MYD88 mutations can be used to identify malignant pleural effusions in Waldenström macroglobulinaemia

Malignant pleural effusions are a rare extramedullary manifestation of Waldenström macroglobulinaemia (WM) (Banwait et al, 2015), a B-cell malignancy characterized by bone marrow (BM) infiltration with IgM-secreting lymphoplasmacytic lymphoma. Establishing a malignant aetiology for pleural effusions in WM patients is often inconclusive with standard diagnostic tests. Cytology generally cannot distinguish between lymphocyte-rich malignant and non-malignant pleural effusions (Kavuru et al, 1992; Mansoor et al, 2000). Additionally, pleural fluid specimens are typically devoid of extensive tumour involvement (Alexandrakis et al, 2004), adversely impacting the sensitivity of flow cytometric and gene rearrangement studies. To ensure timely initiation of appropriate antineoplastic therapy, methods to reliably detect pleural infiltration by WM are needed.

Recent studies have identified the *MYD88* L265P mutation in >90% of WM patients, though more rarely non-L265P mutations can be present (Treon *et al*, 2012, 2015). Clinical detection of *MYD88* L265P in the BM is routinely performed using highly sensitive allele-specific polymerase chain reaction (AS-PCR) to support the diagnosis of WM (Xu *et al*, 2013). The presence of *MYD88* L265P in cerebrospinal fluid has also been shown to support the diagnosis of Bing-Neel syndrome, a rare complication of central nervous system involvement by WM cells (Poulain *et al*, 2014). Consequentially, we hypothesized that the identification of *MYD88* L265P in pleural fluid could similarly identify the presence of malignant WM cells, and establish the diagnosis of a malignant pleural effusion.

We identified 9 WM patients with pleural effusions who had MYD88 testing performed on pleural fluid samples suspected to be malignant in nature. AS-PCR for MYD88 L265P was performed for Patients 1-8 on both unselected pleural fluid and BM samples (Xu et~al, 2013). Sanger sequencing of selected CD19⁺ B-cells from pleural fluid was performed for Patient 9, who had a known MYD88 S243N mutation. CXCR4 mutations were screened in both the pleural fluid (n=3) and BM (n=9) with selected CD19⁺ B-cells using Sanger sequencing and AS-PCR for CXCR4 S338X in patients with adequate samples (Xu et~al, 2015). Cytology, flow cytometry, and immunoglobulin heavy chain gene (IGH) rearrangement studies on pleural fluid were also performed.

The clinical presentation and diagnostic work-up for the pleural effusions is displayed in Table I. The median time from WM diagnosis to pleural effusion onset was 9 years (range 1·7–20·6 years), and all patients had received a median

of 2 (range 1–6) prior therapies for WM. Three patients were on active ibrutinib therapy at the time pleural effusions developed. Malignant lymphoplasmacytic cells were identified by cytological evaluation in only two patients (2/9, 22%). Flow cytometry identified a clonal population of B-cells in the same two patients (2/9, 22%), but in none of the others. *IGH* rearrangement was performed in 7 patients, and revealed a clonal pattern in 6 patients (6/7, 86%). Mutated *MYD88* was detected in the pleural fluid sample of all 9 (100%) patients. Mutated *MYD88* (8 *MYD88* L265P, 1 *MYD88* S243N) was also identified in BM samples obtained in all patients. All but one of these patients were wild-type for *CXCR4* in the same BM samples. Selected B-cells from the pleural effusion was available for three patients (all of whom were wild-type for *CXCR4* by BM examination), and revealed the same genotype.

The detection of mutated MYD88 in pleural fluid supported the diagnosis of a malignant pleural effusion, and the decision to treat. All 9 patients experienced clinical improvement in response to antineoplastic therapy (Table II). Four patients received ibrutinib, three patients received bendamustine alone (N=1) or with an anti-CD20 monoclonal antibody (N=3) and one patient received bortezomib with dexamethasone. With a median follow-up of 12·2 months (range 4·8–36·1), 8 patients achieved a complete resolution (89%), and one had stabilization of pleural effusions. All patients achieved a major systemic response to therapy.

The detection of WM cells in a pleural effusion can be a diagnostic challenge, and hinder or delay chemotherapy administration in the absence of a supportive pathological diagnosis. The differential diagnosis with lymphocyte-rich effusions can include chylothorax, tuberculosis, chronic congestive heart failure and rheumatoid disease, limiting the value of cytological examination. Use of flow cytometry or IGH rearrangement to detect a clonal B-cell population can help improve diagnostic certainty (Kavuru et al, 1992; Mansoor et al, 2000). However, a paucity of tumour cells due to pleural adherence or excess normal B-cells in the sample can impede the identification of a clonal population by either flow cytometry or IGH rearrangement assay (Mansoor et al, 2000; Alexandrakis et al, 2004). The IGH rearrangement assay has a lower limit of detection 2 orders of magnitude less than the AS-PCR assay used to detect MYD88 L265P (Xu et al, 2013), and may explain the lack of detection in one patient who had mutated MYD88 but did not have an identifiable IGH rearrangement. As such, the use of AS-PCR



Table I. Clinical presentation and diagnostic test results of patients with malignant pleural effusions.

							Pleural Fluid			MYD88 mutation	nutation	CXCR4 mutation	tation
	Age		c	-		Serum	1-4-0	Ē	HSI	Bone	Pleural	Bone	Pleural
Patient	(years)	Gender	(years) Gender Symptoms	Imaging	Presentation	lgM (g/l)	Cytology	Flow cytometry	rearrangement	marrow	tluid	marrow	tluıd
1	72	Female	SOB, cough	Bilateral moderate	Progressive event off-therapy	19.6	No malignant cells	$CD5^+, CD10^-, CD23^+, CD19^+,$	Polyclonal pattern	Present	Present	Present (S338X)	Not available
2	54	Female	SOB	to large PE Unilateral PE	Progressive event	5.5	No malignant	CD20 ⁺ , polytypic LC CD5 ⁺ , CD10 ⁻ ,	Clonal pattern	Present	Present	Absent	Absent
ϵ	73	Male	SOB, fatigue	on right side SOB, fatigue Unilateral PE	while on ibrutinib Progressive event	45.8	cells No malignant	CD23 ⁻ , CD19 ⁺ , CD20 ⁺ , polytypic LC CD5 ⁺ , CD10 ⁻ , CD23 ⁻ ,	Clonal pattern	Present	Present	Absent	Not
				on left side	while on ibrutinib		cells	CD19 ⁺ , CD20 ⁺ ,	4				available
	(-				,	=	polytypic LC	; -	ŗ	f		
4	89	Male	SOB, fatigue	Bilateral PE, left > right	Progressive event off-therapy	22.1	No malignant cells	$CD5$, $CD10$, $CD23^{-}$, $CD19^{+}$,	Clonal pattern	Present	Present	Absent	Not available
Ľ	02	Male	SOR weight	_	Drogressive event	24.7	No malianant	CD20 ⁺ , polytypic LC	Clonal nattern	Drecent	Drecent	Absent	Absent
,		2			off-therapy		cells	CD19 ⁺ , CD20 ⁺ ,	Cloud Purcein				
9	51	Male	SOB, fatigue	SOB, fatigue Unilateral PE	Progressive event	44.2	No malignant	polytypic LC CD5 ⁻ , CD10 ⁻ , CD23 ⁺ ,	Clonal pattern	Present	Present	Absent	Not
				on left side	off-therapy		cells	$CD19^+, CD20^+,$					available
t	ļ	;				L L			; -			,	,
_	c/	Male	SOB	omlateral PE on left side	Frogressive event off-therapy	C:C7	Mangnant cens identified	CD19 ⁺ , CD20 ⁺ ,	Clonal pattern	Fresent	rresent	Absent	Absent
								monotypic λ LC					
8	69	Male	Cough on	Unilateral PE	Progressive event	22.2	No malignant	$CD23^{+}$,	Not performed Present	Present	Present	Absent	Not
			deeb	on left side	off-therapy		cells	$CD19^{+}, CD20^{+},$					available
			inspiration					polytypic LC					
6	69	Male	SOB, fatigue	Bilateral PE	Progressive event	6.1	Malignant cells	$CD5^+, CD10^+, CD23^-,$	Not performed Present*	$Present^*$	$Present^*$	Absent	Not
					while on ibrutinib		identified	$CD19^+, CD20^+,$					available
								monotypic λ LC					

SOB, shortness of breath; PE, pleural effusion; LC, light chain. *Patient 9 had MYD88 S243N detected; all other patients had MYD88 L265P identified.

Table II. Treatment and clinical response of malignant pleural effusions.

Patient	Time between PE onset and WM diagnosis (years)	Number of previous therapies	Treatment for PE	IgM response	Clinical response	Follow-up time (months)
1	3.5	1	Ibrutinib 420 mg PO qD	VGPR	Resolution of SOB, improved cough. Additional thoracentesis not required once therapy initiated. No recurrence of PE.	15.4
2	3.7	2	Bendamustine 70 mg/m ² IV + ofatumumab IV (4 cycles)	PR	Exercising without SOB. Continued to have thoracentesis every 2–3 weeks for 3 months while on therapy.	10.0
3	16-1	6	Bortezomib 1·6 mg/m ² SQ + dexamethasone 20 mg (4 cycles)	PR	Significant improvement in energy. Additional thoracentesis not required once therapy initiated. No recurrence of PE.	21.5
4	9.0	1	Bendamustine 90 mg/m ² IV + rituximab 375 mg/m ² IV (6 cycles)	PR	Complete resolution of PE after 6 months of therapy. PE recurred after 1 year, and the patient was initiated on ibrutinib 420 mg PO qD.	33.8
5	5.8	2	Ibrutinib 420 mg PO qD	PR	Resolution of SOB, and pleural catheter was removed after 4 weeks on therapy. No recurrence of PE.	12.2
6	1.7	1	Ibrutinib 420 mg PO qD	PR	Resolution of SOB and improved energy level. No recurrence of PE after therapy initiation.	36.1
7	20.6	4	Ibrutinib 420 mg PO qD	PR	Pleural catheter was inserted at time of therapy initiation, and was removed after 6 months. No recurrence of PE.	10.8
8	14.0	3	Bendamustine 70 mg/m ² IV + rituximab 375 mg/m ² IV (treatment ongoing at this time; patient has received 3 cycles thus far)	PR	SOB has stabilized. Patient still reports some pain in left chest upon deep inspiration.	4.8
9	3.5	2	Bendamustine 90 mg/m ² IV (6 cycles)	PR	Improved performance status with resolution of SOB. No evidence of recurring PE.	7.4

SOB, shortness of breath; PE, pleural effusion; CR, complete response; VGPR, very good partial response; PR, partial response.

for mutated MYD88 may represent a more sensitive tumourdirected molecular tool for supporting the diagnosis of a malignant pleural effusion in WM.

The predominance of wild-type CXCR4 patients in this cohort is consistent with the genotype of WM patients who typically develop extramedullary disease. CXCR4 promotes homing of the WM cells in the BM, and its absence may account for the higher rate of extramedullary disease observed among wild-type CXCR4 patients (Treon et al, 2014). Extramedullary involvement also appears more prominent among previously treated WM patients further along in their disease course (Banwait et al, 2015), which may reflect the emergence of a clone with extramedullary preference in response to therapeutic pressure. Such clonal evolution may explain the incidence of pleural effusions described herein, as onset occurred after multiple therapies and approximately 10 years from the initial WM diagnosis.

In summary, our studies show that mutated MYD88 can be used to identify malignant pleural effusions in WM patients. WM patients with a suspected malignant pleural effusion should be considered for MYD88 mutation testing

(MYD88 L265P and non-MYD88 L265P, if wild-type by AS-PCR for MYD88 L265P) as part of their workup to establish the aetiology of their pleural effusion.

Author contributions

JNG, SPT, JJC designed the study. ZRH, LX, SPT performed MYD88 mutation testing. JNG, KM gathered clinical data. JNG drafted the initial manuscript. All the authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Pim-2 is a critical target for treatment of osteoclastogenesis enhanced in myeloma

Multiple myeloma (MM) has a unique propensity to develop and expand almost exclusively in the bone marrow, and generates bone destruction. MM bone disease is characterized by increased osteoclastic activity and suppressed osteoblastic differentiation causing devastating bone destruction with rapid loss of bone (Roodman, 2006; Raje & Roodman, 2011). In pursuing novel factors responsible for MM tumour expansion in the bone lesions, Pim-2 (also termed PIM2) has been found to be constitutively over-expressed as an anti-apoptotic mediator in MM cells and further upregulated through an interaction with osteoclasts and/or bone marrow stromal cells with defective osteoblastic differentiation (Asano et al, 2011; Johrer et al, 2012; Lu et al, 2013). We subsequently reported that Pim-2 is also induced in bone marrow stromal cells in MM and acts as a negative regulator for osteoblastogenesis, and that Pim inhibition is able to restore bone formation in addition to the suppression of the tumour burden in MM animal models (Hiasa et al, 2015). Thus, Pim-2 appears to be an important therapeutic target in MM and clinical studies with Pim inhibitors have been launched (NCT01456689, NCT02144038). However, the effects of Pim inhibition on osteoclastogenesis enhanced in MM has not been studied. Therefore, we explored the expression of Pim-2 in osteoclastic lineage cells, its role in osteoclastogenesis, and the impact of Pim inhibition on MM-induced bone resorption. Details of the Materials and method are available in Data S1.

Pim-2 was expressed in cathepsin K-positive mature osteoclasts on the surface of bone in addition to MM cells in mouse MM models with intra-tibial inoculation of mouse 5TGM1 MM cells (Fig 1A, top). Pim-2 was also clearly expressed exclusively in cathepsin K-positive osteoclasts, but not in other bone marrow cells in the tibia of normal control mice (Fig 1A, bottom). Receptor activator of NF-κB ligand (RANKL, TNFSF11), a critical mediator of osteoclastogenesis, is overproduced to extensively enhance bone resorption in MM (Pearse et al, 2001; Giuliani et al, 2002). Addition of RANKL time-dependently induced the expression of Pim-2 in parallel with c-fos (FOS), NFATc1 (NFATC1), critical transcription factors for osteoclastogenesis and cathepsin K, a functional marker of mature osteoclasts, in RAW264.7 preosteoclastic cells (Fig 1B, left). Inhibition of the NF-kB pathway by addition of SN50 or IMG2001, inhibitory peptides for the nuclear translocation of p65 (RELA) or p50 (NFKB1),