

RECENT ADVANCES IN ANTIPHOSPHOLIPID SYNDROME: PATHOGENESIS, NEW CRITERIA AND MANAGEMENT

An Essay Submitted for Partial Fulfillment of
Master Degree in Clinical and Chemical pathology
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Many thanks to Allah, who granted me the ability to perform this essay.

*I would like to express my thanks and gratitude to Professor Doctor / **Zeinab Mohammad Tawfeek**, Professor of Clinical and Chemical pathology, Faculty of Medicine, Ain Shams University For her supervision, help, advice and her scientific generosity contributed a lot to the final shape of this work,*

*Also I would like to express my deepest thanks and gratitude to Doctor/ **Sahar Samir Abd-Elmaksoud** Assistant Prof. of Clinical and Chemical pathology, Faculty of Medicine, Ain Shams University For her help, assistance, advice and her efforts in helping me.*

*I wish also to express my profound gratitude to Doctor/ **Soha Raouf Youssef** Assistant Prof. of Clinical and Chemical pathology, Faculty of Medicine, Ain Shams University For her helpful guidance, encouragement and continuous advice.*

Haytham

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PATHOPHYSIOLOGY:

- Historical landmarks
- Epidemiology
- Pathogenesis:

I. Mechanisms of thrombosis:

- Effect of aPL on coagulation cascade
- Effect of aPL on protein C pathway
- Effect of aPL on fibrinolysis
- Effect of aPL on Annexin V
- Effect of aPL on other proteins
- Effect of aPL on platelets
- Effect of aPL on endothelial cells
- Effect of aPL on other cells
- Second Hit phenomenon

II. Mechanisms of foetal loss

III. Mechanisms of neurological damage

IV. Mechanisms of atherosclerosis

Historical landmarks:

The story begun in 1906, when **Von Wasserman** described complement fixation test for syphilis. In his original report, extracts of beef heart were used as antigen. Antibody in syphilitic sera was called reagin.

During 1940s, millions of serologic test for syphilis (STS) especially VDRL were performed on military inductees with clinical observation that 10% of military personnel with positive VDRL were found to have no clinical features of syphilis. This was a biological false positive STS (BFP-STS) which was seen also in premarital testing (**Triplet**, 1944).

Margaret Pangborn (1941) found that extracts of beef heart contained PL and identified it as the antigenic component in reagin test and latter called cardiolipin (CL).

Two apparently unrelated papers appeared, **Conley and Hartman** (1952) found prolonged prothrombin time and BFP-STS in patients of hemorrhagic disorder while **Moore and Mohr** (1952) divided BFP-STS into acute BFP-STS that follow infection and chronic BFP-STS in which positive results persist more than 6 months and associated with high incidence of

autoimmune diseases. In addition, they observed high incidence of BFP-STS in young women with thrombocytosis as well as thrombosis.

Moor and Lutz (1955) observed that some women with BFP-STS developed SLE after an enough time and three of lupus patient had had major unexplained thrombophlebitis.

Laurel and Nelson (1957) found that the anticoagulant was attributable to BFP-STS and both were associated with obstetric complication and thrombocytopenia while **Bowie (1963)** reported frequent occurrence of thromboses rather than bleeding in SLE patients who had this inhibitor of coagulation.

Again, **Johansson and Lassus (1974)** confirmed the concurrent finding of BFP-STS and circulating anticoagulant that was termed lupus anticoagulant (LA) by **Fein stein and Rapaport (1977)**.

Thiagarajan and colleagues (1980) found that at least some of LA was an aPL and are responsible for in vitro anticoagulant effect and BFP-STS and in the same year **Soulier and Boffa** recorded occurrence of recurrent abortion, thromboses and circulating anticoagulant.

Nigel Harris (1983) developed solid phase radioimmunoassay (RIA) and later **Koike and colleagues** (1984) developed enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISA) to quantitate aCL. This enabled **Graham Hughes** (1985) to propose a new clinical entity (anticardiolipin syndrome) and **Loizou** to develop ELISA using CL Antigen.

In 1990, at the antiphospholipid meeting in Sirmione, Italy, **Monica Galli** proposed that antibodies detected by ELISA tests with CL as antigen were not directed to the PL but to a protein cofactor present in the bovine serum used to block the plates. **McNeil and colleagues** determined that the protein cofactor was β GPI, which had natural anticoagulant properties and high affinity for anionic molecules such as CL. Moreover, as noted by **Matsuura and colleagues**, pathogenic antibodies can be distinguished from those present in infectious disease. The pathogenic antibodies require the presence of bovine serum with such cofactor, the infectious antibodies do not. The corresponding articles were published that same year (1990).

At a β GPI symposium in Milan in 1992, **Shoenfeld and Meroni** described the presence of anti- β GPI in a group of patients with primary APS. That these antibodies may have the

most important role in the causation of the APS, particularly its thrombotic component, was evidenced by their systematic fall at the time of thrombosis, as found by **Gómez-Pacheco and coworkers** (1999).

Matsuura and Koike (1995) revealed that the so-called aCL antibodies could bind to β GPI in the absence of CL if the ELISA plates were oxidized by irradiation. This procedure was considered by **Roubey and coworkers** (1995) to cause higher antigen density and permit bivalent binding. **Cabiedes and colleagues** (1995) found that manifestations of APS associated more strongly with anti- β GPI determined in non-irradiated plates versus those with aCL, and **Alarcon-Segovia and Cabral** (1996) subsequently described groups of patients with clinical manifestations of APS who had persistently negative aCL when studied in conventional assays, but persistently positive anti- β GPI determined in non-irradiated plates.

Finally, the diagnosis of APS is based on the modified clinical and laboratory classification criteria as proposed by an international workshop group after the International Symposium on aPL, in Sapporo, Japan (**Marai et al.**, 2004).

Epidemiology:

aCL antibodies are seen in the general population. Prevalence is 1% to 5%, and they are usually low in titer and more common in the elderly. In contrast, about one-third of SLE patients are aCL positive. LA prevalence is less than 1% in the general population, and about 10% in SLE patients. The strength of the association between aPL and thrombosis varies, depending on both the aPL tested and the populations studied. Titer and isotype are important: immunoglobulin Ig G aCL is more strongly associated with clinical events than is IgM aCL, and the risk of thrombosis increases with higher titers. IgA aCL and low titers of IgG and IgM aCL are less frequently associated with complications (Godfrey and D'Cruze, 2000).

APL account for a significant proportion of thromboses in the general population: approximately 10% of stroke patients younger than age 50, and up to 20% of idiopathic deep venous thrombosis (DVT) patients are aPL positive. ACL are predictive of DVT and pulmonary embolism in the general population. In a nested case-control subset of the Physicians Health Study, a positive aCL test at study onset was associated with subsequent development of DVT and pulmonary embolism. Risk of thrombosis in lupus

patients is significant; there is a chance of thrombosis over years for LA-positive SLE patients, and a chance of developing any APS complication over years for aPL-positive lupus patients (**Sammaritano, ٢٠٠٥**). Women with pregnancy events alone have a high likelihood of developing thrombosis in later years. **Erkan and colleagues** have shown a thrombosis rate of by years after delivery (**Erkan et al., ٢٠٠١**).

The presence of additional pro-thrombotic risk factors in aPL-positive individuals likely influences thrombosis risk. In the currently accepted “second-hit” hypothesis, a second trigger event - such as cigarette smoking, oral contraceptives, surgical procedures, prolonged immobilization, or a genetic pro-thrombotic state may increase the likelihood of an aPL-positive patient developing a vascular event (**Sammaritano, ٢٠٠٥**).

The Montpellier study included patients admitted to the general medical floor for a variety of reasons and were assessed for aCL. Of the patients tested, were positive for at least one idiotypic. However, only were determined to have clinical manifestations of APS, indicating a false positive incidence of . In another study, healthy blood donors were screened for aCL IgG, IgM idiotypic antibodies, and LA (**Bick, ٢٠٠١**).

had the IgG idiotype, 50% had IgM idiotype aCL, and 50% of donors had both idiotypes. No donor was positive for LA. No thrombotic complications were noted in aCL-positive donors after 12 months. However, nine aCL-positive donors had a family history of thrombosis, and three of the aCL-positive donors had a history of unexplained miscarriage. In a survey of 100 consecutive patients with DVT or pulmonary embolism, 20 were found to have aCL. These findings suggest that aCL are common in patients with unexplained DVT or pulmonary embolism; therefore any patient with unexplained thrombosis should be evaluated for the presence of aPL (**Gezer, 2003**).

The Prevalence of the APS in patients with primary systemic vasculitis (PSV) and the prevalence of patients with positive aCL and/or the LA who do not fulfill the classification criteria for APS (Sapporo criteria) were studied. 20 patients with PSV were assessed for features of the APS and presence of aPL., 10 had positive aCL or LA on at least one occasion, representing a point prevalence of 50%. Of these, nine had definite APS and a further four patients had clinical and serological features of APS, although insufficient to satisfy the Sapporo criteria. Twelve had only positive aPL (**Rees et al, 2006**).
