when environmental exposures can be reasonably estimated (e.g., Kuru, dural graft-associated CJD, and pituitary hormone-associated CJD), it is noteworthy that at least one case for each of these prion diseases has been observed within 10 years of an exposure. The present plan for evaluating transfusion transmission of CJD is to continue the current surveillance efforts and to continue to identify new recipients for at least another 5 years.

There could be a variety of reasons for not seeing a case of CJD in our recipient population. One of the most likely reasons is that CJD may not be transmitted by blood transfusion, unlike its variant counterpart. If the agent that causes CJD were present in human blood, its concentration might be too low to transmit an infection by the intravenous route. It is also possible that this study has not yet included enough donors and recipients to observe an infection or followed up on the study recipients long enough for them to have completed their incubation period.

The observation of zero cases of CJD among recipients in this study is consistent with the considerable additional data in the medical literature on the risk of transfusion transmission of human prion diseases that has recently been reviewed. In addition to the UK TMER study, we are aware of a German lookback investigation of one blood donor who died of CJD. The donor had 27 definite recipients and 8 probable recipients (total, 35). None of the deceased recipients died from dementia or neurologic causes. Of the 14 who were alive at publication, none exhibited signs of dementia; the longest period of follow-up was 21 years. In the longest period of follow-up was 21 years.

Through 2007, the proportion of vCJD cases among the long-term surviving recipients who received blood from a vCJD donor 60 months or less before onset of the donors' illness was 14 percent in the United Kingdom. In contrast, the present study identified no case of CJD among the 68 long-term surviving recipients of the blood components donated by the CJD donors within the 60-month period before their onset. In addition, the smaller UK study of blood components donated by CJD donors in the United Kingdom revealed no transfusion transmissions of CJD. Thus, the results of the present study in combination with the results from the TMER study in the United Kingdom strongly support the conclusion that the risk, if any, associated with receipt of blood components from CJD donors is significantly lower than that associated with receipt of blood components from vCJD donors.

The limitations of this study include the fact that 15 (42%) of the CJD donors enrolled in this study did not have their diagnosis confirmed neuropathologically. The CJD illness of each of these 15 donors was diagnosed by a neurologist and at least 11 of these donors had an electroencephalogram characteristic of CJD and/or a positive cerebrospinal fluid test for the neuron-specific enolase or

14-3-3 proteins. Nevertheless, it is possible that not all the recipients received blood from a true CJD donor.

Another limitation of this study is that we relied upon the US multiple cause of death data to identify CJD in recipients. The sensitivity of such data was assessed by a CDC study conducted in 1996, shortly after vCJD was first announced in the United Kingdom. Although this latter study did not allow for sufficient time for complete filing of all death records, it nevertheless found that the sensitivity of the death records compared to very active, alternative surveillance efforts was 86 percent. In addition to this study, Davanipour and colleagues found the false-positive rate of the death certificates to be 8.3 percent.

Assessment of risks of blood-borne transmission of diseases with potentially long latent periods is inherently limited by the poor survival of transfusion recipients. In the present study, for example, approximately 26 percent<sup>21</sup> of the recipients were alive 10 years after transfusion. Although this survival rate is low, it is consistent with another report of lookback investigations in which only 26 percent of the recipients had survived 10 or more years posttransfusion. Lookback investigations may be more inclined to have lower posttransfusion survival rates because they overrepresent recipients that receive multiple transfusions.22,23 This relatively low survival rate contributes to the limited statistical power of the present study despite its being the largest study of its kind reported to date to assess the risk of transfusion transmission of CJD. Further detection and enrollment of donor/ recipient clusters will continue to increase the power, and, if recipients remain free of CJD, will continue to provide the most direct evidence for the absence of CJD transmission by transfusion. Finally, another limitation encountered in this and other lookback investigations is the increasing difficulty in obtaining identifying information on all recipients. As hospital personnel have become more concerned about remaining in compliance with the federal medical privacy rule of the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA), our ability to obtain patient information has been reduced.

In addition to providing public health surveillance data on CJD and blood transfusions, our study provides important evidence demonstrating that compared to vCJD donors, CJD donors pose much less of a risk, if any, to blood safety. Precisely why this difference exists, however, is not fully understood, although clearly CJD and vCJD are different prion diseases. They are most prevalent in different age groups, their pathology and etiologic prion disease agents differ, and they are characterized by a different pattern and duration of clinical signs and symptoms. As pointed out by the authors of the TMER study, the observed increased lymphoreticular involvement in vCJD compared to CJD is consistent with an increased transfusion-transmissibility of vCJD. The Purther research may shed additional light on the pathophysiologic

mechanisms that account for the greater transfusion transmissibility of vCJD compared to CJD.

#### **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

The authors do not have any disclosures to list, nor do the authors have actual or apparent conflicts of interest. We thank the blood centers and hospitals that have collaborated with us to find the donors and recipients enrolled in our study. We thank the members of the CJD Foundation; the families of the donors; the staff members of the National Prion Disease Pathology Surveillance Center; Russell Cotton of the National Blood Data Resource Center; Fatemeh Musavi, Data Analyst, American Red Cross (ARC) Holland Laboratory; and Karen Fujii, the former ARC study coordinator, for their important contributions. Finally, we thank Peter Page, MD, Senior Medical Officer-Retired, ARC, for his inspiration and long-term support of this study.

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## 医薬品 研究報告 調査報告書

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販売名(企業名) アンスロビン P-ベーリング(CSL ベーリング 式会社)		·		transmission of Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease in a US surveillance study Transfusion 49 (5): p977-984 MAY 2009		公表国 米国	
問題点(米国調査研究:輸血による CJD 伝播のエビデンス欠如) 使用上							
報告企業の意見			今後の対応				
あり、また CJD の 準を設けて収集して 製造工程において異 理論的な vCJD 等の の際には患者への説	原料血漿は、ドイツ、米国、オ 家族歴、英国等の滞在期間等に いる。 常プリオンを低減し得るとの朝 宏播のリスクを完全には排除で 明を十分行い、治療上の必要性 書に記載し、注意喚起している	基づき供血停止基 最告があるものの、 きないので、投与 を十分検討の上投		こ関する情報収集に努め	る所存である。		



### TRANSFUSION COMPLICATIONS

# Lack of evidence of transfusion transmission of Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease in a US surveillance study

Kerri Dorsey, Shimian Zou, Lawrence B. Schonberger, Marian Sullivan, Debra Kessler, Edward Notari IV, Chyang T. Fang, and Roger Y. Dodd

BACKGROUND: Since 2004, several reported transfusion transmissions of variant Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease (vCJD) in the United Kingdom have reawakened concerns about the possible risk of similar transmissions of nonvariant or classic forms of CJD.

STUDY DESIGN AND METHODS: Patients with a CJD diagnosis and a history of donating blood were reported to the study coordinator. Through review of blood distribution and hospital records, the recipients of blood components from these donors were identified. We then determined each recipient's vital status and, if deceased, the cause(s) of death identified by matching the recipient's personal identifiers with the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's National Death Index database. We conducted such searches after recipients were enrolled in this study and annually thereafter for those who remained alive.

RESULTS: The study included a total of 36 blood donors who subsequently developed CJD and 436 recipients. Through 2006, 91 of these recipients were still alive, 329 were deceased, and 16 were lost to follow-up. After transfusion, these three groups had survived a total of 2096.0 person-years. A total of 144 recipients survived 5 years or longer after transfusion and 68 of them had received blood donated 60 or fewer months before the onset of CJD in the donor. We identified no recipient with CJD.

CONCLUSIONS: The current results of this large, ongoing lookback study show no evidence of transfusion transmission of CJD. They reinforce the conclusion that the risk, if any, of transfusion transmission of prion disease by CJD donors is significantly lower than the comparable risk of such transmission by vCJD donors.

ariant Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease (vCJD) and the nonvariant or classic forms of Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease (CJD) of humans belong to a group of transmissible, fatal degenerative neurologic diseases called transmissible spongiform encephalopathies (TSEs). These diseases are also called prion diseases because of the formation and accumulation of an abnormal form of the prion protein (PrPsc) that is hypothesized to play a central etiologic role in the disease process. TSEs affect both humans and animals (e.g., bovine spongiform encephalopathy [commonly known as mad cow disease] in cattle; scrapie in sheep and goats; and chronic wasting disease in deer, elk, and moose).

Prion diseases in humans have been reported to occur sporadically without an apparent environmental source, through an inherited genetic mutation, or iatrogenically. Cases of familial CJD have occurred due to a mutated prion protein gene (PRNP) located on chromosome 20. More than 30 different mutations of the PRNP

ABBREVIATIONS: NDI = National Death Index; TMER = Transfusion Medicine Epidemiological Review; TSE(s) = transmissible spongiform encephalopathy(-ies); vCJD = variant Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease.

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Received for publication September 22, 2008; revision received October 28, 2008; and accepted October 29, 2008.

doi: 10.1111/j.1537-2995.2008.02056.x

TRANSFUSION 2009;49:977-984.

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have been linked to familial human prion diseases. The most common familial CJD haplotypes are E200K-129M and D178N-129V.<sup>2</sup> Cases of iatrogenic CJD have been associated with exposures to contaminated neurosurgical equipment, human-derived pituitary growth hormone injections, cadaver-derived dura mater grafts, and corneal grafts.<sup>3</sup>

Surveillance of CJD in the United States has shown approximately one case annually per million people in the general population. Over many years, these rates have remained reasonably stable and the median age at death has consistently been approximately 68 years.<sup>4,5</sup>

Since the late 1980s, efforts have been made to minimize the potential risk of transfusion transmission of CJD, and in the 1990s the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) convened a TSE advisory committee, consisting of public interest advocates, ethicists, caregivers, and technical experts. Further, the FDA has issued a number of guidances for industry. These guidances attempt to balance the benefits of reducing the uncertain risks of prion disease transmission by blood products and the potential adverse impact that such preventive policies might have on product availability.<sup>6</sup>

Since 2004, transfusion transmission of the vCJD agent has been well documented. To date, the investigators conducting the UK Transfusion Medicine Epidemiological Review (TMER) study have linked three symptomatic cases of vCJD and one asymptomatic vCJD infection to receipt of blood transfusions from donors who subsequently developed vCJD (vCJD donor).78 One blood donor was linked to two of the vCJD transmissions through donations, 21 and 17 months before the donors' onset of vCID. These data suggest that once vCID infectivity appears in blood it probably persists there. In addition to increasing concerns about the transmissibility of vCJD, these transfusion transmissions reawakened concerns and interest in blood safety and CJD. Both vCJD and CJD are invariably fatal and are caused by similar unconventional agents that are unusually resistant to inactivation. Incubation periods for vCJD and iatrogenic CJD are measured in years; there is no practical, licensed screening test to identify those who may be incubating these diseases.9,10 Because CJD is far more common than vCJD, CJD might potentially affect even more recipients if, in fact, CJD were transmitted by blood transfusion.11,12

Surveillance and epidemiologic studies have provided the most reassuring data about blood safety and CJD, although very little long-term lookback data on donations from CJD donors have been reported. 6,13,14 Surveillance of high-exposure recipients, such as persons with hemophilia, and case-control studies show no evidence for transfusion transmission of CJD in humans. 15-17 In contrast, animal models have demonstrated that prion diseases can be transmitted by blood, a finding that aggravates concern about blood safety and CJD. 18,19 For

example, studies comparing the infectivity in murine models of vCJD and Gerstmann-Straussler-Scheinker disease, a genetically inherited, classic (not bovine spongiform encephalopathy related) form of prion disease, revealed similarly low levels of infectivity in blood components during both the preclinical and the clinical phases of disease. <sup>19</sup>

In late 1994, a report of CJD in an American Red Cross 10-gallon donor heightened public health concerns in the United States about the possible transfusion transmission risk of CJD. Because of these concerns, in 1995 the Red Cross in collaboration with the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) initiated a long-term lookback investigation of blood donors who were later diagnosed with CJD (CJD donors). The purpose of this collaborative study was to provide further epidemiologic data to assess the recurring concerns about the possibility of CJD transmission by blood transfusion. This article reports on the follow-up of the recipients of blood products from reported CJD donors. This study is the largest of its kind reported to date in terms of the number of such recipients identified and the period of time that they were documented to have survived after transfusion.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### CJD patients with a history of blood donation

The study coordinator identified CJD blood donors from reports provided by collaborating blood centers, family members, the CDC, and the FDA. Through searches of blood establishment records on donations made by the CJD donor and with the cooperation of hospitals, we identified recipients of the CJD donors' blood components.

Criteria for inclusion of a CJD donor in the study included a diagnosis of CJD made by a neurologist (and preferably confirmed by neuropathologic study of brain tissue at autopsy or biopsy) and a history of at least one documented allogeneic blood donation. (Autologous and therapeutic donations were not included.) We collected results of available diagnostic laboratory tests, cerebrospinal fluid studies, and electroencephalograms on the reported CJD donors. We notified the blood centers about the CJD donors and requested that each center review its records for each of the CJD donor's donations to identify the recipients of each donor's labile blood components. A CJD donor was entered in the study when at least one of these recipients was identified and could be documented to have survived for at least 1 day after receiving the blood components.

# Recipients of blood products from donors who developed CJD

We requested that the transfusion service personnel send us information on each recipient of blood from a CJD

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donor. This information included the recipient's name and social security number; data on the transfusion of concern, including date of transfusion and the volume and type of components transfused; and data on the last known vital status of the patient, including the date and cause of death if a recipient was deceased. The institutional review boards of the CDC and the Red Cross approved this protocol. No study-related recipient notification was required by the institutional review boards because of the absence of: 1) compelling evidence of transfusion transmission of CJD in humans, 2) any practical licensed test for preclinical CJD, and 3) any established treatment to prevent or cure CJD.

#### Follow-up of the recipients

For recipients for whom we had identifiers, we determined each recipient's vital status and cause(s) of death, if deceased, through searching the CDC's National Death Index (NDI) database (National Center for Health Statistics, Hyattsville, MD). We conducted such searches after a recipient was entered in this study and annually thereafter for those who remained alive. Whenever a match between the recipient's personal identifiers and the NDI database occurred, the NDI provided us with the date and codes for the cause(s) of death. The NDI database contains up to 20 codes describing the multiple causes of death. All codes describing the cause of death (underlying and additional contributing causes) were reviewed and recorded. When a code for a neurologic death was identified, the death certificate itself was obtained for review primarily to verify that CJD or some other mention of a prion disease was not listed on the certificate and possibly miscoded. In addition to enabling this verification, the death certificate may provide information on the duration of the illness and whether an autopsy was performed. Codes that triggered a request of the death certificate for a further review are listed in Table 1. The information received from NDI has an 18- to 24-month lag (e.g., the 2006 death index data first became available in 2008) because the vital statistics information is first compiled and coded by the states in which the death occurs, after which it is sent to NDL

In addition to cross-matching recipient data with the NDI database, we annually queried AutotrackXP (Choicepoint, Inc., Boca Raton, FL) databases. AutotrackXP is a database that provides personal data sourced from multiple public and private databases. They enabled us to confirm the last known state of residence and the survival status of the recipients (e.g., a report of recent activity would indicate that the recipient was alive). For new recipients, we also used the Choicepoint databases to verify the recipients' names and social security numbers. Loss to follow-up occurred when a hospital did not provide us with identifying information for the recipient, but did provide us with the most recent health and vital

status available (e.g., patient was alive and healthy at last visit, date of visit).

#### Statistical analysis

We analyzed the data in terms of the number of recipients of CJD donor blood components multiplied by each recipient's period in years of survival after the date of transfusion. Because the date of each donation was not collected, we used the transfusion date as a surrogate for it when determining the interval from the donation to onset of CJD in the donor. In the few situations where only the month and year were provided, the date was set as the 15th of the month and if only the year was provided the month and day was set to the middle of the year (July 1). Thus, this interval in months was calculated by determining the number of days between the date of onset of the CJD in the donor minus the date of transfusion in the recipient, dividing by 365 and multiplying by 12. This information, in turn, was categorized into seven groups: less than or equal to 12, 13 to 24, 25 to 36, 37 to 48, 49 to 60, 61 to 72, and 73 months and greater.

For recipients, their survival time was calculated by the interval between the date of transfusion and the last known date the recipient was alive or, if the recipient was known to be deceased, the interval between the date of transfusion and the date of death. Person-years were also determined for selected groups of recipients with different lengths of posttransfusion survival, such as recipients who had survived 5 or more years after transfusion ("long-term survivors").

We used Fisher's exact test to assess the difference in risk of blood transfusion transmission of CJD and vCJD among recipients who survived 5 years or longer after transfusion and received blood from a donor whose last donation occurred within 60 months of the onset of symptoms (donation-to-onset interval). The data on CJD were derived from the present study and the data on vCJD from the UK TMER study. In the UK study, the three identified clinical cases of vCJD occurred among 21 recipients known to have survived 5 years or longer and whose donors had an onset-to-donation interval of 60 months or less (R.G. Will, personal communication, 2008).

#### RESULTS

#### Study donors

Forty-three blood donors who were subsequently diagnosed with CJD were reported for possible inclusion in this study. Of these 43, 7 were not included due to lack of response from the blood centers, absence of donations on file, or incomplete recipient records.

The CJD illness of all 36 identified study donors was diagnosed by a neurologist, and 58 percent (21/36) of

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