

Occult Hemorrhage in Egyptian Children with Immune Thrombocytopenia

Thesis

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Pediatrics

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to . . .

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List of Abbreviations

<i>Abb.</i>	<i>Full term</i>
<i>APC</i>	<i>Antigen presenting cells</i>
<i>CD</i>	<i>Cluster differentiation</i>
<i>Fe</i>	<i>Iron</i>
<i>H2O2</i>	<i>Hydrogen peroxide</i>
<i>IBLS</i>	<i>ITP Bleeding Scale</i>
<i>ICH</i>	<i>Intracranial hemorrhage</i>
<i>ITP</i>	<i>Immune thrombocytopenia</i>
<i>IVIg</i>	<i>Intravenous immunoglobulin</i>
<i>MCD</i>	<i>Minute cerebral capillary bleeding</i>
<i>MKs</i>	<i>Megakaryocytes</i>
<i>MR</i>	<i>Magnetic resonance</i>
<i>MRI</i>	<i>Magnetic resonance imaging</i>
<i>PLT</i>	<i>Platelet</i>
<i>RES</i>	<i>Reticuloendothelial system</i>
<i>Tc</i>	<i>T cells</i>
<i>TPO</i>	<i>Thrombopoietin</i>

ABSTRACT

Background: Occult hemorrhage can occur in any internal organ in ITP patients. Four sites of occult hemorrhage deserve special attention including microscopic hematuria, fecal occult blood, retinal hemorrhage, and silent intracranial hemorrhage.

Aim: The aim of this study was to investigate for the frequency of subclinical bleeding in Egyptian children with ITP and its relation to different clinical and laboratory parameters of the disease including bleeding score and health quality of life.

Methods: This cross sectional study included 40 ITP patients recruited from the Pediatric Hematology & Oncology unit, Children Hospital, Ain Shams University. Occult blood in stools and urine analysis, fundus examination, and non-contrast brain MRI, for brain microbleed, were done.

Results: The total number of patients with occult bleeds was eleven. Two patients had occult blood in stool, five had microscopic hematuria, one had retinal bleeds and three patients had brain microbleeds. Their mean age was 10.23 ± 4.18 and their mean initial bleeding score was 2.55 ± 0.82 . Nine patients with occult bleeding were chronic, one persistent and one acute ITP patients. There was no significant differences between patients with occult bleeding and those without as regards the initial bleeding score, the platelet counts & hemoglobin level, as well as the mean platelet counts & mean hemoglobin level over the disease duration. Although the scoring of the effect on the parent's life, Child and parents quality of life was low in 3 out of 11 patients with occult bleeding, we did not find a significant difference between patients with occult bleeding and those without as regards the ITP health quality of life items.

Conclusion: Our results suggest that subclinical bleeding is a potential risk in children with ITP, more commonly chronic ITP patients. We could not demonstrate a significant relation of occult bleeding to the laboratory findings, bleeding score, and the ITP health quality of life; nevertheless, the significance of the routine assessment of occult bleeding in ITP and the identification of high-risk patients require additional studies.

Keywords: Occult Hemorrhage - Immune Thrombocytopenia

INTRODUCTION

Immune thrombocytopenia (ITP) is a hematological disorder characterized by a reduced number of circulating platelets and an increased risk of bleeding. The platelet count is most often used to assess disease status and response to therapy; however, bleeding is the most clinically important outcome because it has a direct impact on morbidity, mortality, quality of life and treatment decisions (*Neunert et al., 2015*).

In children, ITP typically presents in otherwise healthy patients, often resolving spontaneously or following therapy within 6–12 months of diagnosis. However, approximately 20%–25% of children with newly diagnosed ITP ultimately develop chronic disease (*Jung et al., 2016*).

Bleeding manifestations in patients with ITP range from mild skin bruises to life-threatening intracranial hemorrhage (ICH). Severe bleeding is distinctly uncommon when the platelet count is $>30 \times 10^9/\text{L}$ and usually only occurs when the platelet count falls $<20 \times 10^9/\text{L}$. Based on estimates from clinical studies, ITP registries and administrative, the frequency of ICH in patients with ITP is ~0.5% in children and 1.5% in adults (*Arnold, 2015*).

Four sites of occult hemorrhage deserve special attention, ie, microscopic hematuria which can be detected by urine analysis, fecal occult blood can be detected by stool analysis, retinal hemorrhage detected by fundus examination, and silent (subclinical) ICH can be detected by MRI (*Flores and Buchanan, 2013*).

ICH is the most devastating complication of ITP in children, and prevention of ICH is the primary goal of ITP treatment. However, the great majority of patients with ITP, even those with very low platelet counts, do not experience severe bleeding and ICH occurs in less than 1 in 100 children with ITP (*Psaila et al., 2009*).

After ICH, hemosiderin-containing deposits stored in macrophages and glial cells cause focal changes in the magnetic resonance (MR) signal due to their magnetic properties. Such “brain microbleeds” appear dark on T2-weighted spin-echo sequences, appearing enhanced when relying on gradient-echo sequence. Studies in adults with unruptured cerebral aneurysms or hypertension have shown that brain microbleeds can be detected as early as 3 weeks and for as long as 18 months after the onset of localized hemosiderin deposition (*Flores and Buchanan, 2016*).

AIM OF THE WORK

The aim of this study was to investigate for the frequency of occult (subclinical) bleeding in Egyptian children with ITP and relation to different clinico-epidemiological aspects of the disease including bleeding score and health quality of life.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Definition:

Immune thrombocytopenic purpura (ITP) is an autoimmune disorder characterized by platelet destruction by antiplatelet autoantibodies that result in platelet phagocytosis via the reticuloendothelial system (RES). ITP is one of the most common hemorrhagic platelet disorder (*Tantawy et al., 2010*).

Epidemiology of ITP:

In total, the incidence of ITP is approximately 1.9–6.4 per 100,000 children/year and 3.3–3.9 per 100,000 adults/year, (*Bennett et al., 2017*).

In Egypt, the estimated incidence of ITP is 100 cases per 1 million persons per year, and about half of these cases occur in children. New cases of chronic refractory ITP comprise approximately 10 cases per 1000,000 per year (*Mokhtar et al., 2012*).

Pathophysiology of ITP:

Two major mechanisms contribute to the development of ITP: increased platelet destruction and insufficient platelet production. Platelet destruction, the most common mechanism of ITP development, involves loss of self-tolerance of platelet antigens and formation of antibodies that target glycoprotein IIa/IIIa on platelets, causing their destruction by macrophages

or cytotoxic T cells. Impaired function of megakaryocytes and an insufficient level of thrombopoietin (TPO) are two other factors involved in decreased platelet production (*Khan et al., 2017*).

The initial event(s) leading to anti-platelet autoimmunity remains unclear, but strong evidence exists that autoantibodies and autoreactive CD8⁺ cytotoxic T cells (Tc) trigger enhanced platelet destruction and impair platelet production by megakaryocytes (MKs) in the bone marrow (*Swinkels et al., 2018*).

Thrombopoietin (TPO) is a growth factor produced primarily by the liver that mediates its effects through the TPO receptor (cMPL) and potent megakaryocyte colony-stimulating factor, along with other cytokines, increase the size and number of marrow megakaryocytes and circulating platelets. In ITP, thrombopoietin levels are normal in 75% of the cases rather than increased. Levels of TPO lower than expected in ITP may be caused by binding to TPO-receptor c-MPL on the increased megakaryocyte mass with subsequent internalization and degradation or secondary to TPO bound to platelets targeted for destruction (*Mokhtar et al., 2012*).

1-Molecular and cellular mechanisms of the pathogenesis of ITP:

a) B Cells and Autoantibodies

Patients with ITP produce anti-platelet IgG antibodies (and more rarely IgM or IgA antibodies) which bind to platelets

and mark them for phagocytic breakdown in the spleen and liver. These antibodies often bind to very abundant glycoproteins on the platelet surface, particularly GP α IIb β 3 (GPIIb/IIIa) and GPIb-IX-V molecules. However, in as many as 30% to 40% of the patients, no detectable antibodies can be found. This could be due to the robustness of the antibody tests used or a purely T cell-mediated mechanism. In those patients positive for anti-platelet antibodies, other antibody specificities beside the classic surface glycoproteins have been found, including cytosolic proteins, which may suggest that platelets undergo protein degradation by antigen presenting cells (APC) followed by antigen presentation to T cells (*Zufferey et al., 2017*).

b) T-Cell Imbalance in ITP

Abnormal T cells have been described in patients with ITP, including a higher T helper cell reactivity against platelets, a lower frequency of circulating CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ Tregs and CD4+ Th0, and Th1 activation patterns. Cytotoxic CD8+ T cells were found in the circulation of patients. CD8+ T cells are able to directly lyse platelets in vitro and can accumulate in the bone marrow, where they are able to inhibit thrombopoiesis (*Zhang et al., 2011*).

Furthermore, compared with healthy individuals, CD3+ T cells from patients with ITP have a lower rate of apoptosis and a higher clonal expansion rate, leading to abnormal cytokine secretion, including IL-2, INF- γ , and IL-10, which may be responsible for the lower CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ Treg