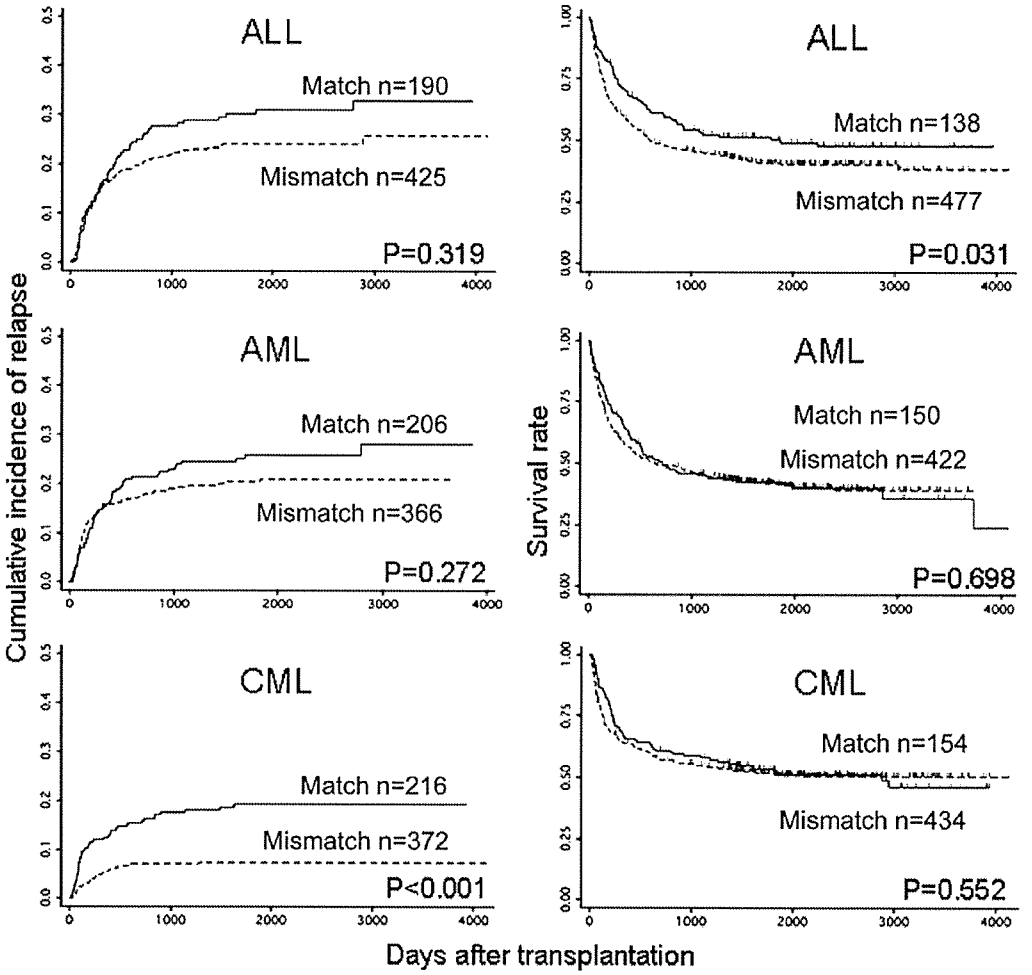

Figure 2. Cumulative incidence of relapse and survival by matching of HLA-DPB1 in patients with ALL, AML, and CML. All patients were analyzed. The direction of mismatching of HLA-DPB1 for relapse is GVH for relapse, and the direction for survival is GVH and/or HVG. Solid line, match; dotted line, mismatch.

As shown in Figure 2, the relapse rate 5 years after transplantation was 7.1% (95% CI = 5.0%-10.4%) for HLA-DPB1 mismatch and 19.3% (95% CI = 14.3%-24.9%) for HLA-DPB1 match in CML patients ($P < .001$); 20.4% (95% CI = 16.4%-24.8%) and 25.9% (95% CI = 19.9%-32.2%), respectively, in AML patients ($P = .272$); and 24.0% (95% CI = 19.9%-28.3%) and 30.2% (95% CI = 23.7%-37.0%), respectively, in ALL patients ($P = .319$).

Mismatch of HLA-A, -B, -DRB1, and -DQB1 was not a significant risk factor for leukemia relapse by multivariate analysis (Table 2).

Patients with KIR-L-MM-G had a higher relapse rate than those with KIR2DL ligand match in ALL (HR = 2.55; $P = .017$) (Table 2). This adverse effect on leukemia relapse was remarkable in high-risk ALL (HR = 3.03; $P = .013$), but not in standard-risk ALL (HR = 1.11; $P = .921$). In AML and CML, KIR-L-MM-G had no effect on leukemia relapse (HR = 1.05; $P = .926$ and HR = 1.23; $P = .727$, respectively).

Because KIR-L-MM occurs in HLA-C mismatch pairs, the cumulative incidence of leukemia relapse was analyzed in HLA-C mismatch patients in either direction by leukemia cell type (Figure 3). The relapse rate 5 years after transplantation was 31.0% (95% CI = 5.6%-47.9%) for KIR-L-MM-G and 16.3% (95% CI = 11.0%-22.4%) for match in ALL patients ($P = .026$); 11.1% (95% CI = 3.5%-23.6%) and 11.8% (95% CI = 7.4%-17.3%), respectively, in CML patients ($P = .634$); and 12.9% (95% CI = 4.1%-27.0%) and 16.3% (95% CI = 11.0%-22.6%), respectively, in AML patients ($P = .757$).

Significant clinical risk factors for leukemia relapse by multivariate analysis included status at transplantation (standard vs high, HR = 3.00; $P < .001$) and disease (HR = 0.75; $P < .001$) in all leukemia patients.

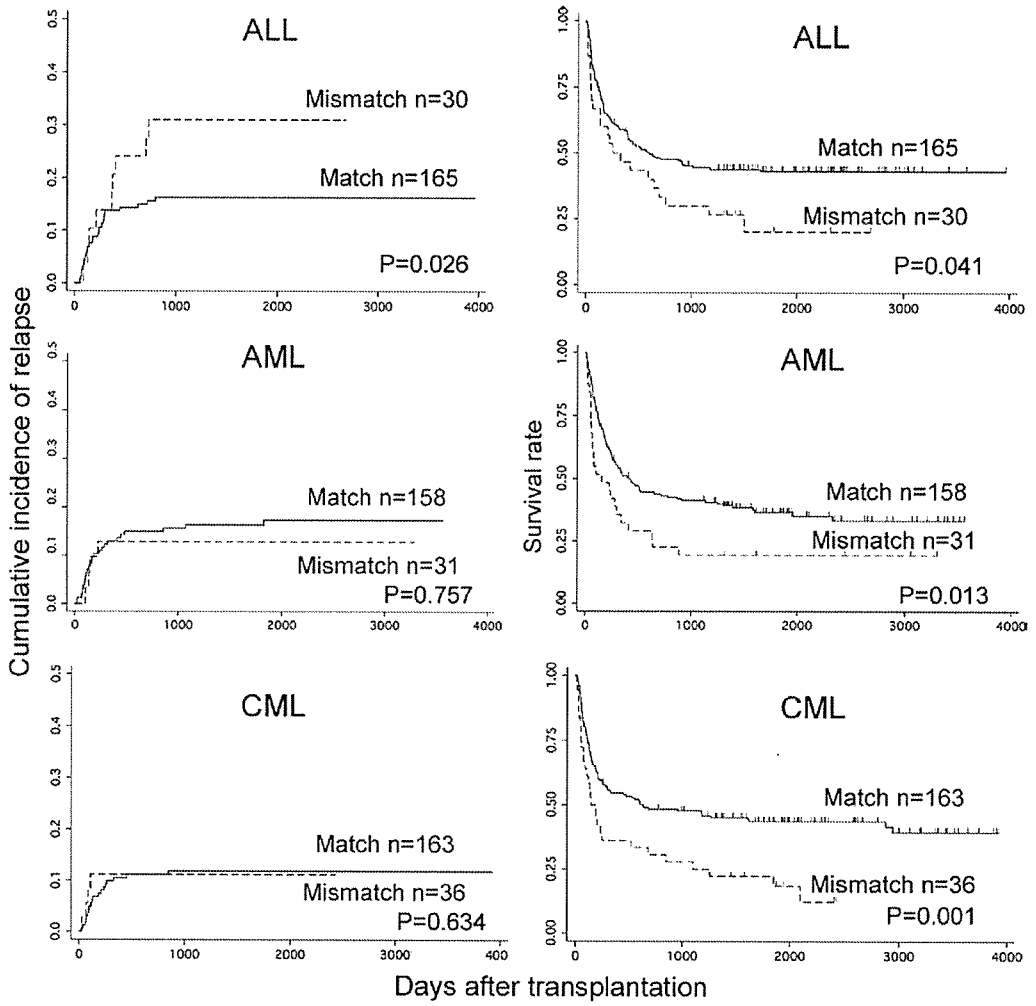

Figure 3. Cumulative incidence of relapse and survival by matching of KIR2DL ligand in the GVH direction in HLA-C–mismatched patients with ALL, AML, and CML. HLA-C–mismatched patients were selected for this analysis. The directions of HLA-C mismatching were GVH and/or HVG. The solid line represents KIR2DL ligand match in the GVH direction; the dotted line, KIR2DL mismatch in the GVH direction.

Effects of HLA Locus Mismatch and KIR Ligand Mismatch on Rejection

Rejection rates in patients who engrafted marrow and survived more than 21 days were analyzed. KIR-L-MM-R was found to be a significantly higher risk factor for rejection compared with match (HR = 4.39; P = .012), and no HLA mismatch was considered significant by multivariate analysis (Table 3). Older donor age was a significant clinical risk factor for rejection (HR = 1.08; P = .002); other clinical factors were not significant.

The cumulative incidence of graft rejection was 5.7% (95% CI = 2.3%-11.3%) in KIR-L-MM-R (n = 106) and 1.8% (95% CI = 0.8%-3.3%) in match (n = 447) (P = .019) 1 year after transplantation in HLA-C–mismatched patients in either direction. Engraftment rate was not influenced by HLA and KIR ligand matching (data not shown).

Effects of HLA Locus Mismatch and KIR Ligand Mismatch on Acute GVHD

HLA allele mismatch of each HLA-A, -B, and -C locus was found to be an independent risk factor for grade 3-4 aGVHD and grade 2-4 aGVHD, and the mismatch of each HLA-DRB1 and -DQB1 locus was not a significant risk factor. HLA-DPB1 mismatch was a significant risk factor for grade 2-4 aGVHD and a marginal risk factor for grade 3-4 aGVHD (Table 3). When analyzed by leukemia cell type, AML showed no significant HLA mismatch locus for aGVHD (data not shown).

KIR-L-MM-G was associated with a significantly higher risk of grade 2-4 aGVHD (HR = 1.70; $P < .001$) and grade 3-4 aGVHD (HR = 2.35; $P < .001$) compared with KIR ligand match (Table 3). By leukemia cell type, the HR of KIR-L-MM-G in grade 3-4 aGVHD was 2.76 for AML ($P = .005$), 1.75 for ALL ($P = .111$), and 2.79 for CML ($P < .001$).

In HLA-C mismatch patients, the incidence of 40.3% in KIR-L-MM-G (95% CI = 29.3%-50.9%) was significantly higher than the 25.8% in match (95% CI = 21.9%-30.0%) ($P = .011$) for grade 3-4 aGVHD.

Significant clinical risk factors for grade 3-4 GVHD by multivariate analysis were GVHD prophylaxis (tacrolimus vs cyclosporine, HR = 0.72; $P = .016$), patient age (HR = 0.99; $P = .019$), donor age (HR = 1.02; $P = .001$), and disease (HR = 1.28; $P = .001$) in all leukemia patients.

Effects of HLA Locus Mismatch and KIR Ligand Mismatch on Chronic GVHD

The occurrence of cGVHD was analyzed in patients who survived more than 100 days after transplantation. HLA-A mismatch and HLA-C mismatch were found to be significant factors (HR = 1.41; $P = .013$ and HR = 1.38; $P = .014$, respectively). KIR-L-MM-G was not significant (HR = 1.13; $P = .640$) (Table 3).

In HLA-C mismatch patients, the cumulative incidence of cGVHD 3 years after transplantation was 43.2% in KIR-L-MM-G (95% CI = 27.2%-58.3%) and 40.4% in KIR2DL ligand match (95% CI = 35.4%-46.1%) ($P = .727$). Significant clinical risk factors for cGVHD by multivariate analysis were patient age (HR = 1.01; $P = .0004$), disease (HR = 1.23; $P = .003$), and TBI (HR = 1.54; $P = .004$).

Effects of HLA Allele Mismatch and KIR Ligand Mismatch on Survival

In all leukemia patients, HLA allele mismatch of each HLA-A, -B, and -DQB1 locus was found to be an independent risk factor for mortality after transplantation, and the mismatch of HLA-C was of marginal risk. HLA mismatch in each HLA-DRB1 and -DPB1 locus was not a significant factor. By leukemia cell type, mismatch of HLA-A, -B, and -DPB1 was a significant risk factor in ALL, and mismatch of HLA-A and -C was a significant risk factor in CML (Table 4).

Survival 5 years after transplantation was 39.8% in HLA-C mismatch (95% CI = 32.8%-46.7%) and 44.5% in HLA-C match (95% CI = 39.6%-49.3%) in ALL ($P = .088$); 33.7% (95% CI = 26.9%-40.6%) and 46.3% (95% CI = 41.2%-51.2%), respectively, in AML ($P < .001$); and 39.7% (95% CI = 32.8%-46.5%) and 58.3% (95% CI = 53.2%-63.1%), respectively, in CML ($P < .001$) (Figure 1).

Survival 5 years after transplantation was 40.9% in HLA-DPB1 mismatch (95% CI = 36.3%-45.4%) and 50.3% in HLA-DPB1 match (95% CI = 41.5%-58.4%) in ALL ($P = .031$); 41.8% (95% CI = 37.0%-46.6%) and 42.6% (95% CI = 34.5%-50.4%), respectively, in AML ($P = .698$); and 51.4% (95% CI = 46.5%-56.1%) and 53.4% (95% CI = 45.1%-61.0%), respectively, in CML ($P = .522$) (Figure 2).

KIR-L-MM-G was also found to be a significant risk factor for mortality (HR = 1.80; $P < .001$). Particularly in AML and CML patients, KIR-L-MM-G had a significantly higher adverse effect than match (HR = 1.93; $P = .005$ and HR = 2.23; $P < .001$, respectively); its effect was moderate in ALL patients (HR = 1.57; $P = .069$) (Table 4).

In HLA-C mismatch patients in either direction, the survival rate 5 years after transplantation was 20.0% for KIR-L-MM-G (95% CI = 6.9%-38.0%) and 43.0% in match (95% CI = 35.3%-50.5%) in ALL ($P = .041$); 19.4% (95% CI = 7.9%-34.6%) and 36.5% (95% CI = 28.8%-44.2%), respectively, in AML ($P = .013$); and 22.2 (95% CI = 10.5%-36.7%) and 43.6% (95% CI = 35.8%-51.1%), respectively, in CML ($P = .001$) (Figure 3).

Significant clinical factors for mortality by multivariate analysis were patient age (HR = 1.02; $P < .001$), donor age (HR = 1.01; $P = .037$), disease (HR = 0.88; $P = .006$), and the status at transplantation (high vs standard, HR = 2.14; $P < .001$).

DISCUSSION

In the present study, we attempted to elucidate how disparities of HLA and KIR affect leukemia relapse and the other transplantation-related immunologic events and to explore how these findings can be applied to induce a GVL effect and improve patient survival in the unrelated setting. Simultaneous analysis of HLA and KIR ligand matching by multivariate analysis made it possible to clarify the role of these antigens in UR-HSCT.

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report to elucidate the HLA locus responsible for the GVL effect by leukemia cell type in T-cell–replete UR-HSCT. The sequentially registered 577 AML, 617 ALL, and 596 CML patients sufficed to analyze the effects of HLA and KIR ligand matching in the 3 major leukemia cell types.

HLA-C mismatch reduced the relapse rate overall, as reported previously [4]. The GVL effect of HLA-C mismatch depended on the leukemia cell type. ALL patients with HLA-C mismatch showed a significantly lower leukemia relapse risk than those with match, whereas AML and CML patients did not. Furthermore, CML patients with HLA-DPB1 mismatch

showed a significantly lower leukemia relapse rate than those with match, whereas AML and ALL patients did not. Although the reason why the HLA locus responsible for the GVL effect differs with leukemia cell type remains unknown, the different expression of HLA antigens, such as HLA-C, HLA-DPB1, or co-stimulatory molecules on leukemia cells, might modify the immune response of effector cells to leukemia cells. The finding of HLA-DPB1 is in line with a previous report in CML and ALL patients treated with T cell–depleted UR-HSCT [12].

In contrast, an impact of HLA-A and -B allele mismatch on leukemia relapse was not observed. Because HLA-A and/or -B allele mismatch induces severe aGVHD, no GVL effect of HLA-A and /or -B allele mismatch might imply that the target antigenic peptide recognized by effector T cells responsible for aGVHD is not expressed on leukemia cells.

Unexpectedly, KIR-L-MM-G increased the leukemia relapse rate overall. A significantly increased relapse rate in the mismatched group was observed in ALL, but not in AML and CML. Simultaneous multivariate analysis of HLA-C mismatch and KIR-L-MM-G revealed that contrary reactions of these mismatches occurred independently. Although the mechanism involved in this detrimental effect of KIR-L-MM-G on leukemia relapse is not known, the activation of KIR-positive NK cells or T cells might cause immune dysfunction, which abrogates the GVL effect.

The GVL effect of donor-derived KIR-positive NK cells transplanted purified $CD34^+$ stem cells with HLA haploidentical donor was reported in AML patients, but not in ALL patients [22]. In T-cell–replete UR-HSCT, published reports show contradictory effects of KIR ligand mismatch on leukemia relapse. A GVL effect in myeloid malignancies [23-25], a higher leukemia relapse rate [26], and no significant effect [27-29] all have been reported. The use of ATG for GVHD prophylaxis might be a key to understanding these diverse results. Our analysis of T-cell–replete UR-BMT with no use of ATG provided reliable evidence for the adverse effect of KIR-L-MM-G on relapse of ALL relapse. No effect on relapse of AML or CML was reported in a recent large-scale study of myeloid malignancy from the Center for International Blood and Marrow Transplant Research, the European Blood and Marrow Transplant Registry, and the Dutch Registry [30]. Whether KIR ligand match affects leukemia relapse adversely or beneficially is a critical issue for clinical transplantation and immunotherapy using NK cells, and further large-scale comparative studies considering GVHD prophylaxis are warranted.

A higher rejection rate (HR = 4.39; $P = .012$) was found for KIR-L-MM-R; that is, in this mismatch combination, patient KIR2DL-positive effector cells lacking donor KIR ligand are reconstituted and activated after transplantation, which induces the rejection of engrafted donor-derived hematopoietic stem cells. "Hybrid resistance" has been extensively analyzed in mice to induce graft rejection by NK cells [31]. The same mechanism of rejection induced by NK cells might be considered in humans, although 88% of KIR ligand mismatch pairs and 86% of match pairs were given cyclophosphamide as a preconditioning. The effects of HLA class I mismatch for graft rejection were reported [5,32,33]; our data suggest that the effect of HLA-C mismatch were mainly because of KIR2DL ligand mismatch in the HVG direction, and may not result from the HLA-C allele mismatch itself. Our findings are in agreement with a report showing the effect of rejection but not engraftment by KIR2DL ligand mismatch in UR-HSCT [29].

Since the first JMDP report [4], HLA-class I mismatch has been known to significantly increase aGVHD, whereas HLA-DRB1 mismatch has only a marginal effect on aGVHD. The present study has confirmed those earlier findings. We could add the new data on HLA-DPB1 matching showing that HLA-DPB1 mismatch induces moderate aGVHD. Our finding of the effect of HLA-DPB1 on aGVHD concurs with other reports [9-11], although there we found no difference in aGVHD between 2 allele mismatches and 1 allele mismatch of HLA-DPB1.

The international collaborative study is expected to reconcile discrepancies of allele matching in ethnically diverse transplantation populations. Furthermore, the identification of nonpermissive HLA allele mismatch and amino acid substitution responsible for aGVHD, leukemia relapse, and survival might explain these discrepancies in diverse ethnic populations.

Interestingly, KIR-L-MM-G had a higher HR of severe aGVHD than did match. Because these values were adjusted by HLA allele matching and clinical factors, this finding demonstrates that KIR-L-MM-G is a factor independent of HLA allele matching. In fact, among HLA-C mismatch patients, KIR-L-MM-G was associated with a higher rate of grade 3-4 aGVHD than match. In KIR-L-MM-G, the donor-derived KIR2DL2/3- or KIR2DL1-positive effector cells are suspected to react with patient cells that lack the corresponding KIR2DL epitope of HLA-C. These effector cells induce aGVHD through several possible mechanisms. First, NK cells derived from donor graft might directly attack the patient target cells. This is unlikely, however, because in vivo infusion of alloreactive NK cells were found to not cause aGVHD [34], and NK cells were seen to play mainly a protective role for GVHD in a murine experimental model [35]. Alternatively, activated NK cells might

affect donor-derived T cells that induce aGVHD. Third, KIR2DL-positive T cells might induce aGVHD directly. The presence of KIR2DL-positive T cells was reconstituted after UR-HSCT [36].

Conflicting findings have been reported in terms of the effect of KIR-L-MM-G on aGVHD in T-cell–replete UR-HSCT. Some studies have found a trend toward less aGVHD [23], whereas others have reported an increased risk of aGVHD [27,29]. The variety of GVHD prophylaxis, HLA matching, and other clinical factors, and limited patient numbers in each study makes it difficult to determine the role of KIR ligand matching in clinical outcomes. The use of ATG and/or the T-cell depletion method for GVHD prophylaxis will be a key strategy in resolving the discrepancy regarding aGVHD in UR-HSCT [35,37] and in HLA haplotype–identical related HSCT with T-cell depletion [38]. That is, T cell and NK-cell reconstitution after transplantation might affect immunologic events induced by the interaction of KIR and HLA-C epitopes. In addition, genotyping of KIR genes, especially for activating KIR such as KIR2DS, is required to understand the mechanism of KIR involved in aGVHD and the GVL effect [39]. The East Asian population, including Japanese, is known to have several characteristic HLA types. Similarly, the frequencies of both the KIR ligand epitope and the KIR genotype are distinctive in the Japanese population. For example, a higher frequency of C1 epitope and dominance of the KIR "A" haplotype were reported [40]. Those features might contribute considerably to our results. The combination of KIR2DL1 and C2 epitope has been reported to show higher affinity and a stronger inhibitory signal compared with the combination of KIR2DL2/3 and C1 epitope [14].

HLA-A and HLA-C mismatch have been identified as significant independent factors inducing cGVHD, underscoring our previous finding of the importance of HLA class I matching. No influence of KIR-L-MM-G on cGVHD (in contrast to aGVHD) indicates that the KIR-related immunologic reaction has no relation to cGVHD.

There is another model regarding the KIR ligand effect in HSCT, the so-called "missing KIR ligand theory." Hsu et al reported this effect on survival and relapse of AML and myelodysplastic syndrome in T-cell–depleted HLA-matched related HSCT [41] and on relapse in AML, ALL, and CML in UR-HSCT in non-JMDP populations [42]. Lack of either KIR2DL ligand in a patient should activate the corresponding donor NK cells and induce the GVL effect.

In the analysis of KIR matching including HLA mismatch pairs, the mismatch pairs in the "missing KIR ligand theory" with either C1C1 or C2C2 patient epitope were divided into match and mismatch in the "KIR ligand matching theory" by donor epitope. When the donor has either C1C1 or C2C2, the KIR ligand matching theory indicates match, and when the donor has C1C2, the theory indicates mismatch. In this combination, donors with C1C2 (n = 92) had a significantly higher rate of severe aGVHD (44.4%) than donors with either C1C1 or C2C2 (19.2%) (n = 1413; $P < .001$). Therefore, we considered the "ligand matching model" to be applied in this JMDP study.

Finally, because survival after transplantation is influenced not only by leukemia relapse, but also by transplantation-related mortality resulting from aGVHD, cGVHD, fatal infections, or graft failure, the effect of HLA matching and KIR ligand matching should be discussed in light of these events.

The present study has more precisely elucidated the impact of HLA matching on leukemia patient survival. The mismatch of HLA-A and -B alleles resulted in significantly higher mortality. HLA-C and HLA-DQB1 mismatch emerged as a risk factor for poorer survival for the first time in the JMDP study. Increased survival in ALL with HLA-C mismatch cannot be linked to the compensation from a lower leukemia relapse rate. HLA-DPB1 mismatch did not significantly affect overall mortality despite the increase in moderately aGVHD. These observations of HLA-C and -DQB1 mismatch in the JMDP are in line with those of other recent reports. The NMDP reported an adverse effect of HLA-C mismatch [8], and another study reported that not only HLA-C mismatch in early-stage CML, but also HLA-DQB1 mismatched CML patients with multiple mismatch posed increased risk for mortality [43].

It should be noted that KIR-L-MM-G resulted in higher mortality in UR-HSCT with T-cell–replete marrow regardless of leukemia cell type. KIR-L-MM-G might induce an immunodeficient state that would result in a higher risk for opportunistic infections [44,45]. Thus, infectious complications by cytomegalovirus and the like should be explored in relation to KIR.

We estimate that about 30% of patients in the Japanese population have HLA-C mismatch donors, of whom 15.0% are KIR-L-MM in the GVH direction, 20.8% are KIR-L-MM in the HVG direction, and 35.6% are KIR-L-MM in either direction, when HLA-A, -B, and -DRB1 genotyping is used as the donor confirmatory typing. Because both KIR2DL ligand matching and/or HLA matching itself affect aGVHD, cGVHD, rejection, ALL relapse, and survival, as described earlier, HLA-C typing is essential in selecting a suitable donor to reduce the risk of aGVHD and improve survival in practice.

In conclusion, our analysis has produced important findings for transplantation immunology and the selection of donors in UR-HSCT. First, HLA-C and HLA-DPB1 mismatches are expected to induce a ben-

eficial GVL effect, which should be considered in terms of the leukemia cell type of individual patients. Second, KIR-L-MM should be avoided, because it induces only adverse effects on transplantation outcome and provides no benefits for patients undergoing T-cell–replete UR-HSCT.

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Allogeneic Bone Marrow Transplantation from Unrelated Human T-Cell Leukemia Virus-I–negative Donors for Adult T-Cell Leukemia/Lymphoma: Retrospective Analysis of Data from the Japan Marrow Donor Program

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ABSTRACT

Allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplantation (allo-HSCT) from an HLA-matched related donor has been suggested to improve the poor prognosis of adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma (ATLL). However, the infusion of HTLV-I–infected cells from HTLV-I–positive related donors could lead to the development of donor-derived ATLL under immunosuppressive conditions. Although most ATLL patients lack a suitable HLA-matched related donor and require an HTLV-I–negative unrelated donor, little information is currently available regarding the outcome of unrelated bone marrow transplantation (UBMT) for ATLL. To evaluate the role of UBMT in treating ATLL, we retrospectively analyzed data from 33 patients with ATLL treated by UBMT through the Japan Marrow Donor Program (JMDP). Overall survival (OS), progression-free survival, and cumulative incidence of disease progression and progression-free mortality at 1 year after UBMT were 49.5%, 49.2%, 18.6%, and 32.3%, respectively. Multivariate analysis identified recipient age as an independent prognostic factor for OS (P = .044). Patients age ≥50 years who showed nonremission at transplantation tended to have higher rates of treatment-related mortality. Our observations suggest that UBMT could represent a feasible treatment option for ATLL patients and warrant further investigation based on these risk factors.

KEY WORDS

Adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma • Allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplantation • Unrelated donor • Graft-versus-adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma

INTRODUCTION

Adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma (ATLL) is a peripheral T-cell neoplasm caused by human T-cell leukemia virus type I (HTLV-I) [1,2]. ATLL is generally classified into 4 clinical subtypes based on clinical and laboratory features: acute, chronic, smoldering, and lymphoma type. Clinically, acute- and lymphoma-type ATLL show an aggressive course, with tumor

burden, severe hypercalcemia, multiorgan failure, and poor performance status. ATLL has an extremely poor prognosis, with a median survival of about 6 months for the acute type and about 10 months for the lymphoma type; these patients are usually highly immunocompromised and develop various opportunistic infections. [3] Furthermore, their tumor cells are usually resistant to conventional chemotherapies, because overexpression of multidrug-resistance genes leads to intrinsic drug resistance. [4,5] Intensified chemotherapy [6,7] and autologous stem cell transplantation [8] likewise have failed to improve the prognosis. Thus, alternative treatment strategies for ATLL are needed.

Some cases of successful treatment with allogeneic stem cell transplantation (allo-HSCT) from an HLA-matched related donor have been reported, and a graft-versus-ATLL (GvATLL) effect has been implicated for improving treatments outcomes in transplant patients undergoing transplantation for ATLL. [9–11] However, more than 2/3 of patients with ATLL lack HLA-matched related donors. Furthermore, approximately 2/3 of the siblings of patients with ATLL are HTLV-I carriers [12], and allo-HSCT from an HTLV-I–positive donor may carry a risk of promoting the development of ATLL through the addition of a new HTLV-I load on the immunocompromised host. [13,14] Although most ATLL patients lack a suitable HLA-matched related donor and require an unrelated donor to benefit from allo-HSCT, few reports are available concerning the results of unrelated donor bone marrow transplantation (UBMT) for ATLL [9,11,15–18], and the number of patients in these few reports has been too small on which to base any solid conclusions. Therefore, to clarify the feasibility and efficacy of UBMT from an HTLV-I-negative donor for ATLL, we retrospectively analyzed registered data and clinical outcomes of UBMT for ATLL through the Japan Marrow Donor Program (JMDP).

PATIENTS AND METHODS

Patients and Transplantation Procedure

The subjects of this retrospective study consisted of 33 patients with ATLL (acute type, n = 20; lymphoma type, n = 7; not described, n = 6) who received UBMT from a donor mediated and recruited through the JMDP between September 1999 and January 2004. The clinical indications for UBMT were determined by each individual institution. The median time from diagnosis of ATLL to UBMT was 8 months (range, 5–28 months). At the time of transplantation, 13 patients were in complete remission (CR), 2 patients were in partial remission (PR), and 14 patients were in nonremission (NR); disease status at the time of transplantation was not described in 4 patients. CR status was reported in detail for 13 patients, with 11 patients in first CR (CR1) and 2 patients in second CR (CR2) (Table 1). All unrelated donors were HTLV-I antibody–negative. Serologic typing for HLA-A, -B, and -DR was performed using a standard 2-stage complement-dependent test of microcytotoxicity. [19] Alleles at the HLA-A, -B, and -DRB1 loci were identified by high-resolution DNA typing as described previously. [20] Serologic typing revealed that 22 patients were matched at the HLA-A, -B, and -DR loci. Four patients were mismatched at 1 HLA-DR locus, and 1 patient was mismatched at 2 loci of HLA-A and -DR. DNA typing revealed that 13 patients were matched at HLA-A, -B and -DRB1 loci. Ten patients were mismatched at 1 locus; 9 patients were mismatched at the HLA-DRB1 locus, and the remaining patient was mismatched at 1 HLA-A locus. Another 4 patients were mismatched at 2 loci. HLA typing data were not described in 6 patients. Patient and donor characteristics are summarized in Table 2.

Table 1. *Patient characteristics*

Characteristic	Value
Median age at transplantation, years (range)	49 (range, 24–59)
Sex, n	
Male	18
Female	15
Performance status, n	
0–1	21
2–4	4
ND	8
Subtypes of ATLL, n	
Acute	20
Lymphoma	7
ND	6
Disease status at transplantation, n	
CR or PR	15
NR	14
ND	4
Duration from diagnosis to UBMT, n	
Within 1 year	21
Beyond 1 year	11
ND	1
Conditioning, n	(TBI-containing, 22; non-TBI-containing, 11)
CST	27
RIST	6
Cell dose, n	
$< 3.0 \times 10^8$/kg	16
$\geq 3.0 \times 10^8$/kg	14
ND	3
GVHD prophylaxis, n	
CsA + MTX	13
TCR + MTX	20

ND indicates not described; CR, complete remission; PR, partial remission; NR, nonremission; UBMT, unrelated bone marrow transplantation; TBI, total body irradiation; CST, conventional stem cell transplantation; RIST, reduced-intensity stem cell transplantation; GVHD, graft-versus-host disease; CsA, cyclosporine; MTX, methotrexate; TCR, tacrolimus.

Table 2. *Patient and donor characteristics*

Characteristic	Value
HLA-A, -B, and -DRB1 allele mismatches, n	
0	13
1	10
2	4
ND	6
Sex of donor/patient, n	
Male/male	13
Female/female	8
Female/male	5
Male/female	7
Extent of ABO match, n	
Match	19
Minor mismatch	4
Major mismatch	7
Major/minor	2
ND	1

ND indicates not described.

Transplantation was performed according to the protocol of each institution; therefore, conditioning regimens and prophylaxis against graft-versus-host disease (GVHD) differed among patients. Conditioning regimens were myeloablative in 27 patients; total body irradiation (TBI) was incorporated in 22 patients. Reduced-intensity conditioning regimens were used in 6 patients. GVHD prophylaxis included cyclosporine (n = 13) and tacrolimus (n = 20) combined with methotrexate. All recipients received bone marrow transplantation, which was not manipulated.

Assessment of Engraftment, GVHD, Survival, and Progression-Free Mortality

The day of sustained engraftment was defined as the first of 3 consecutive days with an absolute neutrophil count exceeding 0.5×10^9/L. Acute GVHD was diagnosed and graded according to the standard criteria described previously. [21,22] Chronic GVHD was evaluated according to standard criteria [23] in patients who survived more than 100 days after transplantation. Overall survival (OS) was defined as the duration (in days) from transplantation to death from any cause. Progression-free survival (PFS) was defined as days from transplantation to disease progression or death from any cause. Progression-free mortality was defined as death without disease progression.

Data Management and Statistical Considerations

Data were collected by the JMDP using a standardized report form. Follow-up reports were submitted at 100 days, 1 year, and every subsequent year after transplantation. The cumulative incidence of disease progression and progression-free mortality were evaluated using Gray's method, [24] considering each other risk as a competing risk. OS and PFS were estimated using the Kaplan-Meier method. Potential confounding factors considered in the analysis were age, sex, disease status, duration from diagnosis to transplantation, Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group (ECOG) performance status, [25] conditioning regimen, number of bone marrow cells transplanted, and presence of grade II–IV acute GVHD. Proportional hazard modeling was used to evaluate any influence of these factors on OS, treating development of acute GVHD as a time-dependent covariate. Factors associated with at least borderline significance ($P < .05$) in univariate analyses were subjected to multivariate analyses using backward-stepwise proportional hazards modeling. P values $P < .10$ were considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Engraftment and GVHD

Transplantation outcomes are summarized in Table 3. The median number of cells transplanted was 2.44×10^8 nucleated cells/kg of recipient body weight (range, $0.58–3.58 \times 10^8$ nucleated cells/kg of recipient body weight). Five patients (15%) died within 20 days. Neutrophil engraftment was achieved in 28 patients. Late graft failure occurred in 1 of these 28 patients, although the patient showed engraftment on

Table 3. *Transplantation outcome*

	Value
Alive/dead, n	19/14
Median follow-up for survivors, days (range)	139 (87–600)
Cause of death	
Progression, n	2
Death without progression, n	9
Median days after transplantation (range)	32 (10–71)
Late graft failure, n	1
GVHD, n	1
Infection, n	3
TMA, n	2
VOD, n	1
Arrhythmia, n	1
Not described, n	3
Disease progression, n	5
Median days after transplantation (range)	122 (61–223)
Engraftment, n	
Engraftment	28
Death within 20 days	5
Late graft failure	1
Acute GVHD, n	
None	3
Grade I	8
Grade II	12
Grade III	3
Grade IV	2
Chronic GVHD, n	
None	14
Limited	1
Extensive	3

GVHD indicates graft-versus-host disease; TMA, thrombotic microangiopathy; VOD, venooculusive disease.

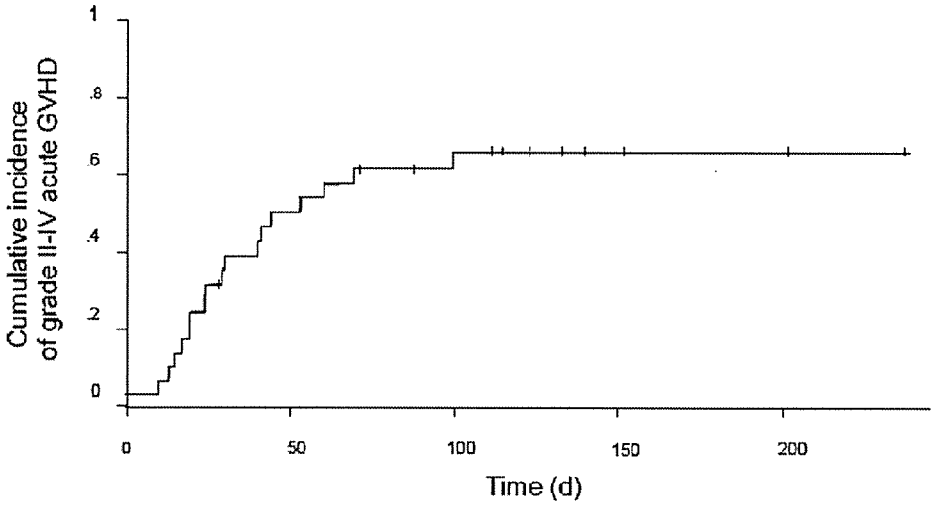

Figure 1. Cumulative incidence of grade II–IV acute GVHD in patients who achieved neutrophil engraftment.

day 14. Acute GVHD developed in 25 of the 28 patients who achieved engraftment (89%): grade I GVHD in 8 patients, grade II in 12 patients, grade III in 3 patients, and grade IV in 2 patients. The cumulative incidence of grade II–IV acute GVHD was 61% (Figure 1). Chronic GVHD developed in 4 of 18 patients, with limited disease in 1 patient and extensive disease in the other 3 patients.

Survival and disease progression

The 1-year OS and PFS were 49.5% (95% confidence interval [CI], 31.2%–78.5%) and 49.2% (95% CI, 33.6%–72.1%), respectively (Figure 2). Disease progression was observed in 5 patients, and the median number of days from transplantation to disease progression was 122 (range, 61–223 days). As of the last follow-up, 14 deaths had been reported. Primary cause of death was disease progression in 2 patients and was not described in 3 patients, but the other 9 deaths were not due to disease progression (see Table 3). Primary causes of transplantation-related death within 100 days after transplantation were late graft failure in 1 patient, GVHD in 1 patient, infection in 3 patients (with methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*–positive sepsis in 1 patient and pulmonary infection in 2 patients), thrombotic microangiopathy (TMA) in 2 patients, veno-occlusive disease (VOD) in 1 patient, and arrhythmia in 1 patient.

Univariate and Multivariate Analyses for OS

Pretransplantation and posttransplant factors were calculated for OS (Table 4). In univariate analyses, OS was not significantly associated with sex, duration from diagnosis to transplantation, ECOG performance status, conditioning regimen, number of bone marrow cells transplanted, or presence of grade II–IV acute GVHD. On the other hand, patient age and disease status at transplantation were identified as significant independent risk factors. In multivariate analyses, only patient age at transplantation was identified as exerting a significant independent risk impact on OS (≥50 years vs <50 years; relative risk, 3.47; 95% CI, 1.03–11.6; $P = .044$). Disease status at transplantation exerted a marginally significant impact on OS (NR vs CR or PR; relative risk, 3.17; 95% CI, 0.96–10.5; $P = .059$) (Figure 3).

Influence of Pretransplantation Factors on Disease Progression and Progression-Free Mortality

The cumulative incidence of disease progression and progression-free mortality at 1 year were 18.6% and 32.3%, respectively (Figure 4). To clarify how age and disease status at transplantation affected OS, we evaluated the relationship between these factors and the incidence of progression-free mortality. The cumulative incidence of progression-free mortality was significantly higher in patients age ≥50 years at transplantation (50% vs 18%; $P = .048$; Figure 5A). NR at transplantation exerted a marginally significant effect on increased progression-free mortality (54% vs 20%; $P = .070$; Figure 5B).

DISCUSSION

This study analyzed the data and evaluated treatment outcomes for 33 patients with ATLL who received UBMT. Two important findings were identified regarding UBMT for ATLL. First, UBMT from HTLV-I–negative donors for ATLL represents a feasible treatment. Second, recipient age (≥50 years) and NR disease status at transplantation were independent risk factors for OS, and patients with ATLL displaying these risk factors tended to exhibit higher frequencies of treatment-related mortality.

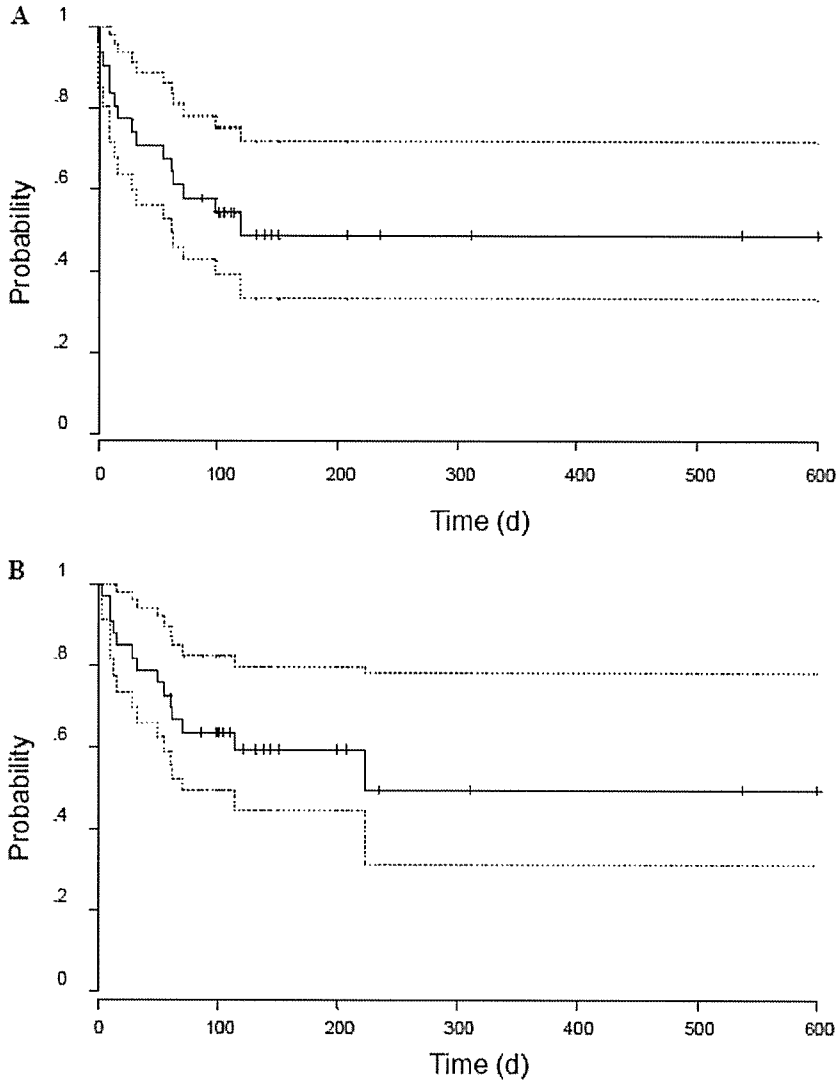

Figure 2. Probability of progression-free survival (A) and overall survival (B) after unrelated bone marrow transplantation for adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma. Dashed lines represent 95% confidence intervals.

Table 4. *Prognosis factors in univariate and multivariate analyses*

	Univariate		Multivariate	
	Relative risk (95% CI)	*P*	Relative risk (95% CI)	*P*
Age ≥50 versus <50 years	4.03 (1.23–13.3)	.022	4.03 (1.23–13.3)	.022
Male versus female	0.97 (0.34–2.80)	.95		
PS 0–1 versus 2–4	0.44 (0.11–1.70)	.23		
NR versus CR or PR	3.37 (1.03–11.0)	.044		.059
UBMT within 1 year versus beyond 1 year	0.54 (0.15–2.00)	.35		
RIST versus CST	0.71 (0.19–2.59)	.60		
TBI versus non-TBI	1.35 (0.45–4.04)	.59		
Cell dose < 3.0×10^8/kg versus ≥ 3.0×10^8/kg	0.98 (0.31–3.05)	.97		
GVHD II–IV present versus absent	1.91 (0.50–7.26)	.34		

CI indicates confidence interval; PS, performance status; NR, nonremission; CR, complete remission; PR, partial remission; UBMT, unrelated bone marrow transplantation; RIST, reduced-intensity stem cell transplantation; CST, conventional stem cell transplantation; TBI, total body irradiation; GVHD, graft-versus-host disease.

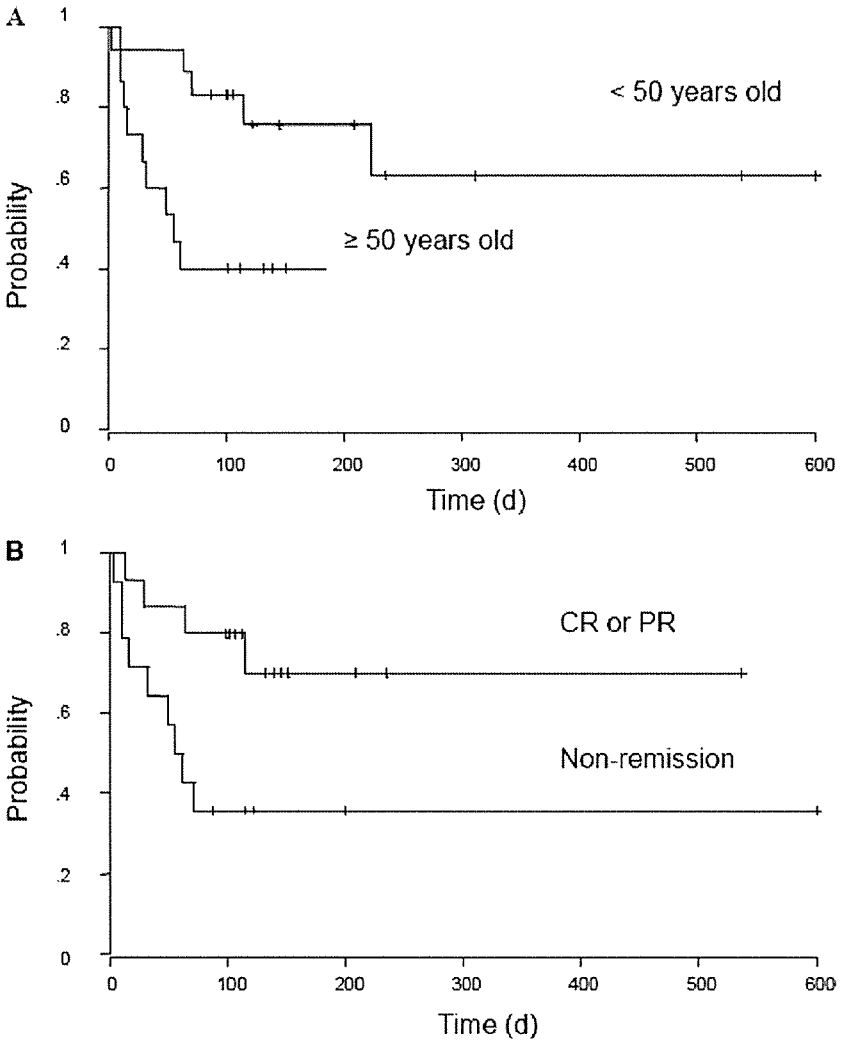

Figure 3. Overall survival according to pretransplantation factors, age (A) and disease status at transplantation (B).

ATLL has an extremely poor prognosis, with projected 2- and 4-year survival rates of 16.7% and 5.0% for the acute type and 21.3% and 5.7% for the lymphoma type, respectively. [3] Neither intensified chemotherapy nor autologous stem cell transplantation have improved the prognosis. Encouraging results for allo-HSCT for ATLL from HLA-matched related donors have been reported by several groups; thus, allo-HSCT may improve the poor prognosis of ATLL. However, the number of patients in most reports has been too small to allow evaluation of the efficacy of allo-HSCT for ATLL. The present results were derived from a large number of patients who underwent transplantation (33 patients) performed through the JMDP. Longer follow-up is, of course, needed to confirm the curative potential of allo-HSCT for ATLL. However, the good survival rates noted here suggest that allo-HSCT is an effective treatment for ATLL, and that patients with ATLL will benefit from allo-HSCT through HTLV-I–negative unrelated donors, because the OS and PFS rates at 1 year after UBMT were 49.5% and 49.2%, respectively. Compared with the results for patients with non-Hodgkin's lymphoma in the National Marrow Donor Program, the incidence of grade III–IV acute GVHD in the present study was low (18% vs 30%). [26] The outcome in the present study appears to be favorable, possible due to the lower incidence of grade III–IV acute GVHD. This observation is compatible with previous studies showing a lower incidence of acute GVHD in Japanese patients compared with Western patients, which might reflect the less diverse genetic background of in the Japanese population. [27,28]

Frequency of relapse after transplantation differs between autologous and allo-HSCT for ATLL. The use of high-dose chemotherapy with autologous HSCT has been reported in only 9 patients, all of whom relapsed or died from transplantation-related mortality. [8] In contrast, the cumulative incidence of

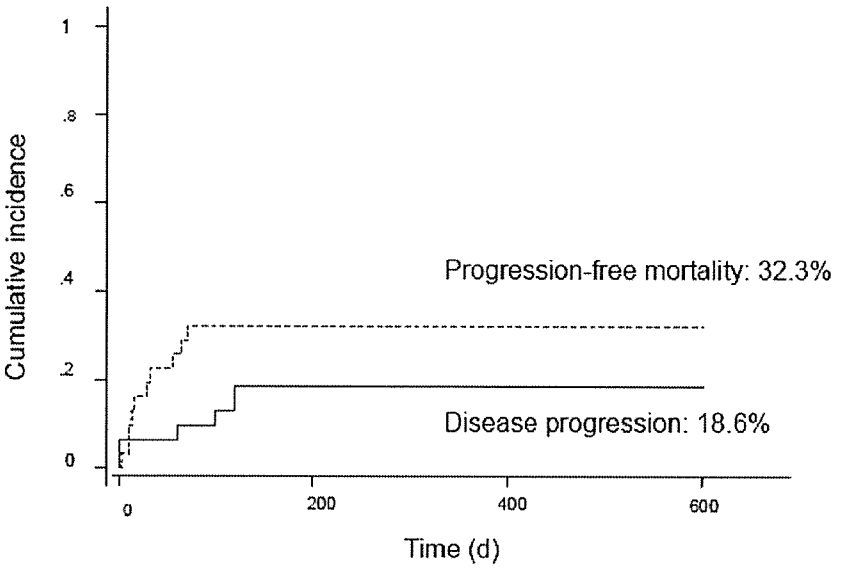

Figure 4. Cumulative incidence of disease progression (—) and progression-free mortality (---) after transplantation.

disease progression was lower after UBMT in this study. Interestingly, patients with ATLL displaying acute or chronic GVHD reportedly did not relapse. [9] In another report, patients with ATLL who relapsed after allo-HSCT reachieved CR after tapering or discontinuation of immunosuppressive agents and donor lymphocyte infusions. [10,11] Reactivation in tax-specific CD8-positive cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs), which has been recently shown in patients with ATLL after allo-HSCT, may indicate a potential contribution of CTLs to anti-ATLL immunity and induction of a GvATLL effect. [29] These results strongly suggest that a GvATLL effect could work on some patients with ATLL to prevent relapse after allo-HSCT. In the present study, neither univariate nor multivariate analysis showed a survival benefit for acute GVHD. We were unable to analyze the relationship between chronic GVHD and relapse, because of the low number of patients with chronic GVHD. In fact, the number of patients may have been insufficient to confirm GvATLL in this study. On the other hand, the absence of benefit from GVHD in preventing relapse suggests that a GvATLL effect could occur in patients with ATLL after allo-HSCT without clinically obvious GVHD. [11]

Transplantation-related mortality was a significant problem in this study. Five patients (15%) died within 20 days, from infection in 3 patients and TMA in 2 patients. Nine patients (27%) died within 100 days, due to infection in 3 patients, TMA in 2 patients, and VOD in 1 patient. Patients with ATLL might have an increased risk of frequent opportunistic infection, because they have an associated T-cell immunodeficiency. Furthermore, ATLL is usually systemic in distribution, and the accumulated organ damages as a result of repeated cytotoxic chemotherapy seen in patients before transplantation may have contributed to the onset of TMA. In univariate and multivariate analysis, recipient age (≥50 years) and NR disease status at transplantation represented significant risk factors for OS. The multivariate analyses were limited by the small number of patients in each subgroup; however, patients displaying these risk factors tended to have a higher rate of treatment-related mortality than patients without these factors, and it can be assumed that these risk factors have a significant relationship with outcome clinically. In this study, mostly myeloablative conditioning regimens were used before transplantation. Given that conventional allo-HSCT is designed to eradicate tumor cells with myeloablative intensity using maximally tolerated doses of high-dose chemotherapy and radiotherapy, the desirable effects often may be offset by overwhelming toxicity in patients age ≥50 years. Moreover, the number of patients with ATLL who are eligible for allo-HSCT with myeloablative conditioning is limited, because the typical patient with ATLL has a relatively advanced age at presentation (about 60 years). To reduce treatment-related mortality, allo-HSCT with reduced-intensity conditioning offers a new treatment option for patients with ATLL who are ineligible for allo-HSCT with myeloablative conditioning due to advanced age or medical infirmity. [30,31] Okamura et al [32] reported on 16 patients age > 50 years with ATLL who underwent allo-HSCT with reduced-intensity conditioning from HLA-matched related donors and found that treatment-related mortality was acceptable and that allo-HSCT with reduced-intensity conditioning was a feasible treatment for ATLL. Given these findings, UBMT

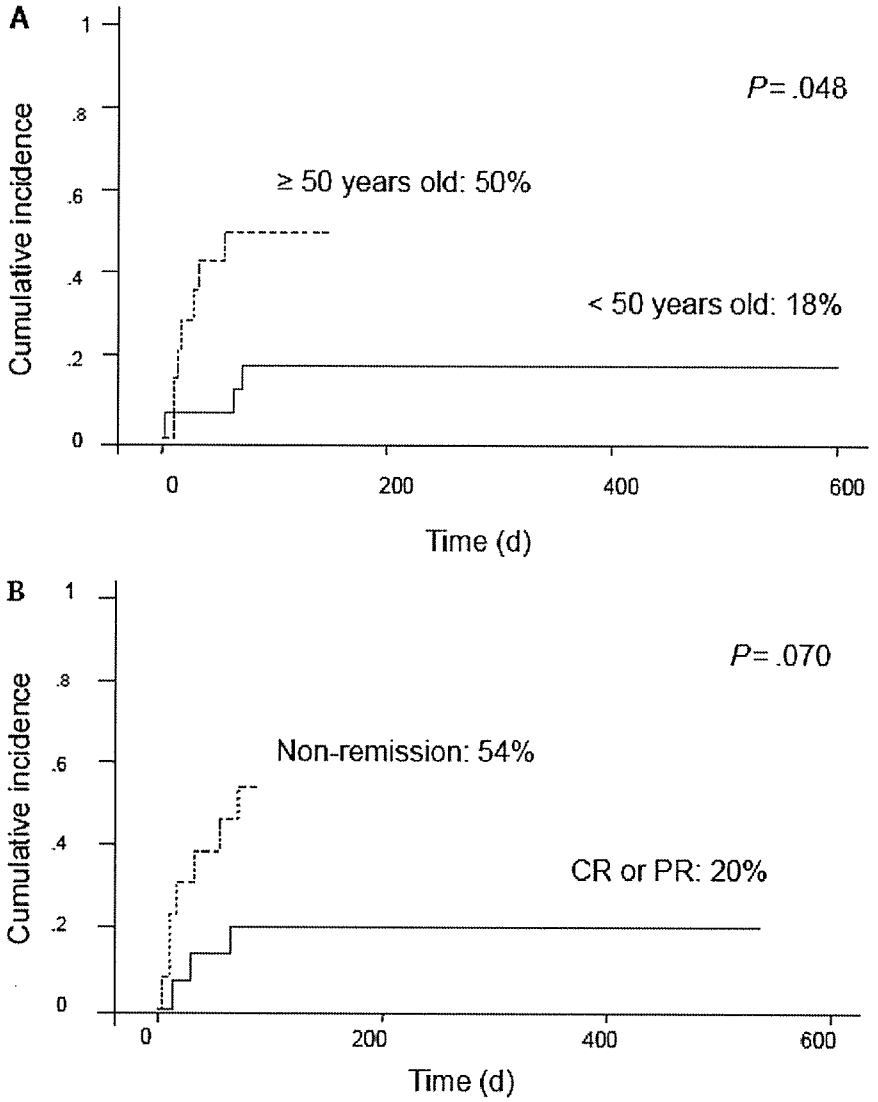

Figure 5. Cumulative incidence of progression-free mortality grouped according to pretransplantation factors, age (A) and disease status at transplantation (B).

with reduced-intensity conditioning should be considered for elderly patients with ATLL.

Another concern related to allo-HSCT for ATLL involves the use of HTLV-1–positive carrier donors. About 2/3 of siblings of patients with ATLL are HTLV-I carriers. From the perspective of HTLV-I–positive donor risk, granulocyte colony–stimulating factor (G-CSF) can reportedly stimulate the proliferation of ATLL cells [33], and HTLV-I–positive donors may be at increased risk of developing ATLL due to the administration of G-CSF in the setting of allogeneic peripheral blood stem cell transplantation. From the perspective of patients with ATLL, allo-HSCT from an HTLV-I–positive donor may carry a risk of HTLV-I–associated disease after allo-HSCT [34] or a risk of promoting the future development of ATLL due to the new HTLV-I load on immunocompromised recipients [13,14]. On the other hand, to date there is no evidence in the JMDP or the literature that ATLL can develop from infected HTLV-I–negative donor cells due to the HTLV-I load of the recipient. The HTLV-I proviral load dramatically decreased to an undetectable level after transplantation, especially after transplantation from HTLV-I–negative donors. [18, 32] This decreased HTLV-I proviral load was observed after both myeloablative and reduced-intensity conditioning. Transplantation from an HTLV-I–positive donor is reportedly associated with a higher frequency of relapse compared with transplantation from an HTLV-I–negative donor. [11] Therefore, the uninfected normal donor T cells might overwhelm infected HTLV-I recipient T cells due to a GvATLL response and might act as an antiviral therapy. However, an HTLV-I–positive do-

nor might avoid clonal expansion of HTLV-I–infected T lymphocytes after allo-HSCT through the provision of cytotoxic T cells. Thus, it is currently difficult to determine whether an HTLV-I–positive or–negative donor should be selected. Longer follow-up is needed to resolve this issue. In the meantime, a prudent clinical attitude toward both HTLV-I–positive donors and recipients with ATLL is warranted.

In conclusion, allo-HSCT from an HTLV-I–negative unrelated donor appears to be an feasible alternative treatment for patients with ATLL for whom an HLA-matched related donor is unavailable. Further prospective controlled studies are needed to assess the efficacy of allo-HSCT for ATLL and to define the clinical indications of allo-HSCT for ATLL, taking into account donor selection, the conditioning regimen, and the prognostic factors identified in this study.

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APPENDIX: PARTICIPATING INSTITUTIONS

The following centers in Japan participated in this study: Hokkaido University Hospital, Sapporo University Hospital, Sapporo Hokuyu Hospital, Japanese Red Cross Asahikawa Hospital, Asahikawa Medical College Hospital, Hirosaki University Hospital, Tohoku University Hospital, Yamagata University Hospital, Akita University Hospital, Fukushima Medical College, National Cancer Center Central Hospital, Institute of Medical Science at the University of Tokyo, Toho University Hospital, Omori Hospital, Tokyo Metropolitan Komagome Hospital, Nihon University Hospital, Itabashi Hospital, Jikei University Hospital, Keio University Hospital, Tokyo Medical College Hospital, Tokyo Medical and Dental University Hospital, Tokyo University Hospital, Yokohama City University Hospital, Kanagawa Children's Medical Center, Kanagawa Cancer Center, Tokai University Hospital, St Marianna University Hospital, Chiba University Hospital, Chiba Children's Hospital, Matsudo Municipal Hospital, Kameda General Hospital, Saitama Children's Medical Center, Saitama Cancer Center Hospital, Saitama Medical School Hospital, Ibaraki Children's Hospital, Jichi Medical School Hospital, Dokkyo University Hospital, Fukaya Red Cross Hospital, Saiseikai Maebashi Hospital, Gunma University Hospital, Niigata University Hospital, Niigata Cancer Center Hospital, Shinshu University Hospital, Saku Central Hospital, Hamamatsu University Hospital, Hamamatsu Medical Center, Shizuoka General Hospital, Shizuoka Children's Hospital, Japanese Red Cross Nagoya First Hospital, Nagoya Daini Red Cross Hospital, Meitetsu Hospital, Nagoya University Hospital, Nagoya Ekisaikai Hospital, National Nagoya Hospital, Aichi Medical School Hospital, Nagoya City University Hospital, Showa Hospital, Anjo Kousei Hospital, Fujita Health University Hospital, Mie University Hospital, Kanazawa University Hospital, Kanazawa Medical University Hospital, Toyama Prefectural Central Hospital, Fukui Medical School Hospital, Shiga University of Medical Science, Center for Adult Disease in Osaka, Kinki University Hospital, Osaka University Hospital, Osaka Medical Center and Research Institute for Maternal and Child Health, Matsushita Memorial Hospital, Hyogo College of Medicine Hospital, Hyogo Medical Center for Adults, Kobe City General Hospital, Kobe University Hospital, Kyoto University Hospital, Kyoto Prefectural University of Medicine Hospital, Social Insurance Kyoto Hospital, Tottori Prefectural Central Hospital, Tottori University Hospital, Hiroshima Red Cross Hospital and Atomic-Bomb Survivors Hospital, Yamaguchi University Hospital, Ehime Prefectural Central Hospital, Okayama National Hospital, Kurashiki Central Hospital, Kyushu University Hospital, Harasanshin General Hospital, Hamanomachi General Hospital, National Kyushu Cancer Center, St Mary's Hospital, Kokura Memorial Hospital, Saga Prefectural Hospital, Nagasaki University Hospital, Miyazaki Prefectural Hospital, Kumamoto National Hospital, Kumamoto University Hospital, Oita Medical University Hospital, Kagoshima University Hospital, and Imamura Bun-in Hospital.

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ORIGINAL PAPER

Mapping of susceptibility and protective loci for acute GVHD in unrelated HLA-matched bone marrow transplantation donors and recipients using 155 microsatellite markers on chromosome 22

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Abstract Despite matching donors and recipients for the human leukocyte antigens (HLAs) expressed by the major histocompatibility genomic region of the short arm of chromosome 6, several recipients still develop acute graft-versus-host disease (aGVHD) after bone marrow transplantation (BMT). This is possibly due to non-HLA gene polymorphisms, such as minor histocompatibility antigens (mHas) and genes coding for cytokines. However, a detailed genetic background for aGVHD has not yet been established. To find novel susceptibility and/or protective loci for aGVHD, a whole genome-wide association study of donors and recipients needs to be performed. As the first step to such a study, we retrospectively analyzed polymorphisms of 155 microsatellite markers spread across the long arm of chromosome 22 in 70 pairs of HLA-matched unrelated BMT donors and recipients. We performed individual typing and then compared the markers' allele frequencies (1) between all the aGVHD (grades III and IV GVHD) and GVHD-free (grade 0 GVHD) groups in donors and recipients and (2) between the aGVHD and aGVHD-free groups in donor/recipient pairs that were matched and mismatched for the microsatellite marker's allele. Screening of the microsatellite markers revealed five loci with a significant difference between the aGVHD and GVHD-free groups and revealed eight loci on chromosome 22, where the microsatellite allele mismatched markers were associated with aGVHD. This screening analysis suggests that several aGVHD-associated susceptible and protective loci exist on chromosome 22, which may encompass novel gene regions that need to be elucidated for their role in aGVHD.

Keywords Microsatellite · Bone marrow transplantation · Acute GVHD · Chromosome 22 · Non-HLA

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Introduction

The occurrence of acute graft-versus-host disease (aGVHD) is still a major cause of mortality in the bone marrow transplantation (BMT) recipients who are not related familially to donors. Despite successfully matching the human leukocyte antigen (HLA) alleles of donors and recipients for hematopoietic stem cell transplantation, a significant proportion of transplantation recipients develop aGVHD because of genetic differences attributed to minor histocompatibility antigens (mHa) (Chao 2004; Falkenburg et al. 2003), non-HLA genes coding for cytokines, and other molecules involved in the pathogenesis of aGVHD (Charron 2003; Kallianpur 2005; Dickinson and Charron 2005; Mullighan et al. 2004).

Genetic association studies of aGVHD can be performed at least in two ways: the candidate gene approach and genome-wide approach. The former approach is hypothesis-driven and dependent on the systematic knowledge of the aGVHD biological process. By using the candidate gene approach, single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) were found within cytokine or cytokine receptor genes, which affect the aGVHD (Charron 2003; Kallianpur 2005; Dickinson and Charron 2005; Mullighan et al. 2004). However, aGVHD is a complex pathophysiological disease, and undoubtedly, a number of unknown genes contribute to or affect the GVHD mechanism. In this regard, the candidate gene approach would fail to find novel genes that are not already reported or thought to be immunoregulatory genes involved with aGVHD. In comparison, the genetic association studies using the genome-wide approach and genetic markers to test all possible variants systemically across the whole genome would be a more experimentally ideal approach to find novel genes involved with aGVHD. In addition, genomic matching by using SNP and/or microsatellite markers for finding compatibility of minor antigens in BMT may improve survival and other clinical outcomes.

Microsatellites and SNPs are two types of genetic markers that can be applied to genome-wide disease association studies, with each type of marker presenting certain advantages as well as inconveniences. Microsatellites are direct tandem-repeated sequences of DNA with a repeat size ranging from 2 to 6 bp. The number of repeats within a microsatellite sequence is usually less than 100. Because the microsatellite polymorphism is based on the differences in number of repeats, microsatellites are highly polymorphic with a high degree of heterozygosity. Polymorphic microsatellites are fewer in number than SNPs, but like SNPs, they are widely distributed across the human genome enabling efficient and accurate calculations of linkage disequilibrium (LD) between pairs of microsatellite loci separated by less than 100 kb of genomic sequence. Indeed, we have already established and described a set of 27,039 microsatellite markers for the systematic analysis of the whole human genome and, together with SNP analysis, revealed at least seven potential susceptibility gene loci of rheumatoid arthritis (Tamiya et al. 2005). Therefore, the main advantage of using microsatellites as the primary or "first pass" genotyping method is that they allow for a genome association analysis to become an immediate and efficient reality.

To date, there are only a few association studies using microsatellite analysis to determine the potential clinical outcomes in hematopoietic stem cell transplantation, and these studies are limited mainly to the cytokine genes and the HLA region (Karabon et al. 2005; Li et al. 2004; Cullup et al. 2003; Nordlander et al. 2002; Witt et al. 1999). As a set of 27,039 microsatellite markers for the systematic analysis of the whole human genome has been established, we decided to use them in a genome-wide search of allele frequency differences to find and map novel susceptibility and/or protective loci for aGVHD. Although our ultimate goal is a complete genome-wide study, we have started our search for aGVHD susceptibility/protective loci within chromosome 22 (chr 22) for simplicity and economic convenience. A number of studies (Abecasis et al. 2001; Keicho et al. 2000; Oka et al. 1999; Ota et al. 1999; Li et al. 2004) suggest that association analysis using microsatellite markers as a first step of the genome-wide approach is a useful way to find candidate genes and specifically the mHa genes on chr 22 of BMT donors and recipients.

Human chr 22 is the second smallest of the autosomes comprising 1.6–1.8% of the genomic DNA (Dunham et al. 1999). There is no evidence to indicate the presence of any protein coding genes on the short arm of chr 22 (22p). In contrast, the long arm of the chr 22 (22q) is rich in genes compared with other chromosomes. In addition, alteration of gene dosage on the part of 22q is responsible for the etiology of 29 Mendelian disorders and a number of congenital abnormality disorders including cat eye syndrome and DiGeorge syndrome (McDermid and Morrow 2002). Linkage studies have shown an association of chr 22 loci to several disorders, such as schizophrenia, epilepsy, multiple sclerosis, and myopia (DeLisi et al. 2002; Berkovic et al. 2004; Liguori et al. 2004; Stambolian et al. 2004).

Interestingly, two recent reports have highlighted that there are many signal transducers and activators of transcription (STAT) and NF-kappaB-binding sites distributed across chr 22 (Martone et al. 2003; Hartman et al. 2005). STAT and NF-kappaB family members play an essential role in regulating the induction of genes involved in physiological processes, such as apoptosis, immunity, and inflammation, and they may also affect immunoregulatory genes relevant to the recognition and rejection of