

(2) M-FEPA (methotrexate, vindesine, cyclophosphamide, prednisone, and doxorubicin), and (3) VEPP-B, (vincristine, etoposide, procarbazine, prednisone, and bleomycin) [104]. The CR rate for ATL patients was improved from 28% (JCOG8101) to 43% (JCOG8701); however, the CR rate was significantly lower in ATL than in B-cell NHL and PTCL ($P < 0.01$). Patients with ATL still showed a poor prognosis, with a median survival time of 8 months and a 4-year survival rate of 12%.

The disappointing results with conventional chemotherapies have led to a search for new active agents. Multicenter phase I and II studies of pentostatin (2'-deoxycoformycin, a inhibitor of adenosine deaminase) were conducted against ATL in Japan [108]. The phase II study revealed a response rate of 32% (10 of 31) in cases of relapsed or refractory ATL (two CRs and eight PRs).

These encouraging results prompted the investigators to conduct a phase II trial (JCOG9109) with a pentostatin-containing combination (LSG11) as the initial chemotherapy [105]. Patients with aggressive ATL—that is, of the acute, lymphoma, or unfavorable chronic type—were eligible for this study. Unfavorable chronic-type ATL, defined as having at least one of three unfavorable prognostic factors (low serum albumin level, high LDH level, or high BUN), has an unfavorable prognosis similar to that for acute- and lymphoma-type ATL. A total of 62 untreated patients with aggressive ATL (34 acute, 21 lymphoma, and 7 unfavorable chronic type) were enrolled. A regimen of 1 mg/m² vincristine on days 1 and 8, 40 mg/m² doxorubicin on day 1, 100 mg/m² etoposide on days 1 through 3, 40 mg/m² prednisolone (PSL) on days 1 and 2, and 5 mg/m² pentostatin on days 8, 15, and 22 was administered every 28 days for ten cycles. Among the 61 patients evaluable for toxicity, four patients (7%) died of infections, two from septicemia, and two from cytomegalovirus pneumonia. Among the 60 eligible patients, there were 17 CRs (28%) and 14 partial responses (PRs) (overall response rate [ORR]=52%). The median survival time was 7.4 months, and the estimated 2-year survival rate was 17%. The prognosis in patients with ATL remained poor, even though

they were treated with a pentostatin-containing combination chemotherapy.

In 1994, JCOG initiated a phase II trial (JCOG9303) of an eight-drug regimen (LSG15) consisting of vincristine, cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin, prednisone, ranimustine, vindesine, etoposide, and carboplatin for untreated ATL [106]. Dose intensification was attempted with the prophylactic use of granulocyte colony-stimulating factor (G-CSF). In addition, non-cross-resistant agents such as ranimustine and carboplatin, and intrathecal prophylaxis with MTX and PSL were incorporated. Ninety-six previously untreated patients with aggressive ATL were enrolled: 58 acute, 28 lymphoma, and 10 unfavorable chronic types. Approximately 81% of the 93 eligible patients responded (75/93), with 33 patients obtaining a CR (35%). The overall survival rate of the 93 patients at 2 years was estimated to be 31%, with a median survival time of 13 months. Grade 4 neutropenia and thrombocytopenia were observed in 65% and 53% of the patients, respectively, whereas grade 4 non-hematologic toxicity was observed in only one patient.

To confirm whether the LSG15 regimen is a new standard for the treatment of aggressive ATL, JCOG conducted a phase III trial comparing modified (m)-LSG15 with biweekly CHOP (cyclophosphamide, hydroxy-doxorubicin, vincristine [Oncovin], and prednisone), both supported with G-CSF and intrathecal prophylaxis [107].

mLSG15 in JCOG9801 was a modified version of LSG15 in JCOG9303, consisting of three regimens: VCAP [VCR 1 mg/m² (maximum 2 mg), CPA 350 mg/m², ADM 40 mg/m², PSL 40 mg/m²] on day 1, AMP [ADM 30 mg/m², MCNU 60 mg/m², PSL 40 mg/m²] on day 8, and VECP [VDS 2.4 mg/m² on day 15, ETP 100 mg/m² on days 15–17, CBDCA 250 mg/m² on day 15, PSL 40 mg/m² on days 15–17] on days 15–17, and the next course was to be started on day 29 (Figure 8.3). The modifications in mLSG15 as compared to LSG15 were as follows; (1) the total number of cycles was reduced from seven to six because of progressive cytopenia, especially thrombocytopenia, after repeating the VCAP-AMP-VECP therapy, (2) cytarabine 40 mg was used with MTX 15 mg and PSL 10 mg for

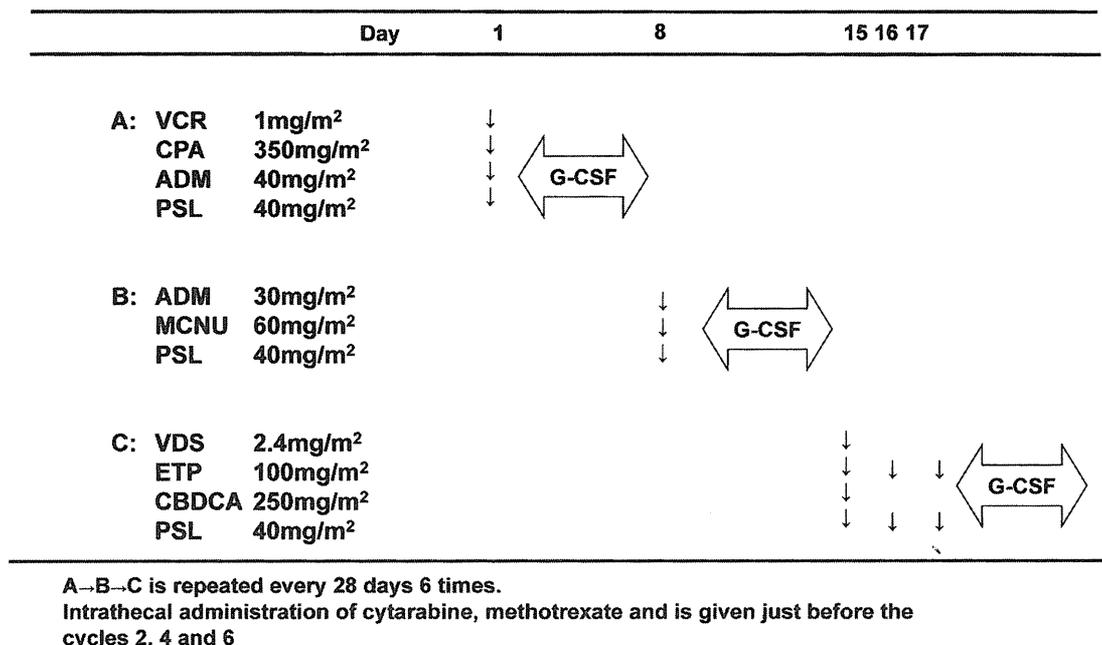


Fig. 8.3 Regimen of VCAP-AMP-VECP. Ranimustinal (MCNU) and vindesine (VDS) are nitrosourea and vinca alkaloid, respectively, developed in Japan. A previous study on myeloma described that carmustine (BCNU), another nitrosourea, at 1 mg/kg is equivalent to MCNU at 0.8–1.0 mg/kg. VDS at 2.4 mg/m² can be substituted for VCR, another vinca alkaloid used in this regimen, at 1 mg/m² with possibly less myelosuppression and more peripheral neuropathy which can be managed by dose

modification. VCAP=vincristine (VCR), cyclophosphamide (CPA), doxorubicin (ADM), prednisone (PSL); AMP=ADM, MCNU, PSL; VECP=VDS, etoposide (ETP), carboplatin (CBDCA) and PSL. [Based on data from Tsukasaki K, Utsunomiya A, Fukuda H, et al.: VCAP-AMP-VECP compared with biweekly CHOP for adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma: Japan Clinical Oncology Group Study JCOG9801. *J Clin Oncol* 25:5,458–5,564, 2007.]

prophylactic intrathecal administration, at the recovery phases of courses 1, 3, and 5 because of the high frequency of central nervous system relapse in the JCOG9303 study. Untreated patients with aggressive ATL were assigned to receive either six courses of LSG15 every 4 weeks or eight courses of biweekly CHOP. The primary endpoint was overall survival. A total of 118 patients were enrolled. The CR rate was higher in the LSG15 arm than in the biweekly CHOP arm (40% vs. 25%, respectively; $P=0.020$). As illustrated in Figure 8.4, the median survival time and OS rate at 3 years were 12.7 months and 24% in the LSG15 arm and 10.9 months and 13% in the biweekly CHOP arm [two-sided $P=0.169$, and the hazard ratio was 0.75; 95% confidence interval (CI), 0.50–1.13]. A Cox regression analysis with performance status (PS 0 vs. 1 vs. 2–4) as the stratum for baseline hazard functions was performed to evaluate the

effect on overall survival of age, B-symptoms, subtypes of ATL, LDH, BUN, bulky mass, and treatment arms. According to this analysis, the hazard ratio and two-sided P value for the treatment arms were 0.62 (95% CI, 0.38–1.01) and 0.056, respectively. The difference between the crude analysis and this result was because of unbalanced prognostic factors, such as PS 0 vs. 1, and the presence or absence of bulky lesions between the treatment arms. The progression-free survival rate at 1 year was 28% in the LSG15 arm compared with 16% in the biweekly CHOP arm (two-sided $P=0.200$).

In VCAP-AMP-VECP vs. biweekly CHOP, rate of grade 4 neutropenia, grade 4 thrombocytopenia, and grade 3/4 infection were 98% vs. 83%, 74% vs. 17%, and 32% vs. 15%, respectively. There were three toxic deaths in the former. Three treatment-related deaths (TRDs), two from sepsis and one from interstitial pneumonitis

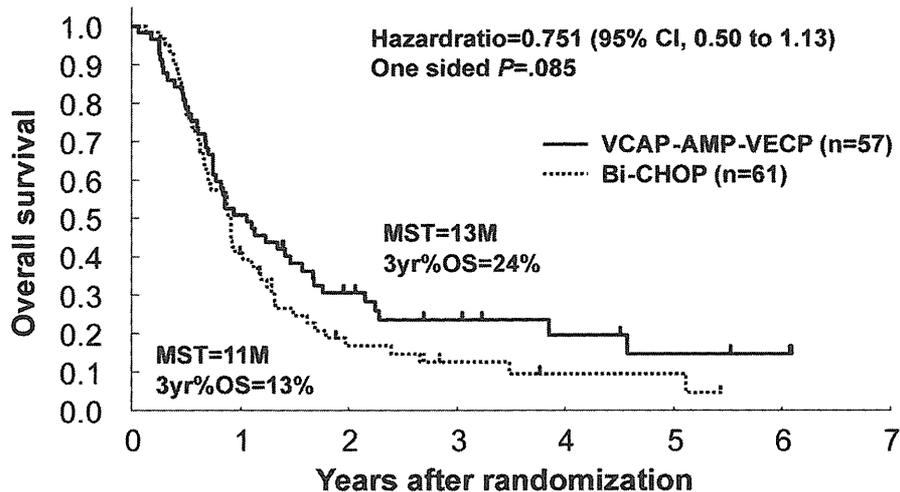


Fig. 8.4 Kaplan-Meier Estimate of Overall Survival for all Randomly Assigned Patients in JCOG9801. CI=confidential interval; VCAP=vincristine, cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin, prednisone; AMP=doxorubicin, ranimustine, prednisone; VECP=vindesine, etoposide, carboplatin, prednisone; MST=median survival time;

OS=overall survival; [Based on data from Tsukasaki K, Utsunomiya A, Fukuda H, et al.: VCAP-AMP-VECP compared with biweekly CHOP for adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma: Japan Clinical Oncology Group Study JCOG9801. *J Clin Oncol* 25:5,458–5,564, 2007.]

related to neutropenia, were reported in the VCAP-AMP-VECP arm. Two cases of myelodysplastic syndrome were reported, one each in both arms.

The longer survival at 3 years and higher CR rate with LSG15 compared with biweekly CHOP suggest that LSG15 is a more effective regimen at the expense of higher toxicity, providing the basis for future investigations in the treatment of ATL [107]. The superiority of VCAP-AMP-VECP to biweekly CHOP may be explained by the more prolonged, dose dense schedule of therapy in addition to four more drugs. In addition, agents such as carboplatin and ranimustine not affected by multidrug-resistance related genes, which were frequently expressed in ATL cells at onset, were incorporated [109]. Intrathecal prophylaxis, which was incorporated in both arms of the phase III study, should be considered for patients with aggressive ATL even in the absence of clinical symptoms because a previous analysis revealed that more than half of relapses at new sites after chemotherapy occurred in the CNS [110]. However, the median survival time of 13 months still compares unfavorably to other hematological malignancies, requiring further effort to improve the outcome.

Interferon-Alpha and Zidovudine

A small phase II trial in Japan of IFN alpha against relapsed/refractory ATL showed a response rate (all PR) of 33% (8/24), including five out of nine (56%) chronic type ATL [111]. In 1995, Gill and associates reported that 11 of 19 patients with acute- or lymphoma-type ATL showed major responses (five CR and six PR) to a combination of interferon-alpha (IFN) and zidovudine (AZT) [112]. The efficacy of this combination was also observed in a French study; major objective responses were obtained in all five patients with ATL (four with acute type and one with smoldering type) [113]. Although these results are encouraging, the OS of previously untreated patients with ATL was relatively short (4.8 months) compared with the survival of those in the chemotherapy trials conducted by the JCOG-LSG (7–8 months) [114]. After that, numerous small phase II studies using AZT and IFN have shown responses in ATL patients [115–117]. High doses of both agents are recommended: 6–9 million units of IFN in combination with daily divided AZT doses of 800–1,000 mg/day.

Recently, the results of a “meta-analysis” on the use of IFN and AZT for ATL were reported

[118]. A total of 100 patients received interferon- α and AZT as initial treatments. The ORR was 66%, with a 43% CR rate. In this worldwide retrospective analysis, the median survival time was 24 months and the 5-year survival rate was 50% for first-line IFN and AZT, vs. 7 months and 20% for 84 patients who received first-line chemotherapy. The median survival time of patients with acute-type ATL treated with first-line IFN/AZT and chemotherapy was 12 and 9 months, respectively. Patients with lymphoma-type ATL did not benefit from this combination. In addition, first-line IFN/AZT therapy in chronic- and smoldering-type ATL resulted in a 100% survival rate at a median follow-up of 5 years. While the results for IFN/AZT in indolent ATL appear to be promising compared to those with watchful-waiting policy until disease progression, recently reported from Japan [101], the possibility of selection bias cannot be ruled out. A prospective multicenter phase III study evaluating the efficacy of IFN/AZT as compared to watchful-waiting for indolent ATL is to be initiated in Japan.

Recently, a phase II study of the combination of arsenic trioxide, IFN, and AZT for chronic ATL revealed an impressive response rate and moderate toxicity [119]. Although the results appeared promising, the addition of arsenic trioxide to IFN/AZT, which might be sufficient for the treatment of chronic ATL as described above, caused more toxicity and should be evaluated with caution.

Allergenic Hematopoietic Stem-Cell Transplantation (allo-HSCT)

Allo-HSCT is now recommended for the treatment of young patients with aggressive ATL. Despite higher treatment-related mortality in a retrospective multicenter analysis of myeloablative allo-HSCT, the estimated 3-year OS of 33% is promising, possibly reflecting a graft versus ATL effect [120]. To evaluate the efficacy of allo-HSCT more accurately, especially in view of a comparison with intensive chemotherapy, a prospective multicenter phase II study of LSG15 chemotherapy followed by allo-HSCT will be initiated in Japan.

Feasibility studies of allo-HSCT with reduced intensity conditioning for ATL also revealed promising results, and a subsequent multicenter trial of RIST is being conducted in Japan [121, 122]. The minimal residual disease after allo-HSCT detected as HTLV-1 proviral load was much less extensive than that after chemotherapy or AZT/IFN therapy, suggesting the presence of a graft-versus-ATL effect as well as graft-versus-HTLV-1 activity [121]. It remains unclear which type of allo-HSCT (myeloablative or reduced intensity conditioning) is more suitable for the treatment of ATL. Furthermore, selection criteria with respect to responses to previous treatments, sources of stem cells, and HTLV-1 viral status of the donor remain to be determined. However, several other retrospective studies as well as those mentioned above on allo-HSCT showed a promising long-term survival rate of 20–40% with an apparent plateau phase despite significant treatment-related mortality.

Supportive Care

The prevention of opportunistic infections is essential in the management of ATL patients, nearly half of whom develop severe infections during chemotherapy. Some patients with indolent ATL develop infections during watchful waiting. Sulfamethoxazole/trimethoprim and antifungal agents have been recommended as prophylaxes for *Pneumocystis jiroveci* pneumonia and fungal infections, respectively, in the JCOG trials [105–107]. While cytomegalovirus infections are not infrequent among ATL patients, ganciclovir is not usually recommended as a prophylaxis [55]. In addition, in patients not receiving chemotherapy, antifungal prophylaxis may not be critical. An anti-strongyloides agent, such as ivermectin or albendazole, should be considered to avoid systemic infections in patients with a history of exposure to the parasite in the tropics. Treatment with steroids and proton pump inhibitors may precipitate a fulminant strongyloides infestation and warrants testing before these agents are used in endemic areas [55]. Hypercalcemia associated with aggressive ATL can be corrected using chemotherapy in

combination with hydration and bisphosphonate even when the PS of the patient is poor.

Response Criteria in ATL

The complex nature of ATL, often with both leukemic and lymphomatous components, makes response assessment difficult. A modification of the JCOG response criteria was suggested reflecting those for CLL and NHL which had been published later [55, 123, 124]. Recently, revised response criteria were proposed for lymphoma, incorporating positron emission tomography (PET), especially for the assessment of CR. It is well known and described in the criteria that several kinds of lymphoma including PTCLs were variably [¹⁸F]fluorodeoxyglucose avid [125]. Meanwhile, PET or PET/CT is recommended for evaluations of response for ATL when the tumorous lesions are FDG-avid at diagnosis [57]:

New Agents for ATL

Topoisomerase Inhibitors

MST-16, a new orally administered bis(2,6-dioxopiperazine) analogue and an inhibitor of topoisomerase II, showed some activity with little cross resistance toward lymphoid malignancies in vitro and in vivo. MST-16 at 1,200–2,800 mg/day was given orally daily for 7 days, with courses repeated at intervals of 2–3 weeks to 24 patients with ATL in a phase I–II study [126]. Two CRs and eight PRs were obtained in 23 (13 acute, 8 lymphoma, and 2 chronic ATL) evaluable patients. Remissions were obtained at 7–232 (median, 23) days and lasted 43–374 (median, 68) days. The major toxic effects were leukopenia (68%), anemia (52%), thrombocytopenia (35%), and gastrointestinal disorders (22%). Although this agent showed promising activity against ATL as a single agent, no further study in combination with other agents has been reported.

Irinotecan hydrochloride (CPT-11) is a semi-synthetic camptothecin with inhibitory activity

against topoisomerase I. Preclinical studies of CPT-11 have suggested a lack of cross-resistance between topoisomerase I inhibitors and other anticancer agents. Multicenter phase II studies of CPT-11 have been conducted against relapsed or refractory NHL [127]. In this study, 9 patients achieved a CR, and 17 patients achieved a PR (response rate 38%: 26 of 69), using a weekly intravenous administration of 40 mg/m²/day for three consecutive days. Within this group, 5 of 13 patients with ATL (38%) responded to CPT-11 (one CR and four PR) [127]. The major toxic effects of CPT-11 were leukopenia, diarrhea, and nausea and/or vomiting. Subsequently, to develop a new chemo therapy regimen effective against NHL and ATL, two kinds of phase I/II studies of CPT-11 in combination with CBDCA or ETP were conducted for relapsed or refractory NHL. In both studies, however, dose escalation was halted because of hematologic toxicity (in combination with CBDCA) and hepatotoxicity (in combination with ETP).

Purine Analogs

Several purine analogs have been evaluated for ATL. Among them, pentostatin (deoxycoformycin) has been most extensively evaluated as a single agent and in combination as described above [105, 108]. Other purine analogs clinically studied for ATL are fludarabine and cladribine. Fludarabine is among standard treatments for B-chronic lymphocytic leukemia and other lymphoid malignancies. In a phase I study of fludarabine in Japan, five ATL patients and ten B-CLL patients with refractory or relapsed-disease were enrolled [128]. Six grade 3 non-hematological toxicities were only observed in the ATL patients. PR was achieved only in one of the five ATL patients and the duration was short. Cladribine is among standard treatments for hairy cell leukemia and other lymphoid malignancies. A phase II study of cladribine for relapsed/refractory aggressive-ATL in 15 patients revealed only one PR [129].

Forodesine, a purine nucleotide phosphorylase (PNP) inhibitor, is among purine nucleotide

analogs. PNP is an enzyme in the purine salvage pathway that phosphorylates 2'-deoxyguanosine (dGuo). PNP deficiency in humans results in a severe combined immunodeficiency phenotype and the selective depletion of T cells associated with high plasma deoxyguanosine (dGuo) and high intracellular deoxyguanosine triphosphate levels in those cells with high deoxynucleoside kinase activity such as T cells, leading to cell death. Inhibitors of PNP, such as forodesine, mimic SCID *in vitro* and *in vivo*, suggesting a new targeting agent specific for T-cell malignancies [130]. A dose escalating phase I study of forodesine is being conducted for T-cell malignancies including ATL.

Histone Deacetylase Inhibitors

Gene expression governed by epigenetic changes is crucial to the pathogenesis of cancer. Histone deacetylases (HDACs) are enzymes involved in the remodeling of chromatin and play a key role in the epigenetic regulation of gene expression. Deacetylase inhibitors (DACi) induce the hyperacetylation of non-histone proteins as well as nucleosomal histones resulting in the expression of repressed genes involved in growth arrest, terminal differentiation, and/or apoptosis among cancer cells. Several classes of HDACi have been found to have potent anti-cancer effects in preclinical studies. HDACis such as vorinostat (suberoylanilide hydroxamic acid), romidepsin (depsipeptide), and panobinostat (LBH589) have also shown promise in preclinical and/or clinical studies against T-cell malignancies including ATL [131]. Vorinostat and romidepsin have been approved for cutaneous T-cell lymphoma (CTCL) by the Food and Drug Administration in the USA. LBH589 has a significant anti-ATL effect *in vitro* and in mice [132]. However, a phase II study for CTCL and indolent ATL was terminated because of severe infections associated with the shrinkage of skin tumors and formation of ulcers in patients with ATL. Further study is required to evaluate the efficacy of HDACis for PTCL/CTCL including ATL.

Monoclonal Antibodies and Toxin Fusion Proteins

Monoclonal antibodies (MoAb) and toxin fusion proteins targeting several molecules expressed on the surface of ATL cells and other lymphoid malignant cells, such as CD25, CD2, CD52 and CCR4, have shown promise in recent clinical trials. Because most ATL cells express the alpha-chain of IL-2R (CD25), Waldmann et al. treated patients with ATL using monoclonal antibodies to CD25 [133]. Six (32%) of 19 patients treated with anti-Tac showed objective responses lasting from 9 weeks to longer than 3 years. One impediment to this approach is the quantity of soluble IL-2R shed by the tumor cells into the circulation. Another strategy for targeting IL-2R is conjugation with an immunotoxin (*Pseudomonas* exotoxin) or radioisotope (yttrium-90). Waldmann et al. developed a stable conjugate of anti-Tac with yttrium-90. Among the 16 patients with ATL who received 5- to 15-mCi doses, 9 (56%) showed objective responses. The response lasted longer than that obtained with unconjugated anti-Tac antibody [134, 135].

LMB-2, composed of the anti-CD25 murine MoAb fused to the truncated form of *Pseudomonas* toxin, was cytotoxic to CD25-expressing cells including ATL cells *in vitro* and in mice. Phase I/II trials of this agent showed some effect against hairy cell leukemia, CTCL, and ATL [136]. Six of thirty-five patients in the phase I study had significant levels of neutralizing antibodies after the first cycle. This drug deserves further clinical trials including in combination with cytotoxic agents.

Denileukin diftitox (DD; DAB(389)-interleukin-2 [IL-2]), an interleukin-2-diphtheria toxin fusion protein targeting IL-2 receptor-expressing malignant T lymphocytes, shows efficacy as a single agent against CTCL and PTCL [137]. Also, the combination of this agent with multi-agent chemotherapy, CHOP, was promising for PTCL [138]. ATL cells frequently and highly express CD25 as described above and several ATL cases successfully treated with this agent have been reported [139].

CD52 antigen is present on normal and pathologic B and T cells. In PTCL, however, CD52

expression varies among patients, with an overall expression rate lower than 50% in one study but not in another [140, 141]. ATL cells frequently express CD52 as compared to other PTCLs. The humanized anti-CD52 monoclonal antibody alemtuzumab is active against CLL and PTCL as a single agent. The combination of alemtuzumab with a standard-dose cyclophosphamide/doxorubicin/vincristine/prednisone (CHOP) regimen as a first-line treatment for 24 patients with PTCL showed promising results with CR in 17 (71%) patients, 1 had a partial remission, with an overall median duration of response of 11 months and was associated with mostly manageable infections but including CMV reactivation [142]. Major infections were Jacob–Creutzfeldt virus reactivation, pulmonary invasive aspergillosis, and *Staphylococcus* sepsis.

ATL cells express CD52, the target of alemtuzumab, which was active in a preclinical model of ATL and toxic to p53-deficient cells, and several ATL cases successfully treated with this agent have been reported [143–145].

Siplizumab is a humanized MoAb targeting CD2 and showed efficacy in a murine ATL model. P1 dose-escalating study of this agent in 22 patients with several kinds of T/NK-cell malignancy revealed six responses (two CR in LGL leukemia, three PR in ATL and one PR in CTCL). However, four patients developed EBV-associated LPD [146]. The broad specificity of this agent may eliminate both CD4- and CD8-positive T cells as well as NK cells without affecting B cells and predispose individuals to the development of EBV lymphoproliferative syndrome.

CCR4 is expressed on normal T helper type 27 and regulatory T (Treg) cells and on certain types of T-cell neoplasms [63, 94]. KW-0761, a next generation humanized anti-CCR4 mAb, with a defucosylated Fc region, exerts strong antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity due to increased binding to the Fc γ receptor on effector cells [147]. A phase I study of dose escalation with four weekly intravenous infusions of KW-0761 in 16 patients with relapsed CCR4-positive T-cell malignancy (13 ATL and 3 PTCL) revealed that one patient, at the maximum dose (1.0 mg/kg),

developed grade (G) three dose-limiting toxic effects, namely skin rashes and febrile neutropenia, and G4 neutropenia [148]. Other treatment-related G3-4 toxic effects were lymphopenia ($n=10$), neutropenia ($n=3$), leukopenia ($n=2$), herpes zoster ($n=1$), and acute infusion reaction/cytokine release syndrome ($n=1$). Neither the frequency nor severity of these effects increased with dose escalation or the plasma concentration of the agent. The maximum tolerated dose was not reached. No patients had detectable levels of anti-KW-0761 antibody. Five patients (31%; 95% CI, 11–59%) achieved objective responses: two complete (0.1; 1.0 mg/kg) and three partial (0.01; 2 at 1.0 mg/kg) responses. Three out of thirteen patients with ATL (31%) achieved a response (two CR and one PR). Responses in each lesion were diverse, that is, good in PB (six CR and one PR/seven evaluable cases), intermediate in skin (three CR and one PR/eight evaluable cases), and poor in LN (1 CR and 2 PR/11 evaluable cases). KW-0761 was well tolerated at all the doses tested, demonstrating potential efficacy against relapsed CCR4-positive ATL or PTCL. Recently, results of subsequent phase II studies at the 1.0 mg/kg in relapsed ATL, showing 50% of response rate with acceptable toxicity profiles, were reported [149]. Also, a phase II trial of single agent KW-0761 at the 1.0 mg/kg in relapsed PTCL/CTCL and a phase II trial of VCAP-AMP-VECP combined with KW-0761 for untreated aggressive ATL are ongoing.

Other Novel Agents

Pralatrexate (Folotyn) is a new agent with potent preclinical and clinical activity in T-cell malignancies including ATL [150–152]. The agent is a novel anti-folate with improved membrane transport and polyglutamylation in tumor cells and high affinity for the reduced folate carrier highly expressed in malignant cells. Other potential drugs for ATL under investigation include a proteasome inhibitor, bortezomib (Velcade), and an immunomodulatory agent, lenalidomide (Revlimid) [153–155].

Table 8.3 Strategy for the treatment of Adult T-Cell Leukemia-Lymphoma**Smoldering- or favorable chronic-type ATL**

- Consider inclusion in
- Symptomatic patients (skin lesions, opportunistic infections, etc.): Consider AZT/IFN or Watch and Wait
- Asymptomatic patients: Consider Watch and Wait

Unfavorable chronic- or acute-type ATL

- If outside clinical trials, check prognostic factors (including clinical and molecular factors if possible):
 - Good prognostic factors: consider chemotherapy (VCAP-AMP-VECP evaluated by a phase III trial against biweekly-CHOP) or AZT/IFN (evaluated by a meta-analysis on retrospective studies)
 - Poor prognostic factors: consider chemotherapy followed by conventional or reduced intensity allo-HSCT (evaluated by retrospective and prospective Japanese analyses, respectively).
 - Poor response to initial therapy: Consider conventional or reduced intensity allo-HSCT

Lymphoma-type ATL

- If outside clinical trials, consider chemotherapy (VCAP-AMP-VECP)
- Check prognostic factors (including clinical and molecular factors if possible) and response to chemotherapy:
 - Good prognostic factors and good response to initial therapy: Consider chemotherapy followed by observation
 - Poor prognostic factors or poor response to initial therapy: Consider chemotherapy followed by conventional or reduced intensity allo-HSCT

[Based on data from Tsukasaki K, Hermine O, Bazarbachi A, et al.: Definition, prognostic factors, treatment, and response criteria of adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma: A proposal from an international consensus meeting. *J Clin Oncol* 27:453–459, 2009.]

Prevention of ATL

Two steps should be considered for the prevention of HTLV-1-associated ATL. The first is the prevention of HTLV-1 infections. This has been achieved in some endemic areas in Japan by screening for HTLV-1 among blood donors and asking mothers who are carriers to refrain from breast feeding. The second step is the prevention of ATL among HTLV-1 carriers. This has not been achieved partly because only about 5% of HTLV-1 carriers develop the disease in their life time, although several risk factors have been identified by a cohort study of HTLV-1 carriers (Joint Study of Predisposing Factors for ATL Development) [83]. Also, no agent has been found to be effective in preventing the development of ATL among HTLV-1 carriers.

Ongoing Clinical Trials

Clinical trials have been paramount to the recent advances in ATL treatment, including assessments of chemotherapy, AZT/IFN, and allo-HSCT. Recently, a strategy for ATL treatment, stratified by subclassification, prognostic

factors, and the response to initial treatment as well as response criteria was proposed (Table 8.3) [57]. The recommended treatment algorithm for ATL is shown in Fig. 8.2. However, as described in this chapter, ATL still has a worse prognosis than the other T-cell malignancies [156]. There is no plateau with an initial steep slope and subsequent gentle slope without a plateau in the survival curve for aggressive or indolent ATL treated by watchful waiting and with chemotherapy, respectively, although the prognosis is much better in the latter [14, 61]. A prognostic model for each subgroup should be elucidated to properly identify the candidate for allo-HSCT which can achieve a cure of ATL despite considerable treatment-related mortality. Although several small phase II trials suggested IFN/AZT therapy to be promising, no confirmative phase III study has been conducted. Furthermore, as described in the other chapters in detail, more than ten promising new agents for PTCL/CTCL including ATL are now in clinical trials or preparation. Future clinical trials on ATL as described above should be incorporated to ensure that the strategy as shown in Table 8.3 is continually updated to establish evidence-based practical guidelines.

References

1. Uchiyama T, Yodoi J, Sagawa K, et al. Adult T-cell leukemia: clinical and hematologic features of 16 cases. *Blood*. 1977;50:481–92.
2. Poiesz BJ, Ruscetti FW, Gazdar AF, et al. Detection and isolation of type C retrovirus particles from fresh and cultured lymphocytes of a patient with cutaneous T-cell lymphoma. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1980;77:7415–9.
3. Hinuma Y, Nagata K, Hanaoka M, Nakai M, Matsumoto T, Kinoshita KI, et al. Adult T-cell leukemia: antigen in an ATL cell line and detection of antibodies to the antigen in human sera. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1981;78(10):6476–80.
4. Miyoshi I, Kubonishi I, Yoshimoto S, Akagi T, Ohtsuki Y, Shiraiishi Y, et al. Type C virus particles in a cord T-cell line derived by co-cultivating normal human cord leukocytes and human leukaemic T cells. *Nature*. 1981;294(5843):770–1.
5. Yoshida M, Miyoshi I, Hinuma Y. Isolation and characterization of retrovirus from cell lines of human adult T-cell leukemia and its implication in the disease. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1982;79:2031–5.
6. Gessain A, Barin F, Vernant JC, Gout O, Maurs L, Calender A, et al. Antibodies to human T-lymphotropic virus type-I in patients with tropical spastic paraparesis. *Lancet*. 1985;2(8452):407–10.
7. Osame M, Usuku K, Izumo S, Ijichi N, Amitani H, Igata A, et al. HTLV-I associated myelopathy, a new clinical entity. *Lancet*. 1986;1(8488):1031–2.
8. LaGrenade L, Hanchard B, Fletcher V, Cranston B, Blattner W. Infective dermatitis of Jamaican children: a marker for HTLV-I infection. *Lancet*. 1990;336(8727):1345–7.
9. Mochizuki M, Watanabe T, Yamaguchi K, Takatsuki K, Yoshimura K, Shirao M, et al. HTLV-I uveitis: a distinct clinical entity caused by HTLV-I. *Jpn J Cancer Res*. 1992;83(3):236–9.
10. Terada K, Katamine S, Eguchi K, Moriuchi R, Kita M, Shimada H, et al. Prevalence of serum and salivary antibodies to HTLV-1 in Sjögren's syndrome. *Lancet*. 1994;344(8930):1116–9.
11. Takatsuki K. *Adult T-cell Leukemia*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, New York; 1994.
12. IARC Working Group on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans: Human immunodeficiency viruses and human T-cell lymphotropic viruses. IARC monographs on the evaluation of carcinogenic risks to humans, Geneva: IARC Press 1996
13. Ohshima K, Jaffe ES, Kikuchi M. Adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma. In: Swerdlow SH, Campo E, Harris NL, et al., editors. *WHO classification of tumour of haemopoietic and lymphoid tissues*. 4th ed. Lyon: IARC Press; 2008. p. 281–4.
14. Shimoyama M. Diagnostic criteria and classification of clinical subtypes of adult T-cell leukaemia-lymphoma: a report from the lymphoma study group (1984–87). *Br J Haematol*. 1991;79:428–37.
15. Matsuoka M, Jeang KT. Human T-cell leukaemia virus type 1 (HTLV-1) infectivity and cellular transformation. *Nat Rev Cancer*. 2007;7(4):270–80.
16. Satou Y, Matsuoka M. HTLV-1 and the host immune system: how the virus disrupts immune regulation, leading to HTLV-1 associated diseases. *J Clin Exp Hematop*. 2010;50(1):1–8.
17. Seiki M, Hattori S, Hirayama Y, Yoshida M. Human adult T-cell leukemia virus: complete nucleotide sequence of the provirus genome integrated in leukemia cell DNA. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1983;80(12):3618–22.
18. Sodroski JG, Goh WC, Rosen CA, Salahuddin SZ, Aldovini A, Franchini G, et al. trans-Activation of the human T-cell leukemia virus long terminal repeat correlates with expression of the x-lor protein. *J Virol*. 1985;55(3):831–5.
19. Kiyokawa T, Seiki M, Iwashita S, Imagawa K, Shimizu F, Yoshida M. p27x-III and p21x-III, proteins encoded by the pX sequence of human T-cell leukemia virus type I. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1985;82(24):8359–63.
20. Gaudray G, Gachon F, Basbous J, et al. The complementary strand of the human T-cell leukemia virus type 1 RNA genome encodes a bZIP transcription factor that down-regulates viral transcription. *J Virol*. 2002;76:12813.
21. Satou Y, Yasunaga J, Yoshida M, et al. HTLV-I basic leucine zipper factor gene mRNA supports proliferation of adult T cell leukemia cells. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 2006;103:720.
22. Murata K, Hayashibara T, Sugahara K, Uemura A, Yamaguchi T, Harasawa H, et al. A novel alternative splicing isoform of human T-cell leukemia virus type 1 bZIP factor (HBZ-SI) targets distinct subnuclear localization. *J Virol*. 2006;80(5):2495–505.
23. Kline RL, Brothers T, Halsey N, Boulous R, Lairmore MD, Quinn TC. Evaluation of enzyme immunoassays for antibody to human T-lymphotropic viruses type I/II. *Lancet*. 1991;337(8732):30–3.
24. Ikeda M, Fujino R, Matsui T, Yoshida T, Komoda H, Imai J. A new agglutination test for serum antibodies to adult T-cell leukemia virus. *Gann*. 1984;75(10):845–8.
25. Aoki T, Miyakoshi H, Koide H, Yoshida T, Ishikawa H, Sugisaki Y, et al. Seroepidemiology of human T-lymphotropic retrovirus type I (HTLV-I) in residents of Niigata Prefecture, Japan. Comparative studies by indirect immunofluorescence microscopy and enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay. *Int J Cancer*. 1985;35(3):301–6.
26. Aboulafla DM, Feigal E, Vranzian K, Bennett C, Blattner W, Moss A, et al. Human T cell leukemia virus (HTLV-I/II) serodiagnostic testing: disparate results among a cohort of intravenous drug users. *AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses*. 1993;9(10):1043–50.
27. Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS). Proposed WHO criteria for interpreting results from western blot assays for HIV-1, HIV-2, and HTLV-I/HTLV-II. *Wkly Epidemiol Rec*. 1990 Sep 14;65(37):281–3.

28. Franchini G, Wong-Staal F, Gallo RC. Human T-cell leukemia virus (HTLV-I) transcripts in fresh and cultured cells of patients with adult T-cell leukemia. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1984;81:6207.
29. Kinoshita T, Shimoyama M, Tobinai K, Ito M, Ito S, Ikeda S, et al. Detection of mRNA for the tax1/rex1 gene of human T-cell leukemia virus type I in fresh peripheral blood mononuclear cells of adult T-cell leukemia patients and viral carriers by using the polymerase chain reaction. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1989;86(14):5620-4.
30. Yoshida M, Seiki M, Yamaguchi K, Takatsuki K. Monoclonal integration of human T-cell leukemia provirus in all primary tumors of adult T-cell leukemia suggests causative role of human T-cell leukemia virus in the disease. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1984;81(8):2534-7.
31. Takemoto S, Matsuoka M, Yamaguchi K, Takatsuki K. A novel diagnostic method of adult T-cell leukemia: monoclonal integration of human T-cell lymphotropic virus type I provirus DNA detected by inverse polymerase chain reaction. *Blood*. 1994;84(9):3080-5.
32. Wattel E, Vartanian JP, Pannetier C, Wain-Hobson S. Clonal expansion of human T-cell leukemia virus type I-infected cells in asymptomatic and symptomatic carriers without malignancy. *J Virol*. 1995;69(5):2863-8.
33. Yamaguchi K, Seiki M, Yoshida M, Nishimura H, Kawano F, Takatsuki K. The detection of human T cell leukemia virus proviral DNA and its application for classification and diagnosis of T cell malignancy. *Blood*. 1984;63(5):1235-40.
34. Tamiya S, Matsuoka M, Etoh K, Watanabe T, Kamihira S, Yamaguchi K, et al. Two types of defective human T-lymphotropic virus type I provirus in adult T-cell leukemia. *Blood*. 1996;88(8):3065-73.
35. Tsukasaki K, Tsushima H, Yamamura M, et al. Integration patterns of HTLV-I provirus in relation to the clinical course of ATL: frequent clonal change at crisis from indolent disease. *Blood*. 1997;89:948-56.
36. Furukawa Y, Fujisawa J, Osame M, Toita M, Sonoda S, Kubota R, et al. Frequent clonal proliferation of human T-cell leukemia virus type 1 (HTLV-1)-infected T cells in HTLV-1-associated myelopathy (HAM-TSP). *Blood*. 1992;80(4):1012-6.
37. Ikeda S, Momita S, Kinoshita K, Kamihira S, Moriuchi Y, Tsukasaki K, et al. Clinical course of human T-lymphotropic virus type I carriers with molecularly detectable monoclonal proliferation of T lymphocytes: defining a low- and high-risk population. *Blood*. 1993;82(7):2017-24.
38. Takahashi K, Takezaki T, Oki T, Kawakami K, Yashiki S, Fujiyoshi T, et al. Inhibitory effect of maternal antibody on mother-to-child transmission of human T-lymphotropic virus type I. The Mother-to-Child Transmission Study Group. *Int J Cancer*. 1991;49(5):673-7.
39. Kinoshita K, Hino S, Amagasaki T, Ikeda S, Yamada Y, Suzuyama J, et al. Demonstration of adult T-cell leukemia virus antigen in milk from three sero-positive mothers. *Gann*. 1984;75(2):103-5.
40. Hino S, Katamine S, Miyata H, Tsuji Y, Yamabe T, Miyamoto T. Primary prevention of HTLV-1 in Japan. *Leukemia*. 1997;11 Suppl 3:57-9.
41. Tajima K, Tominaga S, Suchi T, Kawagoe T, Komoda H, Hinuma Y, et al. Epidemiological analysis of the distribution of antibody to adult T-cell leukemia-virus-associated antigen: possible horizontal transmission of adult T-cell leukemia virus. *Gann*. 1982;73(6):893-901.
42. Okochi K, Sato H, Hinuma Y. A retrospective study on transmission of adult T cell leukemia virus by blood transfusion: seroconversion in recipients. *Vox Sang*. 1984;46(5):245-53.
43. Schwelbe J, Calsyn D, Shriver K, Saxon A, Kleyn J, Oluoch-Mitchell E, et al. Prevalence and epidemiologic correlates of human T cell lymphotropic virus infection among intravenous drug users. *J Infect Dis*. 1994;169(5):962-7.
44. Schaffar-Deshayes L, Chavance M, Monplaisir N, Courouce AM, Gessain A, Blesonski S, et al. Antibodies to HTLV-I p24 in sera of blood donors, elderly people and patients with hemopoietic diseases in France and in French West Indies. *Int J Cancer*. 1984;34(5):667-70.
45. Hunsmann G, Bayer H, Schneider J, Schmitz H, Kern P, Dietrich M, et al. Antibodies to ATL/HTLV-1 in Africa. *Med Microbiol Immunol*. 1984;173(3):167-70.
46. Ohtsu T, Tsugane S, Tobinai K, Shimoyama M, Nanri S, Watanabe S. Prevalence of antibodies to human T-cell leukemia/lymphoma virus type I and human immunodeficiency virus in Japanese immigrant colonies in Bolivia and Bolivian natives. *Jpn J Cancer Res*. 1987;78(12):1347-53.
47. Achiron A, Pinhas-Hamiel O, Doll L, Djaldetti R, Chen A, Ziv I, et al. Spastic paraparesis associated with human T-lymphotropic virus type I: a clinical, serological, and genomic study in Iranian-born Mashhadi Jews. *Ann Neurol*. 1993;34(5):670-5.
48. Yanagihara R, Jenkins CL, Alexander SS, Mora CA, Garruto RM. Human T lymphotropic virus type I infection in Papua New Guinea: high prevalence among the Hagahai confirmed by western analysis. *J Infect Dis*. 1990;162(3):649-54.
49. Cruickshank JK, Rudge P, Dalgleish AG, Newton M, McLean BN, Barnard RO, et al. Tropical spastic paraparesis and human T cell lymphotropic virus type 1 in the United Kingdom. *Brain*. 1989;112(Pt 4):1057-90.
50. Tajima K, Kamura S, Ito S, Ito M, Nagatomo M, Kinoshita K, et al. Epidemiological features of HTLV-I carriers and incidence of ATL in an ATL-endemic island: a report of the community-based cooperative study in Tsushima, Japan. *Int J Cancer*. 1987;40(6):741-6.
51. Mueller N, Okayama A, Stuver S, Tachibana N. Findings from the Miyazaki Cohort Study. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr Hum Retrovirol*. 1996;13 Suppl 1:S2-7.

52. Iwanaga M, Chiyoda S, Kusaba E, Kamihira S. Trends in the seroprevalence of HTLV-1 in Japanese blood donors in Nagasaki Prefecture, 2000–2006. *Int J Hematol.* 2009;90(2):186–90.
53. Morgan OS, Rodgers-Johnson P, Mora C, Char G. HTLV-1 and polymyositis in Jamaica. *Lancet.* 1989;2(8673):1184–7.
54. Sugimoto M, Nakashima H, Watanabe S, Uyama E, Tanaka F, Ando M, et al. T-lymphocyte alveolitis in HTLV-I-associated myelopathy. *Lancet.* 1987;2(8569):1220.
55. Nishioka K, Maruyama I, Sato K, Kitajima I, Nakajima Y, Osame M. Chronic inflammatory arthropathy associated with HTLV-I. *Lancet.* 1989;1(8635):441.
56. Tachibana N, Okayama A, Ishizaki J, Yokota T, Shishime E, Murai K, et al. Suppression of tuberculin skin reaction in healthy HTLV-I carriers from Japan. *Int J Cancer.* 1988;42(6):829–31.
57. Tsukasaki K, Hermine O, Bazarbachi A, et al. Definition, prognostic factors, treatment, and response criteria of adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma: a proposal from an international consensus meeting. *J Clin Oncol.* 2009;27:453–9.
58. Major prognostic factors of patients with adult T-cell leukemia- lymphoma: a cooperative study. Lymphoma Study Group (1984–1987): *Leuk Res* 1991;15:81–90.
59. Yamada Y, Hatta Y, Murata K, et al. Deletions of p15 and/or p16 genes as a poor-prognosis factor in adult T-cell leukemia. *J Clin Oncol.* 1997;15:1778–85.
60. Utsunomiya A, Ishida T, Inagaki A, et al. Clinical significance of a blood eosinophilia in adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma: a blood eosinophilia is a significant unfavorable prognostic factor. *Leuk Res.* 2007;31:915–20.
61. Takasaki Y, Iwanaga M, Tsukasaki K, et al. Impact of visceral involvements and blood cell count abnormalities on survival in adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma (ATLL). *Leuk Res.* 2007;31:751–7.
62. Inagaki A, Ishida T, Ishii T, et al. Clinical significance of serum Th1-, Th2- and regulatory T cells-associated cytokines in adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma: high interleukin-5 and -10 levels are significant unfavorable prognostic factors. *Int J Cancer.* 2006;118:3054–61.
63. Ishida T, Utsunomiya A, Iida S, et al. Clinical significance of CCR4 expression in adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma: its close association with skin involvement and unfavorable outcome. *Clin Cancer Res.* 2003;9:3625–34.
64. Ohno N, Tani A, Uozumi K, et al. Expression of functional lung resistance-related protein predicts poor outcome in adult T-cell leukemia. *Blood.* 2001;98:1160–5.
65. Tawara M, Hogerzeil SJ, Yamada Y, et al. Impact of p53 aberration on the progression of Adult T-cell Leukemia/Lymphoma. *Cancer Lett.* 2006;234:249–55.
66. Bittencourt AL, da Graças Vieira M, et al. Adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma in Bahia, Brazil: analysis of prognostic factors in a group of 70 patients. *Am J Clin Pathol.* 2007;128:875–82.
67. Statistical analyses of clinico-pathological, virological and epidemiological data on lymphoid malignancies with special reference to adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma: a report of the second nationwide study of Japan. The T- and B-Cell Malignancy Study Group. *Jpn J Clin Oncol.* 1985 Sep;15(3):517–35.
68. Bartholomew C, Charles W, Saxinger C, Blattner W, Robert-Guroff M, Raju C, et al. Racial and other characteristics of human T cell leukemia/lymphoma (HTLV-I) and AIDS (HTLV-III) in Trinidad. *Br Med J (Clin Res Ed).* 1985;290(6477):1243–6.
69. Gérard Y, Lepere JF, Pradinaud R, Joly F, Lepelletier L, Joubert M, et al. Clustering and clinical diversity of adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma associated with HTLV-I in a remote black population of French Guiana. *Int J Cancer.* 1995;60(6):773–6.
70. Tajima K, Kuroishi T. Estimation of rate of incidence of ATL among ATL (HTLV-I) carriers in Kyushu, Japan. *Jpn J Clin Oncol.* 1985;15(2):423–30.
71. Kondo T, Kono H, Nonaka H, Miyamoto N, Yoshida R, Bando F, et al. Risk of adult T-cell leukaemia/lymphoma in HTLV-I carriers. *Lancet.* 1987;2(8551):159.
72. Murphy EL, Hanchard B, Figueroa JP, Gibbs WN, Lofters WS, Campbell M, et al. Modelling the risk of adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma in persons infected with human T-lymphotropic virus type I. *Int J Cancer.* 1989;43(2):250–3.
73. Wilks R, Hanchard B, Morgan O, Williams E, Cranston B, Smith ML, et al. Patterns of HTLV-I infection among family members of patients with adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma and HTLV-I associated myelopathy/tropical spastic paraparesis. *Int J Cancer.* 1996;65(2):272–3.
74. Osame M, Janssen R, Kubota H, Nishitani H, Igata A, Nagataki S, et al. Nationwide survey of HTLV-I-associated myelopathy in Japan: association with blood transfusion. *Ann Neurol.* 1990;28(1):50–6.
75. Chen YC, Wang CH, Su IJ, Hu CY, Chou MJ, Lee TH, et al. Infection of human T-cell leukemia virus type I and development of human T-cell leukemia lymphoma in patients with hematologic neoplasms: a possible linkage to blood transfusion. *Blood.* 1989;74(1):388–94.
76. Kanno M, Nakamura S, Matsuda T. Adult T-cell leukemia with HTLV-I-associated myelopathy after complete remission of acute myelogenous leukemia. *N Engl J Med.* 1998;338(5):333.
77. Kondo T, Kono H, Miyamoto N, Yoshida R, Toki H, Matsumoto I, et al. Age- and sex-specific cumulative rate and risk of ATLL for HTLV-I carriers. *Int J Cancer.* 1989;43(6):1061–4.
78. Kawano F, Tsuda H, Yamaguchi K, Nishimura H, Sanada I, Matsuzaki H, et al. Unusual clinical courses of adult T-cell leukemia in siblings. *Cancer.* 1984;54(1):131–4.

79. Tokudome S, Shimamoto Y, Sumida I. Smoking and adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma. *Eur J Cancer Prev.* 1993;2(1):84–5.
80. Tsukasaki K, Yamada Y, Ikeda S, Tomonaga M. Infective dermatitis among patients with ATL in Japan. *Int J Cancer.* 1994;57(2):293.
81. Hisada M, Okayama A, Shioiri S, Spiegelman DL, Stuver SO, Mueller NE. Risk factors for adult T-cell leukemia among carriers of human T-lymphotropic virus type I. *Blood.* 1998;92(10):3557–61.
82. Usuku K, Sonoda S, Osame M, Yashiki S, Takahashi K, Matsumoto M, et al. Igata A HLA haplotype-linked high immune responsiveness against HTLV-I in HTLV-I-associated myelopathy: comparison with adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma. *Ann Neurol.* 1988;23(Suppl):S143–50.
83. Iwanaga M, Watanabe T, Utsunomiya A, Okayama A, Uchimaru K, Koh KR, et al. Human T-cell leukemia virus type I (HTLV-1) proviral load and disease progression in asymptomatic HTLV-1 carriers: a nationwide prospective study in Japan. *Blood.* 2010 [Epub ahead of print].
84. Amano M, Kurokawa M, Ogata K, Itoh H, Kataoka H, Setoyama M. New entity, definition and diagnostic criteria of cutaneous adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma: human T-lymphotropic virus type 1 proviral DNA load can distinguish between cutaneous and smoldering types. *J Dermatol.* 2008;35(5):270–5.
85. Bennett JM, Catovsky D, Daniel MT, et al. Proposals for the classification of chronic (mature) B and T lymphoid leukaemias. French-American-British (FAB) Cooperative Group. *J Clin Pathol.* 1989; 42:567–84.
86. Tsukasaki K, Imaizumi Y, Tawara M, et al. Diversity of leukaemic cell morphology in ATL correlates with prognostic factors, aberrant immunophenotype and defective HTLV-1 genotype. *Br J Haematol.* 1999;105:369–75.
87. Lennert K, Kikuchi M, Sato E, Suchi T, Stansfeld AG, Feller AC, et al. HTLV-positive and -negative T-cell lymphomas. Morphological and immunohistochemical differences between European and HTLV-positive Japanese T-cell lymphomas. *Int J Cancer.* 1985;35(1):65–72.
88. Watanabe T, Yamaguchi K, Takatsuki K, Osame M, Yoshida M. Constitutive expression of parathyroid hormone-related protein gene in human T cell leukemia virus type 1 (HTLV-1) carriers and adult T cell leukemia patients that can be trans-activated by HTLV-1 tax gene. *J Exp Med.* 1990;172(3):759–65.
89. Nosaka K, Miyamoto T, Sakai T, Mitsuya H, Suda T, Matsuoka M. Mechanism of hypercalcemia in adult T-cell leukemia: overexpression of receptor activator of nuclear factor kappaB ligand on adult T-cell leukemia cells. *Blood.* 2002;99(2):634–40.
90. Tsuda H, Sawada T, Sakata KM, Takatsuki K. Possible mechanisms for the elevation of serum beta 2-microglobulin levels in adult T-cell leukemia. *Int J Hematol.* 1992;55(2):179–87.
91. Sadamori N, Ikeda S, Yamaguchi K, et al. Serum deoxythymidine kinase in adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma and its related disorders. *Leuk Res.* 1991;15:99–103.
92. Kamihira S, Atogami S, Sohda H, et al. Significance of soluble interleukin-2 receptor levels for evaluation of the progression of adult T-cell leukemia. *Cancer.* 1994;73:2753–8.
93. Kamihira S, Sohda H, Atogami S, Toriya K, Yamada Y, Tsukasaki K, et al. Phenotypic diversity and prognosis of adult T-cell leukemia. *Leuk Res.* 1992;16(5):435–41.
94. Kohno T, Yamada Y, Akamatsu N, Kamihira S, Imaizumi Y, Tomonaga M, et al. Possible origin of adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma cells from human T lymphotropic virus type-1-infected regulatory T cells. *Cancer Sci.* 2005;96(8):527–33.
95. Kamada N, Sakurai M, Miyamoto K, Sanada I, Sadamori N, Fukuhara S, et al. Chromosome abnormalities in adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma: a karyotype review committee report. *Cancer Res.* 1992;52(6):1481–93.
96. Itoyama T, Chaganti RS, Yamada Y, et al. Cytogenetic analysis and clinical significance in adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma: a study of 50 cases from the human T-cell leukemia virus type-1 endemic area, Nagasaki. *Blood.* 2001;97:3612–20.
97. Tsukasaki K, Krebs J, Nagai K, Tomonaga M, Koeffler HP, Bartram CR, et al. Comparative genomic hybridization analysis in adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma: correlation with clinical course. *Blood.* 2001;97(12):3875–81.
98. Oshiro A, Tagawa H, Ohshima K, Karube K, Uike N, Tashiro Y, et al. Identification of subtype-specific genomic alterations in aggressive adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma. *Blood.* 2006;107(11):4500–7.
99. Choi YL, Tsukasaki K, O'Neill MC, Yamada Y, Onimaru Y, Matsumoto K, et al. A genomic analysis of adult T-cell leukemia. *Oncogene.* 2007;26(8): 1245–55.
100. Sasaki H, Nishikata I, Shiraga T, Akamatsu E, Fukami T, Hidaka T, et al. Overexpression of a cell adhesion molecule, TSLC1, as a possible molecular marker for acute-type adult T-cell leukemia. *Blood.* 2005;105(3):1204–13.
101. Takasaki Y, Iwanaga M, Imaizumi Y, Tawara M, Joh T, Kohno T, et al. Long-term study of indolent adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma. *Blood.* 2010;115(22): 4337–43.
102. Shimoyama M, Ota K, Kikuchi M, et al. Chemotherapeutic results and prognostic factors of patients with advanced non-Hodgkins lymphoma treated with VEPA or VEPA-M. *J Clin Oncol.* 1988;6:128–41.
103. Shimoyama M, Ota K, Kikuchi M, et al. Major prognostic factors of adult patients with advanced T-cell lymphoma/leukemia. *J Clin Oncol.* 1988;6:1088–97.
104. Tobinai K, Shimoyama M, Minato K, et al. Japan Clinical Oncology Group phase II trial of

- second-generation LSG4 protocol in aggressive T- and B-lymphoma: a new predictive model for T- and B-lymphoma (abstract). *Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol*. 1994;13:378a.
105. Tsukasaki K, Tobinai K, Shimoyama M, et al. Deoxycoformycin-containing combination chemotherapy for adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma: Japan Clinical Oncology Group study (JCOG9109). *Int J Hematol*. 2003;77:164–70.
 106. Yamada Y, Tomonaga M, Fukuda H, et al. A new G-CSF-supported combination chemotherapy, LSG15, for adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma (ATL): Japan Clinical Oncology Group (JCOG) Study 9303. *Br J Haematol*. 2001;113:375–82.
 107. Tsukasaki K, Utsunomiya A, Fukuda H, et al. VCAP-AMP-VECP compared with biweekly CHOP for adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma: Japan Clinical Oncology Group Study JCOG9801. *J Clin Oncol*. 2007;25:5458–564.
 108. Tobinai K, Shimoyama M, Inoue S, et al. Phase I study of YK-176 (2-deoxycoformycin) in patients with adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma. *Jpn J Clin Oncol*. 1992;22:164–71.
 109. Kuwazuru Y, Hanada S, Furukawa T, et al. Expression of p-glycoprotein in adult T-cell leukemia cells. *Blood*. 1990;76:2065–71.
 110. Tsukasaki K, Ikeda S, Murata K, et al. Characteristics of chemotherapy-induced clinical remission in long survivors with aggressive adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma. *Leuk Res*. 1993;17:157–66.
 111. Ichimaru M, Kamihira S, Moriuchi Y, Kuraishi Y, Usui N, Toki H, et al. Clinical study on the effect of natural alpha-interferon (HLBI) in the treatment of adult T-cell leukemia. *Gan To Kagaku Ryoho*. 1988;15(10):2975–81. Japanese.
 112. Gill PS, Harrington W, Kaplan MH, et al. Treatment of adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma with a combination of interferon alfa and zidovudine. *N Engl J Med*. 1995;332:1744–8.
 113. Hermine O, Bloussard D, Gessain A, et al. Treatment of adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma with zidovudine and interferon alfa. *N Engl J Med*. 1995;332:1749–51.
 114. Tobinai K, Kobayashi Y, Shimoyama M, et al. Interferon alfa and zidovudine in adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma (correspondence). *N Engl J Med*. 1995;333:1285–6.
 115. White JD, Wharfe G, Stewart DM, et al. The combination of zidovudine and interferon alpha-2B in the treatment of adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma. *Leuk Lymphoma*. 2001;40:287–94.
 116. Matutes E, Taylor GP, Cavenagh J, et al. Interferon alpha and zidovudine therapy in adult T-cell leukemia lymphoma: response and outcome in 15 patients. *Br J Haematol*. 2001;113:779–84.
 117. Hermine O, Allard I, Lévy V, et al. A prospective phase II clinical trial with the use of zidovudine and interferon-alpha in the acute and lymphoma forms of adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma. *Hematol J*. 2002;3:276–82.
 118. Bazarbachi A, Plumelle Y, Ramos JC, Tortevoye P, Otroock Z, Taylor G, et al. Meta-analysis on the use of zidovudine and interferon-alfa in adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma showing improved survival in the leukemic subtypes. *J Clin Oncol*. 2010;28(27):4177–83.
 119. Kchour G, Tarhini M, Kooshyar M-M, et al. Phase 2 study of the efficacy and safety of the combination of arsenic trioxide, interferon alpha, and zidovudine in newly diagnosed chronic adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma (ATL). *Blood*. 2009;113:6528–32.
 120. Hishizawa M, Kanda J, Utsunomiya A, Taniguchi S, Eto T, Moriuchi Y, et al. Transplantation of allogeneic hematopoietic stem cells for adult T-cell leukemia: a nationwide retrospective study. *Blood*. 2010 [Epub ahead of print].
 121. Okamura J, Utsunomiya A, Tanosaki R, et al. Allogeneic stem-cell transplantation with reduced conditioning intensity as a novel immunotherapy and antiviral therapy for adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma. *Blood*. 2005;105:4143–5.
 122. Tanosaki R, Uike N, Utsunomiya A, Saburi Y, Masuda M, Tomonaga M, et al. Allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplantation using reduced-intensity conditioning for adult T cell leukemia/lymphoma: impact of antithymocyte globulin on clinical outcome. *Biol Blood Marrow Transplant*. 2008;14(6):702–8.
 123. Cheson BD, Horning SJ, Coiffier B, et al. Report of an international workshop to standardize response criteria for non-Hodgkin's lymphomas. NCI Sponsored International Working Group. *J Clin Oncol*. 1999;17:1244.
 124. Cheson BD, Bennett JM, Grever M, et al. National Cancer Institute-sponsored Working Group guidelines for chronic lymphocytic leukemia: revised guidelines for diagnosis and treatment. *Blood*. 1996;87:4990–7.
 125. Cheson BD, Pfistner B, Juweid ME, et al. The International Harmonization Project on Lymphoma. Revised response criteria for malignant lymphoma. *J Clin Oncol*. 2007;25:579–86.
 126. Ohno R, Masaoka T, Shirakawa S, Sakamoto S, Hirano M, Hanada S, et al. Treatment of adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma with MST-16, a new oral anti-tumor drug and a derivative of bis(2,6-dioxopiperazine). The MST-16 Study Group. *Cancer*. 1993;71(7):2217–21.
 127. Tsuda H, Takatsuki K, Ohno R, et al. A late phase II trial of a potent topoisomerase inhibitor, CPT-11, in malignant lymphoma [abstract]. *Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol*. 1992;11:316.
 128. Arima N, Mizoguchi H, Shirakawa S, Tomonaga M, Takatsuki K, Ohno R. Phase I clinical study of SH L573 (fludarabine phosphate) in patients with chronic lymphocytic leukemia and adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma. *Gan To Kagaku Ryoho*. 1999;26(5):619–29 [Article in Japanese].
 129. Tobinai K, Uike N, Saburi Y, Chou T, Etoh T, Masuda M, et al. Cladribine/ATL Study Group, Japan. Phase

- II study of cladribine (2-chlorodeoxyadenosine) in relapsed or refractory adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma. *Int J Hematol.* 2003;77(5):512–7.
130. Duvic M, Forero-Torres A, Foss F, et al: Long-term treatment of CTCL with the oral PNP inhibitor, forodesine. ASCO annual meeting, Jun 2009; No. 8552.
 131. O'Connor OA, Heaney ML, Schwartz L, et al. Clinical experience with intravenous and oral formulations of the novel histone deacetylase inhibitor suberoylanilide hydroxamic acid in patients with advanced hematologic malignancies. *J Clin Oncol.* 2006;24(1):166–73.
 132. Hasegawa H, Yamada Y, Tsukasaki K, et al. LBH589, a deacetylase inhibitor, induces apoptosis in adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma cells via activation of a novel RAIDD-caspase-2 pathway. *Leukemia.* 2011;25(4):575–87.
 133. Waldmann TA. Multichain interleukin-2 receptor: a target for immunotherapy in lymphoma. *J Natl Cancer Inst.* 1989;81:914–23.
 134. Waldmann TA, White JD, Carrasquillo JA, et al. Radioimmunotherapy of interleukin-2Ra-expressing adult T-cell leukemia with yttrium-90-labeled anti-Tac. *Blood.* 1985;86:4063–75.
 135. Berkowitz JL, Janik JE, Stewart DM, Fioravanti S, Jaffe ES, Fleisher TA, et al. Phase II trial of daclizumab in human T-cell lymphotropic virus type-1 (HTLV-1)-associated adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma (ATL). *J Clin Oncol.* 2010;28:7s (suppl; abstr 8043).
 136. Kreitman RJ, Wilson WH, White JD, Stetler-Stevenson M, Jaffe ES, Giardina S, et al. Phase I trial of recombinant immunotoxin anti-Tac(Fv)-PE38 (LMB-2) in patients with hematologic malignancies. *J Clin Oncol.* 2000;18(8):1622–36.
 137. Dang NH, Pro B, Hagemester FB, et al. Phase II trial of denileukin difitox for relapsed/refractory T-cell non-Hodgkin lymphoma. *Br J Haematol.* 2007;136(3):439–47.
 138. Foss FM, Sjak-Shie NN, Goy A, Advani R, Jacobsen ED. Phase II study of denileukin difitox with CHOP chemotherapy in newly-diagnosed PTCL: CONCEPT trial. *J Clin Oncol.* 2010;28:15s (suppl; abstr 8045).
 139. Di Venuti G, Nawgiri R, Foss F. Denileukin difitox and hyper-CVAD in the treatment of human T-cell lymphotropic virus 1-associated acute T-cell leukemia/lymphoma. *Clin Lymphoma.* 2003;4(3):176–8.
 140. Rodig SJ, Abramson JS, Pinkus GS, Treon SP, Dorfman DM, Dong HY, et al. Heterogeneous CD52 expression among hematologic neoplasms: implications for the use of alemtuzumab (CAMPATH-1H). *Clin Cancer Res.* 2006;12(23):7174–9.
 141. Jiang L, Yuan CM, Hubacheck J, Janik JE, Wilson W, Morris JC, et al. Variable CD52 expression in mature T cell and NK cell malignancies: implications for alemtuzumab therapy. *Br J Haematol.* 2009;145(2):173–9.
 142. Gallamini A, Zaja F, Patti C, Billio A, Specchia MR, Tucci A, Levis A, Manna A, Secondo V, Rigacci L, Pinto A, Iannitto E, Zoli V, Torchio P, Pileri S, Tarella C. Alemtuzumab (Campath-1H) and CHOP chemotherapy as first-line treatment of peripheral T-cell lymphoma: results of a GITIL (Gruppo Italiano Terapie Innovative nei Linfomi) prospective multicenter trial. *Blood.* 2007 Oct 1;110(7):2316–23. *Clin Cancer Res.* 2006 Dec 1;12(23):7174–9.
 143. Zhang Z, Zhang M, Goldman CK, Ravetch JV, Waldmann TA. Effective therapy for a murine model of adult T-cell leukemia with the humanized anti-CD52 monoclonal antibody, Campath-1H. *Cancer Res.* 2003;63(19):6453–7.
 144. Mone A, Puhalla S, Whitman S, Baiocchi RA, Cruz J, Vukosavljevic T, et al. Durable hematologic complete response and suppression of HTLV-1 viral load following alemtuzumab in zidovudine/IFN- α -refractory adult T-cell leukemia. *Blood.* 2005;106(10):3380–2.
 145. Ravandi F, Faderl S. Complete response in a patient with adult T-cell leukemia (ATL) treated with combination of alemtuzumab and pentostatin. *Leuk Res.* 2006;30(1):103–5.
 146. O'Mahony D, Morris JC, Stetler-Stevenson M, Matthews H, Brown MR, Fleisher T, et al. EBV-related lymphoproliferative disease complicating therapy with the anti-CD2 monoclonal antibody, siplizumab, in patients with T-cell malignancies. *Clin Cancer Res.* 2009;15(7):2514–22.
 147. Niwa R, Shoji-Hosaka E, Sakurada M, Shinkawa T, Uchida K, Nakamura K, Matsushima K, Ueda R, Hanai N, Shitara K.: Defucosylated chimeric anti-CC chemokine receptor 4 IgG1 with enhanced antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity shows potent therapeutic activity to T-cell leukemia and lymphoma. *Cancer Res.* 2004 Mar 15;64(6):2127–33. *Cancer Res.* 2004 Mar 15;64(6):2127–33.
 148. Yamamoto K, Utsunomiya A, Tobinai K, et al. Phase I study of KW-0761, a defucosylated humanized anti-CCR4 antibody, in relapsed patients with adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma and peripheral T-cell lymphoma. *J Clin Oncol.* 2010;28(9):1591–8.
 149. Ishida T, Joh T, Uike N, et al. Defucosylated anti-CCR4 monoclonal antibody (KW-0761) for relapsed adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma: a multicenter phase II study. *J Clin Oncol.* 2012 [Epub ahead of print].
 150. O'Connor OA, Horwitz S, Hamlin P, et al. Phase II-I-II study of two different doses and schedules of pralatrexate, a high-affinity substrate for the reduced folate carrier, in patients with relapsed or refractory lymphoma reveals marked activity in T-cell malignancies. *J Clin Oncol.* 2009;27(26):4357–64.
 151. O'Connor OA, Pro B, Pinter-Brown L, et al. PROPEL: a multi-center phase 2 open-label study of pralatrexate (PDX) with vitamin B12 and folic acid supplementation in patients with relapsed or refractory peripheral T-cell lymphoma. *Blood (ASH Annual Meeting Abstracts).* 2008;112:261.
 152. Marneros AG, Grossman ME, Silvers DN, Husain S, Nuovo GJ, MacGregor-Cortelli B, et al.

- Pralatrexate-induced tumor cell apoptosis in the epidermis of a patient with HTLV-1 adult T-cell lymphoma/leukemia causing skin erosions. *Blood*. 2009;113(25):6338–41.
153. Lee J, Suh C, Kang HJ, Ryoo BY, et al. Phase I study of proteasome inhibitor bortezomib plus CHOP in patients with advanced, aggressive T-cell or NK/T-cell lymphoma. *Ann Oncol*. 2008;19(12):2079–83.
154. Satou Y, Nosaka K, Koya Y, et al. Proteasome inhibitor, bortezomib, potently inhibits the growth of adult T-cell leukemia cells both in vivo and in vitro. *Leukemia*. 2004;18:1357–63.
155. Dueck GS, Chua N, Prasad A, et al. Activity of lenalidomide in a phase II trial for T-cell lymphoma: report on the first 24 cases. *J Clin Oncol*. 2009;27:15s (suppl; abstr 8524).
156. Vose J, Armitage J, Weisenburger D. International peripheral T-cell and natural killer/T-cell lymphoma study: pathology findings and clinical outcomes. *J Clin Oncol*. 2008;26(25):4124–30.

- 2) フルダラ注 20 mg/m² 30分かけて点滴静注 5日間 4週ごとに繰り返す
- 3) エンドキサン錠 (50 mg) 1-2錠 分1 朝食後 連日
- 4) リツキサン注 1回 375 mg/m² 週1回 点滴静注 4回 (保外)

フルダラは腎機能低下例 (クレアチニンクリアランス 70 mL/分以下) に対して減量基準があるため、それに応じた適正量を投与する。骨髄抑制が遷延することがあるため、投与量を適宜減量する。フルダラ経口投与の場合、悪心・嘔吐など消化器症状の出現頻度が高いため、5-HT₃ 受容体拮抗薬など制吐薬内服も併用する。

リツキサン投与に際しては輸注関連毒性に注意が必要であり、抗ヒスタミン薬と解熱鎮痛薬の予防投与を行う。さらに初回投与は 25 mg/時から開始し、1時間投与し異常がなければ、100 mg/時に増量する。さらに1時間投与し異常がなければ、200 mg/時に増量し最後まで投与する。

㊦ HCL

HCLはクラドリピン (ロイスタチン) が有効であり、1コースの治療により寛解が得られることが多い。

㊧ 処方例

ロイスタチン注 1日 0.09 mg/kg 持続点滴静注 7日間

㊨ 感染症

フルダラビンやクラドリピンなどのプリンアナログを長期投与する際には CD4 陽性 T 細胞減少による重症日和見感染に注意する。ニューモシスチス肺炎の予防のため ST 合剤の予防内服が推奨される。カンジダなどの真菌感染症や帯状疱疹、サイトメガロウイルスなどのウイルス感染症にも注意が必要である。

㊩ 服薬指導・薬剤情報

三嶋一登

- ・フルダラ静注用およびフルダラ錠は、重篤な腎障害のある患者 (クレアチニンクリアランス 30 mL/分未満) に対し禁忌である。腎機能低下患者 (クレアチニンクリアランス 30-70 mL/分) では、添付文書などの減量目安を参考に、安全性を確認しながら慎重に投与する。重篤な副作用として骨髄抑制、遷延性のリンパ球減少があり、患者には日頃から感染予防に努めるよう注意するとともに、発熱、発疹、咽頭痛、全身倦怠感の症状が現れた際はすみやかに申し出るよう指導する。
- ・リツキサン注は抗ヒスタミン薬、解熱鎮痛薬な

どの前投与を行った患者においても infusion reaction (発熱、悪寒、頭痛など) が起こることがある。特に初回投与時、投与開始 24 時間以内に高頻度に発現するので注意する。

- ・フルダラ、リツキサン注の両剤ともに、B 型肝炎ウイルスキャリアの患者で劇症肝炎や肝炎の増悪を引き起こすことがあるので、継続した肝機能検査、肝炎ウイルスマーカーのモニタリングを要する。

成人 T 細胞白血病・リンパ腫

adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma (ATL)

塚崎邦弘 国立がん研究センター東病院・血液腫瘍科科長

病態と診断

成人 T 細胞白血病・リンパ腫 (ATL) は、レトロウイルスの human T-lymphotropic virus type I (HTLV-1) が染色体 DNA にプロウイルスとして単クローン性に組み込まれている成熟 T 細胞白血病・リンパ腫であり、HTLV-1 の endemic area (西南日本沿岸地域、中南米、アフリカなど) 出身の成人 (日本での発症年齢の中央値は 67 歳、30 歳未満での発症はまれ) に好発する。

リンパ節腫脹、肝脾腫、皮膚浸潤が多く、消化管、肺、腎、中枢神経、骨などに浸潤する場合もある。よく合併する高 Ca 血症や日和見感染症がさらに症状を多彩にする。くすぶり型や慢性型は、検診などで末梢血液像異常により発見される場合も多い。白血化した急性型、慢性型、くすぶり型では末梢血に、リンパ腫型ではリンパ節に、花弁状の核をもつ ATLL 細胞を認める。血清 LDH、Ca や可溶性 IL-2 受容体は ATLL の病勢を示すよいマーカーである。抗 HTLV-1 抗体が陽性であり、ATLL 細胞は活性化した成熟 Th2/制御性 T 細胞の表面形質 (CD3⁺, CD4⁺, CD8⁻, CD25⁺, CCR4⁺, FoxP3⁺, FoxP3⁻, TdT⁻) を有する。以上より典型例の診断は容易である。非典型例では、ATLL 細胞 DNA に HTLV-1 遺伝子の単クローン性組み込みを証明して確定診断する。

予後因子としては、年齢、全身状態 (PS: performance status)、総病変数、高 Ca 血症、高 LDH 血症が重要である。予後因子解析と臨床病態の特徴から、白血化、臓器浸潤、高 LDH 血症、高 Ca 血症の有無と程度により病型分類が提唱され、生存期間中央値は急性型 6 か月、リンパ腫型 10 か月、慢性型 24 か月、くすぶり型では 3 年以上であった。

3日間

㊦ 合併症対策

1. **高Ca血症の治療** 急性型/リンパ腫型ではしばしば高度の高Ca血症を生じる。高Ca血症により全身状態が不良であっても、前述の抗癌剤に下記治療を併用することにより、Ca値はすみやかに正常化することが多い。

㊧ 処方例 下記を適宜組み合わせる。

- 1) アレディア注 1回 30-45 mg 4時間以上かけて点滴静注、またはゾメタ注 1回 4 mg 15分以上かけて点滴静注 その後少なくとも1週間休薬
- 2) エルシトニン注 (40単位) 1回 40単位 1日2回 筋注または点滴静注
- 3) 生理食塩液 1,000 mL + 7%メイロン注 20 mL 1日2-3回 点滴静注
- 4) ラシックス注 (20mg) 1回 20 mg 1日1-3回 静注 ㊮

2. **感染症の予防と治療** エイズ同様に、ニューモシスチス肺炎、真菌症、結核、サイトメガロウイルス感染症などがしばしば起こる。日和見感染症は病原体が同定されなくても、臨床・画像的特徴などにより経験的に治療を早期に開始することにより救命できる場合も多い。これらは化学療法後やATLLの増悪期に合併しやすく、しばしば致命的となるので、以下の予防を行う。

a. **好中球数が1,000/ μ L以下の場合** 感染症の予防のためG-CSFを使用する。

㊧ 処方例 下記のいずれかを用いる。

- 1) グラン注 1回 75 μ g 1日1回 皮下注 連日
- 2) ノイトロジン注 1回 100 μ g 1日1回 皮下注 連日

b. **真菌感染症予防**

㊧ 処方例 下記のいずれかを用いる。

- 1) ジフルカンカプセル (100 mg) 1カプセル 分1 朝食後 連日 (保外)
- 2) イトリゾールカプセル (50 mg) 2カプセル 分1 朝食後 連日 (保外) ㊮

c. **ニューモシスチス肺炎予防**

バクタ配合錠 1錠 分1 朝食後 連日 ㊮

d. **結核の既往のある患者**

イスコチン錠 (100 mg) 3錠 分1 朝食後 連日 (保外)

e. **上記感染症を合併した場合** 強力な治療が必要である。細菌やウイルス (特にサイトメガロ) 感染症に対する、早期からの的確な治療も重要である。

㊮ 患者説明のポイント

- ・内服薬による感染予防の意義を説明する。
- ・病状悪化時の臓器腫大や高Ca血症による症状、日和見感染症の症状を説明する。
- ・HTLV-1 に関しての質問があれば、感染予防が可能であること、HTLV-1 キャリアにおけるATLL 発症予防法は確立していないがその生涯での頻度は数%と高くないことを説明する。

ホジキンリンパ腫

Hodgkin lymphoma (Hodgkin's disease)

伊豆津宏二 虎の門病院・血液内科部長 (東京)

病態と診断**㊮ 病態**

ホジキンリンパ腫 (HL) では、リンパ節や縦隔などが主な病変部位となる。古典的HL (さらに結節硬化、混合細胞、リンパ球豊富、リンパ球減少の4病型に分類される) と結節性リンパ球優位型HLに大別されるが、後者はまれである。

㊮ 診断

古典的HLでは病理組織学的に反応性のリンパ球を背景として大型腫瘍細胞 (リード-ステルンベルグ細胞、ホジキン細胞) が散在性に認められる。これらは多くの場合CD30陽性、CD15陽性、Pax5陽性で、一部はCD20陽性である。エプスタイン-バーウイルス (EBV) 陽性の場合には加齢性EBV陽性B細胞リンパ増殖性疾患などとの鑑別が問題となる。

治療方針

診察と胸部-骨盤部の造影CT (診察上、頭頸部に病変がある場合には頸部も)、PET/CT、骨髄生検により臨床病期を把握し、治療方針を決定する。

診断時、半数以上の患者が限局期 (I, II期) である。ドイツHL研究グループ (GHSG) では限局期HLで巨大病変、節外病変、血沈亢進、病変リンパ節領域数3以上のいずれかがある場合に予後不良因子ありと定義している。

一方、進行期HL (III, IV期) では年齢45歳以上、男性、IV期、ヘモグロビン10.5 g/dL未滿、血清アルブミン4 g/dL未滿、リンパ球数600/ μ Lまたは白血球の8%未滿、白血球数15,000/ μ L以上を予後不良因子とし、その数により国際予後スコア (IPS) が規定されている。

㊮ 限局期

ABVD療法と局所放射線療法 (IFRT) の併用療法が標準的治療である。予後不良因子のない限局期

◆ 総論

成人 T 細胞白血病・リンパ腫 (adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma : ATL) は、九州・沖縄地方を主とする西南日本に多発する T 細胞腫瘍として、1977 年内山、高月らによって提唱された疾患概念である¹⁾。1980 年代のはじめには原因ウイルスとして human T-lymphotropic virus type-I (HTLV-1) が発見された^{2)~5)}。WHO 分類 (2008) において ATL は、高度の核異型を伴ったリンパ球よりなる、HTLV-1 によって引き起こされる末梢性 T 細胞腫瘍と定義されている⁶⁾。

Flower cell と呼ばれる異常リンパ球の増多を主体とした白血球増多、リンパ節腫脹、皮膚病変、ATL 細胞の浸潤による多臓器障害、高 LDH 血症、高 Ca 血症、日和見感染症などが出現する。日本以外では中央アフリカおよび中南米出身者に比較的高頻度に発生している。HTLV-1 キャリアは現在日本には西南日本沿岸部を主に 110 万人程度存在し、キャリアから ATL の発症率は年間 1,000 人に 0.6~0.7 人とされる⁷⁾⁸⁾。HTLV-1 の感染は感染細胞が正常リンパ球に直接接触して成立する。感染経路として輸血、性交、母乳が知られているが、ATL 発症につながる重要な感染経路は母乳である。いくつかの多発地域では HTLV-1 母子感染予防対策が行われており、6 カ月以上の長期授乳による母子感染率は 20.5% であるのに対して人工栄養による母子感染率は 2.4% と報告されている⁹⁾。

ATL 発症は 20 歳代までは極めて稀で、その後増加し、60 歳頃をピークにして以降徐々に減少する。1 人の HTLV-1 キャリアが、生涯で ATL を発症する確率は約 5% である。HTLV-1 キャリアにおける ATL 発症の危険因子としては、多変量解析で、母子感染、高齢者、末梢血中の高ウイルス量、ATL の家族歴あり、他の疾患の治療中に初めて抗 HTLV-1 抗体検査を受け陽性が判明した症例¹⁰⁾ が報告されている。近年、HTLV-1 キャリアと ATL 患者の高齢化が進んでいる¹¹⁾¹²⁾。

1991 年に Japan Clinical Oncology Group (JCOG) リンパ腫グループ (LSG) による 813 例の ATL 患者の全国実態調査をもとに、多変量解析による予後因子として、年齢、全身状態 (performance status : PS)、総病変数、高 Ca 血症、高 LDH 血症が同定された^{13)~16)}。そして予後因子解析と臨床病態の特徴から「急性型」、「リンパ腫型」、「慢性型」、「くすぶり型」の 4 臨床病型分類が提唱されている¹⁷⁾ (表 1)。これらの割合は急性型 57%、リンパ腫型 24%、慢性型 19%、くすぶり型 6% であった。急性型、リンパ腫型、予後不良因子 (LDH、アルブミン、BUN のいずれか 1 つ以上が異常値) を持つ慢性型 ATL は急速な経過をたどることがほとんどであり、それぞれの生存期間中央値 (MST) は 6 カ月、10 カ月、15 カ月であることから一括してアグレッシブ ATL と呼ばれる。一方くすぶり型および予後不良因子を有していない慢性型 ATL は比較的緩徐な経過を辿り、それぞれの 4 年生存割合は約 63% と約 70% である¹⁸⁾ ことから、インドレント ATL と呼ばれる。

JCOG-LSG がアグレッシブ ATL を対象とし、継続して臨床試験を行ってきたことから、化学療法における反応性の評価では、JCOG 治療効果判定規準が広く使用されてきた¹⁴⁾¹⁹⁾。近年では非ホジキンリンパ腫と慢性リンパ性白血病に対するもの²⁰⁾²¹⁾ をもとに改変した修正版 ATL に対する JCOG 治療効果判定規準²²⁾ が用いられている (表 2)。

表 1 ATL 臨床病型の診断規準 (文献 17)を改変)

評価項目		くすぶり型	慢性型*1	リンパ腫型*1	急性型*1
抗 HTLV-1 抗体*2		+	+	+	+
リンパ球数 ($\times 10^3/\text{mm}^3$)*3		< 4	≥ 4	< 4	
異常リンパ球数*4		$\geq 5\%$ *7	+*8	$\leq 1\%$	+*8
Flower cell		*5	*5	no	+
LDH		$\leq 1.5\text{N}$	$\leq 2\text{N}$		
補正 Ca 値 (mg/dL)*6		< 11.0	< 11.0		
組織学的に腫瘍病変が確認されたリンパ節腫大		No		+	
腫瘍病変	皮膚	*7			
	肺	*7			
	リンパ節	no		yes	
	肝腫大	no			
	脾腫大	no			
	中枢神経	no	no		
	骨	no	no		
	胸水	no	no		
	腹水	no	no		
	消化管	no	no		

空欄は他の病型で規定される条件以外の制約はないことを示す。

N：正常値上限

*1 予後不良因子を有する慢性型：BUN>施設基準値上限，LDH>施設基準値上限，血清アルブミン<施設基準値下限の1つでも満たす場合

*2 PA 法あるいは ELISA 法や Western blot 法のいずれかで陽性であること。

Immunofluorescence 法や Western blot 法により，陽性反応が確認されていることが望ましい。測定可能な施設では，Southern blot 法により，HTLV-1 provirus の ATL 細胞への組み込みを確認する。

*3 正常リンパ球と異常リンパ球を含むリンパ球様細胞の実数の和

*4 形態学的に明らかな ATL 細胞

*5 ATL に特徴的な flower cell が認められてもよい。

*6 補正 Ca 値は以下の式で求める。

血清アルブミン値 ≥ 4.0 (g/dL)の場合：補正カルシウム値(mg/dL)=総カルシウム値(mg/dL)

血清アルブミン値 < 4.0 (g/dL)の場合：補正カルシウム値(mg/dL)=総カルシウム値(mg/dL)-0.8 [アルブミン(g/dL)-4]

*7 末梢血中の異常リンパ球が5%未満でくすぶり型と診断されるには，皮膚あるいは肺に組織学的に腫瘍病変が確認されることが必要である。

*8 末梢血中の異常リンパ球が5%未満で慢性型または急性型と診断されるには，組織学的に腫瘍病変が確認されることが必要である。