Refractory immune-mediated and haematological diseases: candidates for peptide receptor radiotherapy?

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Introduction

Somatostatin receptors have been demonstrated in the brain, in the pituitary gland, and on endocrine pancreatic islet cells (1, 2). These receptors may also be expressed on mostly neuroendocrine tumours (3) and in areas infested by certain immune-mediated diseases (4–7). The presence or overexpression of somatostatin receptors on these tumours and in these diseases is used when in vivo somatostatin receptor imaging (SRS) is performed in patients. A chelated, radiolabelled somatostatin analogue, [111In-DTPA(2)]-octreotide (OctreoScan, Mallinkrodt, Petten, the Netherlands), was injected and images were made after an interval of usually 24 h, which allows for primarily urinary and also, to a very small extent, hepatobiliary excretion. By then, background radioactivity had dropped considerably. Normal scintigraphic features due to receptor binding include visualization of the pituitary (to a variable degree), the thyroid and the spleen, whereas visualization of the liver, kidneys and urinary bladder mainly represents the metabolism of the radiopharmaceutical. Because of the normal accumulation of radioactivity in the above-mentioned organs, but especially in the spleen, kidneys, and to a lesser degree in the liver, the detection of somatostatin receptor-positive pathology in or near these organs may be hampered. This may be overcome by performing single photon energy computed tomography but, in diseases with low receptor density, the detection of lesions in the upper abdomen may be difficult. If receptor density is high, however, the recognition of lesions usually poses no problems. Therefore, in neuroendocrine gastroentero-pancreatic (GEP) tumours, which have a high receptor density, SRS has been found to be more sensitive than other imaging techniques, and is advocated as the imaging technique of choice in the staging procedure (8).

SRS may also demonstrate lesions in a number of non-neuroendocrine tumours, such as, for instance, breast carcinoma, Hodgkin’s disease and non-Hodgkin lymphoma (NHL), and in immune-mediated diseases like rheumatoid arthritis and granulomatous diseases. However, its role in the diagnosis of these diseases is very limited, and its value in staging and monitoring the response to therapy remains to be evaluated.

Localization of somatostatin receptors in haematological and immune-mediated disease and results of SRS

Somatostatin receptors have been demonstrated by autoradiography with [125I-Tyr3]-octreotide on granuloma tissue (5). The receptors were located in the areas containing epitheloid cells and not in the zone of surrounding lymphocytes. However, a more precise identification of the cells expressing somatostatin receptors, using receptor antibodies, showed that macrophages and epitheloid cells are the targets for receptor binding in granulomatous diseases (6). It is also of interest that biopsies that were negative for somatostatin receptor staining were characterized by fibrosis and the absence of an active monocline infiltrate, indicating that receptor expression may be correlated to active disease. Using in vivo SRS in a cross-sectional study in 46 patients with sarcoidosis, known mediastinal, hilar and interstitial disease was recognized in 36 of 37 patients (9). Also, such pathology was found in seven other patients who had normal chest X-rays. In five of these, SRS indicated interstitial disease. SRS was repeated in 13 patients. In five of six patients who showed a chest X-ray-monitored improvement in disease activity, SRS also showed a decrease in pathologic uptake. In two of five patients in whom the chest X-ray was unchanged, but serum angiotensin converting enzyme concentrations were decreased and lung function was improved, a normalization was found on octreotide scintigrams. To determine the value of SRS in the follow-up of patients with sarcoidosis a prospective longitudinal study will have to be performed.

In the synovial membranes of patients with rheumatoid arthritis, high affinity binding of [125I-Tyr3]-octreotide has been shown (4). With receptor antibodies, staining for somatostatin subtype 2 receptors was found on a macrophage subset (7). In vivo, 76% of disease-affected joints in patients with rheumatoid arthritis were visualized with SRS (Figs 1 and 2). The degree of pain and swelling correlated with positive scintigraphic findings (4).

With autoradiography, somatostatin receptors have been demonstrated on human lymphomas (10–12). Although in many patients with NHL one or more lesion may be somatostatin receptor-positive (Fig. 3), receptor-negative lesions also occur in a substantial number of patients (11). Therefore, the diagnostic role for SRS in patients with NHL is limited. In 56 consecutive untreated
patients with histologically proven Hodgkin’s disease the results of SRS were compared with physical and radiological examinations (12). SRS was positive in 55 of 56 (98%) patients at the sites of documented disease. In 20 patients, SRS disclosed lymphoma localizations not revealed following procedures for conventional staging. As a result, in 12 patients (21%), SRS produced a change of stage and in seven patients (13%) the additional information led to a change of treatment. Therefore, SRS seems to be promising in the clinical staging and management of patients with Hodgkin’s disease.

Peptide receptor radionuclide therapy (PRRT), a sequel to SRS

In patients with end-stage progressive neuroendocrine tumours which, in the majority, showed a high uptake of $^{111}$In-DTPA$^0$-octreotide during in vivo SRS, radiopharmaceuticals with high doses of $^{111}$In-DTPA$^0$-octreotide was performed in a phase-1 study. In 30 patients who received up to a cumulative dose of 74 GBq, the side-effects were a (transient) decline in platelet counts and lymphocyte subsets. Of the 21 patients who received a cumulative dose of more than 20 GBq, a reduction in tumour size was found in six, and stable disease in eight. There was a tendency towards better results in patients with a high tumour uptake (13).

$^{111}$In-coupled peptides, because of their small particle range, and therefore short tissue penetration, are not the ideal radiopharmaceuticals for radionuclide therapy. Recently, another somatostatin analogue, [DOTA$^0$, Tyr$^3$]-octreotide (DOTATOC), has been developed, to which the β-emitter $^{90}$Y can be linked in a very stable manner (14). In a recent study (15), the uptake of radioactivity in known somatostatin receptor-positive organs and tumours was higher after $^{111}$In-DOTATOC than after $^{111}$In-DTPA$^0$-octreotide. A recent preliminary study by Otte et al. (16) showed favourable results of $^{90}$Y-DOTATOC treatment in five patients with neuroendocrine tumours. Also, a study has been started in our hospital comparing both the uptake of $^{111}$In-DOTATOC and $^{90}$Y-DOTATOC, as well as the effects of treatment with $^{90}$Y-DOTATOC in the same patients. Because the kidney is the dose-limiting organ in PRRT with $^{90}$Y-DOTATOC, an infusion of amino acids is given during and after the infusion of the radiopharmaceutical, in order to reduce the kidney uptake. A recent analysis of the results of this treatment in 22 end-stage patients with progressive disease shows a partial tumour response in two, a minor response in three, and stable disease in ten patients (17).

Because of favourable results in terms of tumour regression in animals after therapy with another somatostatin analogue, $^{177}$Lu-DOTA[Tyr$^3$]-octreotate (18), the first injections of 1850 MBq of this radiopharmaceutical were very recently given to six patients in our hospital. A preliminary comparison with $^{111}$In-DTPA$^0$-octreotide points to a higher tumour uptake, whereas the kidney uptake for both radiopharmaceuticals is the same. This implies that the radiotherapeutical dose to the tumour potentially increases with $^{177}$Lu-DOTA[Tyr$^3$]-octreotate, given a fixed maximum kidney dose. In addition, the application of
[\textsuperscript{177}Lu-DOTA,Tyr\textsuperscript{3}]\textsuperscript{-}octreotate, which emits both gamma and beta rays, allows dosimetry and therapy with the same radiopharmaceutical.

Is PRRT a treatment option in patients with haematological or immune-mediated diseases?

Combination chemotherapy, external beam radiotherapy and bone marrow transplantation, as single modality or in combination, are the corner-stones of treatment for Hodgkin’s disease and NHL. High response and cure rates are achieved, and the results of changing the therapeutic strategies keep improving (19). As in patients with neuroendocrine tumours, PRRT with radiolabelled somatostatin analogues might be applied in patients with Hodgkin’s disease or NHL if the tumour uptake is sufficient. In patients with neuroendocrine tumours, the results of PRRT are better if the tumour uptake equals the uptake in the liver or is greater. In patients with lymphomas, however, the majority have a lower tumour uptake. In addition, it should be realized that lymphoma patients who have shown to be refractory to standard and salvage chemotherapy and radiotherapy may very well have developed bone marrow and renal toxicity, which are also the two most important potential side-effects of PRRT. Also, as a rule, little benefit can be expected from PRRT if previous external beam radiotherapy in these patients did not affect tumour growth. Finally, in most patients with therapy-refractory lymphomas disease progression is fast; with the present treatment schemes of PRRT, the dose delivery to the tumour may therefore be too slow. Despite all these arguments against its use, PRRT could be tried in some patients who fail to respond to ‘standard’ therapy on the condition that there is a high tumour uptake.

Therapy in patients with sarcoidosis is symptomatic. Because of the high rate of spontaneous remission in patients with limited disease stages, corticosteroid treatment is best reserved for patients with active pulmonary sarcoidosis or patients with pulmonary function impairment, dyspnea, cough, chest pain, hypercalcaemia or extrapolmonary organ involvement.
(20, 21). Because somatostatin subtype 2a receptors in granulomas were found on macrophages and epithelioid cells (6) and on a macrophage subset in the synovium from patients with rheumatoid arthritis (7), PRRT with radiolabelled somatostatin analogues, if effective, will probably affect these constituents of the inflammation. In vitro, the inhibition of cytokine release from monocytes (22) and diminished granuloma size in a mouse schistosomiasis model (23) by octreotide were demonstrated. Whether PRRT may lead to a decrease of the inflammatory response and of granuloma size in patients is, at this moment, speculative.

In patients with refractory rheumatoid arthritis, so-called ‘radiosynoviorthesis’ or ‘radiosynovectomy’ with β-emitting radionuclides (mostly 90Y) may cause symptomatic relief in the treated joints (24, 25). Usually, depending on the size of the joints to be treated, 37–185 MBq are injected intra-articularly, resulting in up to about 100 Gy (10 000 Rad) radiation-absorbed dose. Because only a limited number of joints can be treated with this method, the advantage of PRRT, resulting in radiation to all joints that show uptake, seems evident. The degree of uptake of radioactivity during SRS in rheumatoid joints is usually low, however, as is usually the case in granulomatous lesions. It may therefore be questioned whether a sufficient dose can be delivered. On the other hand, if PRRT selectively affects the cells that are responsible for the immune response, such lower doses could be sufficient.

As mentioned previously, PRRT may cause bone marrow and renal toxicity. Such side-effects will have to be weighed against the possible benefits of treatment. PRRT should therefore, in our opinion, only be tried in patients with invalidating, progressive granulomatous disease or rheumatoid arthritis who are refractory to other treatments.

References


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