Visual Improvement after Cultivated Oral Mucosal Epithelial Transplantation

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Purpose: To report the effectiveness, disease-specific outcomes, and safety of cultivated oral mucosal epithelial sheet transplantation (COMET), with the primary objective of visual improvement.

Design: Noncomparative, retrospective, interventional case series.

Participants: This study involved 46 eyes in 40 patients with complete limbal stem cell deficiency (LSCD) who underwent COMET for visual improvement. These LSCD disorders fell into the following 4 categories: Stevens-Johnson syndrome (SJS; 21 eyes), ocular cicatricial pemphigoid (OCP; 10 eyes), thermal or chemical injury (7 eyes), or other diseases (8 eyes).

Methods: Best-corrected visual acuity (BCVA) and ocular surface grading score were examined before surgery; at the 4th, 12th, and 24th postoperative week; and at the last follow-up. Data on COMET-related adverse events and postoperative management were collected. The outcomes in each disease category were evaluated separately.

Main Outcome Measures: The primary outcome was the change in median logarithm of the minimum angle of resolution (logMAR) BCVA at the 24th postoperative week. The secondary outcome was the ocular surface grading score.

Results: Median logMAR BCVA at baseline was 2.40 (range, 1.10 to 3.00). In SJS, logMAR BCVA improved significantly during the 24 weeks after surgery. In contrast, the BCVA in OCP was improved significantly only at the 4th postoperative week. In 6 of the 7 thermal or chemical injury cases, logMAR BCVA improved after planned penetrating keratoplasty or deep lamellar keratoplasty. Grading scores of ocular surface abnormalities improved in all categories. Of 31 patients with vision loss (logMAR BCVA, >2) at baseline, COMET produced improvement (logMAR BCVA, ≤2) in 15 patients (48%). Visual improvement was maintained with long-term follow-up (median, 28.7 months). Multivariate stepwise logistic regression analysis showed that corneal neovascularization and symblepharon were correlated significantly with logMAR BCVA improvement at the 24th postoperative week ($P = 0.0023$ and $P = 0.0173$, respectively). Although postoperative persistent epithelial defects and slight to moderate corneal infection occurred in the eyes of 16 and 2 patients, respectively, all were treated successfully with no eye perforation.

Conclusions: Long-term visual improvement was achievable in cases of complete LSCD. Cultivated oral mucosal epithelial sheet transplantation offered substantial visual improvement even for patients with end-stage severe ocular surface disorders accompanying severe tear deficiency. Patients with corneal blindness such as SJS benefited from critical improvement of visual acuity.

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Corneal renewal and repair are mediated by corneal epithelial stem cells situated mainly in the limbus, the narrow region between the cornea and the bulbar conjunctiva.[1] Damage or depletion of the corneal epithelial stem cells, known as limbal stem cell deficiency (LSCD), leads to conjunctival invasion that results in vascularization and scarring of the cornea with an associated profound loss of vision.[1] Limbal stem cell deficiency can be caused by Stevens-Johnson syndrome (SJS), ocular cicatricial pemphigoid (OCP), and thermal or chemical injury, which are all characterized by the loss of corneal epithelial stem cells. Such LSCD may cause severe ocular surface diseases (OSDs) in which cicatrization resulting from conjunctival fibrosis, symblepharon, and severe dry eye greatly disrupt visual function and can progress gradually with chronic inflammation.[2–4] To date, few effective medical or surgical treatments for severe OSDs have been available.[5–15]

Since 1998, the authors have used amniotic membrane transplantation to treat severe OSDs. Amniotic membrane exhibits an anti-inflammatory effect and also acts as a substrate for epithelialization.[16] The results of previous studies have shown that amniotic membrane transplantation alone[17,18] or amniotic membrane transplantation combined with limbal transplantation[6,19,20] promoted epithelialization, reduced pain, reconstructed the fornix, and minimized inflammation of the ocular surface to a remarkable degree in

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patients with severe OSDs. Based on these promising results, novel methods have been developed for the cultivation of allogeneic corneal[7,8,21] or autologous oral mucosal[22–25] epithelial cells on a denuded amniotic membrane. Immunologic rejection and increased risk of infection or systemic adverse effects associated with the long-term immunosuppressive therapy accompanying allograft transplantation[6] encouraged changing to autologous cultivated oral mucosal epithelial transplantation (COMET) in patients with severe OSDs in 2002.[10,11,23,26]

To clarify the effectiveness, disease-specific outcomes, and safety of COMET, all of the clinical data from all 72 patients that the authors treated with COMET since 2002 were analyzed. The objective of this present study was to summarize the long-term clinical outcomes of 40 of those 72 patients who underwent COMET with the primary objective of visual improvement between June 2002 and December 2008.

Patients and Methods

Patients

Autologous COMET was performed on consecutive patients who were diagnosed with total LSCD based on the complete disappearance of the palisades of Vogt and 360° of conjunctivalization.[1] The COMET treatment protocol was approved by the ethical review board of Kyoto Prefectural University of Medicine, Kyoto, Japan, in 2002. The final decision to perform COMET was made by the university's team of corneal specialists. Before the surgery, written informed consent was obtained from all patients in accordance with the tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki for research involving human subjects. The current retrospective study used an itemized data collection form, and the medical records of all patients who underwent COMET between June 2002 and December 2008 were examined retrospectively. This retrospective study protocol was approved by the ethical review board of Kyoto Prefectural University of Medicine in 2009. In this study, 40 of the 72 patients who underwent COMET were analyzed with the primary objective of visual improvement.

Cell Culture

All of the COMET sheets were prepared at the good manufacturing practices–graded Cell Processing Center at Kyoto Prefectural University of Medicine as previously described.[23,26] Autologous oral mucosal epithelial cells were obtained from a 6-mm–diameter biopsy specimen obtained from each patient's buccal mucosa, and the cells then were cultured on an amniotic membrane spread on the bottom of a culture insert and were cocultured with mitomycin C-inactivated 3T3 fibroblasts (NIH-3T34; RIKEN Cell Bank, Tsukuba, Japan). The cultured cells were submerged in medium for approximately 1 week and then were exposed to air by lowering the medium level (airlifting) for 1 to 2 days. All amniotic membrane was obtained from caesarean sections according to the preparation method described previously.[23] Although fetal bovine serum initially was used as a culture medium, autologous serum was used in later cultures to reduce the risk of transmitting nonhuman pathogens.[26]

Transplantation and Postoperative Management

The surgical procedure (see the Supplemental Video, available at http://aaojournal.org) and postoperative management have been described previously.[24,25] In patients with severe symblepharon or a large area of bare sclera exposed during surgery, amniotic membrane was transplanted onto the bare sclera to reconstruct conjunctival fornices.[18] In patients with a cataract, phacoemulsification and aspiration plus intraocular lens implantation were performed simultaneously with COMET. No penetrating keratoplasty or deep lamellar keratoplasty was performed simultaneously with COMET. For patients with severe corneal stromal opacity, a 2-step surgical approach was planned, with the first step being COMET and the second step being either penetrating or deep lamellar keratoplasty.[25]

Systemic corticosteroid (betamethasone, 1 mg/day) and cyclosporine (2 to 3 mg/kg daily) were administered to prevent postoperative inflammation and immunologic response and then were tapered, depending on the clinical findings. Dexamethasone (0.1%) and antibiotic eye drops were instilled 4 times daily. Dry-eye patients were administered artificial tears. A therapeutic soft contact lens was used for at least 1 month to protect transplanted epithelium from mechanical ablation.

Postoperative Follow-up and Outcomes

Best-corrected visual acuity (BCVA) was converted to the logarithm of the minimum angle of resolution (logMAR). Ocular surface conditions including corneal appearance (epithelial defects, clinical conjunctivalization, neovascularization, opacification, keratinization, and symblepharon) were graded by at least 2 ophthalmologists (C.S., T.I., and T.N.) on a scale from 0 to 3 according to their severity, in accordance with a previously reported grading system.[27] Severe OSDs are characterized by an associated loss of conjunctival stem cells, and the severity of conjunctival involvement affects the visual prognosis. Therefore, findings on upper and lower fornix shortening were added to evaluate the grade of conjunctival appearance. Fornix shortening was graded from 0 to 3 based on the following clinical features: normal depth (grade 0), shortened by less than one quarter (grade 1), shortened by one quarter to one half (grade 2), and shortened by more than one half (grade 3). Upper and lower fornix shortenings were graded separately. The sum of each grading score was defined as the ocular surface grading score (maximum, 24).

Each patients logMAR BCVA, ocular surface grading score, and data on adverse events related to COMET or postoperative management were collected from the medical records at these specific time points: before surgery; at the 4th, 12th, and 24th postoperative weeks; and at the last follow-up examination. The primary outcome was the change in logMAR BCVA at the 24th postoperative week. Because other ocular diseases can affect this visual outcome, a secondary outcome, the ocular surface grading score, also was defined.

Statistical Analysis

The change in BCVA and ocular surface grading score from baseline at each visit, except for the last visit, was analyzed using the Wilcoxon signed-rank test in each disease category (SJS, OCP, thermal or chemical injury) except for other diseases. Multivariate stepwise logistic regression analysis was used to determine the factors influencing visual improvement.

This study defined the critical visual improvement rate as the proportion of patients in whom BCVA at the 24th postoperative week had improved to at least 0.01, as a percentage of the patients with a BCVA of less than 0.01 at baseline. Patients with a visual acuity of 0.01 or more can read and walk using vision aids. Thus, an improvement to at least 0.01 indicates a capacity for independence in daily life. If data were missing from the 24th postoperative week, data from follow-up at the last visit were substituted.

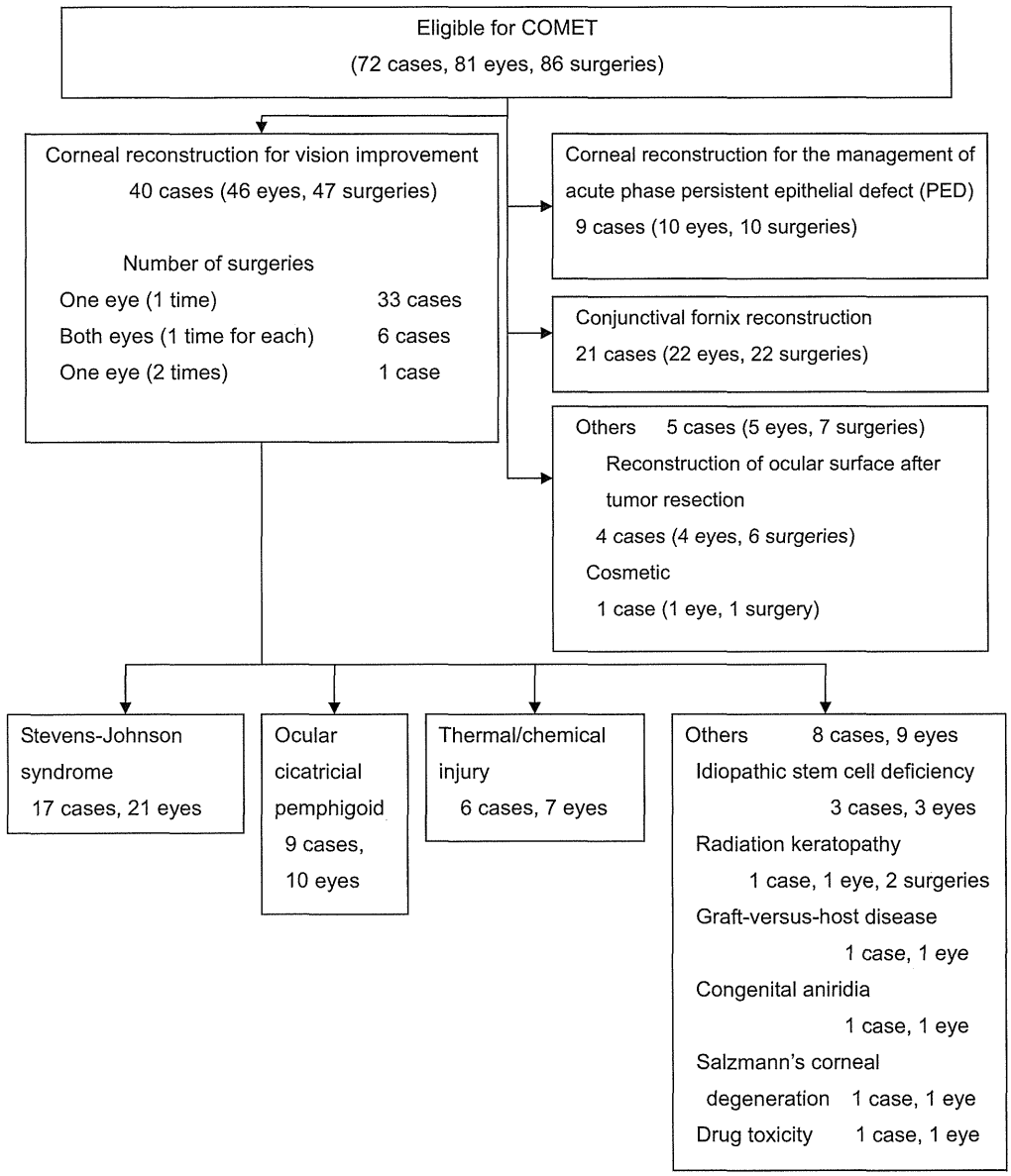

Figure 1. Diagram showing flow of study. Seventy-two patients (81 eyes) underwent cultivated oral mucosal epithelial sheet transplantation (COMET) between June 2002 and December 2008, and 40 patients (46 eyes) were analyzed for visual improvement in this study. Both corneal reconstruction and conjunctival fornix reconstruction were carried out in 3 cases, in the same eye in 1 case, and counted separately.

All statistical analyses were conducted at the Translational Research Informatics Center (Kobe, Japan) with the use of SAS software, version 9.1 (SAS Inc, Cary, NC) or JMP software, version 8.2 (SAS Inc). *P* values of less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Results

Patient Characteristics

Between 2002 and 2008, 47 COMETs (46 eyes in 40 patients) were performed on 21 eyes with SJS, 10 eyes with OCP, 7 eyes with thermal or chemical injury, and 9 eyes with other causes of LSCD (Fig 1). Although 23 eyes (48.9%) previously had been treated with ocular surgery, all of these previous treatments had failed and recurrence of fibrovascular ingrowth on the cornea was observed. Of the 47 surgeries performed, symblepharon and keratinization of the cornea were present in 37 eyes (78.7%) and 10 eyes (21.3%), respectively, thus indicating that most of the eyes were inflicted with end-stage severe OSDs (Table 1).

Outcomes of Cultivated Oral Mucosal Epithelial Sheet Transplantation

Cultivated autologous oral mucosal epithelial sheets were generated successfully from all patients. In all patients, COMET was performed successfully and no epithelial damage was observed during surgery. Cultivated oral mucosal epithelial sheet transplantation was combined with amniotic membrane transplantation in 34 (72%) of the 47 surgeries and with cataract surgery in 11 eyes (23%; Table 2, available at http://aaojournal.org). In 10 patients

Table 1. Baseline Characteristics in Patients Who Underwent Autologous Cultivated Oral Mucosal Epithelial Transplantation

	Total	Stevens-Johnson Syndrome	Ocular Pemphigoid	Thermal/Chemical Injury	Others
No. of COMETs	47	21	10	7	9
Age (yrs)					
Median	57.0	43.0	73.5	50.0	34.0
Range	9–86	14–71	62–86	27–79	9–75
Duration of illness (yrs)					
Median	12.3	17.9	3.5	6.0	5.08
Range	0.3–40.0	3.0–38.0	0.3–15.0	0.5–24.0	0.5–40.0
Prior ocular surgery (%)	23 (48.9)	9 (42.9)	4 (40.0)	3 (42.9)	7 (77.8)
Planned 2-step operations (%)	10 (21.3)	2 (9.5)	0 (0)	6 (85.7)	2 (22.2)
Symblepharon (%)	37 (78.7)	18 (85.7)	10 (100.0)	6 (85.7)	3 (33.3)
Keratinization (%)	10 (21.3)	8 (38.1)	1 (10.0)	0 (0)	1 (11.1)
Preoperative visual acuity*					
Median	2.40	2.4	2.70	2.70	2.40
Range	1.11–3.00	1.40–3.00	1.52–2.70	1.22–2.70	1.10–2.70
Preoperative ocular surface grading score					
Median	14.0	15.0	17.0	13.0	8.0
Range	5.0–21.0	8.0–21.0	10.0–21.0	7.0–17.0	5.0–19.0

COMET = autologous cultivated oral mucosal epithelial transplantation.
*Logarithm of the minimum angle of resolution units.

with severe corneal stromal opacity, a 2-step surgical approach was planned, with COMET followed by penetrating keratoplasty or deep lamellar keratoplasty.[25] Three patients underwent the second surgery before the 24th postoperative week and 5 patients underwent the surgery after the 24th week, but 2 patients did not undergo the second surgery during the study period.

The median preoperative logMAR BCVA was 2.40, and in 31 of the eyes (66%), visual acuity was poorer than 20/2000 (<0.01, logMAR >2). The median preoperative ocular surface grading score was 18.0 (range, 5 to 21). The median patient follow-up period with observation of the primary outcome was 28.7 months after transplantation (range, 6.2 to 85.6 months). Because of heterogeneous etiologic mechanisms, the outcomes in each category are described separately.

Disease-Specific Outcomes

Stevens-Johnson Syndrome. Seventeen patients with SJS underwent COMET (Table 2, available at http://aaojournal.org). The BCVA improved significantly at 4, 12, and 24 weeks after surgery ($P = 0.0005$, $P = 0.0010$, and $P = 0.0117$, respectively; Fig 2A). The ocular surface grading score also improved significantly at 4, 12, and 24 weeks after surgery ($P<0.0001$ for each time point; Fig 2B).

Ocular Cicatricial Pemphigoid. Nine patients (10 eyes) with OCP underwent COMET (Table 1). All 9 patients were older than 60 years, older than many of the patients in this study with other diseases (Table 2, available at http://aaojournal.org). The BCVA was improved significantly at the 4th postoperative week ($P = 0.0156$), but this improvement later disappeared (Fig 2A). In contrast, improvement of the ocular surface grading score was sustained throughout the follow-up period ($P = 0.0020$, $P = 0.0020$, and $P = 0.0078$, respectively; Fig 2B).

Thermal or Chemical Injury. Seven patients (7 eyes) with thermal or chemical injury underwent COMET. Their BCVA did not change until the 24th postoperative week; however, the ocular surface grading score in all 7 patients improved significantly ($P = 0.0156$ for each visit; Fig 2A, B). Although penetrating keratoplasty or deep lamellar keratoplasty surgery was planned for 6 of these 7 patients, only 2 patients underwent this second surgery before the 24th postoperative week visit. Both the BCVA and ocular surface score improved in all 7 patients after the planned surgeries were performed.

Others. Eight other patients underwent COMET: 3 with idiopathic stem cell deficiency, 1 with radiation keratopathy, 1 with graft-versus-host disease, 1 with congenital aniridia, 1 with Salzmanns corneal degeneration, and 1 with drug-toxicity–induced LSCD. In 6 of these 8 patients, BCVA was improved significantly; however, no improvement was seen in 2 of these patients (Table 2, available at http://aaojournal.org; Fig 2A). The 2 patients with no improvement had severe dryness on the ocular surface and had the highest ocular surface grading score in this group. In addition, severe lagophthalmos was present in the 1 patient with radiation keratopathy because of severe lid scarring after irradiation for retinoblastoma. One other patient with graft-versus-host disease had longstanding inflammation on the ocular surface. In both of these 2 cases, keratinization and symblepharon progressed gradually after COMET. Six patients who demonstrated improvement had a low preoperative ocular surface grading score, yet this score was improved considerably in all patients at the 24th postoperative week (Table 2; Fig 2B).

Critical Visual Improvement Rate

The critical visual improvement rate for SJS, OCP, and thermal or chemical injury was 50.0% (7/14), 42.9% (3/7), and 20.0% (1/5), respectively, although the second planned surgery[25] (penetrating or deep lamellar keratoplasty) had yet to be carried out at the 24th postoperative week in 7 of 10 eyes. The clinical observations on both preoperative and postoperative anterior segment slit-lamp photographs are shown in Figure 3 (available at http://aaojournal.org). All patients demonstrated an improvement in their BVCA to 0.01 or more, from a baseline condition of vision loss.

Factors Influencing Visual Improvement

Multivariate stepwise logistic regression analysis was used to estimate the factors influencing postoperative visual acuity after COMET, and the following factors were chosen as variables:

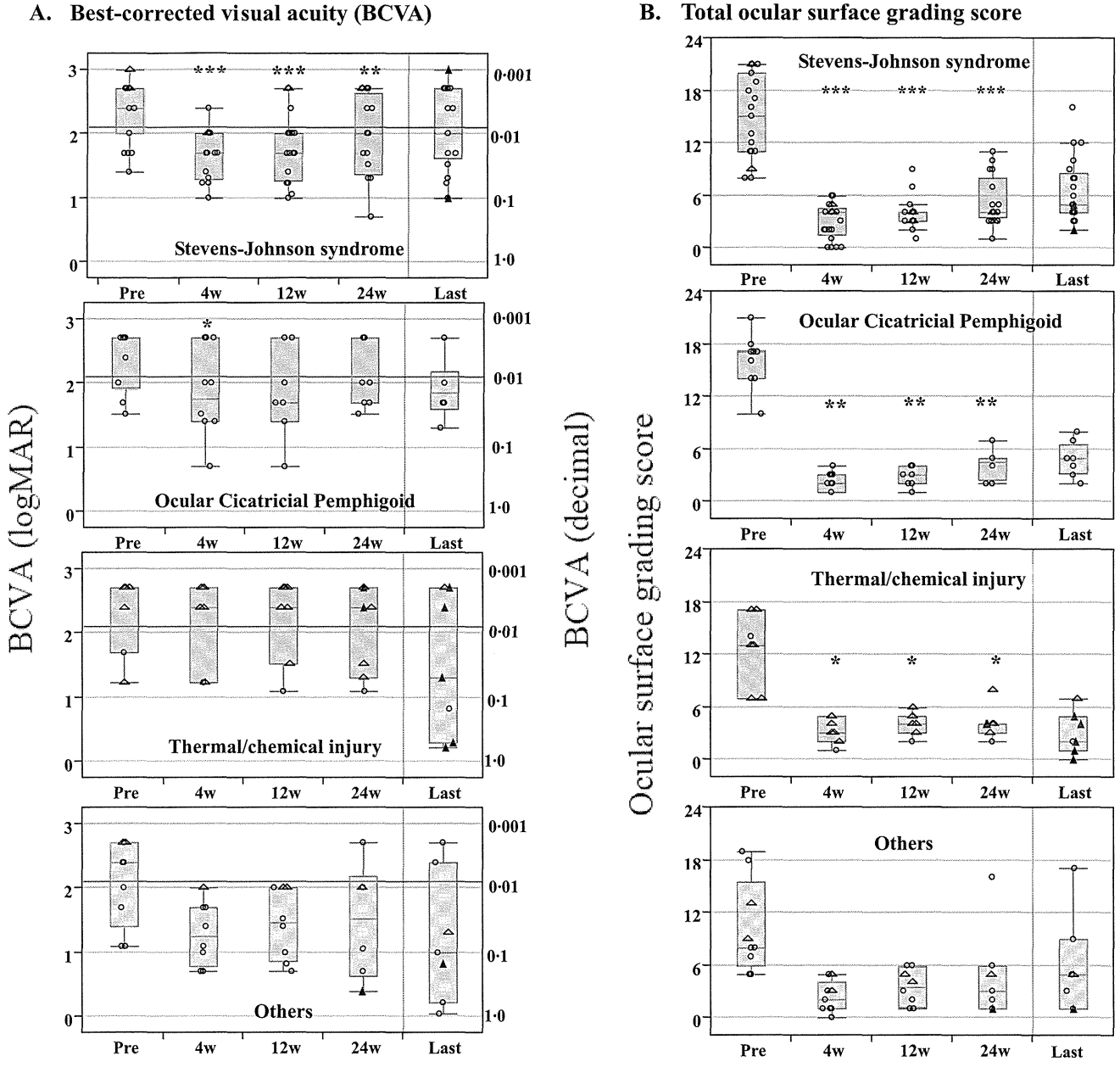

Figure 2. Graphs showing preoperative (Pre) and postoperative clinical outcomes. **A**, Best-corrected visual acuity (BCVA). The BCVA values for each patient are shown grouped according to the cause of corneal dysfunction: Stevens-Johnson syndrome (SJS), ocular cicatricial pemphigoid (OCP), thermal or chemical injury, and others. The change in BCVA from baseline at each visit, except for the last visit, was analyzed using the Wilcoxon signed-rank test in each disease category (SJS, OCP, thermal or chemical injury) except others. Open circles represent cases treated with autologous cultivated oral mucosal epithelial transplantation (COMET) only. Triangles represent cases treated with a planned 2-step surgical combination of COMET followed by penetrating keratoplasty (PK) or deep lamellar keratoplasty (DLKP). Open triangles are before the second operation, and closed triangles are after the second operation. The horizontal line within each box represents the median value, the bottom and top lines of the box represent the 25th and 75th percentiles, respectively, and the horizontal lines below and above the box represent the lowest and highest values, respectively (or are located 1.5 times the interquartile range away from the box). $*P<0.05$, $**P<0.01$, $***P<0.001$ (2-sided). **B**, Total ocular surface grading score. Ocular surface grading scores for each patient were calculated and are shown according to each cause of corneal dysfunction: SJS, OCP, thermal or chemical injury, and others. Scores for 8 components of the ocular surface were calculated by the grading system. The total scores before surgery and at the 4th, 12th, and 24th postoperative weeks and at last follow-up examination were calculated. Open circles represent patients treated with COMET only. Triangles represent patients treated with a planned 2-step surgical combination of COMET followed by PK or DLKP. Open triangles are before the second operation, and closed triangles are after the second operation. The change in ocular surface grading score from baseline at each visit, except for the last visit, was analyzed using the Wilcoxon signed-rank test in each disease category (SJS, OCP, thermal or chemical injury) except others. The horizontal line within each box represents the median value, the bottom and top lines of the box represent the 24th and 75th percentiles, respectively, and the horizontal lines below and above the box represent the lowest and highest values, respectively (or are located 1.5 times the interquartile range away from the box). $*P<0.05$, $**P<0.01$, $***P<0.001$ (2-sided). w = weeks.

Table 3. Summary of Adverse Events in Patients Who Underwent Autologous Cultivated Oral Mucosal Epithelial Transplantation

Event	Total	Disease Category			
		Stevens-Johnson Syndrome	*Ocular Cicatricial Pemphigoid*	*Thermal or Chemical Injury*	*Others*
Hepatic dysfunction	1	1			
Drug-induced allergy	1				1
Persistent epithelial defect	16	10	3	2	1
Corneal stromal melting after the epithelial defect	2		1		1
Ocular infection (keratitis, endophthalmitis)	2	2			
Infiltration	3	2	1		
Elevation of IOP resulting from steroid use	4		1	2	1

IOP = intraocular pressure.
No life-threatening serious adverse events were observed.

disease category, patient age, 2-step surgery, combination with amniotic membrane transplantation, combination with cataract surgery, preoperative logMAR BCVA, and the 8 components of the ocular surface grading system. Corneal neovascularization and symblepharon were found to be correlated significantly with logMAR improvement at the 24th postoperative week ($P = 0.0023$ and $P = 0.0173$, respectively). Visual prognosis was better in the eyes with slight symblepharon than in the eyes with severe symblepharon. In contrast, it was better in the eyes with severe neovascularization than in the eyes with slight neovascularization.

Adverse Events

A summary of the adverse events in the 40 patients who underwent COMET is shown in Table 3. No life-threatening serious adverse events were observed in any of the transplantations. Systemically, moderate liver dysfunction occurred in 1 patient (2.5%; 95% confidential interval [CI], 0.1 to 13.2), but liver function normalized after the discontinuationof systemic drugs.

Postoperative persistent epithelial defects occurred in the eyes of 16 (40.0%) of the 40 patients (95% CI, 24.9 to 56.7), and rather frequently in the SJS eyes (60.0% of SJS patients). Corneal stromal melting after the epithelial defect occurred in 2 patients (5.0%; 95% CI, 0.6 to 16.9), but neither eye became perforated. All of these patients were treated successfully. Slight to moderate corneal infection occurred in 2 patients (5.0%; 95% CI, 0.6 to 16.9); however, both patients healed without scarring. A suspected infection with cell infiltration on the cornea[28] occurred in 3 patients, yet in each patient, it healed within 1 week after receiving a topical instillation of antibiotics. Although a slight elevation of intraocular pressure resulting from steroid use was seen in 4 patients (10.0%; 95% CI, 2.8 to 23.7), this returned to the normal range after reduction of the steroid dose. None of the patients required glaucoma surgery.

Discussion

Severe OSD has proven to be one of the most difficult disorders to treat, and for many patients, vision loss is the end result.[29,31] Keratoprosthesis surgery is one possible way to obtain visual improvement in end-stage severe OSDs; however, serious complications such as endophthalmitis, glaucoma, and tissue melting can arise, especially in SJS or OCP, and can lead to permanent vision loss.[32,33]

At the beginning of 2002, the authors performed ocular surface reconstruction using tissue-engineered autologous oral mucosal epithelial sheets for the first time.[23] In a report of the initial results from the first 12 cases, the successful long-term engraftment of cultivated oral mucosal cells and their transparency was confirmed.[24] Since then, COMET has been used to treat OSD patients, with careful consideration of the surgical indications.[24–26,34] The authors performed 86 COMET operations between 2002 and the end of 2008 for visual improvement, epithelialization of persistent epithelial defects, or conjunctival reconstruction (Fig 1).

In this study, the clinical efficacy and safety of 47 COMETs were evaluated for visual improvement. In 23 eyes (48.9%), previous ocular surgery such as corneal transplantation or amniotic membrane transplantation already had been carried out unsuccessfully at other hospitals. Symblepharon was involved in 37 eyes (78.7%) and keratinization was involved in 10 eyes (21.3%). Symblepharon indicates conjunctival involvement, and pathologic keratinization means that the eye is at the end stage of a severe OSD with chronic inflammation.[3,35] Most of these eyes had severe tear deficiency, which is an important prognostic parameter for surgical outcome.[36] Although such eyes commonly are considered to have contraindications for ocular surface reconstruction, COMET offered substantial visual improvement even for patients with such advanced disease.

In more than half of the eyes, preoperative visual acuity was limited to counting fingers or hand movements. It is striking that such patients were able to come to the hospital without assistance during the 24 weeks after undergoing COMET. For this reason, critical visual improvement rate is proposed as a clear end point for measuring surgical outcome. Considering that most of the eyes in this study were at the end stage of a severe OSD, these results are very favorable and encouraging.

In this study, the preoperative ocular surface grading score was higher (more diseased) in patients with SJS and OCP than in those with thermal or chemical injuries or other

diseases. It should be noted that visual improvement was statistically significant in SJS. In contrast, visual acuity was not improved at the 24th postoperative week in patients with thermal or chemical injury, despite the improvement in total ocular surface grading score. The corneal stroma was damaged severely in most cases of thermal or chemical injury, and such patients obtained visual improvement after undergoing the planned second surgery with penetrating keratoplasty or deep lamellar keratoplasty. In general, the prognosis of penetrating or deep lamellar keratoplasty alone for severe OSDs is very poor.[2] However, the findings of this study show that patients with severe OSDs with corneal stromal opacity can obtain visual improvement after undergoing the surgical combination of COMET and penetrating or deep lamellar keratoplasty.

Best-corrected visual acuity was not improved at the 24th postoperative week in patients with OCP, despite significant improvement of the ocular surface grading score. Because OCP is a progressive autoimmune disease, pathologic keratinization or thickening of the epithelium occurred readily after COMET, thus disrupting visual acuity.

No serious systemic complications occurred in any of the patients. The incidence of postoperative persistent epithelial defects was relatively high, yet still similar to or lower than that reported with other therapies.[6,36–38] Considering that corneal perforation is a common complication after corneal reconstruction in severe OSDs,[38–40] it is noteworthy that no perforation occurred and that none of the eyes demonstrated vision loss after COMET. Ocular surface reconstruction with a combination of COMET and amniotic membrane transplantation was needed to achieve the total replacement of cicatrized tissue. Because cultured epithelial cells on amniotic membrane attach to a basement membrane with hemidesmosomes,[22] these cells can avoid being dropped off and actually survive, regardless of an unstable tear film and the mechanical trauma of blinking. When used as the substrate for oral mucosal cells, amniotic membrane may play a role in protecting the cornea from melting.

Multivariate stepwise logistic regression analysis showed that symblepharon and neovascularization are prognostic factors for visual improvement. Although disease-specific outcomes showed different patterns as described above, disease category was not related to visual prognosis. However, the sample size may be too small to perform such subgroup analyses. Multivariate stepwise logistic regression analysis also was performed for all 86 surgeries to determine the factors influencing persistent epithelial defects. Having SJS and a very low tear meniscus were the prognostic factors for persistent epithelial defects ($P = 0.0204$ and $P = 0.0388$, respectively). Thus, it is likely that both the disease category and dryness of the eye influenced the prognosis.

Long-term ocular surface appearance was examined in 17 of the 72 patients with a follow-up of more than 3 years.[34] No further surgery was carried out in these patients. The ocular surface in each case became stable from 6 months after COMET, with a gradual reduction in corneal neovascularization,[34] as others have reported in similar studies.[40] Moreover, postoperative invasion of conjunctival tissue and symblepharon formation was inhibited significantly for more than 3 years.[34] Deep lamellar or penetrating keratoplasty was performed for the patients with corneal stromal opacity after the stabilization of the ocular surface (as the second step of a 2-step surgical combination), in most cases from 24 weeks after COMET.

After COMET, upper or lower eyelid cicatricial entropion with various degrees of tarsal-plate atrophy sometimes was found. In cases with an eyelid abnormality, eyelid surgery was performed to correct entropion, trichiasis, or lagophthalmos. Eyelid condition is an important factor for maintaining ocular surface stability, as well as for avoiding complications such as infection or persistent epithelial defects.

In conclusion, the findings of this retrospective study showed that long-term visual improvement can be obtained in end-stage severe OSDs with complete LSCD and that COMET offered substantial visual improvement even for patients with severe tear deficiency. The findings also showed that patients with corneal blindness resulting from severe OSDs such as SJS benefited from critical improvement of visual acuity.

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Gelatinous Drop–Like Corneal Dystrophy

Motokazu Tsujikawa, MD, PhD

Abstract: Gelatinous drop–like corneal dystrophy (GDLD) is a rare autosomal recessive disorder, clinically characterized by grayish corneal deposits of amyloid and by severely impaired visual acuity. Most patients require corneal transplantation. We identified the gene responsible for GDLD, *tumor-associated calcium signal transducer 2* (*TACSTD2*), by positional cloning and detected 4 disease-causing mutations in Japanese patients with GDLD. During the positional cloning process, strong linkage disequilibrium was observed between GDLD and some markers in the critical region. More than 90% of GDLD patients possessed the same haplotype with a Q118X mutation in *TACSTD2*. This may be the result of a founder effect and reflects that most GDLD patients are Japanese. *TACSTD2* deleterious mutations resulted in destabilized tight junction proteins, including claudins, ZO-1, and occludin. These findings may explain why the corneal epithelium barrier function is impaired in GDLD patients.

Key Words: gelatinous drop–like corneal dystrophy, positional cloning, Q118X mutation, *TACSTD2*, tight junction

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Gelatinous drop–like corneal dystrophy (GDLD; OMIM: 204870) is a relatively rare corneal dystrophy disease with an autosomal recessive trait. GDLD was first reported in 1914 by Nakaizumi in Japan.[1] The incidence is reportedly 1 in 300,000 in Japan; however, in other countries, GDLD is a very rare disease.[2] It is characterized by the deposition of amyloid material in the subepithelial space of the cornea, which causes blurred vision and photophobia from the first decade of life. Eventually, raised gray gelatinous masses severely impair visual acuity, and lamellar or penetrating keratoplasty is required for most patients. Unfortunately, the same condition with amyloid deposition often develops in the transplanted cornea within several years, and additional keratoplasty is needed. Immunohistochemical studies have revealed that amyloid depositions contain the lactoferrin protein, which had been considered a disease-causing gene. However, this candidate approach was not successful. Thus, we undertook a positional cloning approach to identify the gene responsible for GDLD.

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LINKAGE ANALYSIS

To identify the gene responsible for GDLD, we used a strategy of conventional positional cloning, called "homozygosity mapping."[3] For this method, the samples must be obtained from consanguineous families; thus, the total number of samples may be small. In our study, we could map the locus from only 10 Japanese GDLD families.[4] After examining 63 markers distributed throughout the genome, we found that all 13 affected members and none of the 11 unaffected members from the 10 consanguineous GDLD families studied were homozygous at the D1S220 locus on the short arm of chromosome 1. This homozygosity occurs in consanguineous families because the same chromosomal region was delivered from both the paternal and maternal ancestors. Using additional markers flanking the D1S220 locus to confirm linkage, we found that all of the affected individuals were homozygous for 2 additional markers (D1S2831 and D1S2741) on the proximal side of D1S220 and for 2 markers on the distal side (D1S2869 and D1S2650). From these 5 markers, linkage analysis revealed no recombination, with LOD scores of 4.40 to 9.80; the maximum score of 9.80 was obtained at the D1S2741 locus. Haplotype analysis indicated that 3 patients were heterozygous at the D1S2890 locus proximal to D1S220, and 2 patients were heterozygous at the D1S2801 locus distal to D1S220. These cases defined a critical region for GDLD, within a 2.6-cM interval between D1S2890 and D1S2801. However, this 2.6-cM interval was still too large to perform positional cloning. We observed that 8 of 10 disease chromosomes (80%) carried the 247-bp allele at the D1S220 marker locus, whereas only 5% of the unaffected control chromosomes carried this allele. A significant linkage disequilibrium between GDLD and the D1S220 locus ($\chi^2 = 36.24$; $P < 0.001$) was observed. We also found that D1S2648 ($\chi^2 = 12.90$; $P = 0.032$) and D1S2752 ($\chi^2 = 19.77$; $P = 0.012$) showed significant linkage disequilibrium, indicating that the most critical region lay between them.

POSITIONAL CLONING

To identify the gene responsible for GDLD, we subsequently isolated cosmid and bacterial artificial clones approximately covering the 400-kb critical region between D1S2752 and D1S220 and then performed DNA sequencing experiments using a shotgun cloning method (Fig. 1). Computer analysis of genomic DNA sequences indicated that 6 expressed sequence tags and a single known gene, *tumor-associated calcium signal transducer 2* (*TACSTD2;* also known as *M1S1*), consisting of a single exon, were located in the region. Northern blot analysis revealed that *TACSTD2* was expressed in the cornea, as well as in the kidney, lung,

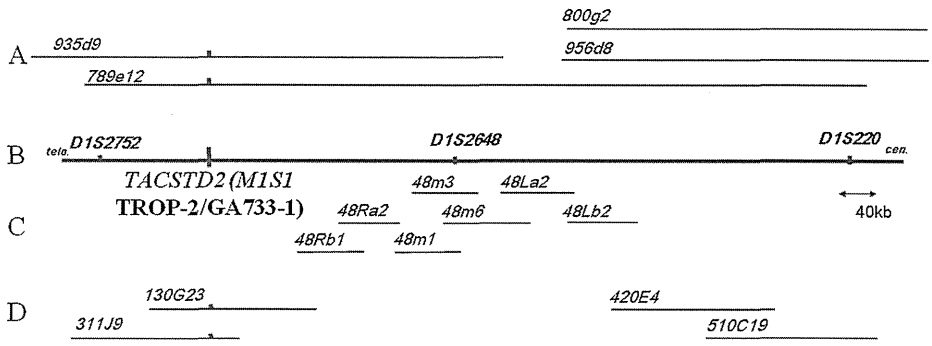

FIGURE 1. Physical map of the GDLD region on chromosome 1. A, YAC clones. B, Positions of DNA markers and *TACSTD2*. C, Overlapping cosmid clones. D, Overlapping bacterial artificial clones. Reprinted with permission from Tsujikawa et al.[5]

placenta, pancreas, and prostate gland, suggesting that this gene may be a candidate for harboring mutations responsible for GDLD. We amplified a 1.8-kb fragment, covering the entire coding region of *TACSTD2*, from genomic DNA (*TACSTD2* is a single exon gene) isolated from members of 20 Japanese GDLD families and determined DNA sequences. All 26 affected members of these families were homozygotes or compound heterozygotes for the mutations shown in Table 1. The most commonly detected mutation was a C to T transition at nucleotide 352, replacing a glutamine at codon 118 with a stop codon (Q118X).[5] Affected members from 16 of 20 GDLD families were homozygotes for this mutation. In addition, a patient from another family carried this mutation on one allele and a different mutation on the other. Thus, the Q118X mutation accounted for 82.5% (33 of 40) of the disease alleles present in our panel of GDLD families. All 33 alleles carried the major disease haplotype (Table 1), indicating that the Q118X mutation is the major Japanese GDLD mutation and reflects the linkage disequilibrium reported previously. This nucleotide alteration was not observed in 100 normal healthy Japanese people, and we found 2 other nonsense mutations and a frameshift mutation. Thus, we concluded that the *TACSTD2* gene is responsible for GDLD.

LINKAGE DISEQUILIBRIUM

After the identification of the responsible gene, we and other groups reported on the genotype spectrum in Japanese and other GDLD patients around the world.[6–8] We also performed mutation analysis of new additional patients using a protein truncation test.[9] Protein truncation tests use in vitro translation and sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis to detect the truncated protein product from the DNA of patients. Fifteen new families were analyzed and found to have the homozygous Q118X mutation. Haplotype analysis using nearby polymorphic markers in other patients indicated that this Q118X mutation is a Japanese founder mutation and reflects linkage disequilibrium. This may explain why most GDLD patients are Japanese and few cases have been reported in other countries. In Japanese patients, 90% of the disease chromosomes have this major mutation. This allelic homogeneity is an interesting phenomenon in Japanese corneal dystrophies. In addition, we also reported allelic homogeneity as a result of the founder effect in other corneal dystrophies in Japan.[10,11]

TABLE 1. Haplotype and Disease-Causing Mutations in GDLD Patients Originally Identified in 1999

Mutation	Frequency (%)	Haplotype		
		D1S2752	D1S2684	D1S220
Q118X	82.5	204	285	247
632delA	7.5	210	285	235
Q207X	5.0	236	273	235
S170X	5.0	204	285	247

Reprinted with permission from Tsujikawa et al.[5]

ATYPICAL CASES

In GDLD, clinical variability and atypical cases have been reported.[12] An important question is whether these atypical cases are caused by genetic background differences, including allelic or locus heterogeneities. To address this, we performed genetic analyses of 4 Japanese families who had bilateral corneal amyloidoses.[13] All families included a patient whose clinical features alone could not be used to diagnose GDLD. In 1 family, obvious clinical differences were observed between 2 members who had corneal amyloidosis. Members from 3 families had atypical amyloidosis that had not been initially diagnosed as GDLD (Fig. 2). Sequence analysis revealed that all the patients possessed a homozygous Q118X mutation in *TACSTD2*. There were no differences in the entire sequence of *TACSTD2* in these patients compared with other GDLD patients. Moreover, the genotyping of polymorphic markers near the *TACSTD2* gene revealed that these patients shared the same founder chromosome along with *TACSTD2* (Fig. 3). Therefore, even in atypical cases, GDLD patients carry the same genetic background around *TACSTD2*.

FUNCTIONAL ANALYSIS

The identification of the responsible gene for GDLD enabled us to investigate the pathogenic mechanisms of GDLD using reverse genetic methods. The function of the encoded protein, TACSTD2, is not well understood, but several potential modification sites within the molecule have been suggested (Fig. 4). TACSTD2 contains an epidermal growth factor–like repeat and a thyroglobulin repeat. This structure suggests that TACSTD2 is a cell adhesion molecule.

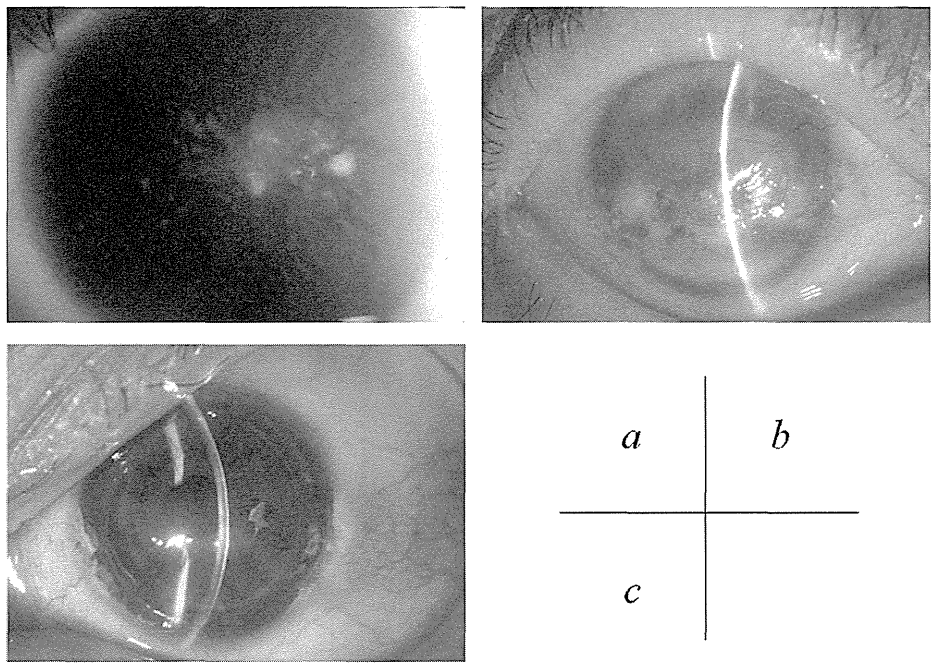

FIGURE 2. Phenotypic variability (clinical heterogeneity) among families with GDLD. All patients possess the Q118X mutation.

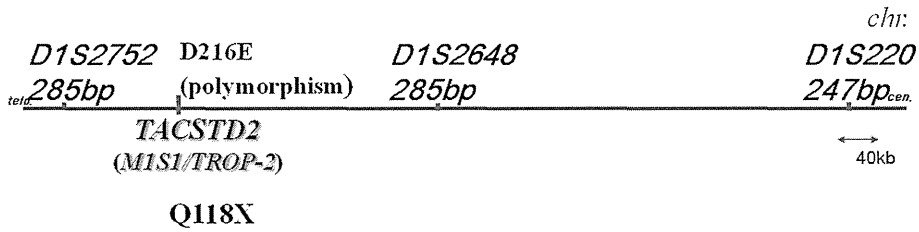

FIGURE 3. Haplotype of the founder chromosome of Japanese GDLD. D216E polymorphism is an intragenetic marker.

Furthermore, we have observed that TACSTD2 can induce hemophilic binding (unpublished data). This is interesting because the corneal epithelium of GDLD patients has a significantly increased permeability for fluorescence.[14] Additionally, the apical side of the corneal epithelium of GDLD exhibited loosened cell–cell junctions and an increased number of scarred cells compared with normal cornea.[14] Recently, it was shown that TACSTD2 can bind to the proteins claudin-1 and claudin-7 and stabilize these in corneal cells.[15] In the absence of *TACSTD2* expression, there is a change in the subcellular localization of tight junction–related proteins, including claudin-1, claudin-4, claudin-7, ZO-1, and occludin, leading to impaired corneal epithelial barrier function. However, TACSTD2 has a cytoplasmic tail with a phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate–binding consensus sequence. Thus, TACSTD2 is thought to be a calcium transducer, although how this function may play a role in GDLD remains unknown.

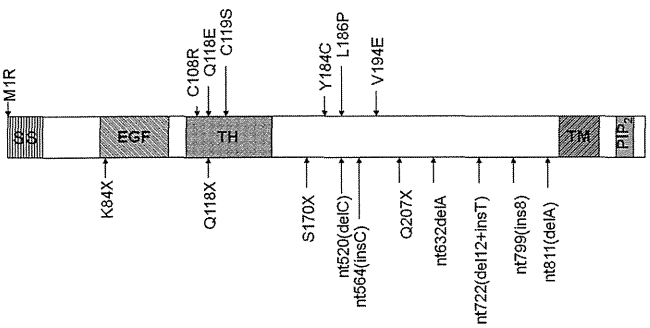

FIGURE 4. Schematic representation of the structure of TACSTD2. EGF, epidermal growth factor–like repeat; PIP2, phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate–binding sequence; SS, signal sequence; TH, thyroglobulin repeat; TM, transmembrane domain. Arrows indicate the locations of the reported mutations.

CONCLUSIONS

Using positional cloning, we have identified *TACSTD2*, the gene responsible for GDLD. The major mutation identified was Q118X in *TACSTD2* for the majority of Japanese GDLD cases. Among the Japanese GDLD families, a founder effect was observed, and this likely explains why GDLD is so dominant among the Japanese population. Even in atypical cases, the founder chromosomal region was preserved.

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