Are the Symptoms of Cancer and Cancer Treatment due to a Shared Biologic Mechanism?

A Cytokine-Immunologic Model of Cancer Symptoms

Charles S. Cleeland, Ph.D. (Workshop Chair)¹ Gary J. Bennett, Ph.D.² Robert Dantzer, D.V.M., Ph.D.³ Patrick M. Dougherty, Ph.D.¹ Adrian J. Dunn, Ph.D.⁴ Christina A. Meyers, Ph.D.⁵ Andrew H. Miller, M.D.⁶ Richard Payne, M.D.⁷ James M. Reuben, Ph.D.⁸ Xin Shelley Wang, M.D.¹ Bang-Ning Lee, Ph.D.⁸

Supported by an unrestricted educational grant from Amgen, Inc., Thousand Oaks, California.

The authors thank Jeanie F. Woodruff (Department of Symptom Research, The University of Texas M. D. Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, TX) for editorial support.

The authors are members of a working group on cytokines and cancer symptoms. Dr. Cleeland is

BACKGROUND. Cancers and cancer treatments produce multiple symptoms that collectively cause a symptom burden for patients. These symptoms include pain, wasting, fatigue, cognitive impairment, anxiety, and depression, many of which co-occur. There is growing recognition that at least some of these symptoms may share common biologic mechanisms.

METHODS. In November 2001, basic and clinical scientists met to consider evidence for a cytokine-immunologic model of symptom expression along with directions for future research.

RESULTS. The characteristics of cytokine-induced sickness behavior in animal models have much in common with those of symptomatic cancer patients. Sickness behavior refers to a set of physiologic and behavioral responses observed in animals after the administration of infectious or inflammatory agents or certain proinflammatory cytokines. In some cases, these responses can be prevented by cytokine antagonists. A combination of animal and human research suggests that several cancer-related symptoms may involve the actions of proinflammatory cytokines.

CONCLUSIONS. Based on the similarities between cancer symptoms and sickness behavior, the authors discussed approaches to further test the implications of the relationship between inflammatory cytokines and symptoms for both symptom treatment and symptom prevention. *Cancer* 2003;97:2919–25.

© 2003 American Cancer Society. DOI 10.1002/cncr.11382

KEYWORDS: symptoms, cancer, cytokines, neuroimmunology, sickness behavior.

ancer patients may suffer from numerous symptoms resulting from the primary disease and/or from the treatment of disease. Collectively, these sources of distress impose a symptom burden on the patient that is the subjective counterpart of the tumor burden caused by the disease. These symptoms are categorized under terminologies such as pain, gastrointestinal symptoms (e.g., nausea, diarrhea), wasting/cachexia, fatigue, cognitive impairments, anxiety, and depression. Symptoms can cause treatment delays or lead to premature treatment termination, may impair function and rehabilitation, and cause significant distress. 2,3

the workshop chair. Workshop rapporteurs include Keith E. Langley, Ph.D. (Medical Writing Department, Amgen Inc., Thousand Oaks, CA).

Address for reprints: Charles S. Cleeland, Ph.D., Department of Symptom Research, The University of Texas

M. D. Anderson Cancer Center, P.O. Box 221,1100 Holcombe Boulevard, Houston, TX 77030; Fax: (713) 745-3475; E-mail: ccleeland@mdanderson.org

Received November 12, 2002; accepted February 17, 2003.

¹ Department of Symptom Research, The University of Texas M. D. Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, Texas.

² Department of Anesthesia, McGill University, Montreal, Quebec, Canada.

³ Laboratory of Integrative Neurobiology, National Institute for Health and Medical Research (INSERM), Bordeaux, France.

⁴ Department of Pharmacology, Louisiana State University Medical School, Shreveport, Louisiana.

Department of Neuro-Oncology, The University of Texas M. D. Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, Texas.

⁶ Department of Psychiatry, Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia.

⁷ Department of Neurology, Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center, New York, New York.

⁸ Department of Hematopathology, The University of Texas M. D. Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, Texas

There is growing awareness that common biologic mechanisms may underlie or contribute to at least some of those symptoms simultaneously.^{3,4} This is exemplified in the animal models of sickness behavior, which have symptoms in common with those of cancer patients. Sickness behavior refers to a constellation of physiologic and behavioral responses observed in animals after the administration of inflammatory agents or specific proinflammatory cytokines.⁵⁻⁹ Because of the apparent connection between symptoms and biologic mechanisms, careful description of cancer-related symptoms and correlation of these symptoms with clinical laboratory data, coupled with preclinical research studies, is an important area for future programmatic research. A working group on cytokines and cancer-related symptoms met in November 2001 to discuss a unifying biologic/physiologic framework that could provide direction and coordination for future descriptive, laboratory, and clinical research pertaining to understanding cancer-related symptoms and identifying new symptom treatment strategies.

Current Status of Clinical Symptom Description

The symptoms of cancers and their treatments have been studied in some detail. Numerous clinical tools, including numeric rating scales, visual analog scales, and verbal descriptive scales, have been used to assess and measure symptoms. Most symptoms are identified and their severity judged by the subjective reports of the patient, although some symptoms (such as cognitive impairment) must be identified by performance measures. Observational data often amplify and supplement subjective reports. The measurement of symptoms and the development of symptom assessment tools have matured to the point where credible descriptive and epidemiologic clinical studies of symptoms can be performed.

In an overall sense, however, the clinical studies of cancer symptoms have a number of shortcomings. Symptoms, as described and "labeled," often are assessed and treated as separate and mutually exclusive entities (for instance, pain, fatigue, and depression). Often, symptoms are evaluated and reported without stratifying for heterogeneity with respect to disease type, disease treatment, and response to disease treatment. Durations of symptoms may be days, months, or years, but assessments often are performed cross-sectionally rather than longitudinally.

When symptoms are grouped, the grouping often is done intuitively rather than empirically. Physical symptoms (pain, nausea, diarrhea, fatigue, wasting/cachexia) commonly are dissociated from cognitive symptoms (poor problem solving, memory, attention) and affective symptoms (anxiety and depression). However, based on observed associations, plausible relationships among

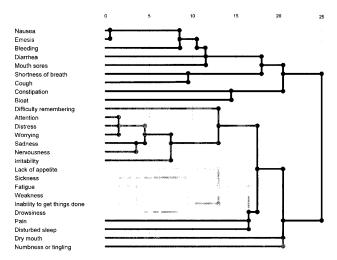


FIGURE 1. Relative distance among symptoms associated with cancer and cancer treatment.2 This diagram shows the results of a cluster analysis of the responses of 527 outpatients undergoing cancer therapy, as well as the symptoms that occur either together or independently. We used hierarchical cluster analysis to identify clustering of symptom items. Clusters were formed using the average linkage (centroid method) between symptom items and the distances between symptom items were calculated using squared Euclidian distances. This visual representation shows the symptom items that are related (connected vertical lines) and the distances between symptom items at each step in the analysis. The distance values of 0 to 25 represent relative distances. Reading from left to right, the data show a tight relationship between clusters of cognitive and affective symptoms. Symptoms that cluster earlier in the analysis (toward the left side) are identified by patients as occurring together. For example, the fatigue-related symptom cluster is associated more closely with affective disturbances and cognitive impairment than with the gastrointestinal and respiratory symptom clusters. Conversely, pain and sleep disturbances remain separate from other symptoms for several steps in the analysis, indicating that they are identified independently. The same is true for dry mouth and numbness. Cancer. 2000;89: 1634-1646. ©2000 American Cancer Society. Reprinted by permission of Wiley-Liss, Inc., a subsidiary of John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

these symptoms are more complicated. Figure 1 diagrams the relative distances and relations between major symptoms reported by patients receiving cancer treatment.² This analysis demonstrates a tight correlation between clusters of cognitive and affective symptoms. Other clusters include gastrointestinal symptoms, respiratory symptoms, and fatigue-related symptoms. The fatigue-related symptom cluster is associated more closely with affective disturbances and cognitive impairment than with gastrointestinal and respiratory symptoms. Pain and sleep disturbance are identified relatively independently of other symptoms.

The analysis in Figure 1 is presented as preliminary and illustrative, rather than definitive. It is not stratified for the type of cancer or the type of treatment. However, the clustering of symptoms raises the possibility that a given cluster may share underlying biologic mechanisms that differ from those of other clusters.

Associations between symptoms may also be apparent on the basis of temporal (longitudinal) analyses and on the basis of responses to treatment for the cancer or to treatment for the symptoms. For example, in a study of melanoma patients treated with interferon- α (IFN- α) as immunotherapy, ¹⁰ symptoms were assessed over a 12-week period. Pain, gastrointestinal symptoms, wasting, and fatigue began earlier (within 2 weeks), whereas cognitive impairment and depression began later. Because of the symptoms anticipated with IFN- α treatment (particularly depression), patients were randomized to receive paroxetine (a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor-type antidepressant) or placebo, starting 2 weeks before IFN- α . All symptoms were ameliorated by paroxetine, but the amelioration was more evident for pain, cognitive impairment, and depression than for gastrointestinal symptoms, wasting, and fatigue.

As another example of the complexities of symptom assessment, cognitive function studies performed on untreated cancer patients suggest the subclustering of impairments as follows: memory, motor dexterity, and executive functions (frontal subcortical components) were impaired concurrently, whereas attention and psychomotor speed were not;¹¹ working memory (ability to process information and do multiple tasks) often was impaired, whereas hippocampal components of memory (retention and consolidation) were not.¹²

Descriptive studies of the symptoms of cancer patients are far from comprehensive, but are consistent with the hypothesis that symptoms may have natural associations with each other that reflect the underlying mechanisms. There is a need to explore symptom associations more systematically and to design and coordinate clinical studies so as to better understand possible common mechanisms for symptoms that form clusters.

Preclinical Evidence Consistent with Roles for Cytokines in Symptom Production

Sickness behavior can be elicited in animal models by bacterial infections and by administration of pathologic components of bacteria such as lipopolysaccharides (LPS). Physiologic components of sickness behavior include acute-phase responses (fever, systemic depletion of minerals), pain (hyperalgesia), wasting, and increased activity of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis and autonomic nervous system.⁶ Behavioral components include a general decrease in activity, somnolence, cognitive impairment (impaired learning), decreased social interaction and exploration, decreased sexual activity, and decreased eating.¹³ Sickness behavior in animals includes many similarities to some of these cancer-related symptoms.

Sickness behavior requires immune-to-brain

communication that orchestrates this array of responses. 6,8,9 The binding of LPS to macrophages initiates a cascade of proinflammatory cytokine release and activates other immune cells, including lymphocytes and neutrophils. The responses characteristic of sickness behavior can be elicited by systemic administration of proinflammatory cytokines including interleukin (IL)-1, tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α), IFN- α , and IL-2, administered subcutaneously, intravenously, or intraperitoneally.^{5-9,14-21} In some cases, cytokine antagonists can prevent some components of sickness behavior. For example, the LPS-induced inflammatory cascade leading to pain and other symptoms can be attenuated by antagonists of the IL-1 and TNF- α receptors.^{8,9,15,20–22} Peripheral cytokines may elicit symptoms by multiple pathways. 6,8,9,23,24 The rapid pathway involves cytokine actions at primary afferent neurons of peripheral nerves, such as the vagus, that innervate sites of infection and immune responses, including the abdominal cavity. The cytokine actions may include directly producing discharge of nerve fibers.^{25–27} The slow pathway starts with cytokine production by macrophages that can act on the circumventricular organs (CVOs) and choroid plexus surrounding brain ventricles. These regions have no blood-brain barrier. Interleukin-1, which enters or is produced in CVOs, may act via IL-1 receptors in the area postrema, the median eminence, and the organum vasculosum laminae terminalis, to trigger signaling cascades.

Proinflammatory cytokines play a central role in preclinical models that focus more specifically on the symptom of peripheral neuropathic pain/hyperalgesia (hypersensitivity to cutaneous stimuli). In the rat chronic constriction injury (CCI) model, structural damage to peripheral axons leads to an inflammatory reaction at the site of injury and to neuropathic pain.²⁸⁻³⁰ In another rat model (peripheral neuritis), the sciatic nerve is exposed at the mid-thigh level and coated with an immune stimulant such as carrageenan or complete Freund's adjuvant.31 Inflammatory cells (macrophages, neutrophils, and CD4+ and CD8+ T cells) infiltrate the site, levels of inflammatory cytokines (IL-1, leukemia inhibitory factor, and particularly TNF- α) increase, and endoneural swelling and neuropathic pain ensue. The inflammatory cascade leading to pain can be blocked by thalidomide (presumed to block TNF- α) in the case of the CCI model and by thalidomide or cyclosporin A (an immunosuppressant drug) in the case of the neuritis model.^{29,30,32,33}

Experimental animals, like humans, develop peripheral neuropathic pain following treatment with the chemotherapeutic agents vinca alkaloids, taxanes, and cisplatin.^{34–37} In both humans³⁸ and animals,³⁹ exposure to gamma irradiation also often produces

neuropathic pain-like syndromes and insensitivity to the analgesic properties of morphine. Peripheral neuropathy could be due, at least in part, to the induction of proinflammatory cytokines around nerve endings. For example, production by immune cells and/or cancer cells of the proinflammatory cytokines IL-1, IFN- α , and TNF- α can be increased by exposure to paclitaxel, 40,41 cisplatin, 42,43 or irradiation. 44,45

Clinical Evidence Consistent with Roles for Cytokines in Symptom Production

The hypothesis that cytokines may play a mechanistic role in cancer-related symptoms is consistent with various clinical observations. Noncancer patients who received cytokine therapy displayed many of the symptoms that are observed in cancer patients. For example, patients with hepatitis C virus infection and those with the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) who received IFN- α therapy endured symptoms of pain, fatigue, cognitive impairment, psychosis, and depression. 46-48 A similar symptom profile was observed among patients with renal cell carcinoma, chronic myelogenous leukemia, melanoma, all of whom received IFN- α , IL-2, or IFN- α plus IL-2.10,49-54 Concurrent administration of oral dexamethasone (an immunosuppressant) and high-dose IFN- α significantly reduced the occurrence of influenza-like symptoms and fatigue in patients with advanced renal cell carcinoma. 49 Interleukin-6 induced fatigue, inactivity, and poor concentration when administered to normal subjects.55

Neuropathic pain is a frequent complication of chemotherapy with vinca alkaloids, taxanes, and cisplatin and often persists long after treatment has ended.⁵⁶ Psychophysical studies of chemotherapy-induced neuropathic pain demonstrated multiple zones of sensory disturbance^{57,58} similar to those observed in cancer and noncancer patients experiencing pain after cytokine therapy.^{46,47}

Preliminary clinical studies of patients with myelodysplastic syndrome and acute leukemia before treatment revealed correlations between the more severe symptoms (fatigue, cognitive impairment, and reduced quality of life) and increased levels of cytokines (IL-1 receptor antagonist, TNF- α , IL-6, IL-8, and epidermal growth factor).¹² Other preliminary evidence suggested that fatigue is associated with elevations in such proinflammatory cytokines as IL-1, IL-6, TNF- α , and IFNs.⁵⁴

Cell types that are potential sources of cytokines and other immunoregulatory factors in cancer patients include the cancer cells themselves, ⁴¹ immune cells (neutrophils, macrophages, lymphocytes), ^{8,9,40,42–45} and nervous system cells (paraganglial cells, glial cells

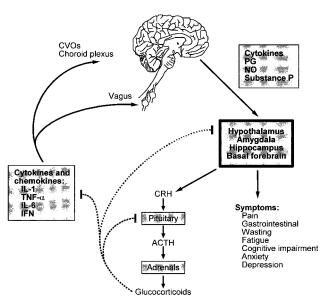


FIGURE 2. Biologic/physiologic mechanistic framework for cytokine-induced sickness behavior. 9 In the afferent arm (solid lines), proinflammatory cytokines and chemokines (interleukin [IL]-1, tumor necrosis factor [TNF]- α , IL-6, interferon [IFN[- α , and IFN- γ) are released in the periphery by activated immunocytes. They exert their effects on peripheral nerves and directly on the brain to induce various aspects of the sickness response. These behavioral/physiologic changes are elicited by mediators acting downstream from the cytokines. Glutamate, nitric oxide, prostaglandins, and substance P act on brain regions, including the paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus and the amygdala. 6,8 Turnover of monoamines (serotonin, dopamine, norepinephrine) in these brain regions is affected. 19,61-63 Availability of monoamine precursors (e.g., tryptophan) may be decreased. 9,64,65 The hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis is activated, 15,19,61,62,66,67 with up-regulation of the plasma concentrations of corticosteroids, which in turn can provide feedback (dotted lines) to limit cytokine production.⁶⁸ Other mediators, such as the antiinflammatory cytokine IL-10,54,64 also have roles in activation and regulation of responses. ACTH: adrenocorticotropic hormone; CRH: corticotropin-releasing hormone; CVO: circumventricular organ; NO: nitric oxide; PG: prostaglandin.

[astrocytes, oligodendrocytes, microglia], and Schwann cells). 6,8,59,60

Working Group Conclusions and Future Directions

Animal models and clinical evidence suggest that many of the symptoms experienced by cancer patients may be mediated by cytokines acting on the peripheral and central nervous systems. Figure 2 shows a biologic/physiologic mechanistic framework for cytokine-induced sickness behavior and cancer symptoms. Many of the components of this framework are relatively unsubstantiated (e.g., suggested by correlation only). Consequently, strategies that combine basic science and clinical research approaches are needed. If aggressively and systematically pursued, these strategies could lead to substantiation and/or

modification of the framework and could yield new approaches to symptom treatment.

Clinical research would begin with large-scale descriptive studies with symptomatic cancer patients. Studies would assess simultaneously several symptoms that are most distressing to patients (pain, wasting/cachexia, fatigue, cognitive impairment, and depression). Assessments should be repeated over time so that changes in symptom severity and patterns related to disease status, treatment status, and intercurrent system disorders can be identified. Data regarding potential biologic markers of symptom mechanism should be collected simultaneously. Such biologic markers could include circulating concentrations of cytokines, acute-phase proteins, hormones of the HPA axis, and tryptophan.

Cognitive and affective assessments, symptom reporting tools, and measures of potentially correlated biologic variables should be standardized across study sites to enable the establishment of a large database that might yield common patterns. Multivariate descriptive analysis would help to identify patterns of co-occurring symptoms and correlations with biologic markers that may suggest common biologic mechanisms. Novel covariates, such as gene expression profiling by microarray analyses, might be able to identify relevant molecules. Biologic/mechanistic analyses can be extended to the cellular level to investigate the role(s) of particular cell types responsible for the production of mediators. Involved immune cells can also be studied in vitro and the relevant factors (e.g., tumor antigens, cytokines) that might affect their involvement can be examined directly.

Clinical studies may be undertaken to evaluate therapeutic interventions for ameliorating symptoms and to probe simultaneously mechanistic pathways. Such clinical studies could address systematically the various steps involved in the translation of cytokine signals to alterations in behavior. As noted in Figure 3, there are several potential targets for intervention. Novel interventions that target cytokines and other potential mediators (especially interventions for which the mechanisms of action are understood and can be monitored. A review of potential treatment strategies (Fig. 3) will help to refine and test the framework presented in Figure 2, especially if applied along with behavioral and biologic/mechanistic assessments in a broad-based, coordinated fashion.

It may become possible to apply new and existing medications to immunologic and neurobiologic targets, rather than to specific symptoms. Therapeutic interventions that target cytokines and their receptors are highly promising candidates for suppressing and perhaps even protecting against the development of cancer-related symptoms. Challenges to developing

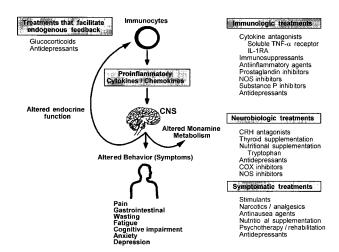


FIGURE 3. Treatment strategies for cancer-related symptoms. The center flow diagram is a modification of the sickness response illustrated in more detail in Figure 2. Sites for the implementation of treatments directed at the sickness response circuit are shown. (1) Immunologic treatments (such as soluble receptors of TNF- α and IL-1 receptor antagonists) that are designed to inhibit cytokine signaling directly, or treatments that block downstream mediators of inflammation, including prostaglandins, nitric oxide, and substance P; (2) neurobiologic treatments that target central nervous system (CNS) mediators of behavioral alterations including the monoamines and corticotropinreleasing hormone (CRH); (3) symptomatic treatments (such as narcotics for alleviation of pain, stimulants to combat fatigue, antidepressants for relief from depression) that address the ultimate manifestations of upstream mediators; and (4) treatments designed to take advantage of the normal endogenous feedback circuits that limit sickness responses in settings such as viral illness. CNS: central nervous system; CRH: corticotropin-releasing hormone; COX: cyclooxygenase; NOS: nitric oxide synthase. Figure after A. H. Miller.

such therapies will include ensuring that the therapies do not exacerbate the cancer by weakening the patients' immunologic surveillance for cancer cells and that they do not increase the likelihood of problematic infections.

Basic science studies using established animal models of cancer and cancer-related symptoms will continue. Currently, animal models for pain are the best-developed and most useful for generating and testing hypotheses because mechanisms are more physiologically defined and behaviorally measurable for pain than for other symptoms. These studies are already progressing toward defining the cellular and molecular mechanisms by which immune activation or chemotherapy induces hyperalgesia in rodents.

The animal models of sickness behavior are fairly mature and will provide useful tools for addressing cancer symptoms. However, additional animal models of wasting/cachexia, fatigue, and cognitive impairment are needed. Current models labeled as representative of these symptoms may not correspond very well operationally or behaviorally to human symp-

toms. For example, human cognitive impairment often involves working memory rather than retentive/consolidative memory, but the rodent memory models commonly used may not actually test working memory. Animal models representative of fatigue are particularly lacking⁴ and require careful attention to distinguish motivational deficits from fatigue. Expert panels composed of clinical and basic scientists could help to specify the operational definitions of components of human cancer symptoms and could propose component animal behaviors that might parallel these definitions.

The evolution of animal models of sickness behavior that parallel symptom expression in cancer patients, coupled with an increased understanding of the correlates and patterns of the expression of these symptoms, suggests that such symptoms are produced by common biologic mechanisms. The available evidence is consistent with the hypothesis that alterations in cytokines and other neuroimmunologic processes may be critical to both symptom production and, potentially, symptom treatment and prevention. Continued testing of this hypothesis and exploiting the leads that might arise will require a high level of integration of clinical and basic science efforts.

REFERENCES

- Cleeland CS, Mendoza TR, Wang XS, et al. Assessing symptom distress in cancer: The M. D. Anderson symptom inventory. *Cancer*. 2000;89:1634–1646.
- Cleeland CS. Cancer-related symptoms. Semin Radiat Oncol. 2000;10:175–190.
- Cleeland CS. Cancer-related fatigue: new directions for research. Cancer. 2001;92 (Suppl):1657–1661.
- Gutstein HB. The biologic basis of fatigue. Cancer. 2000;92 (Suppl):1678–1683.
- Watkins LR, Maier SF, Goehler LE. Immune activation: the role of pro-inflammatory cytokines in inflammation, illness responses and pathological pain. *Pain*. 1995;63:289–302.
- Watkins LR, Maier SF. The pain of being sick: implications of immune-to-brain communication for understanding pain. *Annu Rev Psychol.* 2000;51:29–57.
- 7. Dantzer R, Bluthe RM, Gheusi G, et al. Molecular basis of sickness behavior. *Ann N Y Acad Sci.* 1998;856:132–138.
- 8. Dantzer R. Cytokine-induced sickness behavior: where do we stand? *Brain Behav Immun*. 2001;15:7–24.
- Konsman JP, Parnet P, Dantzer R. Cytokine-induced sickness behaviour: mechanisms and implications. *Trends Neu*rosci. 2002;25:154–159.
- Capuron L, Gumnick JF, Musselman DL, et al. Neurobehavioral effects of interferon-alpha in cancer patients: phenomenology and paroxetine responsiveness of symptom dimensions. Neuropsychopharmacology. 2002;26:643–652.
- Meyers CA, Byrne KS, Komaki R. Cognitive deficits in patients with small cell lung cancer before and after chemotherapy. *Lung Cancer*. 1995;12:231–235.
- Meyers CA, Seabrooke LF, Albitar M, Estey E. Association of cancer-related symptoms with physiological parameters: a case report [letter to the editor]. *J Pain Symptom Management*. In press.

- 13. Yirmiya R. Endotoxin produces a depressive-like episode in rats. *Brain Res.* 1996;711:163–174.
- 14. Swiergiel AH, Smagin GN, Dunn AJ. Influenza virus infection of mice induces anorexia: comparison with endotoxin and interleukin-1 and the effects of indomethacin. *Pharmacol Biochem Behav.* 1997;57:389–396.
- Swiergiel AH, Dunn AJ. The roles of IL-1, IL-6 and TNFa in the feeding responses to endotoxin and influenza virus infection in mice. *Brain Behav Immun*. 1999;13:252–265.
- Larson SJ, Dunn AJ. Behavioral effects of cytokines. Brain Behav Immun. 2001;15:371–387.
- Bluthe RM, Pawlowski M, Suarez S, et al. Synergy between tumor necrosis factor alpha and interleukin-1 in the induction of sickness behavior in mice. *Psychoneuroendocrinol*ogy. 1994;19:197–207.
- Swiergiel AH, Smagin GN, Johnson LJ, Dunn AJ. The role of cytokines in the behavioral responses to endotoxin and influenza virus infection in mice: effects of acute and chronic administration of the interleukin-1-receptor antagonist (IL-1ra). *Brain Res.* 1997;776:96–104.
- Anisman H, Merali Z. Anhedonic and anxiogenic effects of cytokine exposure. Adv Exp Med Biol. 1999;461:199–233.
- Cunha JM, Cunha FQ, Poole S, Ferreira SH. Cytokinemediated inflammatory hyperalgesia limited by interleukin-1 receptor antagonist. *Br J Pharmacol*. 2000;130:1418– 1424.
- Bluthe RM, Laye S, Michaud B, Combe C, Dantzer R, Parnet P. Role of interleukin-1beta and tumour necrosis factor-alpha in lipopolysaccharide-induced sickness behaviour: a study with interleukin-1 type I receptor-deficient mice. *Eur J Neurosci.* 2000;12:4447–4456.

970142, 2003, 11, Downloaded from https://acsjournals.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/cncr.11882, Wiley Online Library on [08/12/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/emrs-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons. Licensea

- 22. Maier SF, Wiertelak EP, Martin D, Watkins LR. Interleukin-1 mediates the behavioral hyperalgesia produced by lithium chloride and endotoxin. *Brain Res.* 1993;23:321–324.
- Dunn AJ. Mechanisms by which cytokines signal the brain. Int Rev Neurobiol. 2002;52:43–65.
- 24. Maier SF, Goehler LE, Fleshner M, Watkins LR. The role of the vagus nerve in cytokine-to-brain communication. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 1998;840:289–300.
- Ek M, Kurosawa M, Lundeberg T, Ericsson A. Activation of vagal afferents after intravenous injection of interleukin-1beta: role of endogenous prostaglandins. *J Neurosci.* 1998; 18:9471–9479.
- Sorkin LS, Doom CM. Epineurial application of TNF elicits an acute mechanical hyperalgesia in the awake rat. *J Peripher Nerv Syst.* 2000;5:96–100.
- Oh SB, Tran PB, Gillard SE, Hurley RW, Hammond DL, Miller RJ. Chemokines and glycoprotein120 produce pain hypersensitivity by directly exciting primary nociceptive neurons. *J Neurosci.* 2001;21:5027–5035.
- 28. Bennett GJ, Xie YK. A peripheral mononeuropathy in rat that produces disorders of pain sensation like those seen in man. *Pain.* 1988;33:87–107.
- 29. Bennett GJ. Does a neuroimmune interaction contribute to the genesis of painful peripheral neuropathies? *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1999;96:7737–7738.
- Bennett GJ. A neuroimmune interaction in painful peripheral neuropathy. Clin J Pain. 2000;16:s139–s143.
- Eliav E, Herzberg U, Ruda MA, Bennett GJ. Neuropathic pain from an experimental neuritis of the rat sciatic nerve. *Pain*. 1999;83:169–182.
- Sommer C, Marziniak M, Myers RR. The effect of thalidomide treatment on vascular pathology and hyperalgesia caused by chronic constriction injury of rat nerve. *Pain*. 1998;74:83–91.

- 33. George A, Marziniak M, Schafers M, Toyka KV, Sommer C. Thalidomide treatment in chronic constrictive neuropathy decreases endoneurial tumor necrosis factor-alpha, increases interleukin-10 and has long-term effects on spinal cord dorsal horn met-enkephalin. *Pain*. 2000;88:267–275.
- 34. Authier N, Fialip J, Eschalier A, Coudore F. Assessment of allodynia and hyperalgesia after cisplatin administration to rats. *Neurosci Lett.* 2000;291:73–76.
- Cavaletti G, Tredici G, Braga M, Tazzari S. Experimental peripheral neuropathy induced in adult rats by repeated intraperitoneal administration of taxol. *Exp Neurol*. 1995;133:64–72.
- Polomano RC, Mannes AJ, Clark US, Bennett GJ. A painful peripheral neuropathy in the rat produced by the chemotherapeutic drug, paclitaxel. *Pain*. 2001;3:293–304.
- 37. Aley KO, Reichling DB, Levine JD. Vincristine hyperalgesia in the rat: a model of painful vincristine neuropathy in humans. *Neuroscience*. 1996;73:259–265.
- Gale RP. Immediate medical consequences of nuclear accidents. Lessons from Chernobyl. *JAMA*. 1987;258:625–628.
- Dougherty PM, Aronowski J, Samorajski T, Dafny N. Opiate antinociception is altered by immunemodification: the effect of interferon, cyclosporine and radiation-induced immunesuppression upon acute and long-term morphine activity. *Brain Res.* 1986;385:401–404.
- O'Brien JM Jr., Wewers MD, Moore SA, Allen JN. Taxol and colchicine increase LPS-induced pro-IL-1 beta production, but do not increase IL-1 beta secretion. A role for microtubules in the regulation of IL-1 beta production. *J Immunol*. 1995;154:4113–4122.
- 41. Zaks-Zilberman M, Zaks TZ, Vogal SN. Induction of proinflammatory and chemokine genes by lipopolysaccharide and paclitaxel (Taxol) in murine and human breast cancer cell lines. *Cytokine*. 2001;15:156–165.
- Basu S, Sodhi A. Increased release of interleukin-1 and tumor necrosis factor by interleukin-2-induced lymphokineactivated killer cells in the presence of cisplatin and FK-565. *Immunol Cell Biol.* 1992;70:15–24.
- 43. Gan XH, Jewett A, Bonavida B. Activation of human peripheral blood-derived monocytes by cis-diamminedichloroplatinum: enhanced tumoricidal activity and secretion of tumor necrosis factor-alpha. *Nat Immun.* 1992;11:144–155.
- 44. Galdiero M, Cipollaro de l'Ero G, Folgore A, Cappello M, Giobbe A, Sasso FS. Effects of irradiation doses on alterations in cytokine release by monocytes and lymphocytes. *J Med.* 1994;25:23–40.
- Ibuki Y, Goto R. Contribution of inflammatory cytokine release to activation of resident peritoneal macrophages after in vivo low-dose gamma-irradiation. *J Radiat Res.* 1999;40:253–262.
- 46. Bridge TP. Neuropsychiatrically active lymphokines and AIDS. *Clin Neuropharmacol.* 1986;9:473–475.
- 47. Brenard R. Practical management of patients treated with alpha interferon. *Acta Gastroenterol Belg.* 1997;60:211–213.
- Nozaki O, Takagi C, Takaoka K, Takata T, Yoshida M. Psychiatric manifestations accompanying interferon therapy for patients with chronic hepatitis C: an overview of cases in Japan. *Psychiatry Clin Neurosci.* 1997;51:175–180.
- Amato R, Meyers C, Ellerhorts J, et al. A phase I trial of intermittent high-dose alpha-interferon and dexamethasone in metastatic renal cell carcinoma. *Ann Oncol.* 1995;6: 911–914.
- Pavol MA, Meyers CA, Rexer JL, Valentine AD, Mattis PJ, Talpaz M. Pattern of neurobehavioral deficits associated with interferon-alpha therapy for leukemia. *Neurology*. 1995;45:947–950.

- Eton O, Talpaz M, Lee KH, Rothberg JM, Brell JM, Benjamin RS. Phase II trial of recombinant human interleukin-2 and interferon-alpha-2a: implications for the treatment of patients with metastatic melanoma. *Cancer*. 1996;77:893–899.
- Trask PC, Esper P, Riba M, Redman B. Psychiatric side effects of interferon therapy: prevalence, proposed mechanisms, and future directions. *J Clin Oncol.* 2000;18:2316–2326.
- 53. Capuron L, Ravard A, Dantzer R. Early depressive symptoms in cancer patients receiving interleukin 2 and/or interferon alfa-2b therapy. *J Clin Oncol*. 2000;18:2143–2151.
- 54. Kurzrock R. The role of cytokines in cancer-related fatigue. *Cancer*. 2001;92 (Suppl):1684–1688.
- 55. Spath-Schwalbe E, Hansen K, Schmidt F, et al. Acute effects of recombinant human interleukin-6 on endocrine and central nervous sleep functions in healthy men. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 1998;83:1573–1579.
- Hilkens PH, ven den Bent MJ. Chemotherapy-induced peripheral neuropathy. J Peripher Nerv Syst. 1997;2:350–361.
- Dougherty PM, Cordella JV, Weng H-R. Chemotherapy-induced hypersensitivity is accompanied by a decrease in spontaneous locomotor activity. Soc Neurosci Abstr. 2001;27:1327.
- 58. Dougherty PM, Weng H-R, Burton A, Reddy S. Psychophysical findings in patients with chemotherapy-induced peripheral neuropathy. *J Pain.* 2002;3 (Suppl 1):17.
- Goehler LE, Relton JK, Dripps D, et al. Vagal paraganglia bind biotinylated interleukin-1 receptor antagonist: a possible mechanism for immune-to-brain communication. *Brain Res Bull.* 1997;43:357–364.
- Watkins LR, Milligan ED, Maier SF. Glial activation: a driving force for pathological pain. *Trends Neurosci.* 2001;24:450– 455.
- 61. Lacosta S, Merali Z, Anisman H. Influence of interleukin-1beta on exploratory behaviors, plasma ACTH, corticosterone, and central biogenic amines in mice. *Psychopharmacology.* 1998;137:351–361.
- 62. Hayley S, Wall P, Anisman H. Sensitization to the neuroendocrine, central monoamine and behavioural effects of murine tumor necrosis factor-alpha: peripheral and central mechanisms. *Eur J Neurosci.* 2002;15:1061–1076.
- Dunn AJ. Effects of cytokines and infections on brain neurochemistry. In: Ader R, Felten DL, Cohen N. Psychoneuroimmunology. 3rd edition. New York: Academic Press, 2001: 649–666.
- Capuron L, Ravaud A, Gualde N, et al. Association between immune activation and early depressive symptoms in cancer patients treated with interleukin-2-based therapy. *Psychoneuroendocrinology*. 2001;26:797–808.
- Capuron L, Ravaud A, Neveu PJ, Miller AH, Maes M, Dantzer R. Association between decreased serum tryptophan concentrations and depressive symptoms in cancer patients undergoing cytokine therapy. *Mol Psychiatry*. 2002;7:468– 473.
- Owens MJ, Nemeroff CB. The role of corticotropin-releasing-factor in the pathophysiology of affective and anxiety disorders: laboratory and clinical studies. *Ciba Found Symp*. 1993;172:296–308.
- Rivest S. How circulating cytokines trigger the neural circuits that control the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis. *Psychoneuroendocrinology*. 2001;26:761–788.
- 68. Auphan N, DiDonato JA, Rosette C, Helmberg A, Karin M. Immunosuppression by glucocorticoids: inhibition of NF-kappa B activity through induction of I kappa B synthesis. *Science*. 1995;270:286–290.