen given shortly after the cyclophosphamide. If rested a month, and then given another antigen injection and saccharin to drink, the mice made a poor antibody response, even though no further cyclophosphamide had been given. Mice given cyclophosphamide alone, and then a month later given antigen and saccharine, made a normal response (this is the necessary control for residual cyclophosphamide effect) [Ader, R. Conditioned immunomodulation: research needs and directions. Brain Behav Immun. 2003 Feb; 17 Suppl 1:S51-57]. Had Ader shown that you can condition side effects? I find this actually very interesting, do you?
T CELL RECEPTOR FAMILIES. By way of review: The T cell receptor for antigen (TCR) is made up of two chains, $\alpha$ and $\beta$, linked to each other by disulfide bonds. Both of which are inserted in the plasma membrane.

A minor population of T cells have a different receptor, made up of gamma and delta chains. We know little about their role in immune defenses; these cells seem neither to bear CD4 or CD8, nor be MHC-restricted, and they may represent a relic of a more primitive approach to immunity.

Alpha chain genes are made up by recombining V and J regions, and beta chain genes by V, D, and J genes. Beta chain V genes can be assigned to “families”. This means that there are groups of V$\beta$ genes that are closely related to each other, but less closely related to other V$\beta$ genes. From a practical point of view, DNA probes can be made that hybridize only with the members of one V$\beta$ family, so that the particular V$\beta$ family that any given T cell is using can be identified by looking at which probe hybridizes with the beta-chain mRNA in that cell. Approximately 20 V$\beta$ families have been identified in the human. We now also have monoclonal antibodies that recognize all, and only, members of one V$\beta$ family.

Sequence analysis shows that the members of any V$\beta$ family have different hypervariable regions, especially CDR3, the one most responsible for interacting with antigenic peptides. They are similar mostly in “framework” amino acids, which must be the ones that the family-specific antibody recognizes. This probably means that the 20 families arose by some terrific gene duplication event long ago, so that one primitive V$\beta$ became about 20. These all had plenty of evolutionary time to become quite different from each other, and sometimes to duplicate again, creating families of related V regions. (Some of the original 20 duplicates seem not to have duplicated again, so we have a number of single-member “families”.)

For completeness, note that V$\alpha$ genes, and Ig heavy and light V genes, also come in families. But it’s the V$\beta$ that we know most about that is of clinical interest. For example, in chronic beryllium disease, several anti-beryllium T cell families can be identified in most patients, but only one or two of these actually cause serious tissue destruction. Will this help us design therapies that eliminate only the “bad clones”?

The V$\beta$ families remind us that to get T cell immunopathology you need T cell activation, and that depends critically on the trimolecular complex of TCR, peptide, and MHC. We think a lot about unusual MHC alleles that can present self or modified self or certain otherwise-ignored foreign peptides, but we must remember that even if you have that peptide in MHC, you still need a T cell receptor that can recognize it; and thus both the T cell and the MHC are equally important, and both may be therapeutic targets.
SUPERANTIGENS. A number of substances have been found in nature that, when added to T cells isolated from blood, cause proliferation and differentiation of many cells. Mitogens, you say? Well, the difference was that not all T cells responded; the percentage was variable, from about 3% to maybe 20%. That’s way too high for antigens, but low for mitogens, which usually stimulate close to 100% of T cells. These new molecules have the extraordinary, in fact mind-boggling, ability to bind both to MHC Class II molecules, and to the “framework” part of the V region of the B chain of only certain Vβ families (the particular families involved being different for each different superantigen). Look at this picture to distinguish the essential difference between ordinary antigens and superantigens:

Now, what might this mean for us? Suppose that a bacterium, say Staph. aureus, made a superantigen that it released into the blood stream during infection, and that that superantigen bound to TCRs that used Vβ8 and Vβ14, and also suppose that together those two families comprise 20% of your T cells. Therefore 20% of your T cells might suddenly become activated, divide, and release lymphokines. This is much more than would ever happen in a “normal” immune response. What does, say, too much IL-2 in the system do? It causes a dreadful vascular leakiness syndrome, and shock (“cytokine storm”). This is what is believed to have happened to Jim Henson, the Muppeteer, after a minor Staph infection: he went into irreversible shock, which no one knew how to treat (you might want to speculate on how you’d consider treating it). It is also what happens in Toxic Shock Syndrome; the toxic shock toxin (TSST-1) has been clearly shown to be a superantigen.

PURIFIED HEMATOPOIETIC STEM CELLS. Weissman at Stanford did some experiments that illustrate the state of the art nicely. If you lethally irradiate a mouse you can save its life with about 100,000 syngeneic bone marrow cells. This tells you that this number of cells contains the necessary number of HSC. Weissman made many monoclonal antibodies by immunizing mice with bone marrow cells from other mice, and then did a lot of subpopulation sorting on his fluorescence-activated cell sorter. He was able to identify a population of cells of which as few as 100 could save an irradiated mouse. This population undoubtedly contained the HSC. We now have the corresponding cell from human bone marrow or umbilical cord blood. It bears the marker CD34, which allows clinical labs to isolate stem cells from donor marrow or even blood; they use magnetic beads coated with anti-CD34/CD59 to pull them out of a cell suspension. In 2011 it was shown7 that CD34+ cells also include some lineage-committed precursors; the true HSC, a single one of which can completely reconstitute all hematopoietic lineages in a deficient mouse, is CD34+ and CD49f+ (CD49f is integrin α6).

TRAVELAN®. An Australian company, Anadis, specializes in immunizing pregnant cows with vaccines for human diseases, and then collecting the colostrum (the milk made in the first ~24 hours after delivery.) Colostrum in cows and humans is very rich in IgA; calves will not live if they don’t get colostrum, as Bossy does not pass IgG across the placenta. Fortunately, dairy cows produce a huge excess of IgA, far more than the calves need; the rest can be purified and put into capsules for human oral use. Their first drug, available over the counter in Australia since 2005, is Travelan, from cows immunized with enterotoxigenic *E. coli*, endotoxin, and flagellin; it has been shown to prevent and treat traveler’s diarrhea. They are planning an anti-anthrax product, and talk, a little wildly⁸, about products that could be slimed onto surfaces to neutralize microorganisms after a bioterrorism attack.

A SUICIDE SWITCH IN TRANSPLANTED CELLS ⁹. Sometime, when cells are transferred to a human recipient, you end up wishing you hadn’t. The example that is most familiar to us in this course is the induction of graft versus host disease after bone marrow or even stem cell transplantation. Malcolm Brenner’s group at Baylor published a fix for this situation. In patients who were given T cells along with haploidentical hematopoietic stem cells (which seem to need some T cell urging to reconstitute the recipient, and to cause the “graft versus leukemia” effect), they loaded the T cells with a transgene that created a form of the apoptosis executioner caspase, caspase-9, that could be activated if the patient were given a harmless drug. “A single dose of dimerizing drug, given to four patients in whom GVHD developed, eliminated more than 90% of the modified T cells within 30 minutes after administration and ended the GVHD without recurrence.”

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⁸ Considering that Clorox would be more effective, cheaper, and could be applied while the Travelan guys were still calling the farm in Woop Woop (“G’ day mate, milk the smallpox cow!”)
Learning Objectives for Lymphoid Malignancies & New Ideas

1. Identify a malignant condition in which the cells involved resemble:
   
   activated T cells
   resting B cells
   activated B cells secreting IgG
   activated B cells secreting IgM

2. Discuss the events thought to be necessary for the development of Burkitt lymphoma, including: the virus involved, the nature of the chromosomal translocation, the role of malarial or other infection.

3. Define superantigen, and distinguish it from a mitogen and an antigen.