Predicting the risk for lymphoma development in Sjogren syndrome

An easy tool for clinical use

Sofia Fragkioudaki (MD)^a, Clio P. Mavragani (MD)^{a,b,c,*}, Haralampos M. Moutsopoulos (MD, FACP, FRCP, MACR)^{b,c}

Abstract

The heightened risk of non-Hodgkin lymphoma (NHL) development in primary Sjogren syndrome (SS) is well established. Several adverse clinical and laboratory predictors have been described. In the current work, we aimed to formulate a predictive score for NHL development, based on clinical, serological, and histopathological findings at the time of SS diagnosis. In the present case–control study of 381 primary SS patients and 92 primary SS patients with concomitant NHL, clinical, serological, and histopathological variables at the time of SS diagnosis were retrospectively recorded. For the identification of predictors for NHL development univariate and multivariate models were constructed. Salivary gland enlargement (SGE), lymphadenopathy, Raynaud phenomenon, anti-Ro/SSA or/and anti-La/SSB autoantibodies, rheumatoid factor (RF) positivity, monoclonal gammopathy, and C4 hypocomplementemia were shown to be independent predictors for NHL development. On the basis of the number of independent risk factors identified, a predictive risk score for NHL development was formulated. Thus, patients presenting with ≤ 2 risk factors had a 3.8% probability of NHL development, those with 3 to 6 risk factors 39.9% (OR (95%CI): 16.6 [6.5–42.5], P < 0.05), while in the presence of all 7 risk factors the corresponding probability reached 100% (OR [95%CI]: 210.0 [10.0–4412.9], P < 0.0001). In conclusion, an easy to use diagnostic scoring tool for NHL development in the context of SS is presented. This model is highly significant for the design of early therapeutic interventions in high risk SS patients for NHL development.

Abbreviations: MALT = mucosa associated lymphoid tissue, MSG = minor salivary gland, NHL = non-Hodgkin lymphoma, PNS = peripheral nervous system, RF = rheumatoid factor, SGE = salivary gland enlargement, SS = Sjogren syndrome.

Keywords: adverse predictors, non-Hodgkin lymphoma, Sjogren syndrome

1. Introduction

Sjogren syndrome (SS) is a common systemic autoimmune disease usually confined in the exocrine glands (mainly salivary and lachrymal), leading to desiccation of oral and ocular mucosal tissues. Nevertheless, systemic manifestations can arise in a proportion of SS individuals^[1] and B-cell non-Hodgkin lymphoma (NHL) development represents a severe complication, afflicting approximately 5% of patients.^[2] The risk of NHL occurrence in the setting of SS, the highest among systemic autoimmune diseases,^[3,4] has been previously estimated to be 7- to 19-fold higher compared to the general population.^[3–9]

The authors have no funding and conflicts of interest to disclose.

^a Department of Physiology, ^b Department of Pathophysiology, ^c Joint Academic Rheumatology Program, School of Medicine, National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, Athens, Greece.

Medicine (2016) 95:25(e3766)

Received: 8 December 2015 / Received in final form: 25 April 2016 / Accepted: 29 April 2016

http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/MD.000000000003766

Although mucosa associated lymphoid tissue (MALT) mainly in the salivary glands is the prominent histological lymphoma type with a 1000-fold increased risk^[4] among primary SS patients,^[2,10] more aggressive subtypes including diffuse large B-cell lymphomas can also occur.^[2,11]

Lymphomagenesis in the setting of autoimmunity and particularly of SS is considered a multifactorial process, not entirely elucidated yet. Genetic aberrations, including chromosomal translocations,^[12] mutations of the tumor suppressor gene p53,^[13] and polymorphisms of molecules with regulatory role in both innate and adaptive immune activation pathways^[14,15] have been so far implicated. Moreover, according to previous studies, clinical features at disease presentation, such as persistent salivary gland enlargement (SGE)^[16] and palpable purpura,^[16,17] laboratory abnormalities, like lymphopenia, monoclonal type II cryoglobulinemia, and hypocomplementemia^[16-18] as well as intense lymphocytic infiltrations^[19] and germinal center formation^[20] in minor salivary gland (MSG) biopsies, have been identified as adverse predictors for SS-related NHL development. As a result, at their first evaluation, SS patients can be classified into separate subsets with distinct likelihood for lymphoma development.

The current study aimed to create a predictive tool in clinical practice for SS-related NHL development, based on clinical, hematological, serological, and histopathological features, observed early at disease diagnosis. Prompt diagnosis would allow early therapeutic intervention with the ultimate goal to decelerate the progression of benign to malignant lymphoproliferation.

Editor: Qinhong Zhang.

SF and CPM contributed equally to this work.

Supplemental Digital Content is available for this article.

^{*} Correspondence: Clio P. Mavragani, Department of Physiology, School of Medicine, National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, M. Asias 75, 11527 Athens, Greece (e-mail: kmauragan@med.uoa.gr).

Copyright © 2016 Wolters Kluwer Health, Inc. All rights reserved. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License 4.0 (CCBY), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

2. Methods

2.1. Study cohort

Medical records of 381 primary SS patients (SS) without and 92 SS patients with concomitant NHL (SS NHL), fulfilling the revised European/American International classification criteria for SS^[21] and derived from the Department of Pathophysiology, University of Athens, a personal patient collection of Prof. HMM, and the Department of Rheumatology in "G Gennimatas" General Hospital, were retrospectively evaluated. Patients with SS secondary to other systemic autoimmune diseases were excluded. A total of 83.7% of the entire patient group (both SS and SS NHL) had undergone MSG biopsy (63.9% had positive MSG, defined as focus score ≥ 1) and 92.6% were evaluated for anti-Ro/SSA or/and anti-La/SSB status (74.4% were anti-Ro/SSA or/and anti-La/SSB positive). Among 92 SS NHL patients, 73 had MALT and 19 non-MALT lymphoma. The latter included 12 diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (2 of which derived from MALT lymphoma transformation), 4 nodal marginal zone lymphoma, 2 small lymphocytic lymphoma, and 1 T-cell lymphoma. Informed consent was waived due to retrospective nature of the study.

2.2. Demographic, clinical, and laboratory evaluation

Demographic, clinical, and laboratory data, at the time of SS diagnosis, were collected through an extensive clinical chart review. Information regarding the presence of glandular manifestations such as oral, ocular, skin and upper respiratory tract dryness, SGE, as well as ocular (abnormal Schirmer test ≤ 5 mm/5 minutes and ocular dye score ≥ 4) and oral (unstimulated salivary flow ≤ 1.5 mL/15 minutes) signs was obtained. Systemic features such as musculoskeletal discomfort, including myalgias, arthralgias and arthritis, Raynaud phenomenon, palpable purpura, peripheral nervous system (PNS) involvement based on electrophysiological studies, lymphadenopathy, splenomegaly and histologically proven interstitial renal disease, glomerulonephritis, autoimmune hepatitis, or primary biliary cirrhosis were recorded. In the SS NHL group, the histological subtype of lymphoma was also documented.

Laboratory data included hematological features, such as leukocyte and platelet number and hemoglobulin levels, as well as serological characteristics such as hypergammaglobulinemia and monoclonal gammopathy, autoantibodies (antinuclear antibodies, anti-Ro/SSA, anti-La/SSB antibodies, rheumatoid factor [RF], antimitochondrial, and anti-thyroid), cryoglobulins, and C3 and C4 complement protein levels. Leukopenia was defined as white blood cells number <4000/ μ L, lymphocytopenia as platelets number <250,000/ μ L, anemia as hemoglobulin levels <12 g/dL, C3 and C4 hypocomplementemia as levels <90 and 20 mg/dL, respectively, and RF positivity as levels >20 IU/mL.

At the level of MSG tissue, the extent of lymphocytic infiltration, evaluated using Tarpley and focus scores,^[21] germinal center formation, and the presence of monoclonality (as previously described^[22]) was also recorded. For continuous variables such as Tarpley and focus scores, their median values were chosen as the cut-off level.

2.3. Statistical analysis

Comparison of qualitative and quantitative features between SS patients with and without NHL was performed with Fisher exact/Chi-square test and Mann–Whitney *U* tests respectively

using SPSS software 21.0. For data analysis, univariate and multivariate logistic regression models were implemented. We first classified predictors for lymphoma development into 3 major groups including clinical, laboratory, and histopathological features, respectively. Next, 3 separate multivariate models were constructed for each group, each of which included only those parameters found to be significant in univariate analysis. In order to explore whether the identified variables are highly correlated each other, a principal component analysis was performed as previously described.^[23] Last, a final multivariate model, including the independent predictors found to be significant in the 3 separate models was built (Fig. 1). A P-value < 0.05 and 0.1 for univariate and multivariate analysis was considered statistically significant, respectively. The final list of independent predictors-identified in the last step-was used to calculate the relative risk for NHL according to the equation:

 $Risk = [exp(\beta l \times xli + ... + \beta p \times xpi)]/\{1 + [exp(\beta l \times xli + ... + \beta p \times xpi)]\}$

In this equation, $\beta 1$ to βp are the regression coefficients of the independent features, while xli to xpi are the values corresponding to the independent risk factors for a particular patient.

Measures of calibration (Hosmer–Lemeshow statistics) and discrimination (receiver operating characteristic statistic) were calculated to evaluate the overall performance of the predictive model. Binary logistic regression was used to calculate the prognostic probability of developing SS related NHL based on the number of risk factors (identified in the final step of multivariate analysis) presenting at the time of SS diagnosis and odds ratios (ORs) with 95% confidence intervals (CIs) were calculated. Analyses were performed by Graph Pad Prism 5.00 and SPSS software 21.0.

3. Results

3.1. Demographic data

Demographic data for the SS and SS NHL groups are shown in Table 1. The mean age at disease diagnosis of the SS and SS NHL cohort was 51.6 ± 13.2 and 50.3 ± 13.4 , respectively, while the female-to-male ratio was 17:1 and 14:1, respectively. The corresponding ages for the SS MALT and non-MALT groups were 49.9 ± 12.7 and 52.1 ± 16.2 , respectively. No significant differences between groups were detected.

3.2. Clinical, hematological, serological, and histopathological features in SS and SS NHL groups

In Tables 2 and 3, the prevalence of clinical and laboratory manifestations at disease onset in SS patients with and without NHL is presented (univariate analysis). The 2 groups had similar rates of symptoms related to exocrine dysfunction (oral, ocular, skin, and upper respiratory system dryness), of musculoskeletal discomfort, including arthritis, as well as renal and liver involvement. In contrary, compared to the SS group, SS NHL patients exhibited increased frequency of Raynaud phenomenon (37.0% vs 23.9%, P=0.01), SGE (64.1% vs 21.5%, P<0.001), palpable purpura (42.4% vs 12.1%, P < 0.001), lymphadenopathy (44.6% vs 10.2%, P < 0.001), splenomegaly (8.7% vs 1.1%, P < 0.001), and PNS involvement (8.7% vs 2.4%, P = 0.01). Additionally, SS NHL occurrence was associated with lymphopenia (28.3% vs 11.6%, P<0.001), anemia (46.7% vs 23.9%, P < 0.001), RF positivity (85.4% vs 52.4%, P < 0.001), anti-Ro/ SSA or/and anti-La/SSB positivity (91.2% vs 70.0%, P < 0.001), Risk factors identified in univariate analysis

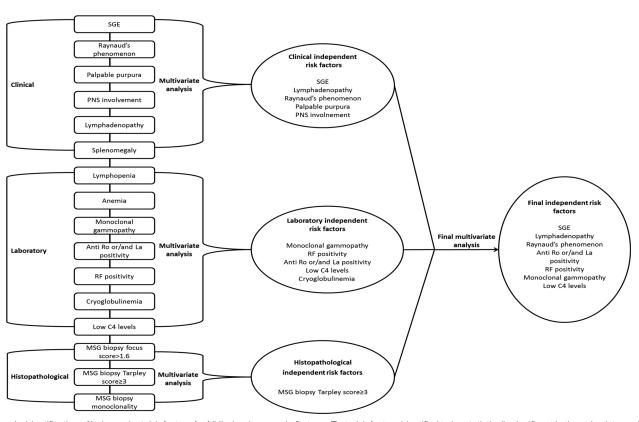


Figure 1. Identification of independent risk factors for NHL development in 2 steps. First, risk factors identified to be statistically significant in the univariate analysis were analyzed in 3 separate multivariate models and independent clinical, laboratory, and histopathological risk factors for NHL development were determined. Second, a final multivariate logistic regression analysis including all independent risk factors, revealed in the 3 separate multivariate models, was performed. MSG = minor salivary gland, NHL=non-Hodgkin lymphoma, PNS=peripheral nervous system, RF=rheumatoid factor, SGE=salivary gland enlargement.

monoclonal gammopathy (23.3% vs 5.0%, P < 0.001), as well as cryoglobulinemia (32.1% vs 6.5%, P < 0.001) and low C4 complement levels (80.9% vs 48.1%, P < 0.001). In regard to the histopathological features on the initial diagnostic salivary gland biopsy, an MSG focus score more than 1.6 (71.4% vs 42.0%, P < 0.001), a Tarpley score ≥ 3 (68.5% vs 38.5%, P < 0.001), as well as the presence of monoclonality in MSG tissues (50.0% vs 10.7%, P = 0.003) have been all found to occur more frequently in the SS NHL compared to the SS group.

3.3. Independent risk factors for NHL development

Table 4 displays the results of the 3 separate multivariate models on clinical, serological, and histopathological parameters. Clinical variables found to be independently associated with NHL included SGE, lymphadenopathy, palpable purpura, PNS involvement, and Raynaud phenomenon (OR [95%CI]: 5.3 [3.1–9.0], 4.5 [2.5–8.1], 3.3 [1.8–6.1], 3.0 [0.9–10.5], and 1.6 [0.9–2.9], respectively). Serological and histopathological features independently predicting NHL development were RF, anti-Ro/SSA or/and anti-La/SSB positivity, monoclonal gammopathy, C4 hypocomplementemia, cryoglobulinemia, and Tarpley score in the MSG biopsy \geq 3. (OR [95%CI]: 3.4 [1.5–7.3], 7.5 [2.2–25.5], 4.76 [1.6–13.9], 2.9 [1.5–5.9], 2.7 [1.2–6.3], and 5.8 [2.7–12.5], respectively).

To test whether the identified variables are highly associated each other inflating the results of the multivariate model, a principal component analysis was performed. Supplementary Table 1, http://links.lww.com/MD/B49, displays the variance of each of the principal component scores amongst the 473 patients studied showing the proportion of variance in the dataset explained by each of the principal components. Since the first 3 principal components do not contribute to the overall variability significantly (PC1:23.8%, PC2: 14.9%, and PC3:12.8%), all individual variables were included in the final prediction model.

Thus, all the independent predictors resulting from the three separate multivariate models (clinical, laboratory, and histopathological) were subsequently included in a final multivariate model with SGE, lymphadenopathy, Raynaud phenomenon, anti-Ro/SSA or/and anti-La/SSB positivity, RF positivity, monoclonal gammopathy, and C4 hypocomplementemia being identified as independent predictors for NHL development: (OR [95%]: 4.3 [2.0–9.1], 4.2 [1.8–9.9], 2.3 [1.0–5.2], 3.8 [1.1–13.4], 3.7 [1.4–10.0], 3.2 [1.0–9.8], 3.0 [1.3–6.8]) (Table 5).

3.4. Prediction score for SS NHL development

Based on the results of the logistic regression analysis a predictive model was formulated. In this model, the relative risk for NHL development was calculated for each patient according to the following equation, as previously described^[24–26]:

 $Risk = EXP[SGE^{*}(1.456) + Raynaud phenomenon^{*}(0.831) + lymphadenopathy^{*}(1.445) + monoclonal gammopathy^{*}(1.158) + RF positivity^{*}(1.305) + C4 hypocomplementemia^{*}(1.088) + anti-Ro/SSA or/and La/SSB positivity^{*}(1.328)]/{1 + EXP [SGE^{*}(1.456) + Raynaud phenomenon^{*}(0.831) + lymphadenopathy^{*}(1.445) + C4 hypocomplementemia^{*}(1.445) + Raynaud phenomenon^{*}(0.831) + lymphadenopathy^{*}(1.445) + Raynaud phenomenopathy^{*}(1.445) + Raynaud phenomenopathy^{*}$

Table 1

Demographic data of the study cohort.

	SS NHL (n=92)					
	SS (n=381)	MALT (n = 73)	Non-MALT (n=19)	P *	P^{\dagger}	P [‡]
Age at SS diagnosis (years, mean \pm SD)	51.6±13.2	50.3 ± 13.4		0.31	0.87	0.52
		49.9±12.7	52.1 ± 16.2			
Female/male ratio	360:21 (~17:1)	86:6 (~14:1)		0.59	0.61	0.58
		67/6 (~11:1)	19/0			

MALT=mucosa associated lymphoid tissue, NHL=non-Hodgkin lymphoma, SD=standard deviation, SS=Sjogren syndrome.

* P-value: SS versus SS MALT.

⁺ P-value: SS versus SS non-MALT.

* P-value: SS MALT versus SS non-MALT.

Table 2

Prevalence of clinical features, at time of diagnosis, in SS patients with and without non-Hodgkin lymphoma (univariate analysis).

Clinical features	SS (n=381)	SS NHL (n=92)	OR [95%CI]	Р
Oral dryness n (%)	349 (91.6)	88 (95.7)	2.0 [0.7–5.9]	0.27
Ocular dryness n (%)	348 (91.3)	85 (92.4)	1.2 [0.5–2.7]	0.84
Skin dryness n (%)	32 (8.4)	10 (10.9)	1.3 [0.6–2.8]	0.42
Upper respiratory tract dryness n (%)	78 (20.5)	16 (17.4)	0.8 [0.5–1.5]	0.56
SGE n (%)	82 (21.5)	59 (64.1)	6.5 [4.0–10.7]	< 0.001
Arthralgias/myalgias n (%)	258 (67.7)	60 (65.2)	0.9 [0.6–1.4]	0.71
Arthritis n (%)	77 (20.2)	21 (22.8)	1.2 [0.7–2.0]	0.57
Raynaud phenomenon n (%)	91 (23.9)	34 (37.0)	1.9 [1.2-3.0]	0.01
Palpable purpura n (%)	46 (12.1)	39 (42.4)	5.4 [3.2–9.0]	< 0.001
PNS involvement n (%)	9 (2.4)	8 (8.7)	4.0 [1.5–10.5]	0.01
Lymphadenopathy n (%)	39 (10.2)	41 (44.6)	7.1 [4.2–12.0]	< 0.001
Splenomegaly n (%)	4 (1.1)	8 (8.7)	9.0 [2.6-30.5]	< 0.001
Interstitial renal disease n (%)	5 (1.3)	4 (4.3)	3.4 [0.9–13.0]	0.08
Glomerulonephritis n (%)	8 (2.1)	5 (5.4)	2.7 [0.9–8.4]	0.14
Liver involvement n (%)	20 (5.2)	4 (4.3)	0.8 [0.3–2.5]	0.80

CI=confidence interval, NHL=non-Hodgkin lymphoma, OR=odds ratio, PNS=peripheral nervous system, SGE=salivary gland enlargement, SS=Sjogren syndrome.

Table 3

Comparison of hematological, serological, and histopathological characteristics between SS patient groups with and without non-Hodgkin lymphoma, at time of diagnosis (univariate analysis).

Laboratory characteristics	SS (n=381)	SS NHL (n=92)	OR [95%CI]	Р
Leukopenia n (%)	55/374 (14.7)	20/92 (21.7)	1.6 [0.9–2.9]	0.11
Lymphopenia n (%)	38/328 (11.6)	26/92 (28.3)	3.0 [1.7–5.3]	< 0.001
Anemia n (%)	68/285 (23.9)	43/92 (46.7)	2.8 [1.7-4.6]	< 0.001
Thrombocytopenia n (%)	198/335 (59.1)	57/92 (62.0)	1.1 [0.7–1.8]	0.63
Monoclonal gammopathy n (%)	17/342 (5.0)	21/90 (23.3)	5.8 [2.9–11.6]	< 0.001
Anti-Ro/SSA or/and anti-La/SSB positivity n (%)	243/347 (70.0)	83/91 (91.2)	4.4 [2.1–9.5]	< 0.001
RF positivity n (%)	176/336 (52.4)	76/89 (85.4)	5.3 [2.8–9.9]	< 0.001
Anti-TPO positivity n (%)	64/232 (27.6)	18/82 (22.0)	0.7 [0.4–1.3]	0.38
Anti-Tg positivity n (%)	53/232 (22.8)	13/81 (16.0)	0.7 [0.3–1.3]	0.21
AMA positivity n (%)	17/257 (6.6)	6/81 (7.4)	1.1 [0.4–3.0]	0.80
Cryoglobulinemia n (%)	19/294 (6.5)	27/84 (32.1)	6.9 [3.6–13.2]	< 0.001
C4 hypocomplementemia n (%)	165/343 (48.1)	72/89 (80.9)	4.6 [2.6-8.1]	< 0.001
C3 hypocomplementemia n (%)	26/339 (7.7)	12/89 (13.5)	1.9 [0.9–3.9]	0.10
MSG biopsy Focus score >1.6 n (%)	95/226 (42.0)	45/63 (71.4)	3.5 [1.9–6.3]	< 0.001
MSG biopsy Tarpley score ≥3 n (%)	97/252 (38.5)	50/73 (68.5)	3.5 [2.0–6.1]	< 0.001
MSG biopsy monoclonality n (%)	3/28 (10.7)	13/26 (50.0)	8.3 [2.0–34.6]	0.003
Germinal centers formation in MSG biopsy n (%)	12/101 (11.9)	11/49 (22.4)	2.2 [0.9–5.3]	0.15

AMA=antimitochondrial antibodies, CI=confidence interval, CRP=C-reactive protein, MSG=minor salivary gland, NHL=non-Hodgkin lymphoma, OR=odds ratio, RF=rheumatoid factor, SS=Sjogren syndrome, Tg=thyroglobulin, TPO=thyroid peroxidase.

Table 4

Independent clinical, laboratory, and histopathological risk factors for SS-related non-Hodgkin lymphoma development, identified by 3 distinct multivariate analysis.

	Independent risk factors	OR [95%Cl]	Р
Clinical	SGE	5.3 [3.1–9.0]	< 0.001
	Lymphadenopathy	4.5 [2.5–8.1]	< 0.001
	Raynaud phenomenon	1.6 [0.9–2.9]	0.09
	Palpable purpura	3.3 [1.8–6.1]	< 0.001
	PNS involvement	3.0 [0.9–10.5]	0.08
Laboratory	Monoclonal gammopathy	4.8 [1.6–13.9]	0.004
	RF positivity	3.4 [1.5–7.3]	0.002
	Anti-Ro/SSA or/and anti-La/SSB positivity	7.5 [2.2–25.5]	0.001
	C4 hypocomplementemia	2.9 [1.5–5.9]	0.002
	Cryoglobulinemia	2.7 [1.2-6.3]	0.02
Histopathological	Tarpley score \geq 3 in MSG biopsy	5.8 [2.7–12.5]	< 0.001

CI = confidence interval, MSG = minor salivary gland, NHL = non-Hodgkin lymphoma, OR = odds ratio, PNS = peripheral nervous system, RF = rheumatoid factor, SGE = salivary gland enlargement, SS = Sjogren syndrome.

monoclonal gammopathy^{*}(1.158)+RF positivity^{*}(1.305)+C4 hypocomplementemia^{*}(1.088)+anti-Ro/SSA or/and La/SSB positivity^{*}(1.328)]}

In these formulas, binary variables were coded as follows— SGE: presence=1, absence=0; Raynaud phenomenon: presence=1, absence=0; lymphadenopathy: presence=1, absence=0; RF positivity: presence=1, absence=0; C4 hypocomplementemia: presence=1, absence=0; and anti-Ro/SSA and/or La/SSB positivity: presence=1, absence=0. When receiver operating characteristic curves for the predictive model were fitted, the area under the curve was 0.9, 95% CI: 0.8 to 0.9, P < 0.001 (Fig. 2). Hosmer–Lemeshow goodness-of-fit statistics were 4.8, P = 0.78.

Binary logistic regression was used to calculate the predicted probability of NHL development. Only patients with full data available (325 patients out of 373, 87% of the initial cohort) were analyzed. In the absence of those 7 risk factors, none of the SS patients in the cohort had lymphoma. Patients presenting with \leq 2 had a 3.8% probability of NHL development. The probability of NHL development in the presence of 3 to 6 risk factors was 39.9%, while in the presence of all 7 risk factors was 100%. The ORs along with the corresponding CIs and *P*-values for NHL development in the presence of all 7 risk factors were 210.0 (10.0–4412.9), *P* < 0.0001 compared to those with 2 or less risk factors. The corresponding values in the presence of 3 to 6 risk factors were 16.6 (6.5–42.5), *P* < 0.05 in comparison with patients presenting with 2 or less risk factors (Fig. 3).

4. Discussion

Lymphoid malignancy is an undesired complication, encountered in a considerable proportion of SS patients, who have the highest risk compared to patients with other systemic autoimmune disorders.^[3,4,8] In the current study, we identified a predictive model for NHL development, based on the initial clinical, laboratory, and histopathological evaluation of SS patients. Clinical manifestations such as SGE, lymphadenopathy, palpable purpura, peripheral neuropathy and Raynaud phenomenon, serological features including RF and anti-Ro/SSA or/and anti-La/SSB autoantibodies positivity, monoclonal gammopathy, C4 hypocomplementemia, and cryoglobulinemia, as well as extensive lymphocytic infiltration in MSG biopsy (Tarpley score ≥ 3) were found to be associated with NHL development. In a last step multivariate model, taken into consideration all the previously identified predictors, only SGE, lymphadenopathy, Raynaud phenomenon, anti-Ro/SSA or/and anti-La/SSB as well as RF positivity, monoclonal gammopathy, and C4 hypocomplementemia were determined as independent adverse predictors for NHL development. A predictive score for NHL development was formulated based on the number of independent risk factors. The probability of NHL development was 3.8% for patients presenting with ≤ 2 risk factors, 39.9% for those having 3 to 6 risk factors and reached 100% in the presence of all 7 risk factors.

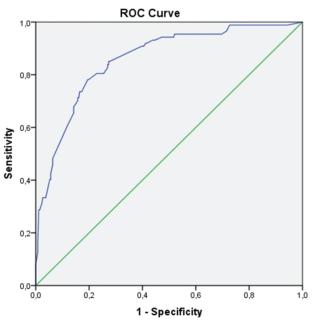
Our current findings are in accord with previously published data supporting several clinical and laboratory variables as predictors of NHL development. Clinical features such as SGE, lymphadenopathy,^[2,16,18,27–30] as well as manifestations related

Table 5

Final independent risk factors for non-Hodgkin lymphoma development, after multivariate analysis of all variables found to be significant in separate multivariate models.

Independent risk factors	β -Coefficient	OR [95%CI]	Р
SGE	1.456	4.3 [2.0–9.1]	< 0.001
Lymphadenopathy	1.445	4.2 [1.8–9.9]	0.001
Raynaud phenomenon	0.831	2.3 [1.0–5.2]	0.05
Anti-Ro/SSA or/and anti-La/SSB positivity	1.328	3.8 [1.1–13.4]	0.04
RF positivity	1.305	3.7 [1.4–10.0]	0.01
Monoclonal gammopathy	1.158	3.2 [1.0–9.8]	0.04
C4 hypocomplementemia	1.088	3.0 [1.3–6.8]	0.01

CI=confidence interval, NHL=non-Hodgkin lymphoma, OR=odds ratio, RF=rheumatoid factor, SGE=salivary gland enlargement.



Diagonal segments are produced by ties.

Figure 2. The performance evaluation of the predictive model for NHL development with the formation of ROC curves. The AUC was 0.9 (95%CI: 0.8–0.9, P<0.001). AUC=area under the curve, CI=confidence interval, NHL=non-Hodgkin lymphoma, ROC=receiver operating characteristic.

to immunocomplexes deposition, including palpable purpura^[5,16,17] and peripheral neuropathy^[2,31] have been consistently identified as determinants of severe SS phenotypic variants. The emergence of Raynaud phenomenon as an independent adverse predictor for NHL development is in accord with previous observations in a US nationwide study.^[32] Of interest, the presence of anticentromere antibodies in a subset of SS individuals has been previously associated with both Raynaud phenomenon and heightened NHL risk.^[33] Unfortunately, this association was not explored in this study, due to the limited availability of anticentromere antibodies autoantibody data.

In line with previous findings revealing associations between anti-Ro/SSA and/or anti-La/SSB autoantibodies either with systemic manifestations associated with NHL development^[34–36] or with NHL development itself,^[37] we also found that antibodies against these ribonucleoproteinic complexes are an independent predictor for NHL development. In the same context, monoclonal gammopathy,^[29,38,39] hypocomplementemia, and cryoglobulinemia^[5,9,16,18,28,29,34,37,40] previously associated with malignant transformation, possibly as a result of excessive B-cell activation, have also been shown to be independently related to NHL occurrence and increased mortality.^[5,40,41] Monoclonal mixed cryoprecipitates, reported as a detrimental prognostic factor for SS-related lymphomagenesis,^[17] contain monoclonal RF, secreted by a subset of malignant B-cells derived by clonally expanded B cells exhibiting RF activity,^[42] which has been emerged as an independent predictor for NHL in both Greek and French cohorts.^[43]

In relation to histopathological variables, we have also observed an association between NHL development with the density and monoclonality of lymphocytic infiltrations as well as a positive trend towards germinal center formation. Multivariate analysis revealed Tarpley score ≥ 3 as an independent risk factor for lymphoma development, in accord with previous observations.^[19,44] The presence of monoclonality^[22,45] as well as the formation of germinal centers^[20] may also alert for future lymphoma development, as previously proposed, though they were not identified as independent predictors in the current work, possibly due to the limited number of patients.

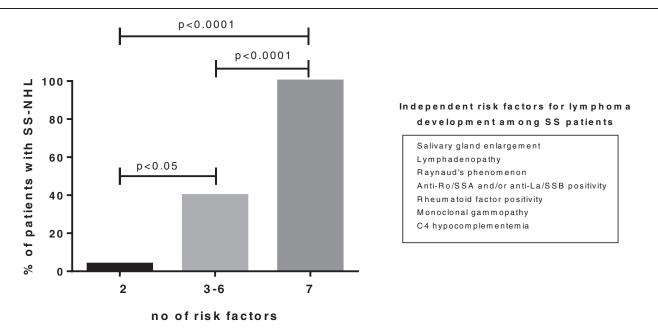


Figure 3. The probability of NHL development among SS patients was estimated on the basis of the number of independent risk factors. The probability of NHL development was 3.8% for patients presenting with ≤ 2 risk factors, 39.9% for those displaying 3 to 6 risk factors, and 100% in the presence of all 7 risk factors. The OR along with the corresponding CI and *P*-values for NHL development in the presence of all 7 risk factors were 210.0 (10.0–4412.9), *P* < 0.0001 compared to those with 2 or less risk factors. The corresponding values in the presence of 3 to 6 risk factors were 16.6 (6.5–42.5), *P* < 0.05 in comparison with those with 2 or less risk factors. CI = confidence interval, NHL=non-Hodgkin lymphoma, OR=odds ratio, SS=Sjogren syndrome.

The identified independent predictors for NHL development in the setting of SS, from our group and others, including autoantibody production and manifestations attributed to immunocomplexes formation and activation of the classical component pathway leading to hypocomplementemia, point Bcell activation as a central pathogenetic mechanism of SS-related lymphomagenesis. It is of interest that these adverse predictors are present early, as soon as the diagnosis of SS is made, implying that a distinct genetic background might determine low and high risk SS subtypes. In support of this hypothesis, genetic alterations related to B cell activation, such as variants of B-cell activating factor, a survival factor for B lymphocytes,^[14] tumor necrosis factor alpha-induced protein 3, a gatekeeper of NFKB activation,^[15] and the His159Tyr of the B-cell activating factor receptor previously shown to enhance alternate NFKB signaling^[46,47] and immunoglobulin production,^[46] are implicated in the pathogen-esis of SS MALT lymphoma.^[47] Other molecules associated with B lymphocytes proliferation and organization in lymphoid tissues, such as Fms-like tyrosine kinase 3 ligand^[48] and chemokine C-X-C motif ligand 13,^[49] have also been proposed as serum biomarkers of lymphoma in the setting of SS. However, the entire mechanisms leading from benign proliferation to malignant transformation remain to be elucidated.

One of the major limitations of the current study could be considered the relatively small number of SS-NHL cases, though they consist one of the largest currently available SS-lymphoma databases, given their rarity and the unrecognized diagnosis in the general population. The relatively low number of patients could also account for the lack of retention of monoclonality at the level of salivary gland tissue as independent predictor of lymphoma development in the multivariate model. On the other hand, the clustering of both MALT and non-MALT NHL cases in a whole group did not allow the identification of distinct predictors between the 2 lymphoma subtypes which are characterized by separate pathogenetic events. Further multicenter efforts including larger number of patients could both clarify this issue and validate the currently proposed prediction algorithm.

Identification of a high risk phenotype for lymphoma development at the time of SS diagnosis has been long appreciated as a major diagnostic challenge. Although individual clinical and laboratory parameters have been identified in the past as predictors of NHL in the context of SS, for the first time, we developed an easy to use risk assessment tool in everyday clinical practice, based on combinations of independent adverse predictors, allowing at the same time the design of early preventative therapeutic strategies in high risk SS patients for NHL development.

Acknowledgments

The authors thank Prof Elias Zintzaras, PhD for expert statistical advice.

References

- Mavragani CP, Moutsopoulos HM. Sjogren syndrome. CMAJ 2014; 186:E579–86.
- [2] Voulgarelis M, Dafni UG, Isenberg DA, et al. Malignant lymphoma in primary Sjogren's syndrome: a multicenter, retrospective, clinical study by the European Concerted Action on Sjogren's syndrome. Arthritis Rheum 1999;42:1765–72.
- [3] Zintzaras E, Voulgarelis M, Moutsopoulos HM. The risk of lymphoma development in autoimmune diseases: a meta-analysis. Arch Intern Med 2005;165:2337–44.

- [4] Ekstrom Smedby K, Vajdic CM, Falster M, et al. Autoimmune disorders and risk of non-Hodgkin lymphoma subtypes: a pooled analysis within the InterLymph Consortium. Blood 2008;111:4029–38.
- [5] Solans-Laque R, Lopez-Hernandez A, Bosch-Gil JA, et al. Risk, predictors, and clinical characteristics of lymphoma development in primary Sjogren's syndrome. Semin Arthritis Rheum 2011;41:415–23.
- [6] Weng MY, Huang YT, Liu MF, et al. Incidence of cancer in a nationwide population cohort of 7852 patients with primary Sjogren's syndrome in Taiwan. Ann Rheum Dis 2012;71:524–7.
- [7] Johnsen SJ, Brun JG, Goransson LG, et al. Risk of non-Hodgkin's lymphoma in primary Sjogren's syndrome: a population-based study. Arthritis Care Res 2013;65:816–21.
- [8] Liang Y, Yang Z, Qin B, et al. Primary Sjogren's syndrome and malignancy risk: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Ann Rheum Dis 2014;73:1151–6.
- [9] Theander E, Henriksson G, Ljungberg O, et al. Lymphoma and other malignancies in primary Sjogren's syndrome: a cohort study on cancer incidence and lymphoma predictors. Ann Rheum Dis 2006;65:796–803.
- [10] Voulgarelis M, Ziakas PD, Papageorgiou A, et al. Prognosis and outcome of non-Hodgkin lymphoma in primary Sjogren syndrome. Medicine 2012;91:1–9.
- [11] Anderson LA, Gadalla S, Morton LM, et al. Population-based study of autoimmune conditions and the risk of specific lymphoid malignancies. J Int Cancer 2009;125:398–405.
- [12] Pisa EK, Pisa P, Kang HI, et al. High frequency of t(14;18) translocation in salivary gland lymphomas from Sjogren's syndrome patients. J Exp Med 1991;174:1245-50.
- [13] Tapinos NI, Polihronis M, Moutsopoulos HM. Lymphoma development in Sjogren's syndrome: novel p53 mutations. Arthritis Rheum 1999;42: 1466–72.
- [14] Nezos A, Papageorgiou A, Fragoulis G, et al. B-cell activating factor genetic variants in lymphomagenesis associated with primary Sjogren's syndrome. J Autoimmun 2014;51:89–98.
- [15] Nocturne G, Boudaoud S, Miceli-Richard C, et al. Germline and somatic genetic variations of TNFAIP3 in lymphoma complicating primary Sjogren's syndrome. Blood 2013;122:4068–76.
- [16] Ioannidis JP, Vassiliou VA, Moutsopoulos HM. Long-term risk of mortality and lymphoproliferative disease and predictive classification of primary Sjogren's syndrome. Arthritis Rheum 2002;46:741–7.
- [17] Skopouli FN, Dafni U, Ioannidis JP, et al. Clinical evolution and morbidity and mortality of primary Sjogren's syndrome. Semin Arthritis Rheum 2000;29:296–304.
- [18] Baimpa E, Dahabreh IJ, Voulgarelis M, et al. Hematologic manifestations and predictors of lymphoma development in primary Sjogren syndrome: clinical and pathophysiologic aspects. Medicine (Baltimore) 2009;88:284–93.
- [19] Risselada AP, Kruize AA, Goldschmeding R, et al. The prognostic value of routinely performed minor salivary gland assessments in primary Sjogren's syndrome. Ann Rheum Dis 2014;73:1537–40.
- [20] Theander E, Vasaitis L, Baecklund E, et al. Lymphoid organisation in labial salivary gland biopsies is a possible predictor for the development of malignant lymphoma in primary Sjogren's syndrome. Ann Rheum Dis 2011;70:1363–8.
- [21] Vitali C, Bombardieri S, Jonsson R, et al. Classification criteria for Sjogren's syndrome: a revised version of the European criteria proposed by the American-European Consensus Group. Ann Rheum Dis 2002; 61:554–8.
- [22] Guzman LM, Castillo D, Aguilera SO. Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) detection of B cell clonality in Sjogren's syndrome patients: a diagnostic tool of clonal expansion. Clin Exp Immunol 2010;161:57–64.
- [23] Anvik T, Gude T, Grimstad H, et al. Assessing medical students' attitudes towards learning communication skills—which components of attitudes do we measure? BMC Med Educ 2007;7:4.
- [24] Gines P, Quintero E, Arroyo V, et al. Compensated cirrhosis: natural history and prognostic factors. Hepatology 1987;7:122–8.
- [25] Pinol V, Andreu M, Castells A, et al. Synchronous colorectal neoplasms in patients with colorectal cancer: predisposing individual and familial factors. Dis Colon Rectum 2004;47:1192–200.
- [26] Rodriguez E, Soler MJ, Rap O, et al. Risk factors for acute kidney injury in severe rhabdomyolysis. PloS One 2013;8:e82992.
- [27] Sutcliffe N, Inanc M, Speight P, et al. Predictors of lymphoma development in primary Sjogren's syndrome. Semin Arthritis Rheum 1998;28:80–7.
- [28] Baldini C, Pepe P, Luciano N, et al. A clinical prediction rule for lymphoma development in primary Sjogren's syndrome. J Rheumatol 2012;39:804–8.

- [29] Risselada AP, Kruize AA, Bijlsma JW. Clinical features distinguishing lymphoma development in primary Sjogren's Syndrome—a retrospective cohort study. Semin Arthritis Rheum 2013;43:171–7.
- [30] Kassan SS, Thomas TL, Moutsopoulos HM, et al. Increased risk of lymphoma in Sicca syndrome. Ann Intern Med 1978;89:888–92.
- [31] Sene D, Jallouli M, Lefaucheur JP, et al. Peripheral neuropathies associated with primary Sjogren syndrome: immunologic profiles of nonataxic sensory neuropathy and sensorimotor neuropathy. Medicine 2011;90:133–8.
- [32] Mehta B, Jadeja N, Mujib M, et al. Raynaud's phenomenon and African American race are independently associated with non-Hodgkin's lymphoma in Sjogrens syndrome patients: findings from a United States National Study [abstract]. Arthritis Rheum 2013;65(suppl 10):221.
- [33] Gulati D, Kushner I, File E, et al. Primary Sjogren's syndrome with anticentromere antibodies—a clinically distinct subset. Clin Rheumatol 2010;29:789–91.
- [34] Ramos-Casals M, Solans R, Rosas J, et al. Primary Sjogren syndrome in Spain: clinical and immunologic expression in 1010 patients. Medicine 2008;87:210–9.
- [35] Alexander EL, Arnett FC, Provost TT, et al. Sjogren's syndrome: association of anti-Ro(SS-A) antibodies with vasculitis, hematologic abnormalities, and serologic hyperreactivity. Ann Intern Med 1983;98:155–9.
- [36] Davidson BK, Kelly CA, Griffiths ID. Primary Sjogren's syndrome in the North East of England: a long-term follow-up study. Rheumatology 1999;38:245–53.
- [37] Quartuccio L, Isola M, Baldini C, et al. Biomarkers of lymphoma in Sjogren's syndrome and evaluation of the lymphoma risk in prelymphomatous conditions: results of a multicenter study. J Autoimmun 2014;51:75–80.
- [38] Anaya JM, McGuff HS, Banks PM, et al. Clinicopathological factors relating malignant lymphoma with Sjogren's syndrome. Semin Arthritis Rheum 1996;25:337–46.
- [39] Tomi AL, Belkhir R, Nocturne G, et al. Monoclonal gammopathy and risk of lymphoma and multiple myeloma in patients with primary Sjogren's syndrome. Arthritis Rheumatol 2016;68:1245–50.

- Medicine
- [40] Ramos-Casals M, Brito-Zeron P, Yague J, et al. Hypocomplementaemia as an immunological marker of morbidity and mortality in patients with primary Sjogren's syndrome. Rheumatology 2005;44: 89–94.
- [41] Brito-Zeron P, Ramos-Casals M, Bove A, et al. Predicting adverse outcomes in primary Sjogren's syndrome: identification of prognostic factors. Rheumatology 2007;46:1359–62.
- [42] Mariette X. Lymphomas complicating Sjogren's syndrome and hepatitis C virus infection may share a common pathogenesis: chronic stimulation of rheumatoid factor B cells. Ann Rheum Dis 2001;60: 1007–10.
- [43] Nocturne G, Virone A, Ng WF, et al. Rheumatoid factor and disease activity are independent predictors of lymphoma in primary Sjogren's Syndrome. Arthritis Rheumatol 2016;68:977–85.
- [44] Carubbi F, Alunno A, Cipriani P, et al. A retrospective, multicenter study evaluating the prognostic value of minor salivary gland histology in a large cohort of patients with primary Sjogren's syndrome. Lupus 2015;24:315–20.
- [45] Jordan R, Diss TC, Lench NJ, et al. Immunoglobulin gene rearrangements in lymphoplasmacytic infiltrates of labial salivary glands in Sjogren's syndrome. A possible predictor of lymphoma development. Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod 1995;79:723–9.
- [46] Hildebrand JM, Luo Z, Manske MK, et al. A BAFF-R mutation associated with non-Hodgkin lymphoma alters TRAF recruitment and reveals new insights into BAFF-R signaling. J Exp Med 2010;207: 2569–79.
- [47] Papageorgiou A, Mavragani CP, Nezos A, et al. A B-cell activating factor receptor (BAFF-R) His159Tyr mutation in Sjogren's Syndrome related lymphoproliferation. Arthritis Rheumatol 2015;67:2732–41.
- [48] Tobon GJ, Renaudineau Y, Hillion S, et al. The Fms-like tyrosine kinase 3 ligand, a mediator of B cell survival, is also a marker of lymphoma in primary Sjogren's syndrome. Arthritis Rheum 2010;62:3447–56.
- [49] Nocturne G, Seror R, Fogel O, et al. CXCL13 and CCL11 serum levels and lymphoma and disease activity in primary Sjogren's syndrome. Arthritis Rheumatol 2015;67:3226–33.