

# **Parvovirus Infection in Children with Reactive Arthritis**

**Thesis**

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Pediatrics

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## **Table of abbreviations**

Abbreviation	Word
AIDS	Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome
ASOT	Anti-streptolysin O titre
B <sup>19</sup>	Parvovirus B <sup>19</sup>
CBC	Complete blood count
CRP	C reactive protein
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
EBV	Epstein-Barr virus
ELISA	Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay
ESR	Erythrocyte sedimentation rate
Hb	Hemoglobin
HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus
IFN	Interferon
Ig	Immunoglobulin
IL	Interleukin
NSAIDs	Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs
NS <sup>1</sup>	Nonstructural protein
PCR	Polymerase chain reaction
RBCs	Red blood corpuscles
ReA	Reactive arthritis
RNA	Ribonucleic acid
VP	Viral protein
WBCs	White blood cells





## INTRODUCTION

Infections have been associated with arthritis during their course and as a post-infectious reaction observed several weeks or months afterwards. Although certain infectious organisms have been suspected but not proved to trigger juvenile rheumatoid arthritis, other agents are often associated with a transient arthritis that does not satisfy the classification criteria for juvenile rheumatoid arthritis (*Miller and Cassidy, 1996*).

Reactive arthritis follows an infection outside the joint, particularly the gastrointestinal or genitourinary tract. The course of reactive arthritis is variable and may progress to chronic spondyloarthropathy. Post-infectious arthritis implies arthritis that follows infections that are usually viral in origin, with shorter duration than reactive arthritis (*Miller and Cassidy, 1996*).

Reactive arthritis can be secondary to direct invasion of the joint space or to immune mechanisms (subsequent to or concomitant to an infection). Among viral infections including parvovirus B<sub>19</sub> and others (e.g. Epstein-Barr virus) have been reported so, in patients with acute arthritis, the presence of preceding infections should always be investigated (*Cimaz et al., 1999*).

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## **AIM OF WORK**

To study the role of parvovirus infection in the pathogenesis of reactive (post-infectious) arthritis in children and its effect on the clinical manifestations and the acute phase reactants. And to investigate the role of Epstein-Barr virus in children with reactive arthritis.



## **Reactive Arthritis**

Reactive arthritis is an aseptic arthritis that is triggered by an infectious agent located outside the joint ( *Amor, 1991* ). It is an acute spondyloarthropathy that usually follows a uro-genital or enteric infection, often in patients positive for the HLA-B<sup>27</sup> antigen ( *Kiratisavee and Brent, 2004* ).

Reactive arthritis falls under the rheumatic disease category of seronegative spondyloarthropathies, which includes ankylosing spondylitis, psoriatic arthritis, the arthropathy of associated inflammatory bowel disease, juvenile onset ankylosing spondylitis, and juvenile chronic arthritis ( *Kohnke, 2004* ).

Reiter syndrome -arthritis, urethritis/cervicitis, and conjunctivitis-is now considered a subset of reactive arthritis. In 1916, Hans Reiter described the classic triad of arthritis, non-gonococcal urethritis, and conjunctivitis (Reiter syndrome). More recently, Reiter syndrome also has been defined as a peripheral arthritis lasting longer than 1 month, associated with urethritis, cervicitis, or diarrhea ( *Fan and Yu, 2001* ).

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## *Review of literature: Reactive Arthritis*

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The term reactive arthritis was first introduced to describe the association between *Yersinia enterocolitica* infection and arthritis, and it was intended to differentiate this form of acute, non-suppurative arthritis, which is characterized by negative joint culture, from infectious, purulent arthritis; the differentiation was meant to suggest an underlying sterile immune mediated pathomechanism (*Ahvonon et al., 1979*).

A few years later, the term reactive arthritis was related to HLA B<sup>27</sup>; at this time the term was more strictly applied to the HLA-B<sup>27</sup> associated reactive arthritides, following infections with enterobacteria and Chlamydia (*Aho et al., 1973*).

This concept has been widely recognized and accepted. However, non-HLA-B<sup>27</sup> associated arthritides, such as Lyme disease induced by *Borrelia burgdorferi*, *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* induced reactive arthritis and post-streptococcal reactive arthritis are viewed presently as reactive arthritides. This inclusion is based on the observation that these arthritides also develop after a primary extra-articular infection, and that despite negative culture results, the organisms can be detected in the joint (*Liebling et al., 1994 and Jaulhac et al., 1996*).



## *Review of literature: Reactive Arthritis*

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This brief historical outline demonstrates not only the changing definition of "reactive arthritis" over time, but also illuminates the lack of general consensus concerning the precise clinical and scientific conditions to which this term should be applied, and the lack of consensus as to how to differentiate reactive from infectious arthritis (*Kuipers et al., 1999*).

### **Epidemiology:**

In the US overall (in adults and children) frequency is estimated as 3,000 cases per 100,000 males with higher frequency following nonspecific urethritis. Prevalence of inapparent Chlamydia infections may make incidence even higher (*Cush and Lipsky, 1991*). In the United Kingdom, the incidence of reactive arthritis after urethritis is about 0.8%. The incidence of HLA-B $\Psi\Psi$  is higher among the Finnish population, so, occurrence appears to be related to the prevalence of HLA-B $\Psi\Psi$  in a population and the rate of urethritis/cervicitis and infectious diarrhea (*Cush and Lipsky, 1991*).

Reactive arthritis and symptoms of Reiter syndrome were reported after outbreaks of Salmonella enteritidis (*Dworkin et al., 1991*). Reactive arthritis incidence is high among patients with AIDS (*Lin, 1988*).

While *Thatayatikom and Kurahara (1992)* reported that patients with reactive arthritis have been described in all racial groups; no racial predisposition is known, *Scoggins and Boyarsky (1994)* said that it is reported most frequently in whites.

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## *Review of literature: Reactive Arthritis*

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Reactive arthritis is most prevalent in boys, with male-to-female ratio is 3:1 (*Thatayatikom and Kurahara, 2002*).

Reactive arthritis has been reported in patients of all ages, some as young as 2 years, although most pediatric patients present with symptoms after age 9 years. The Peak onset is in persons aged 10-30 years. Its true frequency in childhood is difficult to determine and it is almost entirely postenteric (*Cuttica et al., 1992 and Ansell, 1993*).

### **Etiology :**

A healthy but genetically predisposed individual develops reactive arthritis (ReA) after a suitable triggering infection. Most commonly the initial infection has affected the digestive or the urogenital tract and the terms enteroarthritis or uroarthritis are used, respectively (*Toivanen and Toivanen, 1990*).

Multiple organisms can trigger ReA mostly following a genitourinary infection or infectious enteritis. The clinical picture following any of these conditions is virtually identical. Chlamydia trachomatis infection is the most common antecedent of reactive arthritis. Bacteria triggering reactive arthritis and the resulting manifestations at the entry site are shown in **Table 1** (*Arnold and McKenna, 1993*), (*Toivanen and Toivanen, 1990*), (*Braun et al., 1997*), (*Hudson et al., 1998*) and (*Toivanen, 1998*).

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## *Review of literature: Reactive Arthritis*

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Several viruses can cause ReA, they are listed in **Table 2** (*Miller and Cassidy, 2007b*).

Chronic reactive arthritis may follow enteric infection with non-typhoidal *Salmonella*, *Shigella*, *Yersinia enterocolitica*, *Campylobacter jejuni*, *Cryptosporidium parvum*, or *Giardia intestinalis*, or genitourinary tract infection with *Chlamydia trachomatis* (*Miller and Petty, 2007*).

### **Pathogenesis:**

Reactive arthritis usually develops 2-4 weeks after a genitourinary or gastrointestinal infection. Recent evidence indicates that a preceding respiratory infection with *Chlamydia* may also trigger the disease. About 10% of patients do not have a preceding symptomatic infection (*Braun et al., 1994*).

After detection of antigens from various bacterial species known to trigger reactive arthritis (for example, *Chlamydia trachomatis*, *Salmonella enteritidis*, *Yersinia enterocolitica*) in synovial fluid and tissue, the hypothetical process of pathogenesis was viewed primarily as a sterile immune mediated synovitis with dead bacteria, or non-proliferating antigens, present in the joint tissue (*Bas et al., 1990*).



## Review of literature: Reactive Arthritis

**Table 1:** Bacteria triggering reactive arthritis-manifestations at the entry site

Site of entry	Clinical manifestations	Bacteria
gastrointestinal tract	diarrhea	*Yersinia enterocolitica
	gastroenteritis	*Salmonella typhimurium
	enterocolitis	*Shigella flexneri
	oligo- and asymptomatic infection	*Campylobacter jejuni/fetus
urogenital tract	urethritis, cystitis cervicitis prostatitis, epididymitis salpingitis, endometritis often asymptomatic infection	*Clostridium difficile (via changes of intestinal flora)
		Brucella abortus/mellitensis
		*Chlamydia trachomatis
		Ureaplasma urealyticum
		Mycoplasma hominis
		Neisseria gonorrhoeae
Broncho-pulmonary tract	bronchitis, pneumonia, sinusitis	Bacille Calmette-Guerin Gardnerella vaginalis Chlamydia pneumoniae
	angina tonsillaris	β-hemolytic streptococci
	tuberculosis	Mycobacterium tuberculosis
skin/mucosa	erythema chronicum migrans	Borrelia burgdorferi
	acrodermatitis chronica atrophicans	
	skin infections, joint infections	Staphylococcus aureus
	cat-scratch disease	Bartonella
	brucellosis	Brucella abortus/mellitensis
	leptospirosis	Leptospira

\* Reactive arthritis triggering bacteria associated with HLA-B<sup>27</sup>.

(Arnold and McKenna, 1992), (Toivanen and Toivanen, 1990), (Braun et al., 1997), (Hudson et al., 1998) and (Toivanen, 1998)