Understanding Chronic Leukaemia

A guide for people with cancer, their families and friends

For information & support, call 13 11 20
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Understanding Chronic Leukaemia is reviewed approximately every two years. Check the publication date above to ensure this copy is up to date.


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We would like to thank the health professionals, consumers and editorial teams who have worked on previous editions of this booklet.

Note to reader
Always consult your doctor about matters that affect your health. This booklet is intended as a general introduction to the topic and should not be seen as a substitute for medical, legal or financial advice. You should obtain independent advice relevant to your specific situation from appropriate professionals, and you may wish to discuss issues raised in this book with them.

All care is taken to ensure that the information in this booklet is accurate at the time of publication. Please note that information on cancer, including the diagnosis, treatment and prevention of cancer, is constantly being updated and revised by medical professionals and the research community. Cancer Council NSW excludes all liability for any injury, loss or damage incurred by use of or reliance on the information provided in this booklet.

Cancer Council NSW
Cancer Council is the leading cancer charity in NSW. It plays a unique and important role in the fight against cancer through undertaking high-quality research, advocating on cancer issues, providing information and services to the public and people with cancer, and raising funds for cancer programs. This booklet is funded through the generosity of the people of NSW. To make a donation to help beat cancer, visit cancercouncil.com.au or phone 1300 780 113.

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Introduction

This booklet has been prepared to help you understand more about the two main types of chronic leukaemia: chronic lymphocytic leukaemia (CLL) and chronic myeloid leukaemia (CML).

Many people feel shocked and upset when told they have chronic leukaemia. We hope this booklet will help you, your family and friends understand how CLL and CML are diagnosed and treated.

We cannot give advice about the best treatment for you. You need to discuss this with your doctors. However, we hope this information will answer some of your questions and help you think about other questions to ask your treatment team.

This booklet does not need to be read from cover to cover – just read the parts that are useful to you. Some medical terms that may be unfamiliar are explained in the glossary. You may also like to pass this booklet to your family and friends for their information.

How this booklet was developed
This information was developed with help from a range of health professionals and people affected by chronic leukaemia. It is based on clinical practice guidelines for chronic leukaemia.1–3

If you or your family have any questions, call Cancer Council 13 11 20. We can send you more information and connect you with support services in your area. Turn to the last page of this book for more details.
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What is blood cancer?

Cancer is a disease of the cells, which are the body’s basic building blocks. Our bodies constantly make new cells to help us grow, to replace worn-out cells and to heal damaged cells after an injury. Normally cells grow and multiply in an orderly way.

Sometimes cells don’t grow, divide and die in the usual way. This may cause different kinds of cancer. Most cancers, such as breast cancer or bowel cancer, are solid cancers. In these, the abnormal cells form a lump called a tumour. Leukaemia, however, is a blood cancer. It begins in the bone marrow, the spongy part in the centre of the bone where blood cells are produced.

In leukaemia, blood cells grow abnormally and multiply in such a way that they crowd the bone marrow. This can reduce the bone

How leukaemia starts

The bone marrow produces three main types of blood cells: white cells, red cells and platelets. Leukaemia starts when abnormal white blood cells crowd the bone marrow and are pushed out into the bloodstream. Without treatment, they can spread to lymph nodes and some organs.
marrow’s ability to produce normal levels of other blood cells, which affects the way that the rest of the body works. Meanwhile, the abnormal cells spill out into the bloodstream.

As leukaemia progresses, the bone marrow produces more abnormal blood cells and fewer normal blood cells. As the abnormal blood cells build up in the blood, they can spread to the lymph nodes (lymph glands), spleen, liver, lungs and kidneys. Without treatment, many of the body’s key functions will be increasingly affected.

Recent advances in treatment have seen the outlook for people with chronic leukaemia improve dramatically, and the disease can often be kept under control for many years.
The blood

Blood is pumped around your body to provide oxygen and nutrients to your tissues, and to remove waste products. It is made up of blood cells carried in a clear fluid called plasma. The three main types of blood cells have specific functions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Red blood cells</th>
<th>White blood cells</th>
<th>Platelets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><img src="Image" alt="Oxygen Icon" /> carry oxygen around the body</td>
<td><img src="Image" alt="Guard Icon" /> fight infection</td>
<td><img src="Image" alt="Bandage Icon" /> help the blood clot</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All three types of blood cells have a limited life span and need to be continually replaced. Most are made in the bone marrow, which is the spongy part in the centre of the bones.

The bone marrow contains stem cells. These are unspecialised blood cells that first develop into immature cells known as blast cells. Normally, the blast cells then become mature red or white blood cells or platelets and carry out their set functions.

There are two families of stem cells:

- **myeloid stem cells** – develop into myeloblast cells and then into red blood cells, most types of white blood cells, and platelets
- **lymphoid stem cells** – develop into lymphoblast cells and then into lymphocytes, which are a type of white blood cell.

If myeloblast or lymphoblast cells do not mature properly or if there are too many in the blood, it can cause leukaemia.
How blood cells are made

In leukaemia, blast cells never develop into mature white blood cells. These abnormal blast cells are also called leukaemia cells.

Stem cells divide into two families, then become immature cells.

If cells are normal, they mature, but sometimes cells are abnormal and never mature.
Q: What is chronic leukaemia?
A: Chronic leukaemia develops when the body makes too many abnormal white blood cells. Because they live too long or multiply too quickly, there will be large numbers circulating in the blood. They crowd out normal white blood cells and don’t fight infection themselves, so there can be a higher risk of infection (neutropenia).

As leukaemia progresses, the bone marrow fills with leukaemia cells and there is less room for healthy red cells and platelets to be produced. This may cause various health problems, such as anaemia (from too few red cells) or bleeding or bruising (from thrombocytopenia, too few platelets).

Q: Is it different to acute leukaemia?
A: While all types of leukaemia start in the bone marrow and affect white blood cell production, they are grouped according to which type of white blood cell is affected (lymphoid or myeloid), whether there are abnormalities in the bone marrow, and how quickly the disease develops.

Chronic leukaemia usually affects partly immature cells, appears gradually, and develops slowly over months to years.

Acute leukaemia affects fully immature cells, occurs suddenly, and develops quickly. Cancer Council NSW has a separate booklet about acute leukaemia. For a free copy, call Cancer Council on 13 11 20 or visit cancercouncil.com.au.
Q: What are CLL and CML?
A: CLL and CML are the two main types of chronic leukaemia. The difference between them is in the type of white blood cells that are affected.

**Chronic lymphocytic leukaemia (CLL)** – The body has too many of the white blood cells known as lymphocytes. This disease is also called chronic lymphatic leukaemia. For information about how CLL is diagnosed and treated, see pages 16–29.

**Chronic myeloid leukaemia (CML)** – The body has too many of the white blood cells known as granulocytes. The granulocytes are part of the myeloid family of white blood cells. This disease is sometimes called chronic granulocytic leukaemia. For information about how CML is diagnosed and treated, see pages 30–41.

**Small lymphocytic lymphoma**

Small lymphocytic lymphoma (SLL) has traditionally been classed as a non-Hodgkin lymphoma. However, it is now considered to be the same disease as CLL and is treated in a similar way.

Both SLL and CLL are diseases of the lymphocytes, but in SLL the abnormal lymphocytes are mainly in the lymph nodes, while in CLL they are mainly in the blood and bone marrow. Some doctors may refer to small lymphocytic lymphoma as CLL/SLL.
The lymphatic system

The lymphatic system works with the white blood cells to protect the body against infection. A large network of thin tubes (lymph vessels) carries a clear fluid called lymph. The lymph travels to and from areas of lymph tissue, including the lymph nodes, spleen and liver. When leukaemia causes abnormal white blood cells to build up, the lymph tissue becomes swollen.

**Lymph nodes** – Also known as lymph glands, these are small bean-shaped structures that are found in the neck, underarms, chest, abdomen and groin. The lymph nodes filter out toxins and help fight infections, and also produce some blood cells.

**Spleen** – This is an organ on the left side of the body under the ribs. It clears out old or damaged blood cells.

**Liver** – This large organ removes toxins, controls sugar levels, and stores vitamins.
Q: What are the risk factors?
A: Chronic leukaemia is caused by changes to one or more of the genes (DNA) that control the growth and development of blood cells. These changes happen over time, but it is not known why they occur in some people and not others. The exact causes of CLL and CML are not yet understood.

Risk factors for CLL
• Some people have abnormalities in their genes that can lead to CLL.
• These genetic defects are not usually inherited, but there are rare cases where CLL may occur more commonly in families. If you are worried about this, talk to your doctor, who may refer you to a genetic counsellor.

Risk factors for CML
• Most people with CML have a genetic abnormality known as the Philadelphia chromosome or BCR-ABL gene (see pages 30–31). This abnormality cannot be passed on from parents to children, it happens during their lifetime.
• Exposure to the chemical benzene or high doses of radiation may cause CML. However, this doesn’t explain the majority of cases.

Q: How common is leukaemia?
A: Each year in Australia, about 3700 people are diagnosed with a form of leukaemia, and more than 1700 of these cases are chronic leukaemia.⁴
**Chronic lymphocytic leukaemia (CLL)** – This is the most common type of chronic leukaemia, with about 1400 people diagnosed each year. CLL is twice as likely to occur in men than in women and is very rare in children.⁵

**Chronic myeloid leukaemia (CML)** – About 340 people are diagnosed with CML annually. It is slightly more common in men than in women and is rare in children.⁶

**Q: What are the symptoms?**

**A:** Many people with chronic leukaemia have no symptoms. Often the disease is diagnosed after a routine blood test shows a high white blood cell count. At this stage, symptoms tend to be mild and develop slowly. They may include:

- swollen lymph nodes in the neck, underarms or groin
- pain and/or feeling of fullness in the abdomen after eating only small amounts – caused by an enlarged spleen
- tiredness – caused by a lack of red blood cells (anaemia)
- frequent and persistent infections – caused by a lack of a type of normal white blood cell (neutropenia)
- bruising or bleeding – caused by low levels of platelets (thrombocytopenia)
- excessive sweating at night
- high temperature (fever) without any other signs of infection
- weight loss.

Not everyone with these symptoms has chronic leukaemia, but it’s best to see your doctor.
Q: Which health professionals will I see?

A: Often your general practitioner (GP) will arrange the first tests to assess your symptoms. If these tests do not rule out cancer, you will usually be referred to a specialist called a haematologist. The haematologist will arrange further tests and advise you about treatment options.

You will be cared for by a range of health professionals who specialise in different aspects of your treatment. This multidisciplinary team (MDT) may include the following roles:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Health professional</th>
<th>Role</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>haematologist*</td>
<td>specialises in treating people with diseases of the blood and blood-forming organs; prescribes the course of chemotherapy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>radiation oncologist*</td>
<td>prescribes and coordinates the course of radiation therapy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nurses</td>
<td>give the course of treatment, and support and assist you through all stages of your treatment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dietitian</td>
<td>recommends an eating plan during treatment and recovery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>social worker, clinical psychologist</td>
<td>help you with any emotional or practical problems and link you to support services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>physiotherapist, occupational therapist</td>
<td>help you with any physical or practical problems associated with cancer and treatment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Specialist doctor
Making treatment decisions

Sometimes it is difficult to decide on the type of treatment to have. You may feel that everything is happening too fast. Check with your doctor how soon your treatment should start, and take as much time as you can before making a decision.

Understanding the disease, the available treatments and possible side effects can help you weigh up the pros and cons of different treatments and make a well-informed decision that’s based on your personal values. You may also want to discuss the options with your doctor, friends and family.

You have the right to accept or refuse any treatment offered. Some people with more advanced cancer choose treatment even if it offers only a small benefit for a short period of time. Others want to make sure the benefits outweigh the side effects so that they have the best possible quality of life.

Talking with doctors

When your doctor first tells you that you have cancer, you may not remember the details about what you are told. Taking notes or recording the discussion may help. Many people like to have a family member or friend go with them to take part in the discussion, take notes or simply listen.

If you are confused or want clarification, you can ask questions – see page 50 for a list of suggested questions. If you have several questions, you may want to talk to a nurse or ask the office manager if it is possible to book a longer appointment.
A second opinion

You may want to get a second opinion from another specialist to confirm or clarify your doctor’s recommendations or reassure you that you have explored all of your options. Specialists are used to people doing this.

Your doctor can refer you to another specialist and send your initial results to that person. You can get a second opinion even if you have started treatment or still want to be treated by your first doctor. You may decide you would prefer to be treated by the doctor who provided the second opinion.

Taking part in a clinical trial

Your doctor or nurse may suggest you take part in a clinical trial. Doctors run clinical trials to test new or modified treatments and ways of diagnosing disease to see if they are better than current methods. For example, if you join a randomised trial for a new treatment, you will be chosen at random to receive either the best existing treatment or the modified new treatment.

Over the years, trials have improved treatments and led to better outcomes for people diagnosed with cancer.

It may be helpful to talk to your specialist or clinical trials nurse, or to get a second opinion. If you decide to take part, you can withdraw at any time. For more information, call 13 11 20 for a free copy of Understanding Clinical Trials and Research, or visit australiacancertrials.gov.au.
Chronic lymphocytic leukaemia (CLL)

This chapter explains how chronic lymphocytic leukaemia is diagnosed, monitored and treated. CLL affects the white blood cells called lymphocytes. For introductory information about CLL, including its symptoms and risk factors, see the Key questions chapter on pages 8–13.

Diagnosis

Some combination of the following tests will help your doctor to confirm a diagnosis of CLL.

Physical examination

Your doctor will examine your body and check different areas for swelling. In particular, the doctor will feel your abdomen to work out whether the spleen and liver are enlarged, and also check your neck, armpits and other areas for swollen lymph nodes.

Monoclonal B-cell lymphocytosis (MBL)

Some people are diagnosed with a blood abnormality called monoclonal B-cell lymphocytosis (MBL). MBL is a condition that resembles chronic lymphocytic leukaemia, but isn’t classed as leukaemia as there aren’t enough of the abnormal cells present. MBL doesn’t require treatment, but you will need regular blood tests to monitor your lymphocyte count. About 1–2% of people with this condition develop CLL every year requiring treatment. Of those people who do progress to CLL, most have early-stage CLL (see page 20).
Blood tests

A sample of your blood will be sent to a laboratory, where a disease specialist called a pathologist will examine it. There are several types of tests that can be done on a blood sample:

**Full blood count (FBC)** – This measures the number, size and maturity of each type of blood cell. Test results show what type of leukaemia cell is present.

**Blood film** – A blood sample is spread onto a glass slide and examined under a microscope to work out what your leukaemia cells look like and to help decide what type of leukaemia is present.

**Immunophenotyping (flow cytometry)** – This test uses a machine called a flow cytometer to look for signals on the surface of the cell called antigens. Finding certain antigens in your blood can confirm the diagnosis of CLL.

**Genetic tests** – Cytogenetic or fluorescent in situ hybridisation (FISH) tests provide information about the chromosomes in the cells, which contain genetic information called DNA. Many patients with CLL have damage to at least one chromosome, such as a part missing or deleted. The most common chromosomal changes include 13q and 17p. There are also other genetic changes or changes that are too small to be found on tests.

By identifying any changed or damaged chromosomes, genetic tests help the medical team to make a diagnosis and plan the most effective treatment.
**Bone marrow biopsy**

Some people have a bone marrow biopsy to check for leukaemia cells and to work out the type of leukaemia.

During the biopsy, the doctor uses a thin needle to remove a small amount of bone marrow, usually from your hipbone (pelvic bone). Although it can take up to 30 minutes to prepare for the biopsy, the actual procedure takes only a few minutes. You will be given a local anaesthetic to numb the area or light sedation to help you feel relaxed. It will be uncomfortable while the sample is taken, but you may also be given some medicine for pain.

Pain medicine may make you feel drowsy, so arrange for a family member or a friend to drive you home afterwards. The bone marrow sample will be sent to a laboratory for testing, and results are usually available within a week.

**Lymph node biopsy**

Most people won’t need a lymph node biopsy because CLL is diagnosed in the blood. Rarely, an enlarged lymph node is removed to confirm the diagnosis of CLL. This is called a lymph node (or gland) biopsy.

You will be given a general anaesthetic and/or light sedation, and part or all of a lymph node will be removed through a cut in the skin. The area is closed with a few stitches, then the lymph node is sent to the laboratory for testing. Most people can go home the same day. You’ll need someone to drive you as the pain medicine can cause drowsiness.
**CT scan**

Some people with CLL may need a CT (computerised tomography) scan. This test uses x-rays to create a detailed, cross-sectional picture of the body. It can detect if your lymph nodes are affected and if your spleen is enlarged.

Before the scan, you may have an injection of a dye (called contrast) to make particular areas easier to see. Let your doctor know if you have had a reaction to iodine or dyes during a previous scan. You will lie on a table while the CT scanner, which is large and round like a doughnut, takes pictures. The scan can take up to 30 minutes, and most people are able to go home straight after.

**Further tests**

Some people have further tests, such as an x-ray or ultrasound. These can show how advanced the CLL is and how it is affecting your organs. Talk to your medical team for more information.

**Staging**

The tests described on pages 16–19 are often used by doctors to work out how far the leukaemia has progressed. This will help determine a person’s prognosis (outlook) and guide the treatment.

There are two staging systems commonly used for CLL: the Binet system and the Rai system. Most Australian doctors use the Binet system (see next page). The Rai system divides CLL into five stages and separates these stages into low-, intermediate- and high-risk groups. It is used mainly in the United States.
Prognosis

Prognosis means the expected outcome of a disease. You will need to discuss your prognosis with your doctor, who will be able to give you an indication of what stage leukaemia you have (see above).

It is not possible for any doctor to know the exact course of your disease. However, your doctor might be able to tell you whether any of your test results, particularly the genetic or chromosomal tests, can help predict how the CLL may respond to particular forms of treatment.

While CLL is not generally a curable disease, the outlook for people with CLL is improving constantly. For many people, CLL progresses slowly, treatment is never required and they live a normal life span. For others, CLL progresses more quickly, but treatment controls the CLL and allows them to have a good quality of life for many years.

### Binet staging system

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stage A</td>
<td>A high number of white blood cells but fewer than three enlarged areas of lymph tissue (lymph nodes, liver and/or spleen).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage B</td>
<td>A high number of white blood cells and three or more enlarged areas of lymph tissue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage C</td>
<td>A high number of white blood cells with a low number of red blood cells (anaemia) and/or platelets (thrombocytopenia).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Treatment
CLL usually develops slowly without many symptoms. People diagnosed with CLL often don’t need treatment straightaway, and some people don’t ever require treatment. This may be surprising to hear, but research has shown that for people without symptoms, starting treatment straightaway is not any better than delaying treatment until it is needed. It also means you won’t have to go through the side effects of treatment until necessary.

Active monitoring
Active monitoring is when your doctor recommends no treatment but monitors your health with regular check-ups and blood tests. This is sometimes called “careful monitoring” or “watch and wait”.

People with CLL have a lowered resistance to infection and this could make you prone to other health problems such as shingles or the flu. Talk to your doctor about symptoms of infections or viruses to watch out for, and get treatment as soon as possible if you experience these symptoms. Your doctor may also recommend an annual flu vaccination, but you should not have the shingles vaccination as it is a live virus. It’s also advised to have regular skin checks as people with CLL are more likely to develop skin cancer.

Living with untreated chronic leukaemia may make you feel anxious. It may help to talk to your medical team or contact the hospital social worker or psychologist for support. You can also speak to other people who have CLL (see pages 46–47).
**When to start active treatment**

Your doctor may decide to begin treatment if:
- you have symptoms such as fevers, sweats or weight loss
- the number of red cells and platelets fall
- lymph nodes become large and put pressure on structures in your neck or kidneys
- your spleen becomes enlarged
- the number of lymphocytes in your blood doubles in less than six months.

**Treatment options**

The treatment for CLL will depend on the features of the leukaemia, your age and health status. Treatment options start with first-line treatment. The aim of this treatment is to reduce the number of CLL cells and get the disease under control. Although most people respond well to treatment, it’s likely that the disease will come back (recur) in some people, and they will have further treatment known as second-line treatment.

A small number of people, 5–10%, have a genetic change in the cells that means the CLL transforms into a new type of cancer. This is called Richter’s transformation, and it leads to a faster-growing type of non-Hodgkin lymphoma known as diffuse large B-cell lymphoma. Your doctor will discuss the available treatments.

Sometimes CLL doesn’t respond to treatment but the disease remains stable. This is known as refractory or resistant CLL. Your specialist will talk to you about other treatments you can consider. You may also want to join a clinical trial (see page 15).
Chemotherapy

If you need treatment for CLL, you may have chemotherapy. This treatment uses anti-cancer drugs called cytotoxics to kill the leukaemia cells or slow their growth.

Your doctors may recommend that you have a combination of chemotherapy and targeted therapy drugs (see page 25). There are many different drugs for CLL depending on your age, health and personal preferences.

The most commonly used regime for first-line treatment of CLL is FCR – a combination of the chemotherapy drugs fludarabine and cyclophosphamide and the monoclonal antibody drug rituximab. The chemotherapy drugs are given as tablets, while rituximab is given as a drip or injection into a vein. Each treatment period is followed by a rest period. This cycle is repeated up to six times.

In an older person, or someone with other medical issues, the FCR combination may cause too many side effects and a less intense regime may be offered. This is usually the chemotherapy tablet chlorambucil together with the monoclonal antibodies ofatumumab or obinutuzumab, which are given as a drip. This cycle may be repeated up to 12 times.

People with some chromosomal abnormalities, such as 17p deletion, may not respond to certain chemotherapy drugs. Your haematologist will talk to you about suitable treatment options.
## Taking care with infections during chemotherapy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reduce your risk</th>
<th>When to seek medical help</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To prevent the spread of infection:</td>
<td>Contact your doctor or go to the nearest hospital emergency department immediately if you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• check with your doctor about having the flu vaccine</td>
<td>experience one or more of the following symptoms:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• ask people close to you to consider having a flu shot</td>
<td>• a fever of 38°C or higher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• ask family and friends with a cold, flu or other contagious infection (e.g.</td>
<td>• chills or shivering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>measles, chickenpox or a cold sore) to wait until they are well before visiting</td>
<td>• sweating, especially at night</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• as far as practical, avoid close contact with people you live with if they are</td>
<td>• burning or stinging feeling when urinating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unwell</td>
<td>• a severe cough or sore throat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• try to avoid crowded places, such as shopping centres or public transport in</td>
<td>• vomiting that lasts more than a few hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peak hour</td>
<td>• severe abdominal pain, constipation or diarrhoea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• wash your hands with soap and water before preparing food and eating, and after</td>
<td>• unusual bleeding or bruising, such as nosebleeds, blood in your urine or black bowel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>using the toilet</td>
<td>motions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• ensure you prepare and store food properly to avoid foodborne illness and</td>
<td>• prolonged faintness or dizziness and a rapid heartbeat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>food poisoning</td>
<td>• any sudden deterioration in your health.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• eat freshly cooked foods; avoid, raw fish, seafood, meat, eggs and soft</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cheeses; wash fruits and vegetables well before eating.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Side effects** – Chemotherapy drugs can affect your healthy cells, which can cause side effects. For example, you may have an increased risk of infections (see tips opposite), easy bruising, nausea, taste and smell changes, or fatigue.

Side effects of chemotherapy tablets are usually mild, but the effects may be more troublesome if you have intravenous chemotherapy. Your haematologist will prescribe various medicines to help ease the side effects. Some people will need a blood transfusion.

For information on managing side effects, call 13 11 20 to request a free copy of *Understanding Chemotherapy*, or download a digital version from cancercouncil.com.au.

**Targeted therapy**

Targeted therapy drugs target specific molecules within cancer cells that allow cancer to grow and spread. The most common type of targeted therapy for CLL is a group of drugs called monoclonal antibodies. Tyrosine kinase inhibitors are another type of targeted therapy that is sometimes used for CLL. They may be given alone or together with chemotherapy.

**Monoclonal antibodies** – These drugs target and attach to certain cells, including leukaemia cells, and cause them to die or make them more prone to being killed by the body’s own immune system. Common monoclonal antibodies include rituximab, ofatumumab and obinutuzumab. These drugs are usually given through a drip into a vein or as an injection under the skin, usually as an outpatient.
The side effects of monoclonal antibodies vary depending on which drugs you are given. Signs of a reaction to the infusion include flushing, low blood pressure, high temperature or itching. This can be managed by administering the drug over several hours. Other side effects may include an increased risk of infection, fever, sweating, chills and diarrhoea.

**Tyrosine kinase inhibitors** – These drugs work by blocking a protein that tells leukaemia cells to grow and divide. Without this signal, the cells die. Bruton’s tyrosine kinase inhibitors (BTKIs) block a protein called Bruton’s tyrosine kinase.

A BTKI called ibrutinib has recently been approved in Australia for some people with CLL who meet the specific criteria for its use, such as the leukaemia coming back within two or three years.

**Other treatments**
In some cases, your doctor may recommend other ways to manage and control symptoms of CLL and side effects of treatments.

**Steroid therapy** – Steroids are made naturally in the body and can also be produced artificially and used as drugs. They may be used with chemotherapy to treat CLL, or alone if you have a sudden drop in your red blood cell count.
**Allopurinol** – If you have a very high white blood cell count, a chemical called uric acid may build up in the blood during treatment. This can cause pain and inflammation of the joints (gout) and may damage your kidneys. To prevent this, you may be given allopurinol tablets.

**Radiation therapy** – This uses radiation, such as x-rays, to treat cancer. It is not a standard treatment for CLL, but may be used to treat a swollen spleen or lymph nodes. It is also helpful for people having palliative treatment (see page 28). Call 13 11 20 for a free copy of our *Understanding Radiation Therapy* booklet, or download a digital version from cancercouncil.com.au.

**Surgery (splenectomy)** – Occasionally, your spleen will be removed if it is very swollen and pressing on nearby organs. This treatment is used only for people who have immune thrombocytopenic purpura (ITP), an autoimmune disease that targets the platelets. Your surgeon can give you more information about this operation.

**Stem cell transplant** – This isn’t a suitable treatment for most people with CLL. This is because the procedure is considered too risky for people with a slow-growing disease. If the disease is progressing more quickly, some people who haven’t responded to chemotherapy may be offered a reduced intensity stem cell transplant (sometimes called a mini transplant). This means lower doses of chemotherapy and radiation therapy are used for the transplant, so it is easier for the body to tolerate. See pages 39–40 for information about stem cell transplants.
**Immunoglobulin infusions** – Immunoglobulin is an antibody that helps your body fight infections. CLL usually causes low immunoglobulin levels, so you may be given immunoglobulins through a drip to help boost your immune system if infections keep coming back or are severe.

**Palliative treatment**
In some cases of advanced CLL, the medical team may talk to you about palliative treatment. Palliative treatment helps to improve people’s quality of life by alleviating symptoms of cancer without trying to cure the disease. It is best thought of as supportive care and can be used at any stage of advanced cancer.

As well as slowing the spread of cancer, palliative treatment can relieve pain and help manage other symptoms. There is no single program of palliative treatment – the treatment you are offered will be tailored to your individual needs. Treatment may include blood transfusions, radiation therapy, chemotherapy, targeted therapy or other medicines.

Palliative treatment is one aspect of palliative care, in which a team of health professionals aim to meet your physical, emotional, practical and spiritual needs. The team also provides support to families and carers.

For more information or free booklets on palliative care or advanced cancer, call Cancer Council 13 11 20 or download digital versions from cancercouncil.com.au.
Key points

• Your doctor will take a blood sample to check for leukaemia cells. Other blood tests may include immunophenotyping and genetic tests. These tests examine genetic information from your cells to confirm that you have CLL.

• Some people may have a bone marrow biopsy (when bone marrow is taken from your hipbone) to check for leukaemia cells.

• You may have further tests, such as a lymph node biopsy, CT scan, x-ray or ultrasound.

• Staging indicates how far the leukaemia has progressed and helps doctors work out the best treatment for you.

• Your doctor will talk to you about your prognosis. This is a general prediction about the course of the disease.

• Not everyone diagnosed with CLL will need treatment right away. It is common to wait until the leukaemia causes symptoms or reaches a more advanced stage before starting treatment. This is called active monitoring.

• You may have treatment with chemotherapy drugs to kill leukaemia cells. The side effects depend on the drugs you are given.

• Some people with CLL have targeted therapy drugs such as monoclonal antibodies or tyrosine kinase inhibitors.

• Your doctor may recommend other treatments, such as steroid therapy, radiation therapy, surgery, a stem cell transplant or a clinical trial.

• Palliative care includes treatment that helps improve your quality of life without trying to cure the leukaemia.
This chapter explains how chronic myeloid leukaemia (CML) is diagnosed and treated. CML affects the white blood cells called granulocytes (which are part of the myeloid family). For introductory information about CML, including its symptoms and risk factors, see the Key questions chapter on pages 8–13.

**Diagnosis**

Your doctor will do a physical examination and organise tests of your blood or bone marrow to work out whether you have CML. You may have other tests such as a CT scan or ultrasound to confirm the diagnosis.

**Philadelphia chromosome**

Most cells in the human body contain 23 pairs of chromosomes. Chromosomes are threadlike structures that contain sets of instructions known as genes.

Nearly all people with CML have an abnormal chromosome called the Philadelphia chromosome.

The Philadelphia chromosome is not inherited and cannot be passed on to your children – it is a genetic change that happens to some people over the course of life. This chromosome contains the BCR-ABL gene. The diagram opposite explains the process.

BCR-ABL is considered a cancer gene because it is present only in developing cancer cells. It tells the body to produce an abnormal type of enzyme called tyrosine kinase, which instructs leukaemia cells to grow and multiply.

All people with CML are treated with drugs to block tyrosine kinase (see pages 35–36).
Physical examination
Your doctor will examine your body and feel your abdomen to check whether your spleen and liver are enlarged.

Blood tests
Full blood count – Your doctor will take a blood sample and send it to a laboratory for a full blood count (FBC). This test measures the number, size and maturity of different blood cells.

Genetic tests (cytogenetic and molecular tests) – Every kind of cancer, including blood cancer, changes the genes of the affected cells. These gene faults are not the same thing as genes

Chromosome 9

Chromosome 22

Philadelphia chromosome

BCR gene

ABL gene

Gene swap
The Philadelphia chromosome is formed when parts of two chromosomes break off and switch places. A gene from chromosome 22, called BCR, and a gene from chromosome 9, called ABL, create the BCR-ABL gene.
passed through families. The fault is only in the structure of the leukaemia cells, not in normal cells. The study of these gene changes is called cytogenetics or molecular genetics.

You may be tested for a chromosomal abnormality with the FISH (fluorescence in situ hybridisation) test, or a molecular abnormality with the PCR (polymerase chain reaction) test. These tests check for the Philadelphia chromosome and the BCR-ABL gene (see box pages 30–31) or another abnormality. The PCR test is also used during treatment to check how well you are responding, and whether further treatment is needed.

**Bone marrow biopsy**

Your doctor may arrange a bone marrow biopsy to see if you have the Philadelphia chromosome and check how many blood cells are affected. The doctor uses a thin needle to remove a small amount of bone marrow, usually from your hipbone (pelvic bone). You will be given a local anaesthetic or light sedation to help you feel relaxed.

Although it can take up to 30 minutes to prepare for the biopsy, the actual procedure takes only a few minutes. You may also be given pain medicine. Pain medicine may make you feel drowsy, so arrange for someone to drive you home afterwards. The bone marrow results are usually available within a week.

**Further tests**

Some people also have an ultrasound, which uses soundwaves to create pictures of the inside of your body. It’s useful for recording the size of your spleen. Talk to your medical team for more information.
**Staging**

The test results allow the doctor to work out how far the disease has progressed. This process is called staging, and it helps the doctor decide on the best treatment for you. CML is classified into three groups, and these are called phases instead of stages. The phases are based on the number of immature white blood cells found in the blood and bone marrow.

CML is most often diagnosed in the chronic phase. Most people stay in this phase for a few years without treatment. With treatment, it can last more than 20 years.

If the disease progresses, it doesn’t always do it in a direct way. That is, it might move from chronic to blast phase, skipping the accelerated phase.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phases of CML</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Chronic</strong></td>
<td>The white blood cell count is increased and a small number of immature cells called blast cells are found in the blood and bone marrow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Accelerated</strong></td>
<td>After several years, the leukaemia may suddenly change and progress quickly. At this time, your spleen may become enlarged and your white blood cell count may rise rapidly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Blast</strong></td>
<td>The number of blast cells increases, symptoms worsen, and blast cells often spread to other organs. This is sometimes called blast crisis. Bleeding, infections and anaemia can occur.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Prognosis**

Prognosis means the expected outcome of a disease. It is not possible for any doctor to know exactly what will happen, but your medical team can predict how the CML will respond to treatment based on the phase of the disease, your blood counts and if your spleen is enlarged. They will also arrange tests throughout your treatment to check how well the CML is responding.

Recent advances in CML treatment have dramatically improved outcomes. For most people, the goal of treatment is to prevent the disease progressing from the chronic phase. If the CML does move into the accelerated or blast phases, however, there are good treatment options.

**Treatment**

All people with CML will be offered treatment to control the disease regardless of the phase at diagnosis. The type of treatment will depend on how far the leukaemia has progressed and your health. Some treatments are part of clinical trials (see page 15).

The main aim of treatment is to control the leukaemia so the signs of the disease reduce or disappear (remission). Another goal is to stop the CML from progressing to a more advanced phase.

The initial treatment of the cancer is known as first-line treatment. Once this is finished, your specialist will check if the cancer is responding to treatment. If treatment stops working, you will be offered second-line treatment.
Targeted therapy: tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs)

The main treatment for CML is a targeted therapy that uses drugs called tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs). These drugs work by blocking a chemical called tyrosine kinase, which is abnormally active in CML due to the effect of the Philadelphia chromosome. Tyrosine kinase tells the leukaemia cells to divide and grow. Without this signal, the cells die.

TKIs are taken as a tablet once or twice a day. They include imatinib, dasatinib, nilotinib and ponatinib. The type of TKI you are prescribed will depend on several factors including what other medical problems you have.

While TKIs can’t cure CML, they can cause the signs and symptoms of CML to reduce or disappear. This means most people can return to their usual activities. The drugs will need to be taken long-term, and you will need to have regular blood tests (see Follow-up appointments, page 45) to check CML hasn’t returned.

When I was first diagnosed I was put on imatinib, but I had severe side effects so my haematologist put me on dasatinib. I’ve been on this for over 8 years with excellent results. As the leukaemia is still detected in the regular blood tests, there’s no plans to discontinue treatment in the foreseeable future. Patricia
For some people, stopping TKI treatment may be an option. People who have had a good response to a TKI for at least three years may be able to stop taking these drugs. If you stop, frequent monitoring is needed. Half the people who stop have no further issues, and the other half have a recurrence and need to restart taking TKIs.

Each TKI works in a slightly different way. This means that if the TKI doesn’t control the CML or it stops working for you, your doctor may switch to another type of TKI.

**Side effects** – Most side effects from TKIs are mild. However, as with any medicine, each has particular side effects. These side effects may include: fatigue; nausea and vomiting; headache; diarrhoea; itchy skin rashes; facial, hand or leg swelling; anaemia, bruising or infections; and build-up of fluid around the lungs or heart.

Talk to your medical team if you have any of these side effects. Your doctor may be able to prescribe medicine to prevent or reduce them. Sometimes these side effects mean your doctor needs to change the dose of the TKI you are taking or change to a different TKI. For more information about TKIs and their side effects, visit the Leukaemia Foundation at leukaemia.org.au.
Chemotherapy

Chemotherapy is treatment with anti-cancer drugs called cytotoxics that kill or slow the growth of the cancer cells.

Most people will be prescribed TKIs as their first treatment for CML in the chronic phase. However, some may be given a mild chemotherapy tablet called hydroxyurea for a short time to lower their white blood cell count and get the symptoms under control before TKI treatment is given.

For the small number of people who can’t take TKIs, chronic-phase CML may be treated with a course of hydroxyurea lasting several months.

Side effects – The side effects of hydroxyurea may include dry skin, nausea, drowsiness and a small amount of hair loss. Side effects are usually mild, and there are medicines available to help manage them.

Different chemotherapy drugs may be given to people who have not responded to TKI therapy or who are preparing for a stem cell transplant (see pages 39–40). You might also have chemotherapy if the CML is in the blast phase. The chemotherapy drugs are often given into a vein (intravenously) and tend to be much stronger, so you may need to have the treatment in hospital. The side effects depend on the type of chemotherapy drugs you have.

To find out more, talk to your medical team, call Cancer Council 13 11 20, or contact the Leukaemia Foundation on 1800 620 420.
Other treatments
Less commonly, your doctor may recommend other therapies to treat the CML or to manage symptoms and side effects.

Immunotherapy – Immunotherapy treatment aims to boost the response of your body’s immune system to the cancer. The immunotherapy drug interferon alpha was the main form of treatment for CML before TKIs were developed. Although it is not used very often now, some clinical trials use it to see whether patients can stop their TKIs.

Interferon alpha is a protein that is produced naturally by the body when it is fighting an infection. It also helps the immune system cells communicate with each other. The drug is a copy of this protein that is made in a laboratory. It is given as an injection under the skin (subcutaneously). Side effects can include chills, fever, weight loss and fatigue, and are most noticeable after the first few injections. Your doctor may be able to prescribe medicine to manage your side effects.

Allopurinol – If your white blood cell count is very high, a chemical called uric acid can build up in the blood during treatment. This can cause pain and inflammation of the joints (gout) and may damage the kidneys. To prevent uric acid building up, you will probably be given allopurinol tablets.

Leukopheresis – An extremely high level of white blood cells can interfere with your organ function by making your blood too thick to flow properly.
If your white blood cell count is dangerously high – for example, during blast crisis – you may have a procedure called leukopheresis in which the excess white cells are skimmed out of your blood. This will quickly reduce your white blood cell count to a safer level. It is used to control symptoms, and not to treat or cure the disease.

During leukopheresis treatment, you will have a needle or tube called a catheter inserted in each arm. One tube removes your blood and passes it through a machine that separates the blood into its individual components. The extra white cells are removed, and the rest of the blood components are returned to your body through the second tube in a continuous process.

Only about 250 ml of your blood is outside your body at any one time. This process can take 2–4 hours, but is not painful.

**Stem cell transplant** – This treatment is not often used for CML, but it may be offered to some people with accelerated or blast phase CML who have stopped responding to TKI drugs, or to people whose disease is not controlled with chemotherapy. Transplants aren’t suitable for everyone, especially older patients. Your doctors will tell you if a transplant might help.

Transplants require immature, blood-forming stem cells to be collected, usually from another person (allogeneic transplant). Stem cells can be taken from the bloodstream (peripheral blood stem cell transplant), bone marrow (bone marrow transplant) or umbilical cord blood (cord blood transplant). Transplants are not done at every hospital, so you may have to travel for treatment.
Your health care team will explain transplant procedures for your situation and possible side effects. There are several stages of treatment, and the entire process may take many months.

**Palliative treatment**

In some cases of advanced CML, the medical team may talk to you about palliative treatment. Palliative treatment improves quality of life by relieving symptoms of cancer without trying to cure the disease. It can be used at any stage of advanced cancer and is not just for end-of-life care. Rather, it is about living for as long as possible in the most satisfying way you can.

As well as slowing the spread of cancer, palliative treatment can relieve pain and help manage other symptoms. It may include blood transfusions, radiation therapy, chemotherapy, targeted therapy or other therapies.

Palliative treatment is one aspect of palliative care, in which a team of health professionals aim to meet your physical, practical, emotional, spiritual and social needs. For free booklets on palliative care or advanced cancer, call Cancer Council 13 11 20 or download digital versions from cancercouncil.com.au.

For more information on stem cell transplants for CML, contact the Leukaemia Foundation on 1800 620 420 or visit leukaemia.org.au/treatments/stem-cell-transplants.
Key points

- The blood and bone marrow cells of most people with CML have genetic abnormalities. The Philadelphia chromosome contains the BCR-ABL gene, which produces an overactive tyrosine kinase protein that instructs leukaemia cells to grow.

- Genetic tests, such as fluorescence in situ hybridisation (FISH) and polymerase chain reaction (PCR), analyse blood or bone marrow to look for the Philadelphia chromosome or the BCR-ABL gene.

- To test for CML, a blood sample will be taken. A small amount of bone marrow may also be removed with a needle (bone marrow biopsy).

- CML is divided into three phases. These phases help guide treatment.

- Your doctor will talk to you about your prognosis. This is a general prediction about the course of your disease.

- You will be treated with tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs). These are drugs that block a chemical that tells the leukaemia cells to grow.

- You may have anti-cancer drugs (chemotherapy). The side effects depend on what drugs you are given.

- You may have injections of interferon alpha, a protein produced by the body when it is fighting an infection.

- In rare cases, some people have a stem cell transplant to destroy the remaining leukaemia cells.

- Palliative treatment aims to improve your quality of life without trying to cure the leukaemia.
Looking after yourself

Cancer can cause physical and emotional strain, so it’s important to try to look after your wellbeing.

**Nutrition** – Eating well can help you cope with treatment and side effects. A dietitian can help you manage special dietary needs or eating problems, and choose the best foods for your situation. Call Cancer Council 13 11 20 or visit cancercouncil.com.au for a free copy of the *Nutrition and Cancer* booklet.

**Staying active** – Physical activity may help to reduce tiredness, improve circulation and elevate mood. The amount and type of exercise you do depends on what you are used to, how you feel, and your doctor’s advice. Cancer Council’s *Exercise for People Living with Cancer* booklet provides more information about the benefits of exercise, and outlines simple exercises that you may want to try.

**Complementary therapies** – These therapies are used with conventional medical treatments. You may have therapies such as massage, relaxation and acupuncture to increase your sense of control, decrease stress and anxiety, and improve your mood. Let your doctor know about any therapies you are using or thinking about trying, as some may not be safe. Alternative therapies are used instead of conventional medical treatments. These therapies, such as coffee enemas and magnet therapy, can be harmful.

For more information, call 13 11 20 and request a free copy of the *Understanding Complementary Therapies* booklet, or download a digital version from cancercouncil.com.au.
Relationships with others
Having cancer can affect your relationships with family, friends and colleagues. This may be because cancer is stressful, tiring and upsetting, or as a result of more positive changes to your values, priorities, or outlook on life.

Give yourself time to adjust to what’s happening, and do the same for others. People may deal with the cancer in different ways – for example, by being overly positive, playing down fears, or keeping a distance. It may be helpful to discuss your feelings with each other.

Sexuality, intimacy and fertility
Cancer can affect your sexuality in physical and emotional ways. The impact of these changes depends on many factors, such as treatment and side effects, your self-confidence, and if you have a partner. Although sexual intercourse may not always be possible, closeness and sharing can still be part of your relationship.

If you are able to have sex, you may be advised to use certain types of contraception to protect your partner or avoid pregnancy for a certain period of time. Your doctor will talk to you about the precautions to take. They will also tell you if treatment will affect your fertility permanently or temporarily. If having children is important to you, talk to your doctor before starting treatment.

Call 13 11 20 for free copies of Sexuality, Intimacy and Cancer, Fertility and Cancer and Emotions and Cancer, or download the digital versions from cancercouncil.com.au.
Life after treatment

For most people, the cancer experience doesn’t end on the last day of treatment. Life after cancer treatment can present its own challenges. You may have mixed feelings when treatment ends, and worry if every ache and pain means the cancer is coming back.

Some people say they feel pressure to return to “normal life”, but they don’t want life to return to how it was before cancer. Take some time to adjust to the physical and emotional changes, and re-establish a new daily routine at your own pace.

Cancer Council 13 11 20 can help you connect with other people who have had cancer, and provide you with information about the emotional and practical aspects of living well after cancer.

Dealing with feelings of sadness

If you have continued feelings of sadness, have trouble getting up in the morning or have lost motivation to do things that previously gave you pleasure, you may be experiencing depression. This is quite common among people who have had cancer.

Talk to your GP, as counselling or medication – even for a short time – may help. Some people are able to get a Medicare rebate for sessions with a psychologist. Ask your doctor if you are eligible.

The organisation beyondblue has information about coping with depression and anxiety. Visit beyondblue.org.au or call 1300 22 4636 to order a fact sheet.
Follow-up appointments
After your treatment, you will need regular check-ups to confirm that the cancer hasn’t come back. The time between visits will increase as your disease is stabilised.

During these regular check-ups, you will have a physical examination, blood tests and, possibly, chest x-rays and scans. If these tests show no further problems, your appointments will become less frequent. Tell your doctor immediately if you have any health problems or notice new symptoms between check-ups.

If you are taking TKIs for CML on a long-term basis, you will also need to have ongoing blood tests to measure the BCR-ABL gene (see pages 30–31). This is a requirement of the Pharmaceutical Benefits Scheme (PBS), which covers most of the cost of the TKIs.

What if the leukaemia returns?
In many cases, treatment for CLL or CML will make the leukaemia symptoms ease or disappear for a period of time. This is called remission. It is common for CLL to come back (recur or relapse) after treatment and following a period of remission. People with CML who are being treated with TKIs like imatinib may also have times when the leukaemia is no longer controlled by their current drugs or transforms to a more advanced phase.

If you have a recurrence or the disease transforms, further treatment can usually be given to control the leukaemia and may lead to another remission. In some situations, doctors may recommend a stem cell transplant (see pages 39–40).
Seeking support

Cancer may cause you to experience a range of emotions, such as fear, sadness, anxiety, anger or frustration. It can also cause practical and financial problems.

Practical and financial help
There are many services that can help deal with practical or financial problems caused by the cancer. Benefits, pensions and programs can help pay for prescription medicines, transport costs or utility bills. Home care services, aids and appliances can also be arranged to help make life easier.

Ask the hospital social worker which services are available in your local area and if you are eligible to receive them.

If you need legal or financial advice, you should talk to a qualified professional about your situation. Cancer Council NSW offers free legal and financial advice for people who can't afford to pay – call 13 11 20 to ask if you are eligible.

Talk to someone who’s been there
Coming into contact with other people who have had similar experiences to you can be beneficial. You may feel supported and relieved to know that others understand what you are going through and that you are not alone.

People often feel they can speak openly and share tips with others who have gone through a similar experience.
In a support group, you may find that you are comfortable talking about your diagnosis and treatment, relationships with friends and family, and hopes and fears for the future. Some people say they can be even more open and honest because they aren’t trying to protect their loved ones.

**Types of support**

There are many ways to connect with others for mutual support and to share information. These include:

- **face-to-face support groups** – often held in community centres or hospitals
- **telephone support groups** – facilitated by trained counsellors
- **peer support programs** – match you with someone who has had a similar cancer experience, e.g. Cancer Connect
- **online forums** – such as cancercouncil.com.au/OC.

Talk to your nurse, social worker or Cancer Council 13 11 20 about what is available in your area.

*The Thing About Cancer podcast*

For more information about all things cancer, listen to Cancer Council NSW’s audio podcast series, *The Thing About Cancer*. The episodes cover a wide range of topics, from the first experience of getting a diagnosis, through the process of weighing up treatment options and managing side effects, to explaining cancer to kids and dealing with some of the longer term issues of recovery. To listen, go to cancercouncil.com.au/podcasts.
Caring for someone with cancer

You may be reading this booklet because you are caring for someone with cancer. Being a carer can be stressful and cause you much anxiety. Try to look after yourself – give yourself some time out and share your worries and concerns with somebody neutral, such as a counsellor or your doctor.

Many cancer support groups and cancer education programs are open to carers, as well as to people with cancer. Support groups and programs can offer valuable opportunities to share experiences and ways of coping.

Support services such as Home Help, Meals on Wheels or visiting nurses can help you in your caring role, and other organisations can provide information and support. Carers NSW is a statewide organisation specifically for carers – you can contact them on 1800 242 636 or visit carersnsw.org.au. You can also call Cancer Council 13 11 20 to find out more about carers’ services and to get a copy of the *Caring for Someone with Cancer* booklet.

**Bone marrow and blood donations**

One way people can offer indirect support to someone with chronic leukaemia is by becoming a bone marrow donor or a blood donor. Bone marrow donors need to be matched to the patient, so the first step is to join the Australian Bone Marrow Donor Registry – find out more at abmdr.org.au. Many people are eligible to donate blood at the Australian Red Cross Blood Service. Call 13 14 95 or go to donateblood.com.au.
Useful websites

The internet has many useful resources, although not all websites are reliable. The websites listed below are good sources of support and information.

**Australian**

- Cancer Council NSW ........................................ cancercouncil.com.au
- Cancer Council Australia ........................................ cancer.org.au
- Cancer Institute NSW ........................................ cancerinstitute.org.au
- Healthdirect Australia ........................................ healthdirect.gov.au
- Leukaemia Foundation ........................................ leukaemia.org.au
- Arrow Bone Marrow Transplant Foundation ................. arrow.org.au
- Australian Cancer Trials ...................................... australiancancertrials.gov.au

*The Thing About Cancer* podcasts..... cancercouncil.com.au/podcasts

**International**

- American Cancer Society ...................................... cancer.org
- National Cancer Institute (US) ............................... cancer.gov
- Leukemia & Lymphoma Society (US) ......................... lls.org
- Macmillan Cancer Support (UK) ........................... macmillan.org.uk
- Cancer Research UK ........................................... cancerresearchuk.org
You may find this checklist helpful when thinking about the questions you want to ask your doctor about chronic leukaemia and its treatment. If your doctor gives you answers that you don’t understand, ask for clarification.

- What type of chronic leukaemia do I have?
- What tests do I need?
- What treatment do you recommend and why?
- What are the risks and possible side effects of each treatment?
- How long will treatment take? How much will it affect what I can do?
- How much will treatment cost? How can the cost be reduced?
- Will I have a lot of pain with the treatment? What side effects should I report? How will it be managed?
- Are the latest tests and treatments for this type of cancer available in this hospital?
- What happens if the leukaemia comes back?
- Are there any clinical trials of new treatments?
- Who should I go to for my check-up appointments and how often will I have them?
- Are there any complementary therapies that might help me?
- Will the treatment affect my sex life and fertility?
- Should I change my diet during or after treatment?
- If the cancer comes back, how will I know?
abdomen
The part of the body between the chest and hips that contains the stomach, spleen, pancreas, liver, gall bladder, bowel, bladder and kidneys.

active monitoring
When a person does not need immediate treatment, but instead has their health monitored regularly, with the option of future treatment if necessary. Sometimes called careful monitoring or watch and wait.

acute leukaemia
A fast-growing cancer that produces large numbers of immature white blood cells that then enter the bloodstream.

advanced cancer
Cancer that is unlikely to be cured. It may be limited to its original site (primary cancer) or may have spread to other parts of the body (secondary or metastatic cancer).

allogeneic stem cell transplant
A transplant where the stem cells or tissues are taken from one person and given to another.

anaemia
A reduction in the number or quality of red blood cells in the body.

anaesthetic
A drug that stops a person feeling pain during a medical procedure. Local and regional anaesthetics numb part of the body; a general anaesthetic causes a temporary loss of consciousness.

antibody
A protein made by the blood in response to an invader (antigen) in the body. They help protect the body against viruses, bacteria and other foreign substances.

antigen
Any substance that causes the immune system to respond. This response often involves making antibodies.

BCR-ABL gene
A gene that’s created when cells don’t divide properly. It leads to a protein called tyrosine kinase being made.

biopsy
The removal of a small sample of tissue from the body for examination under a microscope to help diagnose a disease.

blast cells
Immature blood cells belonging to two families – myeloid and lymphoid. Blast cells are called myeloblasts in the myeloid family, and lymphoblasts in the lymphoid family.

bone marrow
The soft, spongy material inside bones, which produces red blood cells, white blood cells and platelets.

bone marrow biopsy
The removal of a small amount of bone marrow with a needle for examination under a microscope.

cells
The basic building blocks of the body. A human is made of billions of cells that are adapted for different functions.

chemotherapy
A cancer treatment that uses drugs to kill cancer cells or slow their growth. May be given alone or in combination with other treatments.
**chromosome**
A threadlike structure found in all body cells (except red blood cells). Chromosomes are made up of strings of proteins called genes.

**chronic leukaemia**
A slow-growing leukaemia that starts in the bone marrow and produces large numbers of abnormal white blood cells that then enter the bloodstream.

**chronic lymphocytic leukaemia (CLL)**
A slow-growing leukaemia in which too many abnormal lymphocytes (white blood cells of the lymphoid family) are found in the blood and bone marrow.

**chronic myeloid leukaemia (CML)**
A slow-growing leukaemia in which a range of immature and mature granulocytes (white blood cells of the myeloid family) are made in large quantities, and found in the blood and bone marrow.

**cytogenetics**
The study of chromosomes to look for changes in the structure.

**fine needle aspiration (FNA)**
A type of biopsy where a thin needle is inserted into a lump to extract cells.

**first-line treatment**
The first treatment used to target cancer.

**fluorescence in situ hybridisation (FISH)**
A test that uses special dyes to look for abnormal chromosomes.

**full blood count (FBC)**
A test that measures the number, size and maturity of each type of cell in the blood. Sometimes called a complete blood count.

**granulocyte**
A type of white blood cell of the myeloid family. There are four different kinds of granulocytes: neutrophils, eosinophils, basophils and mast cells.

**haematologist**
A doctor who specialises in studying and treating diseases of the blood, bone marrow and lymphatic system.

**immune system**
A network of cells and organs that defends the body against attacks by foreign invaders, such as bacteria and viruses.

**immunoglobulin**
A protein that is produced by plasma cells and fights infections.

**immunophenotyping**
A way of characterising cells by the signals they display on their surface.

**immunotherapy**
The prevention or treatment of disease using substances that alter the immune system’s response.

**interferon alpha**
A substance that occurs naturally within the body and which enhances the immune system’s fight against viruses.

**intravenous (IV)**
Injected into a vein.

**leukaemia**
A cancer of the white blood cells,
usually causing large numbers of white blood cells to be made.

**leukopheresis**
A procedure to quickly reduce white blood counts to a safe level.

**lymphatic system**
A network of tissues, capillaries, vessels, ducts and nodes that removes excess fluid from tissues, absorbs fatty acids and transports fat, and produces immune cells. Includes the bone marrow, spleen, thymus and lymph nodes.

**lymph node**
Small bean-shaped structures that collect and destroy bacteria and viruses. Also called lymph glands.

**lymphocyte**
A type of white blood cell of the lymphoid family.

**lymphoid**
One of the two groups of white blood cells. The lymphoid family only produces white blood cells.

**mini transplant**
See reduced intensity stem cell transplant.

**monoclonal antibodies**
A group of targeted therapy drugs that lock onto a specific protein on the surface of cancer cells and interfere with the cell's growth or survival.

**monoclonal B-cell lymphocytosis**
A blood condition that resembles chronic lymphocytic leukaemia, but is not classed as leukaemia as there aren’t enough of the abnormal cells present.

**myeloid**
One of the two groups of white blood cells. The myeloid family produces some types of white blood cells and all red blood cells and platelets.

**neutropenia**
A drop in the number of normal, healthy granulocytes (a type of white blood cell in the myeloid family).

**palliative treatment**
Medical treatment for people with advanced cancer to help manage pain and other physical and emotional symptoms. Treatment may include radiation therapy, chemotherapy or other therapies. It is an important part of palliative care.

**pathologist**
A specialist who interprets the results of tests (e.g. blood tests, biopsies).

**Philadelphia chromosome**
An abnormal chromosome associated with chronic myeloid leukaemia. It carries instructions for the body to produce tyrosine kinase, a protein that makes too many white blood cells.

**plasma**
The clear fluid part of the blood that carries blood cells.

**platelets**
One of three types of cells found in the blood. These help the blood to clot and stop bleeding. Also called thrombocytes.

**prognosis**
The predicted outcome of a person’s disease.
radiation therapy
The use of targeted radiation to kill or damage cancer cells so they cannot grow, multiply and spread. The radiation is usually in the form of x-ray beams. Also called radiotherapy.

recurrence
The return of a disease after a period of improvement.

red blood cells
One of three types of cells found in the blood. They carry oxygen around the body. Also called erythrocytes.

reduced intensity stem cell transplant
An allogeneic transplant that uses lower doses of chemotherapy and radiation therapy than normal, so it is easier for the body to tolerate. Also called a mini transplant.

refractory disease
Disease that does not respond to treatment. Also called resistant disease.

relapse
See recurrence.

remission
When the symptoms and signs of the cancer reduce or disappear. A partial remission is when there has been a significant reduction in symptoms but some cancer is still present. A complete remission is when there is no evidence of active cancer. This may not mean that the cancer is cured.

Richter’s transformation
When chronic lymphocytic leukaemia cells transform into a type of non-Hodgkin lymphoma known as diffuse large B cell lymphoma.

second-line treatment
Treatment that is given if the first line treatment doesn’t work or the disease comes back.

side effect
Unintended effect of a drug or treatment.

small lymphocytic lymphoma
A slow-growing lymphoma that is similar to chronic lymphocytic leukaemia.

spleen
An organ in the lymphatic system located on the left side of the abdomen under the ribs. The spleen produces lymphocytes, filters the blood, and destroys old blood cells, abnormal cells and bacteria.

splenectomy
Surgery to remove the spleen.

staging
Performing tests to determine how far the leukaemia has progressed.

stem cells
Unspecialised cells from which various types of mature cells can develop. Stem cells are found in the bone marrow.

stem cell transplant
A treatment in which diseased blood cells are destroyed by high-dose chemotherapy or radiation therapy, then replaced by healthy stem cells. The healthy stem cells may come from the bone marrow (bone marrow transplant), from the bloodstream (peripheral blood stem cell transplant) or from umbilical cord blood (cord blood transplant).

subcutaneous
Injection under the skin.
targeted therapy
Treatment that attacks specific particles (molecules) within cells that allow cancer to grow and spread. The two main types of targeted therapy at present are monoclonal antibodies and small molecule inhibitors.

thrombocytopenia
A low level of platelets. It makes you more prone to bleeding and bruising.

tissue
A collection of cells of similar type that make up an organ or structure in the body.

tyrosine kinase
A chemical messenger that tells cells when to divide and grow.

tyrosine kinase inhibitor (TKI)
A small molecule inhibitor that blocks enzymes involved in cell growth such as tyrosine kinase.

white blood cells
One of three types of cells found in the blood. They help fight infection. Types of white blood cells include granulocytes, lymphocytes and monocytes. Also called leucocytes.

x-ray
A type of high-energy radiation that shows solid areas in the body such as bone.

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References
How you can help

At Cancer Council, we’re dedicated to improving cancer control. As well as funding millions of dollars in cancer research every year, we advocate for the highest quality care for cancer patients and their families. We create cancer-smart communities by educating people about cancer, its prevention and early detection. We offer a range of practical and support services for people and families affected by cancer. All these programs would not be possible without community support, great and small.

Join a Cancer Council event: Join one of our community fundraising events such as Daffodil Day, Australia’s Biggest Morning Tea, Relay For Life, Girls’ Night In and other Pink events, or hold your own fundraiser or become a volunteer.

Make a donation: Any gift, large or small, makes a meaningful contribution to our work in supporting people with cancer and their families now and in the future.

Buy Cancer Council sun protection products: Every purchase helps you prevent cancer and contribute financially to our goals.

Help us speak out for a cancer-smart community: We are a leading advocate for cancer prevention and improved patient services. You can help us speak out on important cancer issues and help us improve cancer awareness by living and promoting a cancer-smart lifestyle.

Join a research study: Cancer Council funds and carries out research investigating the causes, management, outcomes and impacts of different cancers. You may be able to join a study.

To find out more about how you, your family and friends can help, please call your local Cancer Council.
Being diagnosed with cancer can be overwhelming. At Cancer Council, we understand it isn’t just about the treatment or prognosis. Having cancer affects the way you live, work and think. It can also affect our most important relationships.

When disruption and change happen in our lives, talking to someone who understands can make a big difference. Cancer Council has been providing information and support to people affected by cancer for over 50 years.

Calling 13 11 20 gives you access to trustworthy information that is relevant to you. Our cancer nurses are available to answer your questions and link you to services in your area, such as transport, accommodation and home help. We can also help with other matters, such as legal and financial advice.

If you are finding it hard to navigate through the health care system, or just need someone to listen to your immediate concerns, call 13 11 20 and find out how we can support you, your family and friends.

Cancer Council services and programs vary in each area. 13 11 20 is charged at a local call rate throughout Australia (except from mobiles).

If you need information in a language other than English, an interpreting service is available. Call 13 14 50.

If you are deaf, or have a hearing or speech impairment, you can contact us through the National Relay Service. www.relayservice.gov.au
For information and support on cancer-related issues, call Cancer Council 13 11 20. This is a confidential service.

For further information and details, visit our website, cancercouncil.com.au.

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