

of accumulating data now supporting a link between oxidative enzymopathies and vascular disease.⁵ In G6PD-deficient endothelial cells, there is increased oxidative stress and decreased NO levels.⁶ This “enzymatic vasculopathy” hypothesis could be particularly relevant in SCA, a monogenic disease with highly variable clinical profile, probably due to polymorphism in other factors, including those influencing vascular biology.

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To the editor:

Proportions of immature CD19⁺CD21⁻ B lymphocytes predict the response to extracorporeal photopheresis in patients with chronic graft-versus-host disease

B lymphocytes are increasingly assigned an important role in the pathogenesis of auto- and alloimmune diseases including chronic graft-versus-host disease (cGVHD)¹⁻⁴ where abnormalities of B-cell homeostasis in patients with active cGVHD have been observed.^{1,4} Extracorporeal photopheresis (ECP) achieves high response rates in steroid-refractory cGVHD.⁵ At present, no reliable biomarkers are available for prediction of response to ECP and monitoring of patient outcome. We thus investigated the distribution of immature CD19⁺CD21⁻ B cells and memory CD19⁺CD27⁺ B cells in peripheral blood (PB)¹ before ECP (n = 19), 6 (n = 28), 12 (n = 34), and 21 months (n = 33) after start of ECP in 49 patients (28 male, 21 female) with moderate (n = 25) or severe (n = 24) cGVHD⁶ and correlated results with clinical response.⁷ Informed consent was obtained in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. Eighteen patients were included in a prior report.¹

Complete (CR) and partial response (PR) to ECP was observed in 25 of 34 patients (74%) after 12 months. ECP nonresponders at 6 months had a significantly higher ($P = .02$) percentage of immature CD19⁺CD21⁻ B lymphocytes (mean 22%, range 4%-52%) in PB before start of ECP compared with CR (mean 8%; range 1.3%-29%) and PR (mean 16%; range 1.6%-55%) patients (Figure 1A). Percentages of memory CD19⁺CD27⁺ B cells before first ECP were not significantly different ($P = .12$) between the groups. The CD21⁻/CD27⁺ ratio was significantly higher ($P = .03$) in ECP nonresponders (mean 17.4; range 0.5-50) compared with CR patients (mean 1.6; range 0.3-5).

Percentages of immature CD19⁺CD21⁻ B lymphocytes were significantly ($P < .001$) lower in CR patients compared with ECP nonresponders 6 (mean 5% vs 25%; range 1%-15% vs 14%-43%), 12 (mean 6% vs 24%, range 1.2%-16% vs 1.5%-58%), and 21 (mean 6% vs 26%; range 1%-21% vs 2%-60%) months after start of ECP (Figure 1B). In addition, in ECP responders compared with ECP nonresponders the CD21⁻/CD27⁺ ratio was significantly

lower 6 months (mean 2.2 vs 9.6; range 0.1-6.5 vs 1.2-20; $P = .001$), 12 (mean 2.7 vs 6; range 0.2-15 vs 0.6-16; $P = .006$), and 21 months (mean 2 vs 17; range 0.2-9 vs 0.6-76; $P = .001$) after start of ECP.

To our knowledge, relative amounts of immature CD19⁺CD21⁻ B lymphocytes represent the first reported cellular biomarker able to predict response to ECP. Whether our findings are ECP-specific has to remain speculative because no other treatment cohorts were analyzed and the mechanisms of action of ECP are still subject to further research.⁵ CD19⁺CD21⁻ B lymphocytes could also serve as a novel biomarker for measuring disease activity of cGVHD quantitatively and objectively, which would be highly desirable.⁸ Of note, CD21⁻ B lymphocytes are increased in proportion in autoimmune diseases such as systemic lupus erythematosus and active cGVHD.^{1,10} Increased proportions of CD21⁻ B lymphocytes could be part of the autoimmune pathogenesis compatible with inefficient censoring of autoreactive B cells in cGVHD.⁹ Disrupted B-cell homeostasis and relative rather than absolute preponderance of an activated B-cell pool has recently been reported in cGVHD.⁴ Our findings warrant larger prospective studies analyzing the predictive value of B-cell subsets for successful ECP treatment of cGVHD.

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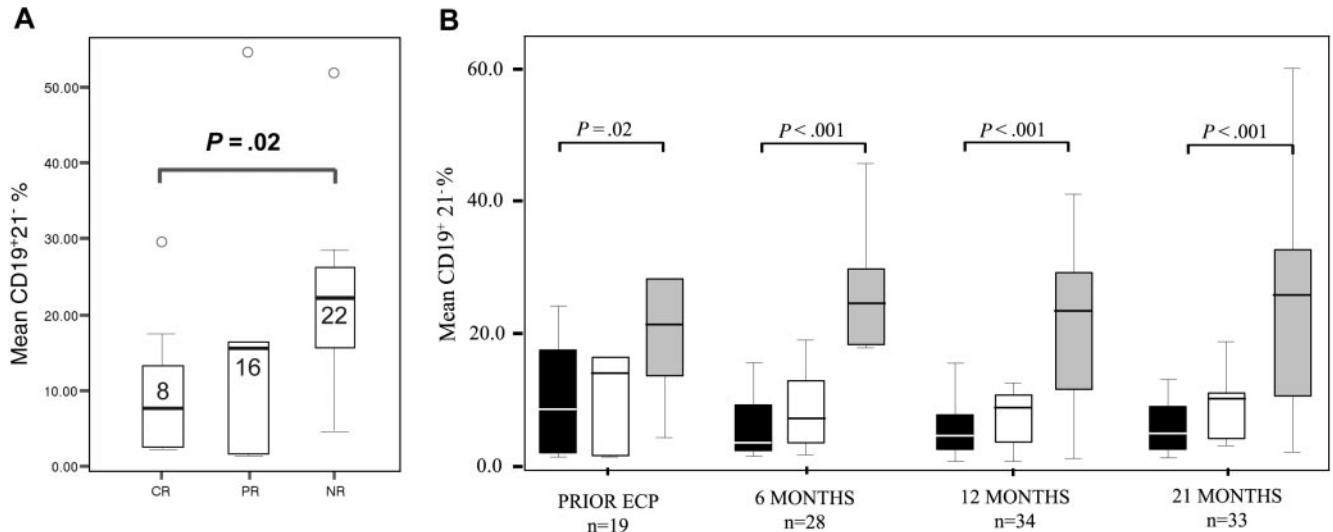


Figure 1. Comparison of relative amounts of immature CD19⁺CD21⁻ B lymphocytes between ECP responders and ECP nonresponders. (A) Low percentages of immature CD19⁺CD21⁻ B cells before therapy correlate significantly with complete resolution of chronic graft-versus-host disease to extracorporeal photopheresis (ECP). Patients were divided into 3 groups, complete responders (CR, n = 6), partial responders (PR, n = 6), and nonresponders (NR, n = 7) 6 months after start of ECP. Immature CD19⁺CD21⁻ B cells assessed before start of ECP are shown in box plot format. Numbers indicate mean percentages (bold horizontal lines). Comparison of groups was performed using unpaired Student *t* test. (B) Complete ECP responders have significantly lower percentages of immature CD19⁺CD21⁻ B cells 6, 12, and 21 months after start of ECP therapy compared with ECP nonresponders. Patients with complete response (CR; black bars), partial response (PR; white bars) and no response (NR; gray bars) to ECP are shown. Results are shown in box plot format. The bold horizontal line indicates the mean percentages. Comparison of groups was performed using unpaired Student *t* test.

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To the editor:

Activated human B cells: stimulatory or tolerogenic antigen-presenting cells?

In recent years the antibody-independent functions of B cells have gained increasing attention. B cells can become potent antigen-presenting cells (APCs) after activation. Contrary to activated B cells, resting B cells can act as immunoregulatory cells. Two interesting recent papers in *Blood* now show that activated human B lymphocytes can also obtain regulatory functions. The fact that activated B cells can inhibit T-cell responses is somewhat surprising, as we and others have shown that B cells stimulated via CD40 induce CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell responses in vitro and in vivo.¹⁻³ How can these discrepancies be explained?

Tretter et al show that activation by *Staphylococcus aureus* Cowan I (SAC) or CpG-containing oligonucleotides induces B cells which down-regulate T-cell responses by inducing anergy and apoptosis of CD4⁺ T cells in an IL-2-dependent fashion.⁴ The suppressive effect was restricted to the activated large B-cell subpopulation expressing the high-affinity interleukin-2 (IL-2) receptor CD25. CD25 expression is not a marker for B cells with regulatory function, though, because many other stimuli, including CD40 activation and IL-4, also induce CD25 expression. Like the regulatory B-cell population described by Tretter et al, CD40-activated B cells express CD25 as well as high levels of costimulatory molecules (Figure 1). Despite these similar features, they do activate T cells even in the presence of 50 U/mL IL-2, a concentration at which Tretter et al observed an inhibition of T-cell proliferation.^{1,3} Therefore, the functional consequences of CD25 expression on activated B cells appear to be dependent on the activation stimulus. Bacterial activation by stimuli such as CpG, SAC, and lipopolysaccharide⁵ seem to confer regulatory functions whereas activation via CD40 induces stimulatory functions in B cells exposed to IL-2.^{1,5} In addition, because SAC preferentially activates; immunoglobulin variable heavy chain gene 3 (VH3)-expressing B cells, it could be that suppressive function is characteristic for this subpopulation of B cells.⁶

It has previously been shown that murine and human resting B cells can expand regulatory T cells in vitro.^{7,8} Tu et al demonstrate that alloantigen-specific human regulatory T cells can be generated in vitro using autologous CD40-activated (CD40-B)

cells.⁹ The CD40-B cells seem to be more heterogeneous than typical CD40-B cells, though (Figure 1). Based on the expression of major histocompatibility complex class II, 2 distinct populations represented by 2 separate peaks can be identified in Figure 1C of their article. Because Tu et al used cryopreserved CD40-B cells, the process of cryopreservation and thawing might have affected the function of the CD40-B cells.

In conclusion, these 2 studies exemplify the activation state-dependent plasticity of B-cell function. Several factors such as the type, duration, and strength of the activation stimulus, the B-cell subset, and microenvironmental setting seem to determine the final outcome. The role of different modes of B-cell activation in determining B-cell function therefore requires further clarification. One should thus be cautious before drawing general conclusions about the function of activated B cells from studies that use only a limited set of activation stimuli.

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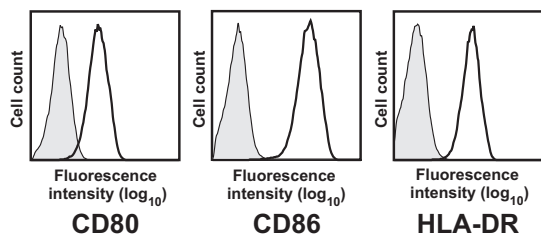


Figure 1. Phenotype of CD40-activated B cells. Surface expression of CD80, CD86, and human leukocyte antigen (HLA)-DR of CD19⁺ CD40-activated B cells. Results are representative of more than 50 experiments.

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