

1 **National Institutes of Health Consensus Development Project on**
2 **Criteria for Clinical Trials in Chronic Graft-versus-Host Disease:**
3 **IV. The 2020 Highly morbid forms report**

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23 **INTRODUCTION**

24 Some forms of chronic graft-versus-host disease (cGVHD) are associated with significant morbidity in
25 part due to their non-reversibility due to fibrosis and significant long term impact on quality of life (eye),
26 physical functioning (sclerotic skin manifestations) and survival (lung, gastrointestinal)^{1,2}. Progress in
27 prevention of long term severe morbidity associated with cGVHD is limited by lack of biomarkers to
28 predict a highly morbid course and absence of effective organ-specific approaches targeting
29 “irreversible” sequelae. Moreover, treatment advances are limited by absence of effective and nontoxic
30 therapy for highly morbid manifestations, and difficulty in conducting clinical trials due to disease
31 heterogeneity and small patient numbers.

32

33 **PURPOSE OF THIS DOCUMENT**

34 The goal of this working group is to outline research goals for frequent highly morbid forms of
35 cGVHD, namely advanced skin sclerosis/fasciitis, lung, ocular and gastrointestinal (GI) involvement. We
36 propose a roadmap to address gaps in addressing these manifestations including suggestions on trial
37 design.

38

39 **SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS**

- 40 1. Research should focus on phenotyping cGVHD clinically and biologically within cohort studies, in
41 order to describe incidence, predictive factors, mechanisms of organ damage, and natural history of
42 highly morbid conditions. Multicenter studies with common definitions and research sample
43 collections are needed (Figure).
- 44 2. Develop new approaches for early identification and treatment of highly morbid forms of cGVHD,
45 especially biologically targeted treatments, with a special focus on prevention and treatment of
46 fibrotic changes.
- 47 3. Establish primary endpoints for clinical trials of each highly morbid manifestation in relationship to
48 the time point of intervention (early versus late). Other endpoints, such as lack of progression and
49 improvement in functioning or quality of life, may be realistic endpoints for clinical trials of highly
50 morbid manifestations. Explore novel trial designs for small populations.

51

52 **METHODS**

53 Each working group was created to encourage global engagement in the topic. Groups worked
54 individually to review the relevant literature and create the initial draft of the paper, which was
55 reviewed and commented on by the Steering Committee. Two iterative rounds of comments from the
56 Steering Committee were collected prior to the November 2020 Consensus Conference with appropriate
57 manuscript revisions. Based on additional comments from Conference participants and a 30 day public
58 comment period, the paper was further revised for submission.

59

60 **Sclerosis of Skin and Fascia**

61 ***Current clinical knowledge***

62 Skin is the organ that is most frequently affected by cGVHD. While inflammatory disease
63 manifestations characterized by superficial (erythematous or lichen planus-like) clinical presentations
64 are often responsive to therapy, current management options for fibrotic disease remain limited.

65 Early sclerotic cGVHD (ScGVHD) is relatively rare³ but long-standing cGVHD is likely to advance to
66 sclerosis, with 20% of patients having sclerosis after 3 years of cGVHD therapy with sclerosis prevalence
67 exceeding 50% among those with severe cGVHD^{3,4}. ScGVHD can manifest as localized disease (morphea-
68 like), diffuse involvement, deep sclerosis, panniculitis, or fasciitis without additional epidermal
69 manifestations. ScGVHD may cause joint contractures, vascular insufficiency, skin breakdown,
70 neuropathy (including small fiber neuropathy, nerve compression syndrome and painful muscle
71 cramping), myopathy via fascial compression and poor wound healing.

72

73 **Pathophysiology:**

74 Fibrosis represents the terminal step of an unchecked inflammatory alloreactivity cascade. The role
75 of T cells in ScGVHD development is well defined and supported by defined genetic risk factors⁵, but
76 their role in an established sclerotic response is unknown. ScGVHD biopsy specimens demonstrate
77 variable levels of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell infiltration with unknown clonal architecture^{6-8,9}; they may
78 represent bystanders or effectors depending on biopsy timing^{6,7}. In systemic sclerosis (SSc)¹⁰ as well as
79 cGVHD^{11,12} impaired function of regulatory T cells has been reported, and IL-2 treatment which expands
80 regulatory T cells showed efficacy in advanced cGVHD¹³. Humoral immunopathology, such as stimulating
81 PDGF-receptor antibodies, could have a role in severe fibrotic forms of cGVHD¹⁴, however, poor
82 correlation of cGVHD severity, lack of damage of grafted donor skin, and limited response to PDGF-R
83 inhibitors in patients with these antibodies argue against the broader relevance of this finding^{15,16}. A
84 possible mechanistic B cell role in ScGVHD has been suggested with improvement of sclerosis after B cell
85 depletion¹⁷. Still, definitive evidence linking antibody-dependent mechanisms to human ScGVHD is
86 lacking.

87 Recently, distinct dermal myeloid cell populations were identified in human skin¹⁸. In animal models,
88 macrophages contribute to development of fibrosis in both TGF β -dependent and -independent fashion
89 and their pathogenic role in cGVHD is increasingly recognized^{19,20}. Relevant for ScGVHD, myeloid-
90 sourced TGF β ^{21,22} promotes fibrosis through positive regulation of fibroblast proliferation and
91 differentiation into myofibroblasts²³ and stimulation of extracellular matrix overproduction²⁴. In
92 addition, macrophage-derived TGF β promotes epithelial mesenchymal transition (EMT) in models of
93 lung fibrosis²⁵. Partial EMT is involved in normal wound healing, though its disruption in the
94 inflammatory environment can promote pathologic fibrosis in lung and skin²⁶. While fibroblasts
95 represent critical mediators of fibrotic tissue injury, little is known about their homeostasis during
96 cGVHD.

97 TGF β is a keystone pathway in many fibrotic disorders, and has a documented role in preclinical
98 ScGVHD^{21,22}. In patients, higher TGF β levels are associated with adverse outcomes taking into account
99 the challenges to correlating expression and activity^{27,28}. However, TGF β is temporally restricted and has
100 pleiotropic roles²² in different compartments and its use of distinct downstream signaling pathways
101 makes it a challenging therapeutic target. Type I interferon (IFN) responses feature prominently in SSc
102 skin fibrosis and ScGVHD as well^{29,30}, tightly linking adaptive and innate immune cross-talk in initiation
103 and persistence of ScGVHD, with possible therapeutic implications.

104 Developmental (morphogen) pathways, particularly Hedgehog, Wnt, and Notch, are involved in
105 fibrotic disorders^{26,31,32}. These pathways, commonly influenced by TGF β and highly crosslinked, often
106 create a feed-forward loop promoting aberrant tissue remodeling. Active Hedgehog signaling has been

107 observed in the skin of patients with ScGVHD and its targeting in preclinical models modulated collagen
108 production by myofibroblasts and reduced fibrosis³³. Hedgehog inhibitors, have been tested in cGVHD
109 with some efficacy, though hindered by significant toxicities^{34, 35}. Recent data in ScGVHD suggested the
110 immunomodulatory role of morphogen pathways with broad effects on adaptive immunity promoting
111 cGVHD^{34, 36}, thus providing an added impetus for clinical translation. The endocannabinoid system is
112 involved in multiple inflammatory and fibrotic disorders, with opposing role for signaling through
113 cannabinoid receptor 1 (CB₁R; profibrogenic) and cannabinoid receptor 2 (CB₂R; antifibrotic/anti-
114 inflammatory) with agents already in clinical trials^{37,38, 39}.

115

116 ***Gaps in knowledge and unmet need; highest priorities***

117 The pivotal role of immune injury in the initial steps of fibrosis is well-accepted. However, the time
118 when pathogenesis shifts from active inflammation to feed-forward loops of dysregulated tissue
119 remodeling remains unknown. Understanding this transition is essential to devise approaches with
120 optimal therapeutic indices and minimal immunosuppression with all its associated risks. Both skin and
121 peripheral blood samples should be queried to identify abnormalities along the disease continuum to
122 inform preclinical modeling with a goal of defining the mechanistic relevance of the findings. Optimized
123 pre-clinical *ex vivo* approaches could be well suited for the latter (e.g. to evaluate the effect of TGFβ and
124 TGFβ pathway inhibitors on sclerotic skin fibroblasts). Deeper interrogation should use -omics methods
125 and novel tissue diagnosis approaches such as multiplex immunohistochemistry/ immunofluorescence,
126 which can be enhanced by artificial intelligence (machine and deep learning) to offer a spatial
127 perspective into the disease process and facilitate the development of novel biomarker signatures. A
128 clinical challenge is to separate direct immunological effects on skin, fascia, and nerves from indirect
129 (compression) and other causative factors taking into account, that nerves may also be a potential
130 target of cGVHD outside skin and fascial involvement (i.e. toxicity of the prior treatment, nutritional and
131 electrolyte deficits among others)^{40, 41}.

132 Clinical trials need more robust and sensitive endpoints. It is particularly challenging to precisely
133 quantify the evolution and the extent of deep-seated (subcutaneous/fascial) disease to assess disease
134 response and the current organ-based grading system is poorly suited to detect responses in established
135 sclerosis. Given this limitation, ScGVHD responses could be considered functional improvement (e.g.
136 improved joint mobility documented by P-ROM and physician global and skin/joint tightening scale per
137 the 2014 NIH Consensus), even if skin-specific scoring remains unchanged. Data supporting such an
138 approach already emerged since the 2014 consensus⁴² and the bedside validation in ScGVHD should be
139 actively pursued. Imaging biomarkers that have been suggested include high-frequency ultrasound and
140 magnetic resonance imaging, but rapid, safe, less costly and accessible clinical assessment tools are
141 needed (Table 1)^{43, 44}. Gene expression biomarkers in SSc skin correlated highly with changes of the
142 modified Rodnan skin score and have been utilized to support response assessment in several clinical
143 trials in that disease⁴⁵⁻⁴⁸.

144 Translation of knowledge accrued from organ fibrosis (e.g. SSc and idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis) to
145 ScGVHD should be accelerated. Some agents have already demonstrated promise in cGVHD (e.g.
146 belumosudil, a ROCK2 inhibitor⁴⁹), while many others remain unexplored (e.g. connective tissue growth
147 factor (CTGF)- or cannabinoid receptor-directed therapies) (Table 2). Theoretically, avoiding unnecessary
148 immunosuppression and side effects is possible with topical delivery methods⁵⁰, but most are

149 formulated for effectiveness against superficial skin conditions affecting the epidermis and papillary
150 dermis and effective topical delivery in ScGVHD may be hampered by increased dermal thickness.
151 Strategies to improve drug delivery include physical approaches (microneedles, laser, iontophoresis),
152 particle-based drug carriers (lipid-based, nanoparticles) and chemical approaches (permeation
153 modifiers, prodrugs)⁵¹. Precision medicine with immune effector cell therapies targeting fibrosis have
154 been explored in other diseases⁵², and could be considered in ScGVHD. Multi-targeting approaches may
155 be helpful to prevent evolution to sclerosis and to enhance safety without compromising efficacy⁵³.

156

157 ***Highest Priorities and Roadmap for progress for ScGVHD***

- 158 1. Longitudinal multicenter studies to test pathologic cell populations in lesional skin and
159 peripheral blood, and cytokine and chemokine responses, to identify additional target
160 pathways.
- 161 2. Capitalize on the enhanced resolution of next generation sequencing strategies, including single-
162 cell RNA-, ATAC-, TCR-, and BCR-seq to query skin biopsies to provide biological insight into the
163 individual mediators of ScGVHD, address the degree of temporal and clinical disease
164 heterogeneity, and the origins (recipient versus donor) and phenotype of expanded and/or
165 clonally expanded T cell and B cell populations. These investigations could be complemented by
166 new techniques like MIBI-TOF⁵⁴ combined with non-linear dimensionality reduction analysis
167 approaches (tSNE/viSNE).
- 168 3. Efforts should center on molecular (transcriptional and epigenetic) definition of ScGVHD disease
169 heterogeneity, where single-cell -omics offer promise of identifying potent prognostic and
170 predictive biomarkers and therapeutic targets.
- 171 4. Analyze differences in mediators and targets (epidermal versus dermal structures, fascia,
172 nerves) to permit personalized interventions.
- 173 5. Test emerging therapies being developed for organ fibrosis and supported by biological insights
174 in ScGVHD, focusing on early intervention. Promising candidates are listed in Table 2.
175 Combination therapies targeting multiple pathways active in fibrosis should be considered to
176 augment efficacy while minimizing toxicities.
- 177 6. Develop novel tools for better measurement and documentation of change in skin sclerosis for
178 clinical trials. Refinements of the current 2014 clinical response criteria are needed for skin
179 sclerosis/fascia manifestations.

180

181

182 **PULMONARY INVOLVEMENT**

183 ***Current clinical knowledge***

184 Bronchiolitis obliterans syndrome (BOS) is the only formally recognized manifestation of lung
185 cGVHD, with an incidence of 3-10% of allogeneic hematopoietic cell transplant recipients (HCT)^{55-57,58},
186 and 14%⁵⁸ in those with cGVHD. Although the histologic entity of obliterative bronchiolitis is the
187 diagnostic lesion of lung GVHD, clinical diagnosis is largely based on pulmonary function studies which
188 are difficult to perform in children under age 7⁵⁹. Risk factors for onset include antecedent respiratory
189 viral infections^{60,61} and impaired lung function early post-transplant^{57,62}. Worse prognosis is associated
190 with early onset after transplantation and severe FEV1 impairment at diagnosis. Contemporary series

191 show 2-year survival rate of 70% after BOS diagnosis⁶³ but 5-year survival remains low at approximately
192 50%, highlighting the need for novel prevention and treatment strategies⁵⁷.

193

194 ***Pathophysiology***

195 The pathology of BOS is characterized by fibrotic narrowing and obstruction of small airways, likely
196 the shared outcome of immune and non-immune mediated injury to the airway epithelium. A
197 fundamental knowledge gap, however, lies in understanding the exact mechanisms by which lung
198 epithelial cell injury alters immune and fibrotic responses to contribute to obliterative bronchiolitis after
199 HCT. Mechanisms being explored in other disease contexts include airway stem cell depletion⁶⁴ and
200 acquisition of a persistent inflammatory airway epithelial cell phenotype^{65, 66}. The immune dysregulation
201 associated with BOS after lung allograft or HCT appears to involve oligoclonal expansion of CD4+ T cells,
202 reduced T regulatory cells, and higher levels of interleukin-17 and interleukin-8⁶⁷. In one murine model,
203 alternatively activated macrophages drove BOS, supported clinically by evidence of leukotriene
204 production, and polarized CD4 immune activation¹⁹. In another preclinical model, donor B-cells
205 contribute to airway pathology through local alloantibody production. Disruption of germinal center
206 formation, which is supported by T follicular helper cells⁶⁸, reduced pulmonary dysfunction⁶⁹. These
207 mechanistic insights have not yet been confirmed in humans although biomarker studies support a
208 prominent role of B cells with significantly elevated CD21^{low} B cells and high sBAFF levels⁷⁰. The role of
209 the microbiome, as suggested in other airway diseases needs to be investigated.

210

211 ***Physiological subtypes***

212 Defining clinical phenotypes of BOS remains a significant knowledge gap that hampers our ability to
213 identify patients at risk for morbidity and death from lung GVHD. Current NIH spirometric criteria used
214 for BOS diagnosis are unlikely to reflect the full spectrum of physiologic and histologic manifestations of
215 BOS^{71, 72, 73}. A concerning pattern is reduced FEV1 and FVC with normal FEV1/FVC ratio⁷¹, likely reflecting
216 “pseudorestriction” due to small airway obstruction. An open question remains whether lymphocytic
217 bronchiolitis, which is responsive to anti-inflammatory agents⁷², represents an early phase of disease or
218 a distinct subtype of BOS. While some patients demonstrate stability of FEV1 after clinical recognition,
219 this plateau could be due to treatment, a distinct biology, or the stage of the disease at diagnosis^{58, 63},
220 More significantly, the clinical and biological risk factors for persistent refractory lung function decline
221 are not known.

222 The association of cGVHD with restrictive lung impairment remains ill-defined for HCT survivors, and
223 it is not currently recognized as a cGVHD manifestation. Restrictive allograft syndrome (RAS) is a
224 phenotype of chronic lung allograft dysfunction (CLAD) in lung transplantation recipients, and is defined
225 by a reduction in forced vital capacity or total lung capacity (TLC) with persistent lung infiltrates and
226 carries a worse prognosis than classic BOS^{74, 75, 76}. While a similar entity is suspected to occur after HCT,
227 confounding diagnoses for restrictive physiology and the lack of validated diagnostic criteria in the
228 context of cGVHD have been barriers to recognition⁷⁷. Restriction may be due to known interstitial lung
229 disease entities including organizing pneumonia or extraparenchymal processes including truncal
230 sclerosis⁷⁸, respiratory muscle weakness^{73, 79}, or pleural effusions. Nevertheless, histological studies of
231 BOS in HCT demonstrate concomitant bronchiolar lesions and interstitial fibrosis⁷³, suggesting that
232 interstitial abnormalities, in addition to airway pathology, are part of the spectrum of lung cGVHD. Table

233 3 depicts the spectrum of lung abnormalities after HCT including diagnostic criteria and association with
234 cGVHD.

235

236 **Treatment**

237 Treatment for BOS is aimed at stabilizing lung function, as there are no established therapies that
238 reverse the underlying pathologic lesion of BOS. The combination of inhaled corticosteroids
239 (fluticasone), azithromycin and montelukast (FAM), with or without a long-acting bronchodilator, has
240 been established as organ-specific therapy for BOS^{80,81} accompanied by systemic corticosteroids taking
241 into account a potential impaired graft-versus-leukemia effect associated with azithromycin as reported
242 in a prophylaxis study⁸². However, a significant proportion of BOS patients continue to decline despite
243 these treatments⁸³. Few effective options are available, and intensified immunosuppression contributes
244 to lung infections, which in turn, worsen lung function. Agents that are under investigation or have
245 shown utility in other chronic lung conditions including topical immunosuppressants⁸⁴ and
246 antiinflammatory and antifibrotic agents currently in use for pulmonary fibrosis⁸⁵

247

248 **Highest priorities and roadmap for progress in pulmonary cGVHD**

249 Our ability to prevent and treat lung manifestations of cGVHD remains hampered by an incomplete
250 understanding of disease pathogenesis and natural history, owing in part to the relative rarity of BOS.

251 Research priorities include the following:

- 252 1. *Pathogenesis*. The creation of a shared lung-specific biorepository to support biomarker discovery
253 and mechanistic studies. Given the inherent challenges of procuring surgical lung tissue, universal
254 protocols need to be implemented to systematically collect excess bronchoalveolar lavage and lung
255 biopsy specimens obtained during clinical care. Less invasive means of sampling airway epithelium,
256 e.g. bronchial brushings, or developing validated serum or plasma based assays should be utilized⁸⁶.
257 Coupling these samples with carefully annotated clinical databases will be critical. (Figure 2)
- 258 2. *Subtypes*. A longitudinal multicenter patient cohort followed from the time of cGVHD onset would
259 allow for the comprehensive clinical phenotyping, classification and epidemiology of lung GVHD
260 subtypes. Data to be collected include clinical disease history, pulmonary function tests, infections,
261 chest computed tomography ^{86, 87}), and lung histology. Quantitative lung imaging techniques, i.e.,
262 parametric response mapping, may play an important role in delineating phenotypes.
- 263 3. *Treatment*. Targeted anti-inflammatory agents and antifibrotics are potential therapies and should
264 be tested before severe BOS forms develop. Treatment trials must be informed by knowledge of
265 natural progression and an understanding of pathogenesis and biomarkers of response. Clinically
266 relevant endpoints include FEV1 stability (or lack of progression of FEV1 decline), infectious
267 exacerbations, exercise tolerance, quality of life, reduction of systemic steroid use, and overall
268 survival.

269

270 **GASTROINTESTINAL INVOLVEMENT**

271 **Current clinical knowledge**

272 Historically, the intestine has been less commonly affected by cGVHD. The 2014 NIH organ scoring
273 of cGVHD does not distinguish between the site of gastrointestinal (GI) involvement (esophagus, upper
274 GI, and lower GI). However, the NIH 2014 response criteria do distinguish between reported symptoms

275 in these three areas⁸⁸. Incidence of esophageal, upper GI, and lower GI involvement is, respectively,
276 16%, 20%, and 13%, according to analysis from the cGVHD Consortium⁸⁹. Most importantly, intestinal
277 involvement is associated with greater risk of non-relapse mortality^{88, 90, 91}.

278 Risks factors for intestinal involvement in cGVHD remain to be elucidated. Ethnicity, genetic
279 diversity, environmental differences, diet, antibiotic use, supportive care or microbiota or microbe-
280 derived metabolites may all influence GI-cGVHD⁹²⁻⁹⁶. Age is a potential risk factor since children appear
281 particularly susceptible to late GI-acute GVHD (aGVHD) affecting up to 24.7% of pediatric transplant
282 recipients⁹⁷ with subsequent GI overlap symptoms at time of cGVHD diagnosis. Loss of microbial
283 diversity with predominant expansion of specific bacteria persisted for up to 1 year after HCT
284 independent of onset of cGVHD⁹⁵. In contrast, a small study showed that increased relative abundance
285 of butyrogenic bacteria after the onset of aGVHD was associated with subsequent steroid-refractory
286 aGVHD or cGVHD⁹⁶ indicating the need for further investigations on the association of dysbiosis,
287 antibiotic strategies and GI-cGVHD⁹⁵.

288

289 ***Pathophysiology***

290 Chronic GVHD is characterized by atrophy/destruction of tissues with subsequent fibrosis. However,
291 intestinal fibrosis is rare in cGVHD^{98, 99}. Intestinal epithelium is the most rapidly self-renewing tissue in
292 adults; intestinal epithelial cells are continuously regenerated from intestinal stem cells (ISCs), which are
293 key to the regeneration of damaged intestinal epithelium¹⁰⁰. There are three types of epithelial cells:
294 squamous, columnar, and cuboidal. It seems that tissues having squamous epithelium such as
295 esophagus, mouth, and vagina, as well as those having cuboidal epithelium such as sweat glands and
296 salivary glands are more prone to dysregulated fibrosis in cGVHD than those having columnar epithelium
297 such as stomach, intestine, and trachea. Animal studies showed that both ISCs and their niche Paneth
298 cells are targeted in aGVHD, resulting in impaired regeneration of the injured epithelium¹⁰¹⁻¹⁰⁵. The rapid
299 and potent repair ability of the intestine may protect from early fibrotic processes that often accompany
300 repair processes in other tissues. Profiling of immune cell populations and plasma markers at day 100
301 after HCT demonstrates biological differences between cGVHD and late-onset aGVHD¹⁰⁶.

302

303 ***Highest priorities and roadmap for progress in gastrointestinal cGVHD***

- 304 1. Enforcement of the NIH 2014 terminology (acute versus chronic GVHD with overlap subtype of
305 cGVHD) within and across studies¹⁰⁷⁻¹¹³ since current natural history trials as well as clinical trials
306 revealed a significant number of wrongly labeled patients⁹⁷. Electronic tools like the GVHD App may
307 assist¹¹⁴. The severity of individual GI manifestations should be recorded applying the response
308 criteria not only at the time of diagnostic onset, but over time and in response to therapeutic
309 strategies.
- 310 2. Generate experimental models able to address the role of dysbiosis, intestinal inflammation and
311 subsequent cGVHD including other organ manifestations.
- 312 3. Collect blood and stool samples in either natural history cohorts or interventional clinical trials to
313 allow study of human GI-cGVHD which includes metabolome and microbiome analyses including
314 sufficient sampling and follow up of aGVHD trials.

315

316

317 **OCULAR INVOLVEMENT**

318 ***Current clinical knowledge***

319 Ocular cGVHD (oGVHD) is one of the most frequent, rapidly-progressive organ manifestation with
320 characteristic inflammatory, immune dysregulatory and fibrotic manifestations^{23, 115-117}. OGVHD is
321 usually diagnosed between 5-24 months after HCT¹¹⁸⁻¹²⁰, and it can severely impact quality of life and
322 quality of vision^{121, 122} due to severe symptoms such as burning, dryness^{88, 123-125}, and loss of visual
323 function¹²⁶. Preexisting dry-eye and Meibomian gland disease as a consequence of chemotherapies or
324 possibly irradiation increases the risk for later oGVHD^{127, 128}. Early after transplantation, some patients
325 already have a decrease of tear quantity and quality, yet eye involvement is only recognized once
326 damage exceeds the eye's ability to compensate. Most importantly, oGVHD is not another form of dry-
327 eye disease (DED), and approaches and therapies for DED may fail in oGVHD. Table 4 summarizes the
328 differences between DED and oGVHD.

329 OGVHD mainly presents as ocular surface disease demonstrating features such as blepharitis,
330 Meibomian gland disease, qualitative and quantitative alteration of tear film, loss of goblet cells, corneal
331 and conjunctival epitheliopathy, corneal vascularization and fibrosis of ocular tissues including
332 conjunctiva and lacrimal glands^{118, 129-132}. In addition, a few reports have described intraocular
333 involvement including choroid and retina¹³³. However, there are currently no specific signs that are
334 diagnostic for oGVHD, although certain combinations of findings, such as conjunctival subepithelial
335 scarring and superior bulbar and limbal keratoconjunctivitis are commonly seen^{117, 134-136}. Without early
336 diagnosis and appropriate treatment oGVHD progresses towards loss of visual function by complete loss
337 of aqueous tear production and scarring of the cornea. The impaired epithelial barrier can lead to
338 complications such as infection, corneal ulceration and melting, and endophthalmitis. High risk corneal
339 transplants fail frequently under these conditions of presumably increased rejection and impaired tear
340 production, eventually resulting in loss of the eye¹³⁷⁻¹⁴⁰.

341 The 2013 International Chronic Ocular GVHD Consensus Group (ICOGVHD 2013) Diagnostic Criteria
342 filled an existing gap by adding recommendations for specific examinations performed by eye care
343 specialists^{124, 141} to previous NIH consensus criteria¹⁴². The 2013 classification facilitates diagnosis of
344 oGVHD by providing a structured clinical approach for distinguishing definite oGVHD from probable or
345 "none" categories. However, it is not designed to detect preclinical oGVHD or assess severity, and
346 furthermore it does not translate into the NIH 0-3 eye score. Other grading systems have been
347 suggested and validated¹⁴³, however are not yet established internationally.

348
349 ***Pathophysiology***

350 Conditioning chemotherapy, radiation and infection precede the onset of oGVHD and may induce
351 homing signals for mobilization and migration of circulating bone marrow cells including hematopoietic
352 stem cells and mesenchymal stromal/stem cells into the microenvironment of the ocular surface and
353 lacrimal gland. However, it is not understood how innate and adaptive immune mechanisms are
354 triggered and how these mechanisms initiate oGVHD. Studies show increased levels of ICAM-1, IL-1 β , IL-
355 6, IL-8^{144, 145}, neutrophil extracellular traps (NETs)¹¹⁶, extracellular DNA^{146, 147} and decreased level of
356 lactoferrin¹⁴⁸, DNase¹⁴⁷, IL-7 and EGF¹⁴⁵ in the tear film. In lacrimal glands affected by oGVHD, early
357 fibrosis and myxedematous tissue may herald a rapidly progressive fibrosis¹¹⁷ with activated fibroblasts
358 already infiltrating into the lacrimal gland. Stromal fibroblasts in the lacrimal gland and conjunctiva

359 promote the functional interaction between pathogenic T cells and antigen presenting cells (APCs)
360 including macrophages^{117, 149}. The functional interaction between CD4+ T cells and fibroblasts and
361 senescent macrophages might result in the proliferation and activation of fibroblasts through cell–cell
362 contact and T cell–derived soluble fibrogenic factors, such as IL-4, IL-6, and IL-17^{150, 151}. Activated
363 macrophages and fibroblasts through both classical immunological pathway and sterile inflammatory
364 pathway including presence of NETs¹¹⁶ and extracellular DNA from the damaged tissue¹⁴⁷, activation of
365 endoplasmic reticulum stress pathway¹⁵² and tissue renin angiotensin system¹⁵³ synthesize an excessive
366 amount of extracellular matrix, resulting in rapid interstitial inflammation and fibrosis^{151, 154, 155}.

367

368 ***Information from animal models and clinical analyses***

369 Several animal models have been used to study biology, onset, time course, and therapies for
370 oGVHD^{156-161 149, 156-161}. These models showed that T cells infiltrating the cornea and lacrimal glands
371 derive from donor animals and lead to an oGVHD phenotype^{159 161} with subsequent fibrosis. Perez et al
372 introduced a scoring system for murine models of oGVHD¹⁵⁶. Several preclinical studies tested potential
373 therapeutics such as siRNA¹⁶², bromodomain inhibitors¹⁶³, Rebamipide¹⁶⁴ and VAP-1¹⁶⁵ and a SYK
374 inhibitor¹⁶⁶. As clinical signs in oGVHD are also present in isolated forms in other ocular disease, e.g.
375 conjunctival fibrosis in ocular cicatricial pemphigoid (OCP) or chronic allergic keratoconjunctivitis, it may
376 be necessary to use such models^{167, 168} as comparators in experimental studies to distinguish organ-
377 specific cGVHD pathologies from secondary, damage-related disease.

378

379 ***Gaps, highest priorities and roadmap for progress in oGVHD***

380 Currently, there are no treatments specifically approved for oGVHD. This may be in part because the
381 natural history of oGVHD is largely unknown and the innate and adaptive immune mechanisms that
382 trigger and sustain oGVHD are incompletely understood. Furthermore, oGVHD clinical trials are
383 challenging because of lack of well-defined and specific primary efficacy outcome measures, and small
384 sample size. Gaps in clinical management include uncertainty whether to refer patients post-HCT ‘as-
385 needed’ for eye care or have ‘pre-scheduled’ frequent follow ups, and whether to start treating oGVHD
386 with aggressive anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive topical therapy then taper based on
387 reduction in signs (step-down treatment) or start treating with lubrication therapy and escalate
388 treatment based on continued symptoms (step-up treatment).

389

390 ***Highest priorities and roadmap for progress in ocular cGVHD***

- 391 1. Establish early diagnostic criteria (clinical signs and/or biomarker) separating oGVHD from other
392 forms of DED so that appropriate interventions can be promptly instituted. This revision requires a
393 better understanding of the immunopathology using appropriate animal models for oGVHD that
394 mimic the human situation as closely as possible. These animal models should also be used to
395 identify therapeutic targets and for pre-clinical testing of promising drug candidates and studies of
396 functional connections between organ-systems that are sequentially or simultaneously affected by
397 cGVHD.
- 398 2. Identify biomarkers associated with active oGVHD at the earliest possible time points. As the eye is
399 easily accessible, tear film or by impression cytology can be tested. Besides cytokines, and genetic

- 400 markers, optical biomarkers may be useful, including optical coherence tomography (OCT) or
401 confocal microscopy that can be used non-invasively.
- 402 3. Develop efficacy outcome measures that can be used in oGVHD-specific clinical trials to assess
403 response to specific interventions (punctal plugs, corneal lenses). Such measures need to distinguish
404 ophthalmologist-driven tools from those assessments which can be done in the hematologist-
405 oncologist office. Given the known divergence between signs and symptoms in oGVHD, validated
406 patient-reported measures may also be appropriate primary endpoints.
 - 407 4. Conduct eye-targeted studies, for example, (a) punctal occlusion or not; (b) referral as-needed for
408 eye care vs. pre-scheduled frequent follow ups; (c) step down (start treating aggressively then taper)
409 vs. step up (escalate treatment based on response).
 - 410 5. Evaluate systemic treatment options with regard to efficacy in oGVHD. Currently oGVHD is treated
411 with topical interventions independently of other organ manifestations despite obvious similarities
412 in the pathophysiology. A systematic analysis of ocular effects of systemic immunosuppression is
413 needed.

414

415 **Other morbid conditions**

416 Other conditions which are either part of NIH-defined cGVHD or occur in association with cGVHD
417 require further research efforts. These include genital involvement which is significantly more common
418 than reported in large registries due to the lack of routine screening¹⁶⁹, oral manifestations which impair
419 QoL and may increase the risk for secondary malignancies¹⁷⁰, isolated fasciitis¹⁷¹, and wasting syndrome
420 not explained by GI manifestations. Although these are NIH consensus-defined conditions, limited
421 understanding of organ-specific pathophysiology prevents the development of targeted treatment
422 approaches. Moreover, associated syndromes seen with cGVHD¹⁷², like polyserositis which is infrequent
423 but difficult to treat¹⁷³, immune mediated cytopenias and renal complications (glomerulonephritis,
424 nephrotic syndrome) require more study. All have in common the lack of knowledge of the incidence,
425 their specific pathophysiology and relationship in the context of cGVHD.

426 In addition, other potential organs may also be targeted by cGVHD but the exact relationship has
427 not been established. For example, central nervous system dysfunction is reported by a significant
428 percentage of long-term survivors mainly as cognitive dysfunction¹⁷⁴. It remains to be established
429 whether cognitive dysfunction is caused by cumulative neurotoxicity and acute GVHD, as demonstrated
430 in experimental models and clinical investigations,^{175, 176, 177} or whether cGVHD further contributes. Rare
431 cases of cGVHD with acute disseminated encephalomyelitis (ADEM) have been reported^{178, 179}. Similarly,
432 peripheral nervous system dysfunction is prevalent in a high proportion of cGVHD patients^{40, 41, 180} but
433 the relationship to alloimmunity has not been established. Autonomic nervous system dysfunction with
434 dry mouth or eyes, dry skin, obstipation, diarrhea, and sweating disturbances are of interest due to
435 overlap with symptoms of cGVHD. For example, impaired sensitivity of the ocular surface has been
436 reported after HCT¹⁸¹. Endothelial dysfunction could be part of the pathophysiology of cGVHD in a
437 variety of organs based on experimental^{182, 183 184} and clinically evidence^{185, 186}. It may contribute to long
438 term cardiovascular morbidity and mortality^{187, 188} and additional study is warranted.

439

440

441

442 **Study design considerations**

443 Due to the rare incidence and prevalence of the highly morbid conditions, feasibility is a concern, and
444 novel approaches to clinical investigation are needed ¹⁸⁹⁻¹⁹². Careful selection of endpoints that can
445 demonstrate benefit with a reasonable number of patients is critical since underpowered studies do not
446 advance the field. Studies need to be designed with attention to sample size, statistical power, and
447 control of bias. A detailed discussion of innovative trial designs is beyond the scope of this paper but the
448 following recommendations are offered:

- 449 1. Careful consideration of eligibility criteria utilizing enrichment strategies ¹⁹³ may identify a smaller
450 but more informative study population where a drug effect can be observed ¹⁹⁴.
- 451 2. Some established cGVHD manifestations may be permanent and a worthy goal could be “stable
452 disease/improved trajectory” or functional or symptom improvement instead of partial or complete
453 remission. These endpoints require acceptance that lack of worsening and/or improved patient
454 functioning/patient-reported outcomes are meaningful clinical benefits even if cGVHD organ
455 function does not improve. Lack of worsening can be documented in comparison to concurrent or
456 historical controls ¹⁹⁵ or the patient’s prior trajectory.
- 457 3. While a non-randomized single arm study, without concurrent controls, may seem attractive, this
458 design is necessarily less precise, and outcomes less definitive. Alternatives to consider include use
459 of historical controls or utilizing each patient as their own control. Single case experimental design
460 (SCED) or N-of-1 trials may be the most feasible option for the very rare highly morbid forms of
461 cGVHD. In such trials, each individual participant serves as their own control, and may receive
462 multiple interventions in a crossover fashion. Multiple N-of-1 studies may then be combined in a
463 meta-analysis.
- 464 4. Efficiency of study design should be optimized. The more complex designs are adaptive¹⁹⁶⁻¹⁹⁸, with
465 the design being modified according to pre-specified rules during the conduct of the study to
466 increase efficiency. For example, a Bayesian approach¹⁹⁹ is a statistical inference framework for
467 leveraging existing data from different sources, synthesizing evidence of different types, including
468 retrospective data, and information gained during the conduct of the study. In particular, the data
469 deficits of “small” clinical trials can be mitigated by incorporating past information. The combination
470 of observed data and prior opinion is governed by Bayes’ theorem and can result in smaller sample
471 sizes needed to reach conclusions. The major criticism of the Bayesian approach is subjectivity.
- 472 5. Optimize data analysis strategies, for example, continuous outcomes are more efficient when the
473 sample size is small; consider longer studies; and use covariate adjustment, such as statistical
474 stratification. Consider if the distribution is likely to be parametric (modeled by a probability
475 distribution that has a fixed set of parameters) or non-parametric when designing the analysis plan.
- 476 6. When multiple agents are available, consider efficient study designs to rank the agents and
477 eliminate less effective ones through futility or selection designs.

478

479 **CONCLUSIONS**

480 While cGVHD treatment in the past was applied in a one fits all fashion and initiated after moderate
481 symptoms started, this approach does not recognize that some manifestations disproportionately cause
482 morbidity and mortality. Prevention of the highly morbid manifestations has emerged as one of the

483 most important goals for the next few years. During the next 3 years, identification of new diagnostic
484 tools including biomarkers of all types and clinical risk factors will be crucial to prevent highly morbid
485 complications. In the next 3-7 years, a better understanding of local tissue pathophysiology will lead to
486 therapeutic targets. Eventually, organ-specific therapeutic clinical studies will be necessary and choice of
487 endpoints and careful study design, recognizing the small eligible population, can increase the chance of
488 a successful trials.
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1512 Table 1: Potential objective assessment tools to assess skin sclerosis (ScGVHD) in chronic GVHD

Modality	Advantages	Disadvantages	Use in ScGVHD
High-frequency ultrasound, acoustic radiation force impulse (ARFI), shear wave elasticity imaging (SWEI), ultrasound surface wave elastography (USWE)	Bedside use, easy to assess multiple sites, allows rapid comparability to previous images	Cost, requires training, requires marking of target area for repeat assessment; edema from active inflammation may confound imaging	CS ²⁰⁰ CS ⁴³ CS ²⁰¹ CS ²⁰²
Durometer	Bedside use, affordable, small, hand-held device, easy to use, provides numerical readout	'Anvil effect' from underlying bony structures, less sensitive for deep-seated disease; reproducibility requires careful experimental technique	CS ²⁰³
Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), MRI/Positron emission tomography (PET)	Detection of deep-seated, sub-clinical involvement; useful for detecting active fascial inflammation; does not require marking of target area	Cost, inconvenient for patients, unclear if responsive to small improvements in fibrosis	CS ⁴⁴ CS ²⁰⁴ CS ²⁰⁵
Optical coherence tomography/elastography	High-resolution imaging, including capability to assess local blood flow	Limited depth of penetration	CR ²⁰⁶
Laser doppler flowmetry	2D flow map of skin perfusion; can assess dynamic changes; monitoring potential for compromised acral sites of ScGVHD	Affected by ambient temperature; movement, pressure or other contact with skin will influence perfusion	CR ²⁰⁷
Suction probe (Cutometer®, Dermaflex®, Nimble)	Devices measure stiffness and elasticity; have been used in clinical assessment of morphea and systemic sclerosis	Affected by many variables, including sun damage, water balance, age, body location; does not capture changes in subcutaneous fat/fascia; remission may not result in return of elasticity	CS ²⁰⁰
Myoton®	Hand-held device, detects changes in tissue oscillation (skin stiffness and other properties) after a mechanical impulse	Requires adherence to measurement protocols and knowledge of muscular anatomy. Results depend on underlying muscle tone, patient positioning	CS ²⁰⁸ CS ²⁰⁹ CS ²⁰³

1513 CR: case report, CS: case series

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Table 2: Candidate therapeutic agents in ScGVHD.

Target	Drug(s)	Target cellular subsets	Clinical Development Status	References
CTGF/CTN2	Pamrevlumab (FG-3019)	Fibroblasts	Ph-3- IPF (NCT01890265)	210, 211
Autotaxin	Ziritaxestat (GLPG-1690)	Fibroblasts	Ph-3- IPF (NCT03733444, NCT03711162)	212
HSP47	ND-L02-s0201	Fibroblasts	Ph-2- IPF (NCT03538301)	50, 213, 214
Pentraxin 2 (agonist)	PRM-151	Fibroblasts Macrophages	Ph-2- IPF (NCT02550873) Ph-2- Myelofibrosis (NCT01981850)	215, 216
CB ₂ R (agonist)	Lenabasum (Ajulemic acid)	Fibroblasts T cells Macrophages	Ph-3- Systemic Sclerosis (NCT03398837)	217
CB ₂ R /PPAR γ (Dual Agonist)	EHP-101	Fibroblasts Endothelial cells Macrophages	Ph-2- Systemic Sclerosis (NCT04166552)	218
CB ₁ R /iNOS (dual antagonist)	MRI-1867	Fibroblasts T cells Macrophages	Ph-1	38, 219, 220
Oncostatin M (antagonist)	GSK2330811	Fibroblasts Endothelial cells T cells Macrophages	Ph-2- Systemic Sclerosis (NCT03041025)	221, 222
TGF β	AVID200	Fibroblasts T cells Macrophages	Ph-1- Myelofibrosis (NCT03895112) Ph-1- Systemic Sclerosis (NCT03831438)	223
IL-6R	Tocilizumab	Fibroblasts T cells Macrophages	Ph-3- Systemic Sclerosis (NCT02453256) Ph-2- Steroid dependent immune related adverse events (NCT04375228)	224-226
CSF-1R	Axatilimab (SNDX-6352)	Macrophages	Ph-2- cGVHD (NCT03604692)	19
ROCK2	Belumosudil (KD025)	T cells Macrophages	Ph-2- cGVHD (NCT03640481, NCT02841995) Ph-2- Systemic Sclerosis (NCT03919799)	227
Interferon receptor type 1	Anifrolumab	T cells Macrophages	Ph-3- Systemic Lupus Erythematosus (NCT02446899) Ph-2- Rheumatoid Arthritis (NCT03435601)	228

1518 **Table 3: Pulmonary syndromes following allogeneic hematopoietic cell transplantation**
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Entity	Established in definition of lung GVHD	PFT pattern	High Resolution Chest CT Findings	Lung Histology	Comment
Bronchiolitis obliterans Syndrome	Yes	Fixed obstructive pattern: FEV1 decline >10%, FEV1/VC < LLN. Elevated residual volume or Residual volume/Total Lung Capacity. FEV1/FVC > LLN and preserved TLC may be seen. DLCO may be normal or reduced.	Signs of airtrapping (mosaic attenuation on expiratory phase) or bronchiolitis (centrilobular ground glass opacities or micronodules) and/or late sequelae (traction bronchiectasis, bronchial wall thickening)	Obliterative bronchiolitis (OB): partial or complete fibroproliferative occlusion of terminal small bronchioles, lymphocytic bronchiolitis may also be seen	There are subtypes of BOS based on timeframe after HCT, initial tempo of onset, FEV1 decline, histology, response to therapy, and prognosis.
Restrictive impairment due to Interstitial Lung Disease (ILD) Entities: Multiple entities, as per the ATS/ERS classification of ILD may occur after HCT, beyond what is listed here. ^{73, 229} If restrictive impairment is seen on PFT (ie reduced FVC with preserved FEV1/FVC and reduced TLC), high resolution chest CT should be performed to evaluate for ILD and other entities.					
Organizing pneumonia ²³⁰	No, however there is evidence for association with aGVHD and cGVHD.	Restrictive impairment with reduced TLC with FEV1/FVC > LLN most common. Obstructive or mixed pattern may be seen. Reduced DLCO.	Patchy and peribronchilar or consolidation, and reticular ground glass opacities, often predominant in upper lobes and periphery	Bronchiolar and alveolar granulation tissue	Bronchoscopy should be performed to rule out infection. Clinical diagnosis often made without lung histology and is empirically based on steroid-responsiveness
Non-specific interstitial pneumonia ²²⁹	No	Reduced TLC and DLCO	Confluent bilateral lower lobe ground glass opacities, bronchiectasis and lower lobe volumes loss, classically sparing the subpleural area	Diffuse alveolar wall thickening by uniform fibrosis; interstitial inflammation	Bronchoscopy should be performed to rule out infection
Pleuroparenchymal pulmonary fibroelastosis ^{29, 231}	No	Reduced TLC and DLCO, occasionally obstructive and restrictive pattern. Progressive and severe impairment over time	Upper lobe fibrosis with subpleural and pleural thickening, loss of lung volume, and lower lobe traction bronchiectasis	Subpleural and pleural fibroelastic proliferation with minimal inflammation	Diagnosis is usually made by typical chest CT findings
Restrictive Impairment not Attributed to ILD: These entities are secondary to extrathoracic consequences of cGVHD					

Truncal sclerosis	No. Sclerosis due to cGVHD is an indirect cause of ventilatory impairment	Reduced TLC; RV/TLC may be elevated but usually does not necessarily indicate small airways disease	No parenchymal infiltrates. Parametric response mapping shows low inspiratory volumes.	N/A.	
Respiratory muscle weakness	No. This may be the consequence of cGVHD-related myositis or prolonged steroid use to treat cGVHD.	Concomitant reduction in FVC and FEV1, reduced TLC with relative sparing of RV. Reduced supine FVC. Maximal inspiratory and expiratory pressures may be reduced.	Low lung volumes, normal parenchyma. If diaphragmatic weakness or paralysis is suspected, a fluorographic sniff test may show reduced diaphragmatic excursion	N/A. Evidence of myositis in a peripheral muscle.	Diagnosis of exclusion

1520 *Restrictive allograft syndrome (RAS) has been defined for lung transplantation (LT)⁷⁷ as a manifestation
1521 of chronic allograft dysfunction. BOS is the obstructive form of CLAD in lung transplantation. RAS after
1522 LT is defined by restrictive physiology and persistent pulmonary infiltrates that represent heterogeneous
1523 histology. A similar syndrome of restrictive impairment as a manifestation of alloimmunity in the context
1524 of cGVHD may also exist, however the epidemiologic associations and definitions remain to be
1525 determined. It is possible that ILD entities that occur in the context of cGVHD could be considered as an
1526 “RAS-like” condition, or “restrictive alloimmune syndrome” after HCT.

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Table 4: Differences between ocular chronic graft-vs.-host disease (oGVHD) and dry eye disease

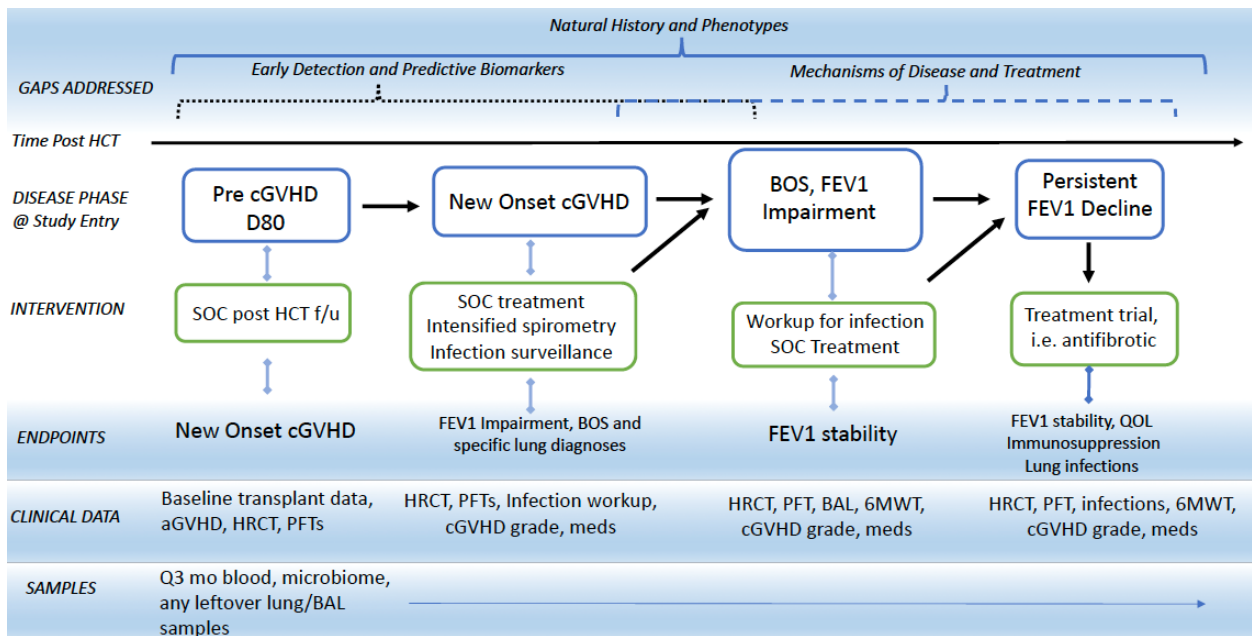
		Dry-eye disease (DED)	Ocular GVHD (oGVHD)	Clinical trial endpoint consideration in oGVHD
Cause	Known immunological mechanisms	Autoimmune Th17, CD4+/CD8+ T-cell activation through extrinsic or intrinsic triggers, unknown antigen	Migration and activation of donor hematopoietic /mesenchymal stem cells	Inclusion of participants before onset of disease possible
	Meibomian gland dysfunction (MGD)	Caused by numerous factors (aging, rosacea, drugs) leading to evaporation caused by MGD	Caused by chemotherapy and oGVHD, leading to evaporation	MGD as secondary endpoint
	Fibrosis	Not typical for dry-eye disease (see below)	Early activation of fibroblasts and macrophages	Fibrosis as clinical endpoint feasible
	Other causes	Numerous: systemic drugs, contact lens wear, aging, etc.	Presumed: chemotherapy and/or conditioning procedures	Pre-treatments and underlying oncological disease, origin of donor cells, might need to be considered during stratification
Time course		Onset mostly unknown, slow progress in a majority of cases, over years to decades	Fast onset after HCT, progresses within weeks to months	Preventive clinical trials vs. therapeutic clinical trials feasible
Impact on visual function		Mild to severe impact, blinding disease very rare	Mostly severe, if untreated, often blinding disease	Primary endpoint
Clinical findings (selection of typical findings)	Tear production	Reduced in aqueous deficient DED and in overlap (mostly slow onset)	Reduced (fast onset, rapid progression)	Secondary endpoint
	Blepharitis	Mostly mild/moderate	Mostly severe	Secondary endpoint
	Meibomian gland dysfunction	Up to 80% in DED	Up to 100% in oGVHD	Unsuitable endpoint, as currently unclear mechanism

	Corneal and conjunctival intravital staining	Mild to severe	Mostly severe	Due to higher severity different grading systems needed to allow measuring treatment success using staining as endpoint
	Conjunctival redness	Mild to severe	Mostly severe	Secondary endpoint, detection and grading systems need to be validated
	Fibrosis	Rare finding, associated with severe rosacea, atopic keratoconjunctivitis or ocular cicatricial pemphigoid	Frequent finding	Primary or secondary endpoint, detection and grading systems need to be validated
	Filamentary keratitis	Rare finding, only in severe cases, mostly Sjögren Syndrome	Common finding, presumably related to activation of innate immune system	Primary or secondary endpoint
	Superior bulbar and limbal keratokonjunctivitis	Rare finding, own entity not typically related to DED	Frequent finding	Secondary clinical endpoint
	Intraocular involvement	Not related to DED	Intraocular involvement reported	Secondary endpoint in subgroup analysis possible
	Correlation between signs and symptoms	Low correlation: strong symptoms, weak clinical signs	Low correlation: weak symptoms, strong clinical signs	Development of suitable symptom questionnaires for oGVHD necessary

1535 Abbreviations: DED, dry eye disease; oGVHD, ocular chronic graft-vs.-host disease; MGD, meibomium
1536 gland dysfunction; HCT, hematopoietic cell transplantation

1537 **Figure: Potential Longitudinal Trial Design Proposal for Highly Morbid Manifestations of**
 1538 **Chronic GVHD.** The proposed study approach aims to simultaneously address identified
 1539 fundamental knowledge gaps in several domains, including 1) description of natural history and
 1540 clinical phenotypes, 2) early detection and predictive biomarker discovery, 3) mechanisms of
 1541 disease through translational work, and 4) evaluation of novel treatments. High-risk patients
 1542 are enrolled at a pre-diagnosis phase based on biomarker or/and clinical risk factors and
 1543 followed over time through phases of cGVHD. Patients may also enter the longitudinal cohort at
 1544 the time of cGVHD diagnosis, and if they develop a highly morbid manifestation, they are
 1545 followed in that specific cohort category and may be enrolled on clinical trials. Longitudinal
 1546 clinical data and serial tissue samples/specimens will be collected. In this Figure, lung disease is
 1547 used as an example for the enrollment entry, interventions, endpoints, and data/samples to be
 1548 collected. This schema can be easily expanded to reflect skin, GI, ocular, and other
 1549 manifestations with relevant data collection and treatment agents.

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1553 Abbreviations: HCT, hematopoietic cell transplantation; cGVHD, chronic graft-vs.-host disease; BOS,
 1554 bronchiolitis obliterans syndrome; SOC, standard of care; f/u, follow-up; FEV1, forced expiratory
 1555 volume-first second; aGVHD, acute GVHD; HRCT, high resolution chest tomography; PFTs, pulmonary
 1556 function tests, BAL, bronchoalveolar lavage; 6MWT, 6 minute walk test