REVIEW

Reconstitution of the immune system after hematopoietic stem cell transplantation in humans

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Abstract Hematopoietic stem cell transplantation is associated with a severe immune deficiency. As a result, the patient is at high risk of infections. Innate immunity, including epithelial barriers, monocytes, granulocytes, and NK cells recovers within weeks after transplantation. By contrast, adaptive immunity recovers much slower. B- and T-cell counts normalize during the first months after transplantation, but in particular, T-cell immunity may remain impaired for years. During the last decade, much of the underlying mechanisms have been identified. These insights may provide new therapies to accelerate recovery.

Keywords Hematopoietic stem cell transplantation · Immunity · Immune deficiency · Thymus · Homeostasis

Introduction

effective treatment for various hematological disorders. Conditioning of the patient should ablate, or at least

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so for at least three consecutive days) usually occurs between day 10 and 25 after transplantation. Thereafter, the number of most leukocyte subsets normalizes rapidly (Fig. 1). This repopulation of cells in the host restores much Hematopoietic stem cell transplantation (HSCT) is an of the innate immunity; antibacterial prophylaxis can be lowered, and infection surveillance decreased when the number of granulocytes has reached a critical threshold.

Judging the competence of the adaptive immune system by the number of regenerated T- and B-cells would however be a huge mistake. Although the number of lymphocytes increases rapidly during the first months after transplant, and the counts of most lymphocyte subsets (except for CD4 T cells) reach normal values in a considerable number of patients, the frequency of infections remains extremely high (1-9). The reasons for this are manifold. Most T cells present during the first year after transplantation are progeny of the donor T cells cotransfused with the graft that have expanded after entering the patient's "empty" T-cell compartment. Despite the fact that the number of mature lymphocytes in the graft could be theoretically sufficient to contain all the necessary antigen

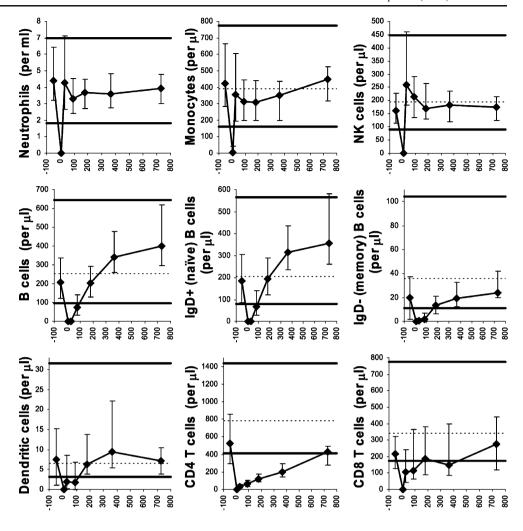
strongly constrain host hematopoiesis to provide space for engraftment and suppress the patient's immune system to prevent graft rejection. Although their intensity may vary with the type of disease and the clinical condition of the patients, most protocols destroy the patient's immune system almost completely. In addition, alloreactive donor T cells cotransfused with the graft will eradicate the remaining patient cells of hematopoietic origin so that the patient's immunity after transplant will have to come from the transplanted donor cells.

After transplantation, monocytes are the first cells to engraft, rapidly followed by granulocytes, platelets, and natural killer (NK) cells. Clinical engraftment, the first day

that the number of granulocytes is >0.5 G/L (and remains



Fig. 1 Recovery of leukocyte subsets. All horizontal axes display days posttransplant. Patient medians (diamonds) and 25th–75th percentiles (error bars) are shown. Normal medians are indicated by the dashed horizontal lines (neutrophils not available). The thick horizontal lines denote the normal fifth and 95th percentiles (neutrophils 2.5th and 97.5th percentiles). Pretransplant studies are arbitrarily shown as day –100. Reproduced from [92] with permission



specificities, transfer of the donor's immunity is poor. Posttransplant, the conditions for lymphocyte activation in the patient are very different compared to normal conditions in which antigen, antigen-induced cytokines in secondary lymphoid organs, interaction between lymphocytes with the same antigen-specificity and available space are the key parameters that determine the size of clones with a particular specificity. During the first weeks, the high level of inflammatory cytokines induced by the conditioning (10–12) in combination with the available space that favors homeostatic expansion of T cells changes the composition of the transferred lymphocyte pool dramatically. The clonal size of a limited number of T cells may grow extensively so that the majority of the T cell pool contains only a few antigen specificities (13-15). Most of the cells will have lost the necessary homing receptors to enter secondary lymphoid organs to interact with antigen-presenting cells and stimulate B cells. The latter disappear almost completely from the circulation and are replenished after 2-3 months (Fig. 1; 8, 16–18). However, even if the B-cell repertoire is restored relatively fast, antibody responses will be hampered by the lack of T-cell help and will either be absent or, at best, resemble primary B cell responses (16, 19–23).

T- and B-cell responses will be incomplete for a long period after transplantation. Restoration of the T-cell compartment is prerequisite for functional immune recovery and at the same time is most cumbersome, in particular, in the elderly patient (24–26). Here, we will discuss the reconstitution of the patient's immunity for each part of the immune system separately. Early after transplant denotes in the first 3 months while late after transplant denotes after 6 months.

Nonhematological cells of the immune system

The first defense against infections consists of physical barriers such as the skin. Radiation, chemotherapy, or acute graft-versus-host disease (GVHD)-induced damage to the skin, the respiratory and digestive mucosa increases the chance of pathogen penetration into the patient early posttransplant. Late posttransplant, the epithelium is healed; the volume of protective secretions (e.g., tears or saliva)



become gradually normal in patients without chronic GVHD but often continues to be subnormal in those with chronic GVHD (27). There is typically no deficiency of serum complement, which is mainly produced by hepatocytes (28). Hence, physical barriers such as skin and serum proteins that play a role in the defense against pathogens usually recover rapidly in patients without severe GVHD. However, serum protein deficiencies that were asymptomatic before transplantation may become clinically manifest after transplant and be at the origin of severe infections (29).

Phagocytes and antigen-presenting cells

Neutrophil counts usually become normal by approximately 2 weeks after G-CSF mobilized blood stem cell grafting, 3 weeks after bone marrow grafting and 4 weeks after cord blood grafting (30). Neutrophil function (e.g., chemotaxis, phagocytosis, superoxide production, and killing of bacteria) early posttransplant may be subnormal, particularly in patients with acute GVHD. Neutrophil function may remain subnormal in patients with chronic GVHD (31). This could reflect the negative effect of corticosteroids (used for GVHD treatment) on neutrophil function.

Monocyte counts normalize by 1 month posttransplant (30). Macrophages are relatively chemo/radioresistant, so their numbers do not drop substantially; recipient macrophages are gradually replaced with donor macrophages over several months posttransplant (32). The first monocytes in the circulation are produced by the transplanted HSC (33). G-CSF mobilized PBSC grafts contain a large number of monocytes [approximately two logs more than marrow grafts (8)] but most of the monocytes infused with PBSCs probably either die or become tissue macrophages within days because monocytes in the blood of PBSC recipients become virtually undetectable by day 7 (Storek, unpublished). The function (e.g., IL-1 production or antigen presentation) of the recovering monocytes may be subnormal for approximately a year (34, 35), though several studies suggest normal function already early posttransplant (36-38).

Dendritic cells can be subdivided into at least five categories according to their location: (1) epithelial dendritic cells that migrate to the extrafollicular areas of lymph nodes upon encounter of antigen, (2) dendritic cells in the extrafollicular areas of lymph nodes and spleen, whose main function is to present antigen to T cells and provide costimulatory signals, (3) blood dendritic cells, which may represent the precursors of dendritic cells in the epithelium and the extrafollicular areas of spleen/lymph nodes, (4) thymic dendritic cells that play a role in deletion of autoreactive T cells, and (5) follicular dendritic cells in

the germinal centers of lymph nodes and spleen that play a role in the maturation of the B cell (generation of somatically mutated and IgD/IgM→IgG/IgA/IgE-switched B cells).

Langerhans cells (epithelial dendritic cells in the skin) are low in number early posttransplant and near-normal by 6 months posttransplant (39). Dendritic cells in the extrafollicular areas of lymph nodes are present in about one third of transplant recipients, but a well-organized structure of follicles and germinal centers in lymph nodes and spleen is seldom observed during the first 6 months after transplantation (40-42). The grafted HSC produce blood dendritic cells detectable at 2-3 weeks (33) that remain low in quantity in the first 3 months posttransplant (Fig. 1); subsequently, counts of DC1 (conventional or myeloid dendritic cells, CD11c+) tend to normalize whereas counts of DC2 (plasmacytoid dendritic cells, CD123+) are low even at 1 year posttransplant (12, 43, 44). Thymic dendritic cells appear in the thymus within weeks posttransplant in mice (45); the recovery of these cells in humans has not been studied. Follicular dendritic cells appear to recover extremely slowly—even at 1 year after grafting, these cells appear sparse (40, 46). This could explain why germinal centers appear only late posttransplant (40–42, 46) and the reconstitution of memory B cells is slow (47).

Recipient epithelial dendritic cells may be important for the pathogenesis of GVHD because they will efficiently prime the alloreactive T cells in the graft. In mice, skin GVHD occurred in the presence but not in the absence of recipient Langerhans cells (48). In man, recipient Langerhans cells are present early after transplant (39), but it is not formally proven that these cells initiate GVHD of the skin.

NK cells

NK-cells counts as well as NK cell in vitro cytotoxicity recover during the first weeks after transplantation (8, 12, 17, 49–52). The number of NK cells is supranormal during 1-3 months posttransplant (Fig. 1) and, consistent with their role in defense against herpes viruses (53, 54), this phenomenon is more pronounced in cytomegaloviruspositive recipients (49, 55). The phenotype of the NK cells repopulating the patient is different from that in normal individuals (12, 50, 52, 56-59). The hallmark is the overrepresentation of CD56^{high}CD16⁻ cells that produce more IFN-γ and are less cytotoxic than NK cells in normal individuals (12, 50, 52, 56). The classical view has been that these cells are immature precursors of CD56^{dim}CD16⁺ cytotoxic NK-cells representing the major population in the peripheral blood of normal individuals. However, phenotypes of NK cells change rapidly when stimulated by



cytokines such as IL-2, IL-12, and IL-15 (60, 61), and it cannot be excluded that the IL-15 rich cytokine milieu posttransplant (12, 58, 59) is the major cause of the unusual phenotypes observed.

Recently, the characteristics of NK cells that repopulate the patients have received much interest. During the first months after transplantation, NK cells kill target cells without ligands for their killer cell immunoglobulin receptors inhibitory (KIR) more efficiently (62). As a result, NK cells may have a significant antileukemic effect, in particular, against AML (63–65). This effect is clinically most relevant in patients lacking KIR ligands present in the (haploidentical) HSC donor but may be present more generally (reviewed in (66)). Such alloreactive NK cells may also have a beneficial effect because they eliminate host APC that prime alloreactive T cells causing GVHD (63). This topic will be reviewed in more detail in the contribution of A. Velardi and colleagues in this issue of Springer seminars in Immunopathology.

T cells

A blood count is generally the first test performed when a patient shows signs of an immune deficiency. This test is often informative because many clinical symptoms can simply be attributed to a low number of a particular leukocyte subset. During the first years of clinical transplantation, it was not well understood why after HSCT the number of T cells does not correlate well with infections. Only after the advent of lymphocyte-subset specific monoclonal antibodies, it became clear that during the first year after transplantation, the T-cell compartment was abnormal and contained many activated (HLA-DR⁺) cells and considerably more CD8⁺ and much less naïve T cells than in normal individuals (17, 67-69). Furthermore, responses to mitogenic stimuli in vitro were decreased (69-71) and in vitro responses to recall antigens were virtually absent (70, 72).

Although these long-lasting alterations may explain why the patient's T-cell immunity remained deficient for a prolonged period and vaccinations were ineffective during the first year, the underlying mechanism remained unclear. Mackall and Gress demonstrated that the human T cell compartment is repopulated after intensive chemotherapy by two different pathways (24, 73). One is similar to ontogeny when thymic emigrants replenish the T-cell compartment and depends therefore on a functioning thymus. In addition, the T-cell compartment can be repopulated through peripheral expansion of mature T cells. The latter pathway is predominant when the thymic activity is low (74), which is likely to be the case in adult patients. Several publications (72, 75–78) followed showing that, not unexpectedly, the

situation was even more radical after HSCT. This has been demonstrated most intelligibly in patients conditioned with total body irradiation and cyclophosphamide and transplanted with an in vitro T-cell depleted allogeneic HSC graft. The infusion of very low numbers of donor cells into these patients had two consequences. First, the lack of alloreactivity allowed the few recipient T cells not eliminated by the conditioning to survive. Because the conditioning destroys the patient's HSC (79), every T cell of patient origin after transplantation must be the progeny of the few T cells present at transplant, and the increase of T cells must therefore be the result of expansion. Second, the number of donor T cells co-infused with the graft is so low that, during the first 2 weeks, the T-cell compartment is virtually empty. This induces a rapid parallel expansion of donor and recipient T cells that reconstitute the T cell compartment before the appearance of the first donorderived naive T cells produced by the thymus (78). The latter can be easily monitored because, under these conditions, the T-cell compartment that has been reconstituted by expansion uniquely, comprises only T cells that express memory markers. Rufer has described a patient transplanted with a T-cell depleted bone marrow from a donor with CD4⁺ memory T cells expressing high amounts of CD45RA, the isoform of CD45 expressed by naïve cells that is downregulated upon activation. This phenotype without apparent functional consequences is present in ~1% of the population and is caused by a point mutation in the exon A of CD45 that leads to an abnormal splicing pattern (80). This allowed direct visualization of the entire process (81) because patient (CD45RA-RO+) and donor (CD45RA^{bright}RO⁺) memory/effector CD4⁺ T cells could be discriminated by flow cytometry. Naïve (CD45RA⁺RO⁻) T cells appeared after approximately 6 months and were entirely of donor origin. The thymus independent pool of patient T cells predominated during the first years and persisted for more than 7 years. The size of the pool of donor memory/effector increased, most likely because ongoing immune responses recruited cells from the naïve T-cell pool produced by the thymus (81). This pattern of reconstitution is representative for patients after depletion of the mature T cell pool. In adults, naïve T cells do not emerge during the first 4 months, and partial restoration of the naïve T cell pool may require 1 to 2 years and may only occur in individuals younger than 45-50 years (24, 72, 78, 82).

Repopulation of the posttransplant T-cell compartment by expansion is the consequence of natural homeostatic mechanisms that control the size of the T-cell pool. In normal individuals, T cells compete for available space through competition for homeostatic cytokines such as IL-7 and IL-15 that are produced by cells of nonhematological origin. Triggering of the T-cell receptor by antigen



increases the T cell's "competitiveness" so that new memory cells can enter the memory pool without increasing its size because they replace less competitive cells (83). After transplantation, IL-7 and IL-15 are produced but not instantly consumed, which results in supranormal serum levels of these homeostatic cytokines (11, 12). The amounts of IL-7 and IL-15 produced to maintain a complete naïve and memory T-cell compartment are available to the few T cells present after transplantation; these will expand until they reach a number that is in the range of that of the memory pool in normal individuals. Although homeostatic expansion also occurs when T cells are triggered by selfpeptides (83, 84), and therefore is not strictly antigendependent, the presence of antigen favors proliferation to such an extent that initially, the T-cell compartment is filled up mainly by cells that recognize the antigens present in the host at the moment of transplant (85). As a result, large parts of the T-cell repertoire after transplantation may be directed against mismatched histocompatibility antigens (14, 86, 87) or against herpes viruses (88-91) that are present in the majority of patients at the moment of transplant while other specificities may be lost completely (85).

The fact that after transplantation the T-cell compartment is reconstituted through homeostasis based on the rules described above is able to explain many of the phenomena that have been reported since the start of clinical transplantation. The abundance of cells with activated phenotypes (17, 67–69), the high percentage of cells in cell cycle (92), and the rapid shortening of telomeres in T cells (93, 94) during the first months reflect the initial repopulation by expansion. The lack of correlation between the number of CD8⁺ T cells after transplantation and the wide (2–3 log) range of CD8⁺ T cells infused (8, 51, 95) illustrates the remarkable potential of mature T cells to repopulate the periphery until a particular number is reached. The inversed CD4/CD8 ratio (Fig. 1), much more prominent in cytomegalovirus-positive patients (96, 97) and in patients suffering from GvHD (67) shows that repopulation by expansion is driven by antigen. Furthermore, because these cells can only be recruited from the few T cells present at transplant, their T-cell receptors may dominate the entire repertoire (13-15, 98). The paucity of naïve T cells early after transplant emphasizes the initial insignificance of the thymic pathway while the kinetics of their recovery, much slower in adults than in children (25, 75, 78, 99) reflects the inefficiency of the posttransplant thymic rebound.

Repopulation of the T-cell compartment by homeostatic expansion does not restore T-cell immunity. Although the frequency of infections decreases considerably after the innate immune system has recovered, patients remain at high risk during the first 2 years posttransplant and suffer considerably more from infectious morbidity than their age-

matched controls. Late posttransplant and in the absence of GVHD, infections are less frequent (though still more frequent than in healthy individuals), and the predominant pathogens are viruses (1, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9). Furthermore, responses to vaccinations during the first year are low or completely absent (9, 100–102).

Posttransplant T-cell immune deficiency is caused by the destruction of the patient's T cells, by the lack of efficient transfer of donor immunity and by the incapacity of the thymus to produce sufficient numbers of naïve T cells. The latter is not only owed to the decreased thymic function in adults but also to the damage inflicted by the conditioning and by donor alloreactive donor T cells transferred with the graft. As a consequence, variables such as the treatment of the graft, the intensity of the conditioning, the occurrence of GVHD and the age of the recipient are significantly correlated with the recovery of the patient's immunity. The posttransplant immunity is entirely of donor origin unless the conditioning and/or the manipulation of the graft strongly favor the survival of recipient T cells (91, 103). The extent of transferred immunity and the significance thereof is controversial. There are many studies describing the transfer of T- or B-cell immunity (4, 91, 104–108). After boosting the donor in the weeks before transplantation with tetanus toxoid or with Haemophilus influenzae polysaccharide-protein conjugate, specific antibody is found in the patient (104, 105, 108, 109). However, it is not clear to what extent the antigen-specific antibody production may be attributed to aspecific triggering of the transferred B cells, a phenomenon frequently observed after transplantation (110). Sustained antibody production does require encounter with antigen (100, 111) and, for most antigens, T-cell help.

T-cell immunity against poliovirus, tetanus, diphtheria, and measles is lost after transplantation (2, 104, 112). Interestingly, CMV- or EBV-specific T-cells are readily detected early after transplant (3, 4, 88, 89, 91, 113), usually at much higher frequencies (up to 25% of the CD8 T cells) than in normal individuals (91, 113). The key difference is the presence of antigen that triggers a supranormal expansion of T cells encountering antigen under lymphopenic conditions (85). As a result, transferred immunity against the antigens present at the moment of transplant persists, while other specificities are lost. The latter may simply be the result of the homeostatic competition of T cells triggered by antigen. Another explanation could be that after transplantation, transferred T cells lose the homing receptors requisite to circulate through lymph nodes so that they cannot be primed by antigen presented by DC.

If donor immunity is preserved more efficiently in the presence of antigen at the onset of homeostatic expansion, very early immunizations might be effective. Two studies



reported that vaccination with *H. influenzae* polysaccharide–protein conjugate or tetanus toxoid of the patient shortly before transplantation enhanced responses to vaccinations with the same antigen at 2–3 months posttransplant (108, 114), a time point at which patients usually do not respond at all (100, 101, 108). Although the rise in antibody titers obtained were modest, these encouraging data may warrant further study.

It is notable that T-cell depletion of the graft interferes less with the transfer of immunity than would have been expected on the basis of the number of T cells transferred (4, 91, 106, 107, 115). Although after T-cell depletion, the T-cell receptor repertoire is more limited (15, 76), several studies show that the number of T cells specific for CMV, EBV, Candida (i.e. the antigens commonly present) are comparable in recipients of unmanipulated or T-celldepleted grafts (4, 91, 106, 107). Functional immunity early posttransplant may not be significantly lower in recipients of T-cell depleted grafts (104, 116-120). Potential explanations for this include the possibility that the number of antigen-specific T cells transferred is not of great importance since the expansion potential of T cells in the presence of antigen is sufficient, or perhaps more importantly, that after T-cell depletion, immunological reconstitution is less often impaired by GVHD or its prophylaxis/ treatment than in recipients of unmanipulated grafts.

Once the T-cell compartment has been reconstituted by expansion and many antigen-specificities have been lost, a complete T-cell repertoire can only come from naïve T cells produced by the thymus (72, 75, 121). Reconstitution does not occur in thymectomized patients (122) and is less efficient in elderly patients or in patients who have suffered from GVHD (24–26, 75, 78, 123, 124). This clearly illustrates the diminishing capacity of the adult thymus to produce T cells and the thymic damage inflicted by GVHD (see also the contribution by W. Krenger in this issue of Springer Seminars in Immunopathology). Measuring the thymic rebound may thus be helpful to determine the optimal time to start the revaccination (72).

B cells

B cells are low in number or undetectable during the first 2 months after marrow grafting (reviewed in (18)). They subsequently increase, and blood B cell counts often become supranormal by 1–2 years after grafting. The rise is faster in autologous than allogeneic marrow recipients. It is faster in patients without GVHD than in those with GVHD (16, 55), probably because GVHD and/or its treatment hamper B-lymphopoiesis (125, 126).

During the first 1–2 years posttransplant, memory B cells are scarce (Fig. 1). Most B cells are naïve (membrane

IgD^{high}, membrane IgM^{high}) (18), lack somatically mutated VDJ genes (19-21), and produce IgM rather than IgG or IgA (16, 22, 23). After an initial fall early posttransplant, serum isotype levels recover in the same sequence as in young children: IgM → IgG1/IgG3 → IgG2/IgG4/IgA (127). Hence, B cell reconstitution after HSCT resembles a recapitulation of ontogeny that is likely to occur more slowly than in young children because follicular dendritic cells and CD4 T cells in germinal centers needed for isotype switching are scarce. It is noticeable that total (isotype) immunoglobulin levels are imperfect markers of posttransplant humoral immunity since many of the antibodies produced may be autoantibodies or mono/oligoclonal antibodies of irrelevant specificity rather than specific for infectious agents (110). Antibodies with a relevant specificity usually fall early posttransplant. The magnitude of the decrease is substantial after allogeneic HSCT; however, it is only minor (or undetectable) after autologous HSCT. Subsequent to that, the levels of antibodies with relevant specificities depend on the posttransplant encounter of the antigen. Without encounter of the antigen, the levels of pathogen-specific antibodies become gradually undetectable, often over a course of years (128). If the encounter of the antigen occurs (e.g., CMV in patients that were CMV-seropositive pretransplant) the levels of CMVspecific antibodies normalize within about 1 year—earlier in patients with and later in patients without immune donors (129, 130). This is only true for protein antigens. In the case of polysaccharide antigens (e.g., pneumococcal capsular polysaccharides), the levels of specific antibodies may normalize only very late (2-20 years after transplant) even if the encounter of the antigen is likely (131, 132).

Antibody response to vaccination is another measure of B cell immunity. Early posttransplant, responses to any antigen are subnormal. Responses to protein antigens recover faster (usually within 1−2 years) than responses to polysaccharide antigens (usually at ≥2 years posttransplant). Responses to protein recall antigens (e.g., poliovirus or tetanus toxoid) tend to recover faster than responses to protein neo-antigens. The recovery of antibody responses to any antigen is delayed in patients with chronic GVHD (reviewed in (133)). T-cell depletion of the graft or posttransplant treatment with anti-T-cell antibodies may delay the recovery of antibody responses (134). Also, the responses may recover faster in young versus old individuals (134), which could be related to the faster recovery of CD4 T cells in younger patients.

Are post-allotransplant B cells and plasma cells of donor or recipient origin? Virtually all circulating B cells are of donor origin after T cell replete grafting with high intensity conditioning; after T-cell-depleted transplantation and after transplantation with low intensity or no conditioning, a variable degree of incomplete chimerism of B cells is



frequently established (reviewed in (133)). Antibodies are primarily of recipient origin early posttransplant; even in patients with complete chimerism of lymphocytes, the conversion to only donor-type antibodies takes months or years (reviewed in (133)). This is likely due to the relative radioresistance and longevity of recipient plasma cells (135, 136) and the lack of B cells early posttransplant.

Do posttransplant B cells originate from the B cells infused with the graft or from the infused stem cells? This has not been determined conclusively. Antigen-specific antibody production can be adoptively transferred from immune donors with T-cell-depleted grafts (107). Recipients of blood stem cell grafts that contain 18 times more B cells than marrow grafts have higher B cell counts in the first 3 months posttransplant compared to marrow graft recipients (8). This suggests that early posttransplant, the infused B cells contribute to the recipient B cell pool. However, there is also indirect evidence for the origin of B cells from stem cells, as supranormal amounts of B-cell precursors are frequently found in the marrow at 2-12 months after transplant, i.e., prior to the overshoot of circulating B cell counts above the normal adult range (125, 137–139), and in recipients of B cell-purged autologous marrow, the tempo of B-cell reconstitution is not slower than in the recipients of unmanipulated marrow (140–142). Thus, both B-cell-derived and stem-cell-derived B cells may coexist after grafting. The B cells derived from infused B cells may predominate early, whereas the stem cellderived B cells probably predominate late posttransplant.

What could be done to increase posttransplant immunity?

As T-lymphocytopenia appears to be an important cause of posttransplant infectious diseases, especially due to herpesviruses, research to improve T-cell restoration after grafting is ongoing. This can be achieved by (1) infusing mature T cells from the donor to the recipient or (2) stimulating recipient de novo T-cell production (thymopoiesis)—(1) Infusion of a high number of T cells from the donor may reduce the frequency of infections (8) but is associated with an unacceptably high risk of GVHD (143). Infusion of virus-specific T cells decreases the incidence of viral infections without increasing the incidence of GVHD (144–151). It is likely that this will enter clinical practice when manufacturing of virus-specific T cells has been simplified. An alternative approach under investigation is the infusion of T cells depleted of T cells reactive to host alloantigens (152–154). (2) Stimulation of thymopoiesis is attractive, as it should theoretically restore a broad T-cell repertoire, including against pathogens present in the recipient (155, 156). In mice, the following strategies have

yielded improved thymopoiesis: (1) interleukin-7 (IL-7) administration (157-160), (2) growth hormone administration (161), and (3) protection of thymic epithelium from conditioning- or GVHD-induced damage by keratinocyte growth factor (KGF) administration (162, 163). Whether these approaches can enhance thymopoiesis in primates is controversial. IL-7 administration to monkeys resulted in increased T cell counts in four studies (164–167); however, in three of these studies, this was purely due to increased Tcell proliferation and not increased thymopoiesis (164-166). In the only study of IL-7 in human reported so far, IL-7 administration increased T-cell counts primarily or entirely due to increased T-cell proliferation; potential contribution of increased thymopoiesis was unlikely as the increase of T-cell receptor excision circle-containing T-cell counts was insignificant and unrelated to patient age, and by computer tomography, there was no thymic enlargement (156). Growth hormone effect on thymopoiesis in primates has not been studied. KGF given to macaques to protect the thymus from radiation damage resulted in only mild and inconsistent improvement of thymopoiesis (168).

HSCT is often the best chance of curing several forms of hematological malignancies and of congenital immune deficiencies. An at least transient immune deficiency is one of the side effects that seems unavoidable given the fact that an intense immunosuppressive conditioning must be given to allow engraftment. More research is needed but in the next future, a combination of the strategies mentioned above may improve posttransplant immunity considerably.

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