

Hematologic manifestation in MICRo angiopathic hemolytic anemia

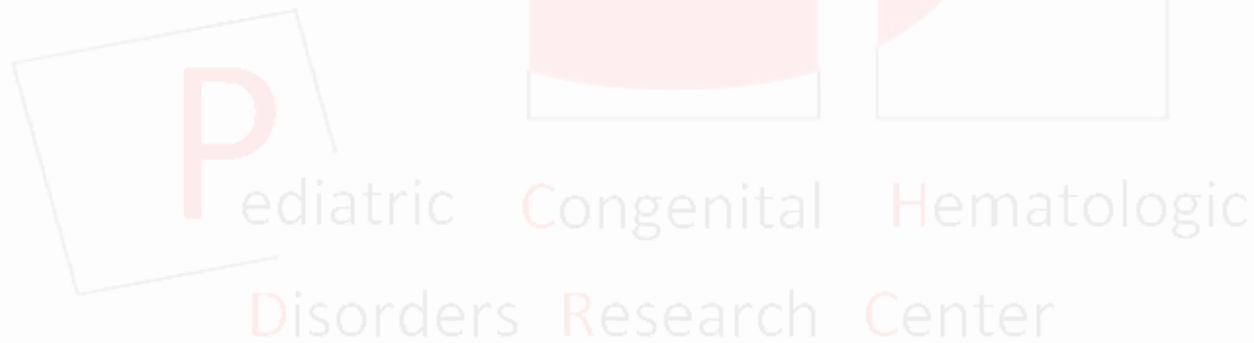
k.Goudarzipour

Pediatric congenital hematologic disorders research center shahid beheshti
university of medical science

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- Case
- Mechanism
- Causes and DDx(hematology oncology)
- Hematologic manifestation
- Lab data
- PBS



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CASE 1

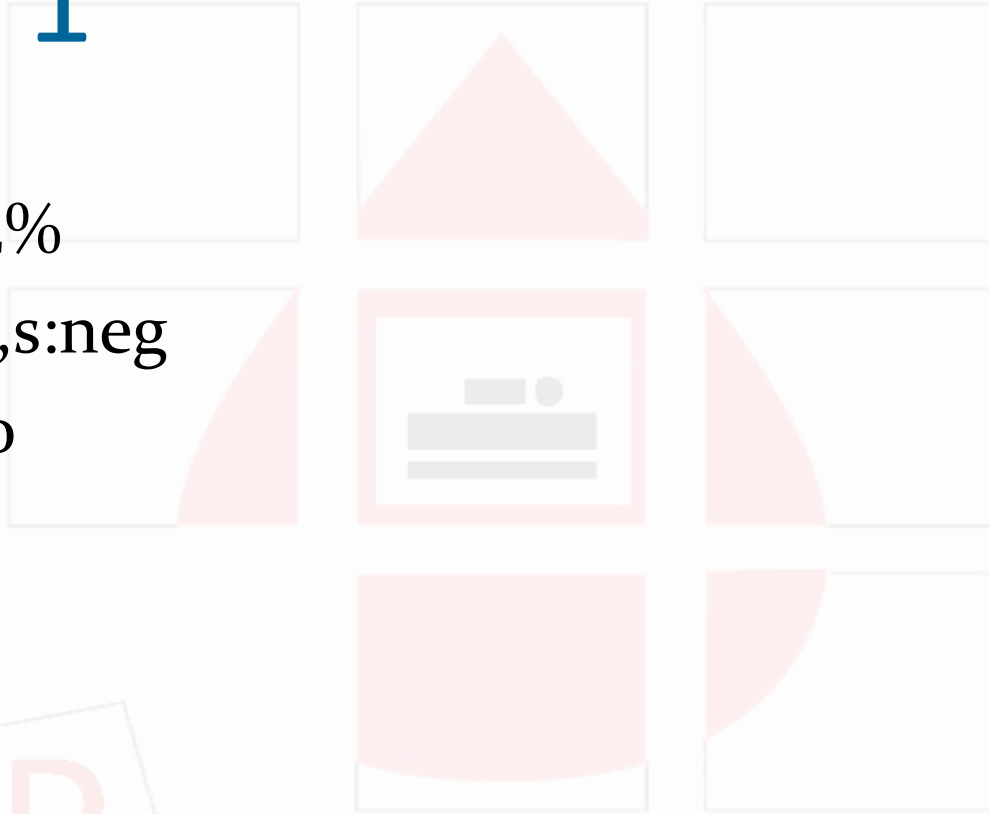
- The pt is 4 y/o female , with cc of discoloration of urine, chills and fever since one week ago.in her past Hx: bloody diarrhea since 2 weeks ago.
- Lab data:
- WBC:18000.P:70,L:30
RBC:3.000.000
Hb:9
MCV:96
MCH:34
MCHC:35.5
PLT:168.000
RDW:18

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CASE 1

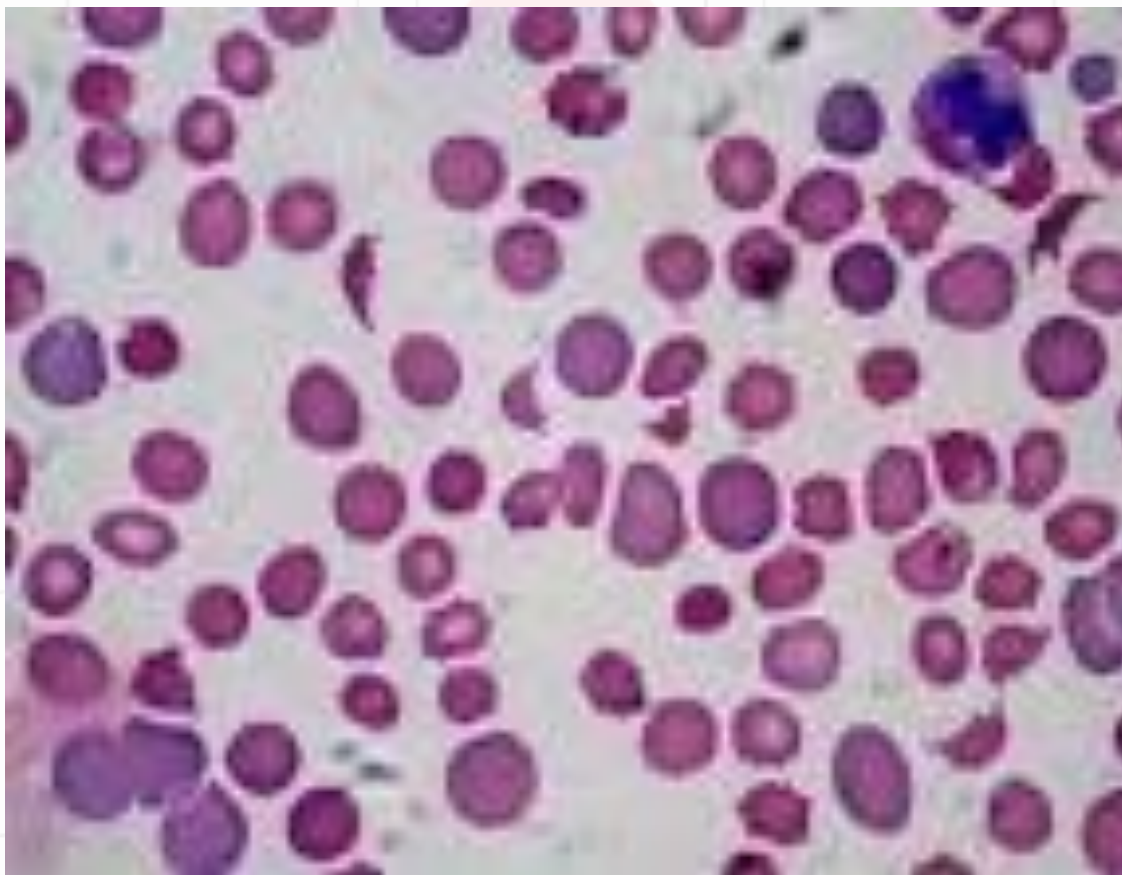
- Retic:12%
- Coomb,s:neg
- BUN:40
- Cr:1.6



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CASE 1



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CASE 2

- A 7 year-old previously healthy female, was admitted after three days abdominal pain, vomiting, headache, general malaise, one time convulsion and fever since the night prior to admission.

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CASE 2

- Two weeks earlier, the patient noticed red **urine and excessive gum bleeding** during teeth brushing. No medications were . Physical examination revealed low grade fever of 37.8°C, blood pressure 121/54 mmHg, and regular heart rate of 89/min.

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CASE 2

- There were some purpura on her legs and back, a moderate **splenomegaly** and mild jaundice.



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CASE 2

- Laboratory tests at admission showed hemoglobin: 9.9 g/dl, white blood cells: $5.4 \times 10^9/L$, platelets: 70,000 and reticulocyte counts: 5.7%. Peripheral blood smear presented red blood cell fragmentation (**schistocytes**).

CASE 2

- Lactate dehydrogenase was 3,046 IU/L, aspartate aminotransferase 153 IU/L, gamma-glutamyl transferase 39 IU/L, alkaline phosphatase 138 IU/L, total bilirubin 6.6 mg/dl, direct bilirubin 2.5mg/dl. **Blood urea nitrogen and creatinine were within normal limits.**

CASE 2

- Urinalysis showed hematuria and hemoglobinuria. **Coagulation screening** tests were normal.

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CASE 2

- Viral serology tests, including hepatitis B virus, hepatitis C virus, Epstein-Bar virus, cytomegalo virus and parvo virus were all negative, as well as anti-nuclear antibodies, anti double-stranded DNA, anti Sm and anti RNP. C₃ and C₄ levels were normal. ADAM13 activity was 5%. Chest x-ray was normal, while abdominal ultra-sound showed moderate splenomegaly

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CASE 2

- A diagnosis of **TTP** was made, and treatment with intravenous methylprednisolone was started, but the hemoglobin continued to drop to levels of 5.9 mg/dl without significant improvement in the platelet count, which entitled red blood cell and platelet transfusions. **Plasma-exchange** was performed with significant improvement in platelets and hemoglobin levels.

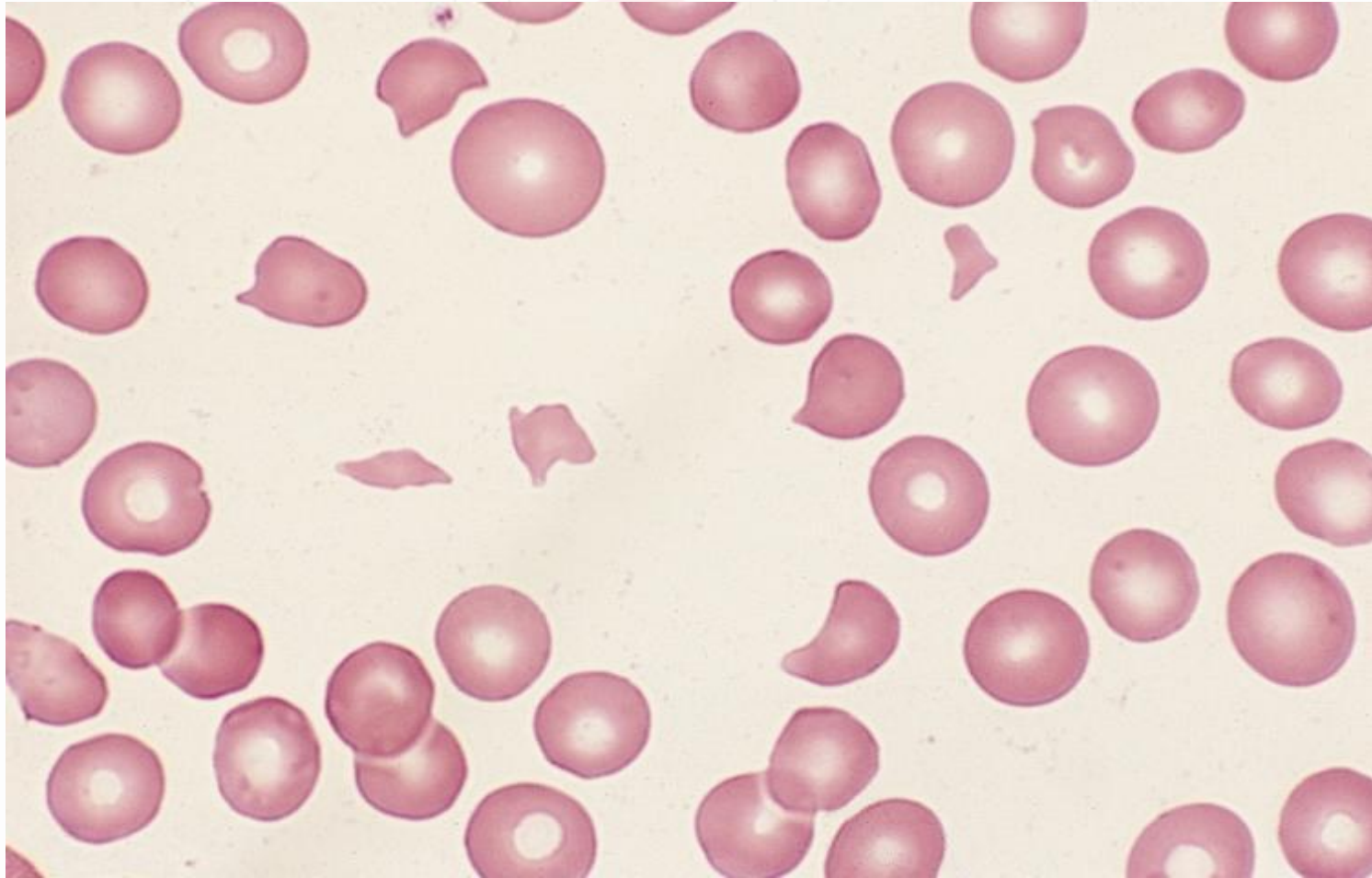
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CASE 2

- On the 8th day after admission, blood culture yielded **Brucella**. Brucella agglutination titer was positive. Brucella agglutination titer was 1/640 for Brucella abortus. Antibiotic treatment with doxycycline and gentamicin was commenced.

Case 2



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- MAHA is a type of hemolytic anemia that occurs in numerous, but not all, conditions known as the “thrombotic microangiopathies (TMA)”
- Though diverse, TMAs are somewhat similar in that many involve endothelial injury and clotting activation in the microvasculature.
- the pathophysiology of the underlying disorder many times leads to microthrombi in capillaries and arterioles that results in end organ injury usually by ischemia

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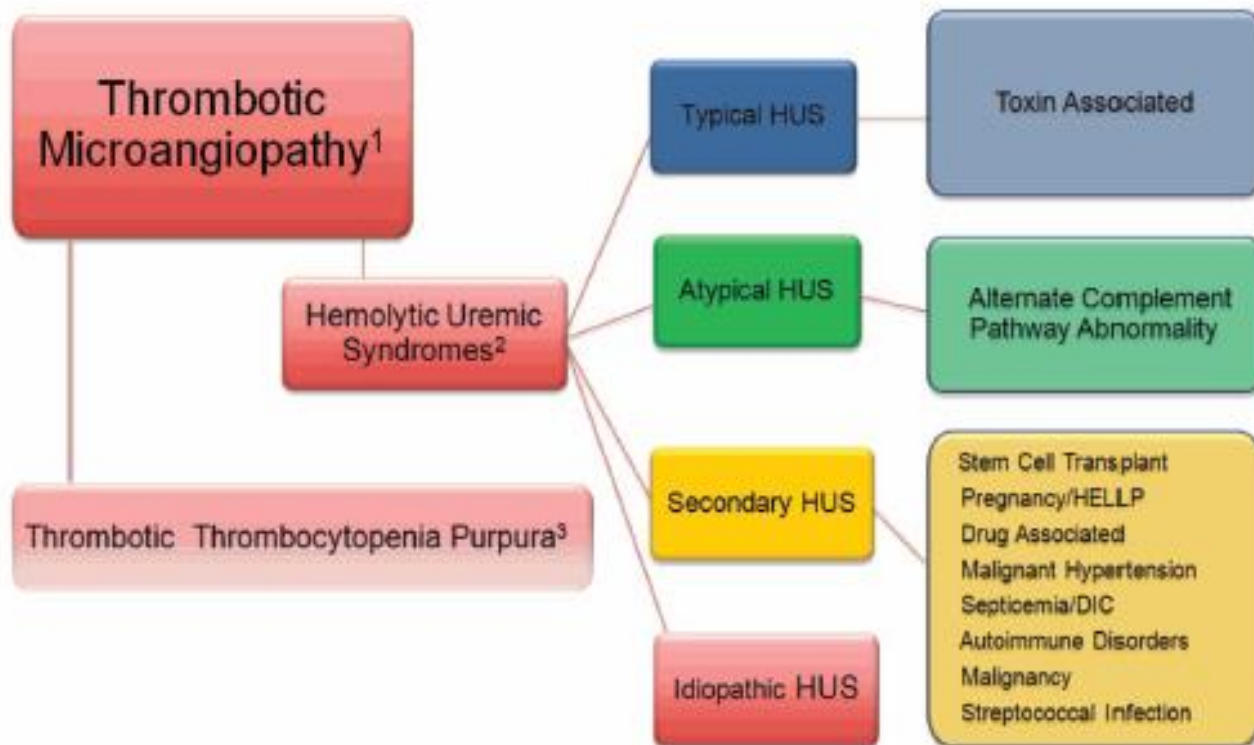
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- the hemolysis that occurs in MAHA is due to physical destruction of the red blood cells in the small blood vessels as they pass by the microthrombi
- characterized by red cell fragmentation and associated with peripheral thrombocytopenia

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Atypical hemolytic uremic syndrome: what is it, how is it diagnosed, and how is it treated?

Carla M. Nester^{1,2} and Christie P. Thomas^{1,2}

- Thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura (TTP)
- Hemolytic uremic syndrome (HUS)
- Other TMA syndromes can occur with:
 - Disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC)
 - Pregnancy
 - Cancer and chemotherapy
 - HIV infection
 - post hematopoietic stem cell transplant
 - drugs (ie. quinine)

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TTP Pathophysiology

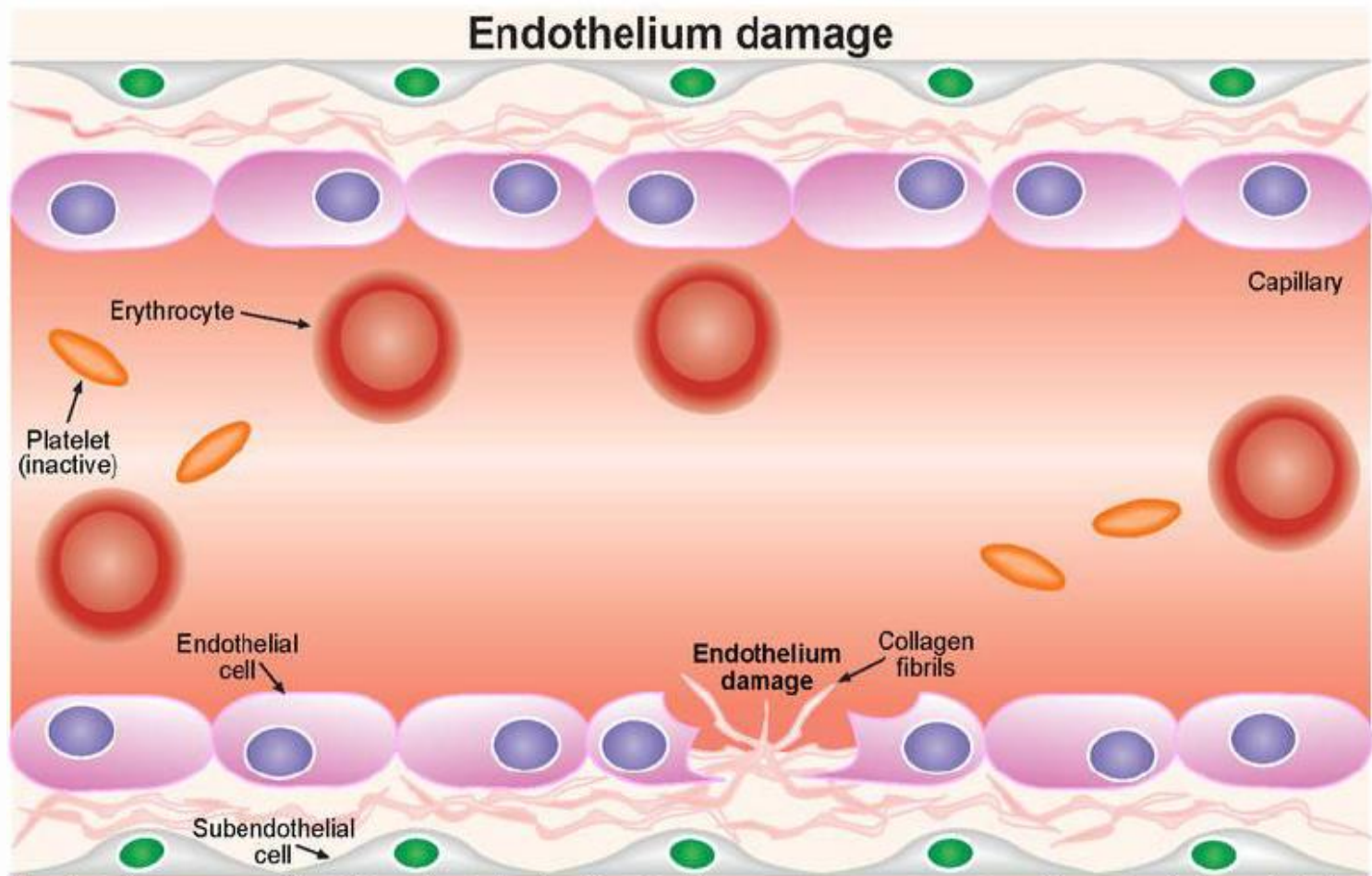
- ultimate cause is unknown
- endothelium damage (possibly from infection) and activation of clot formation may be involved as an initiation event
- vonWillebrand factor (vWF) plays a central role in the pathogenesis of TTP
 - a large multimeric protein involved in the initiation of platelet clumping
- patients with TTP lack a protease enzyme that is essential in the breakdown of ultralarge vWF multimers
- ADAMTS13 – a disintegrinlike and metalloprotease with thrombospondin type 1 motif 13

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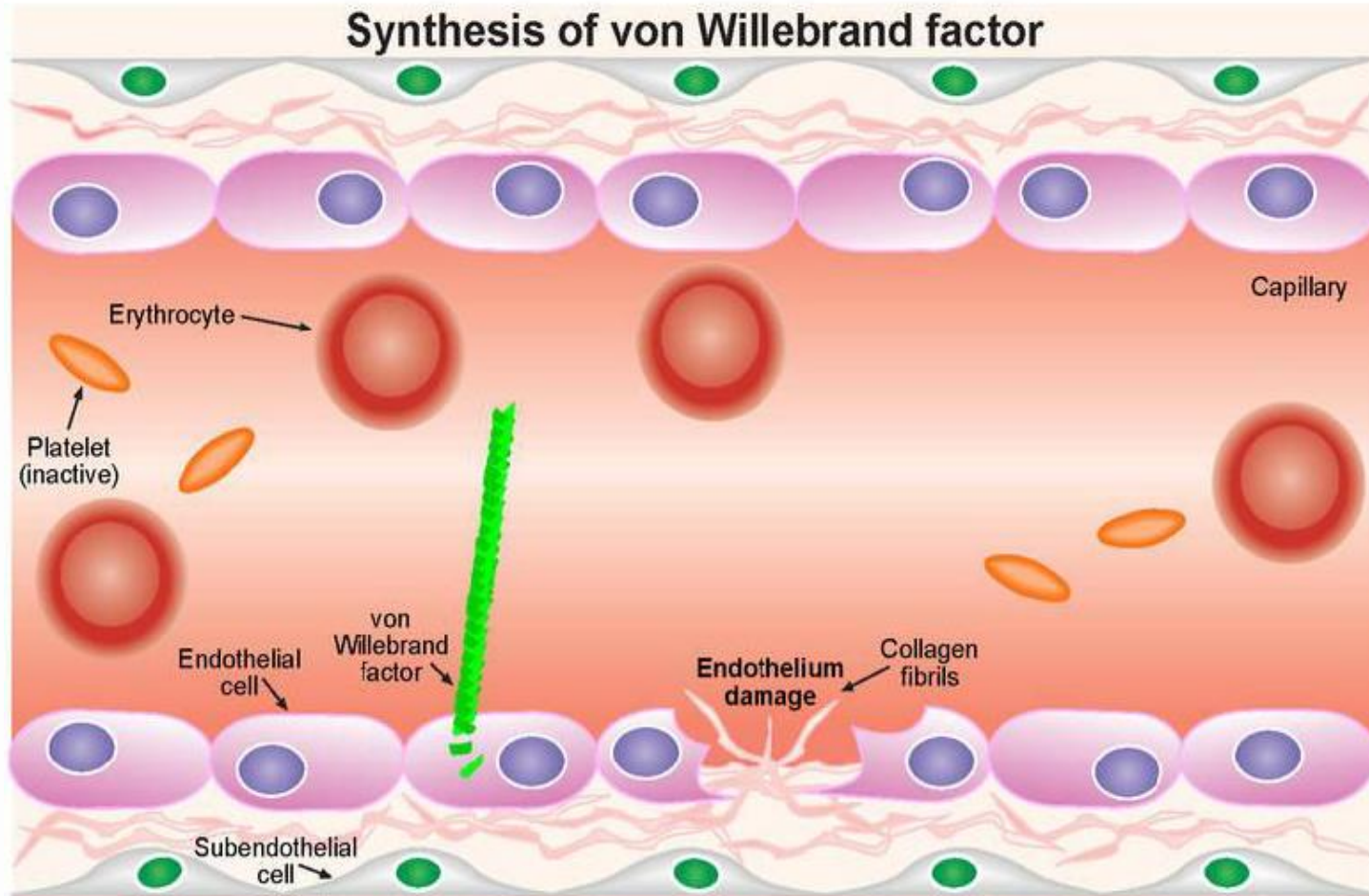
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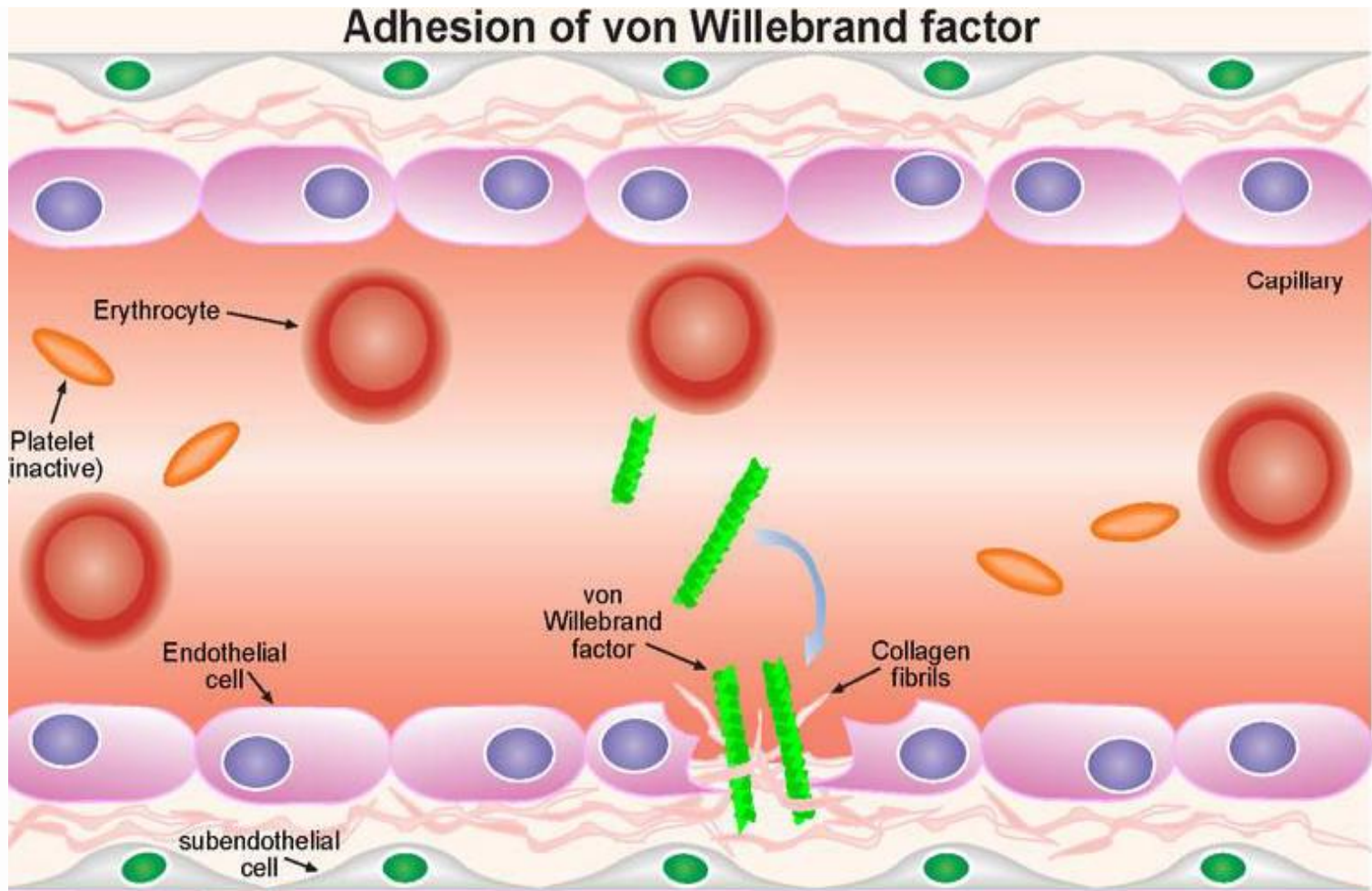
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Platelets play an essential role in orchestrating the blood clotting processes necessary to seal breaches in the endothelium of blood vessels that may be caused through injury. Platelets circulate in an inactive form for a 9-10 days before removal by the spleen. Recruitment and activation of platelets at sites of endothelium damage is dependent on cellular factors, such as von Willebrand factor, produced by endothelial cells.

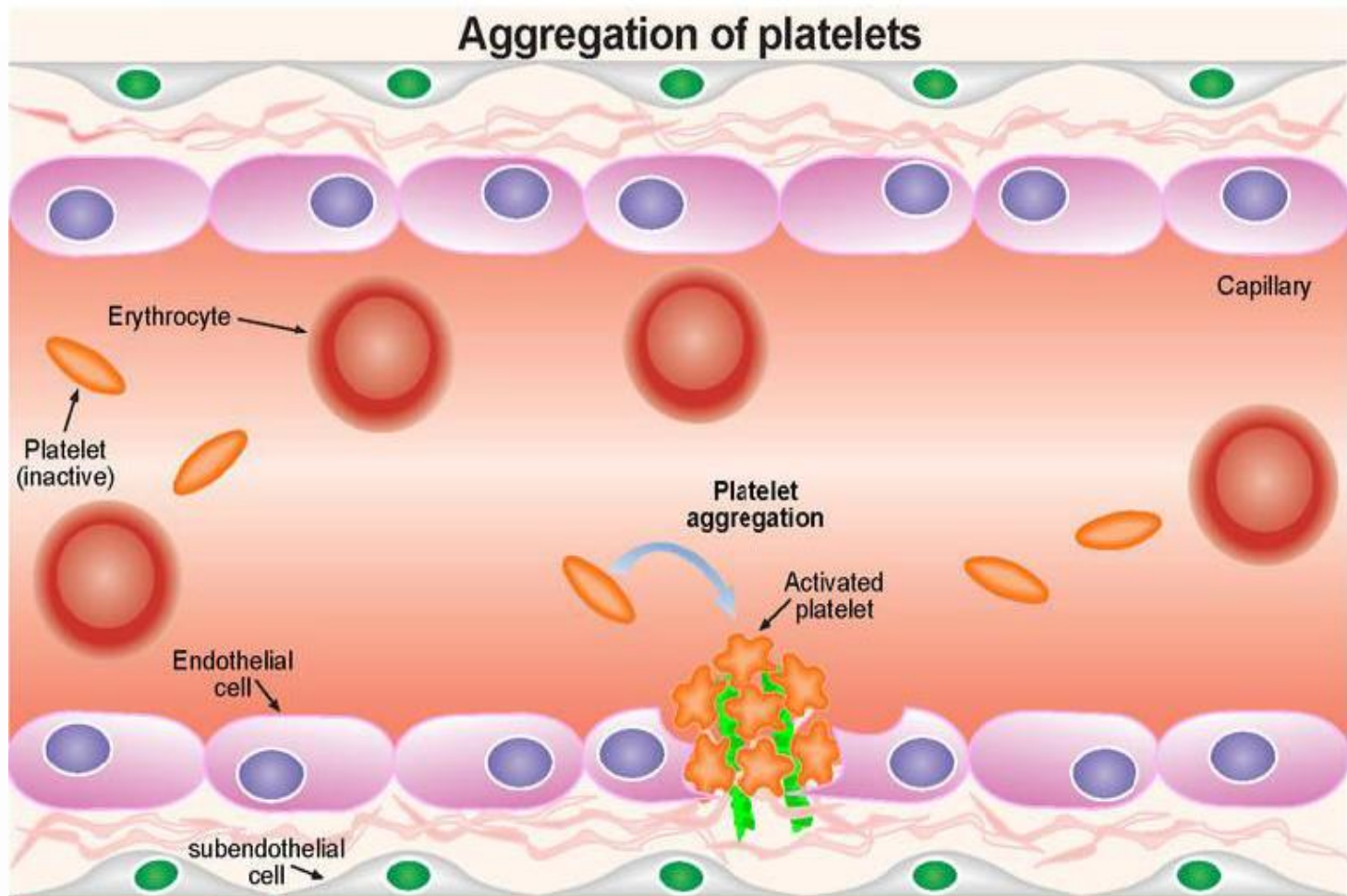


Endothelial cells near the site of damage respond by synthesising von Willebrand factor which is secreted in the form of large multimeric chains. Platelets express cell surface receptors, such as GP1b, that allow them to adhere to von Willebrand factor bound to subendothelial collagen fibrils.



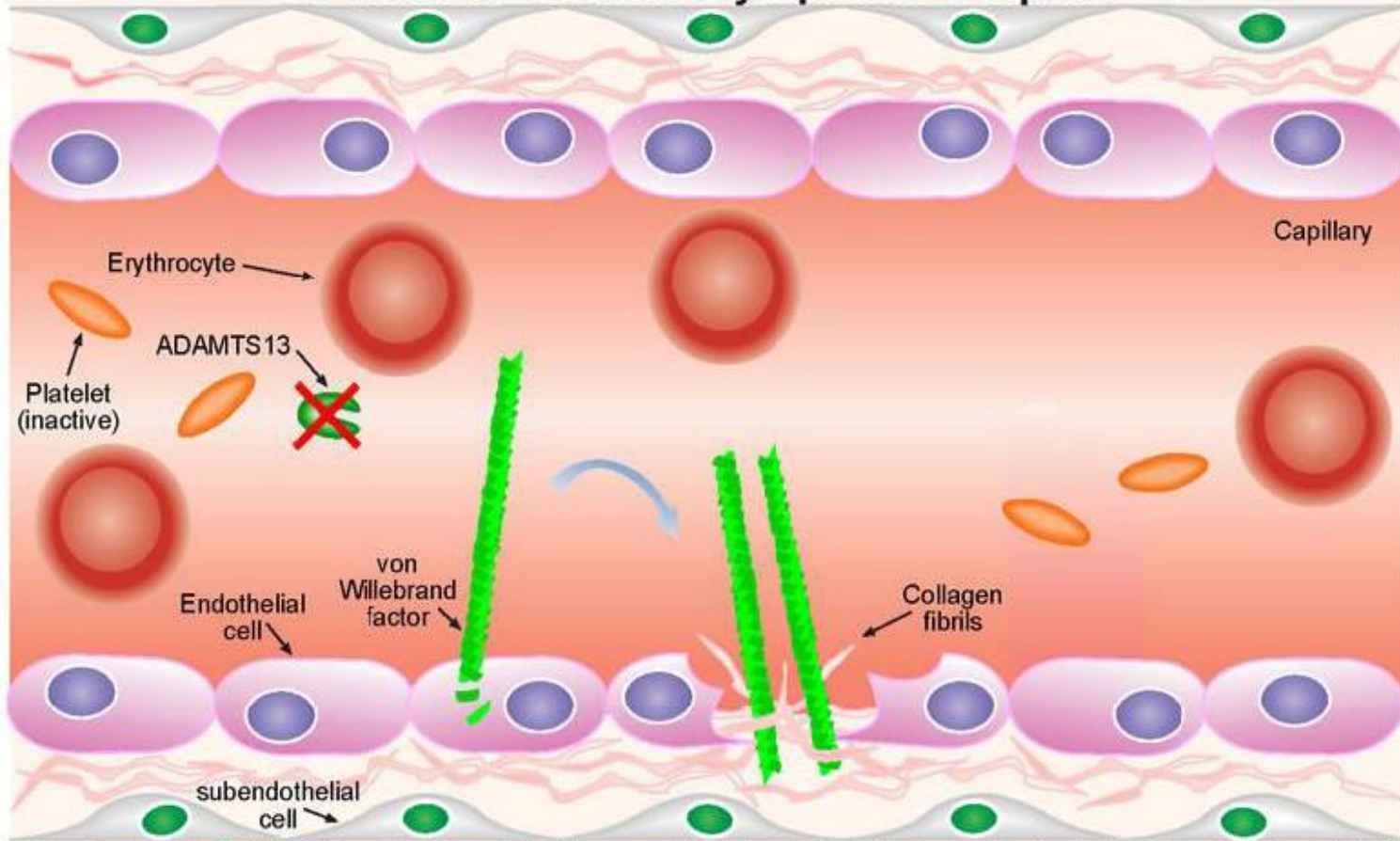
von Willebrand factor binds to subendothelial collagen fibrils that become exposed at the site of endothelium damage.

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Platelets are recruited to sites of endothelium damage by detection of von Willebrand factor bound to exposed subendothelial collagen, using cell surface GPIb receptors. They can also directly bind to subendothelial collagen fibrils, using cell surface GPIV receptors and $\alpha 2\beta 1$ integrins. In addition, platelets bind other platelets, through GPIIb/IIIa receptors that recognise fibrinogen as an intermediate. In this way platelets aggregate to form seal the breach in the endothelium and initiate the blood clotting cascade that generates a meshwork of insoluble fibrin.

Thrombotic Thrombocytopenic Purpura



In the absence of ADAMTS13 proteolytic activity, there are higher levels of the large multimeric chains of von Willebrand factor in circulation that are able to bind to exposed subendothelial collagen fibrils and initiate recruitment of large numbers of platelets to sites of endothelium damage.

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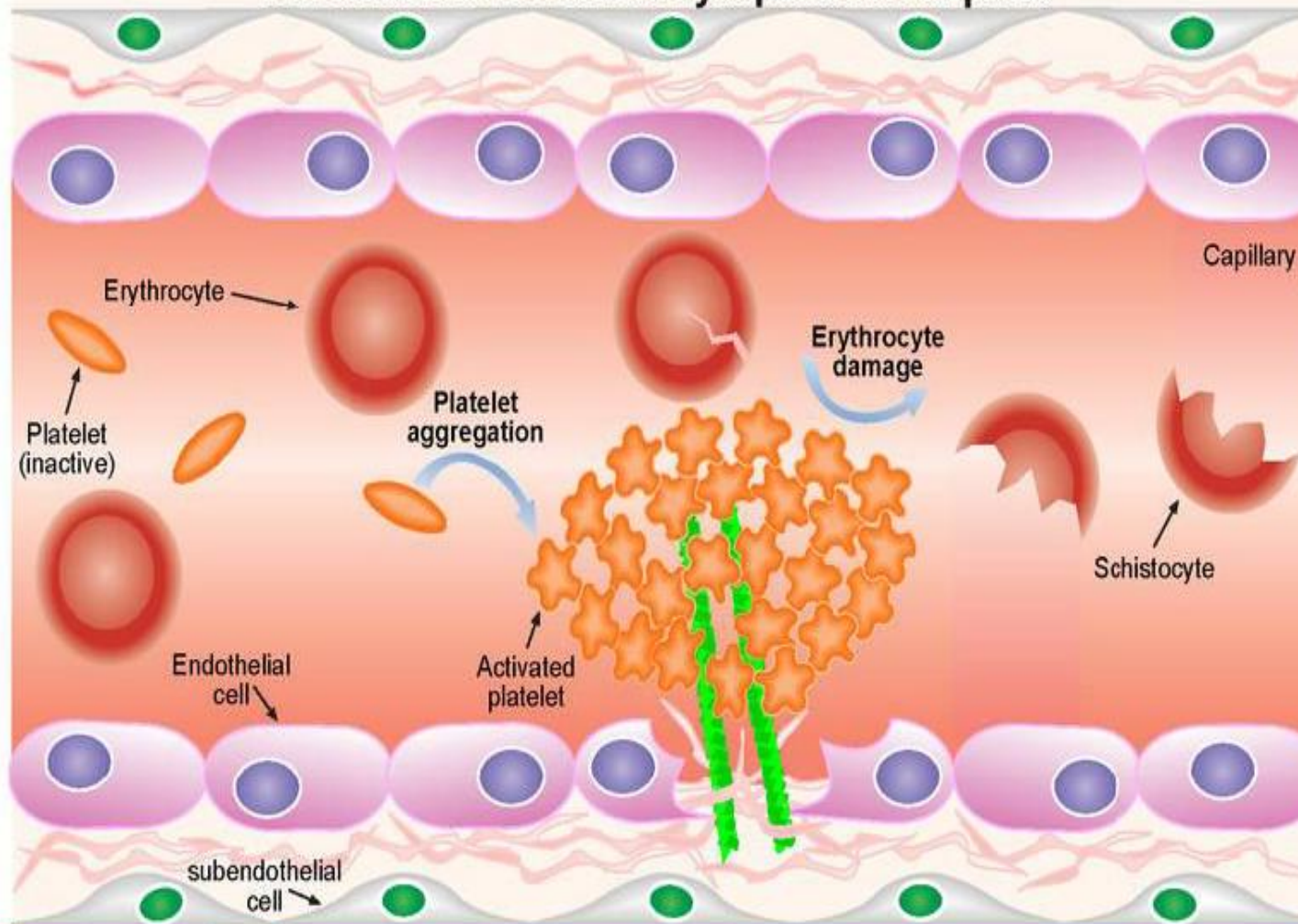
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Thrombotic Thrombocytopenic Purpura



Platelets express cell surface GPIb receptors that recognise von Willebrand factor bound to collagen fibrils exposed at the site of endothelium damage. In TTP, the large multimeric chains of von Willebrand factor recruit and activate excessive number of platelets, which in turn leads to platelet depletion (thrombocytopenia). The large aggregation of platelets also impedes the passage of erythrocytes through small blood vessels and can cause the cells to shear, resulting in anaemia and organ ischaemia. Fragments of erythrocytes are visible in blood smears and are known as schistocytes.

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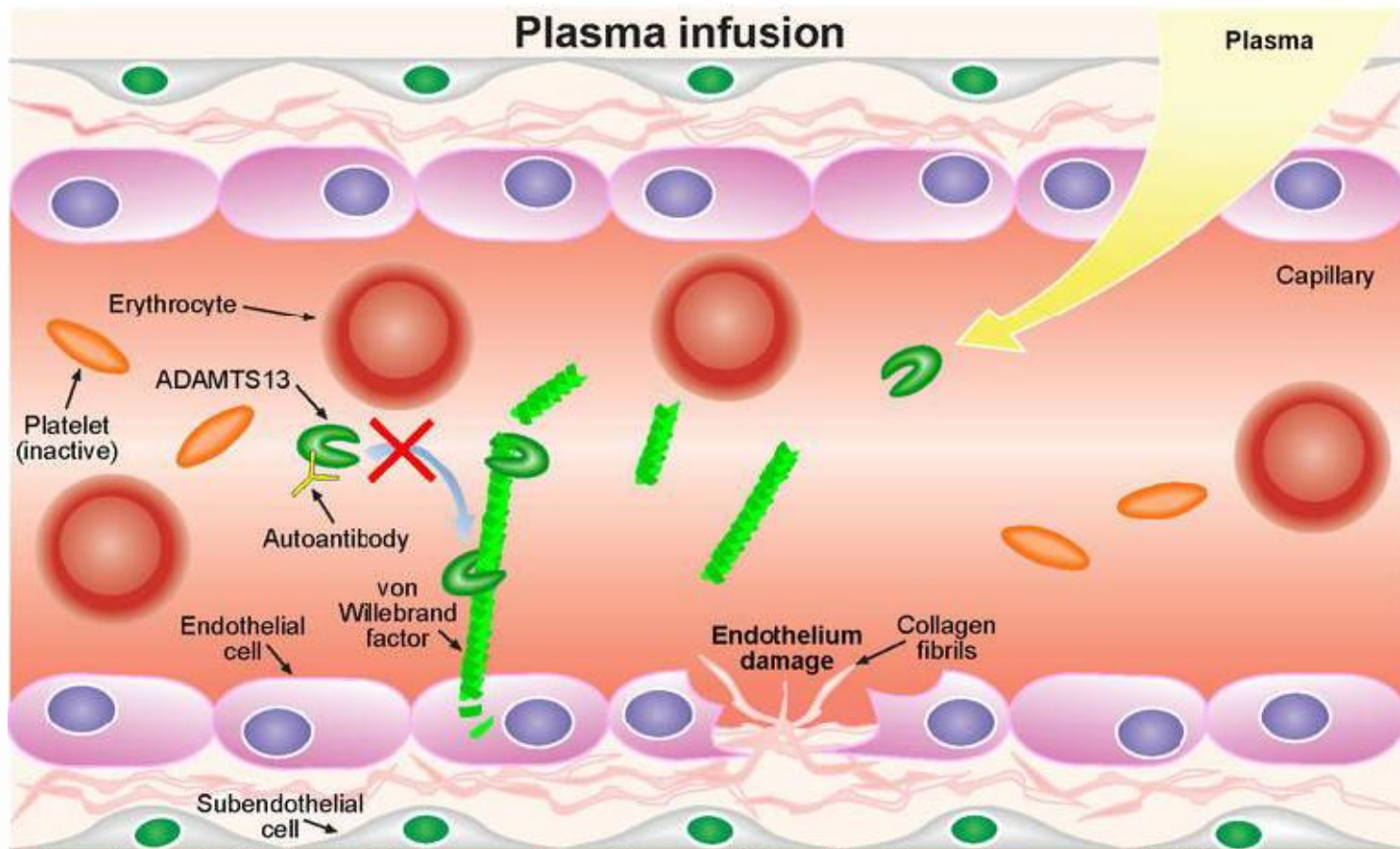
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TTP can be treated by plasma infusion or exchange therapy which provides the missing enzyme ADAMTS13 and restores proteolytic cleavage of the large multimeric chains of von Willebrand factor into smaller fragments. Plasma exchange therapy additionally contributes to the removal of the ADAMTS13 inhibitor, such as autoantibodies.

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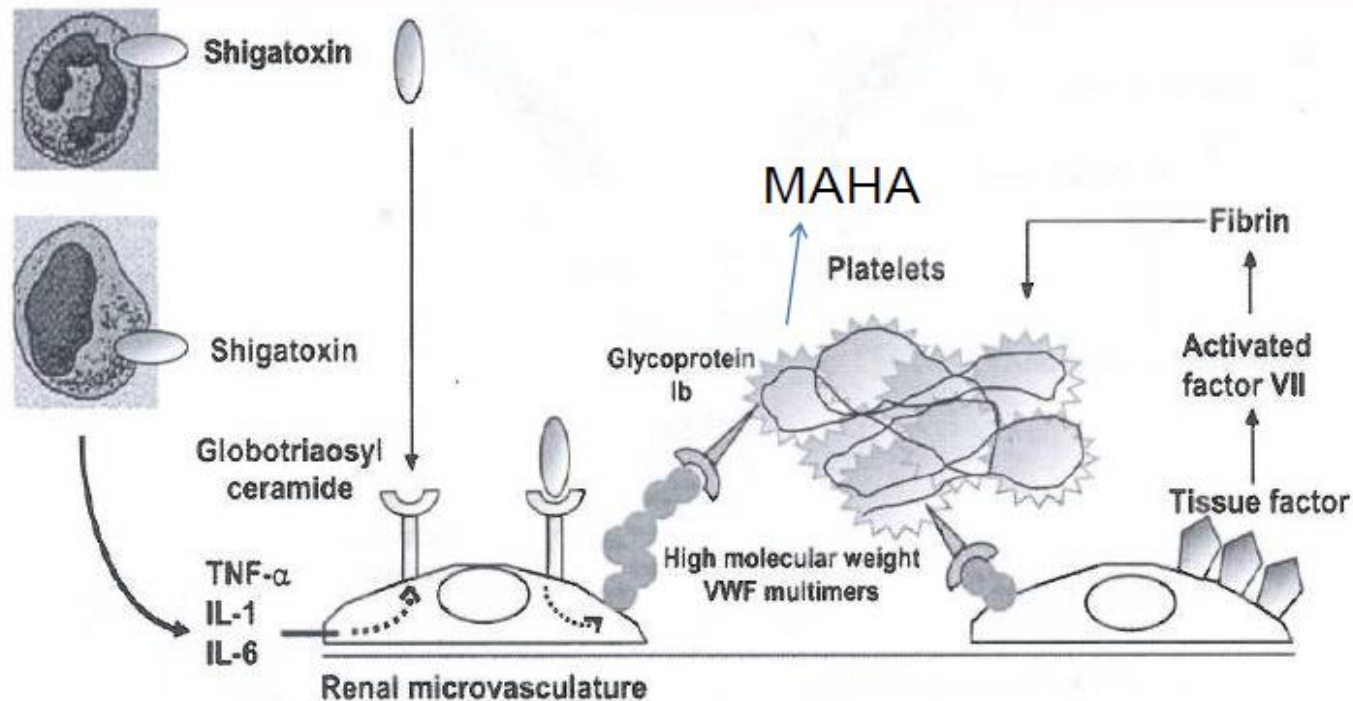


Fig. (4). Pathophysiological mechanisms leading to microthrombi formation in diarrhea-associated HUS. Shigatoxins are transported in blood flow by neutrophils, platelets and monocytes, and bind their receptors (globotriaosyl ceramide) at the surface of renal endothelial cells. IL-1, IL-6 and TNF- α up-regulate expression of shigatoxins receptors on endothelial cells surface. After internalization, they interfere with protein translation machinery and thereby induce endothelial cell apoptosis. Damaged cells express surface high molecular weight VWF, which initiates platelet clumping through interaction with glycoprotein Ib. Shigatoxins also induce tissue factor expression on endothelial cells, leading to factor VII activation and fibrin formation. VWF: von Willebrand factor



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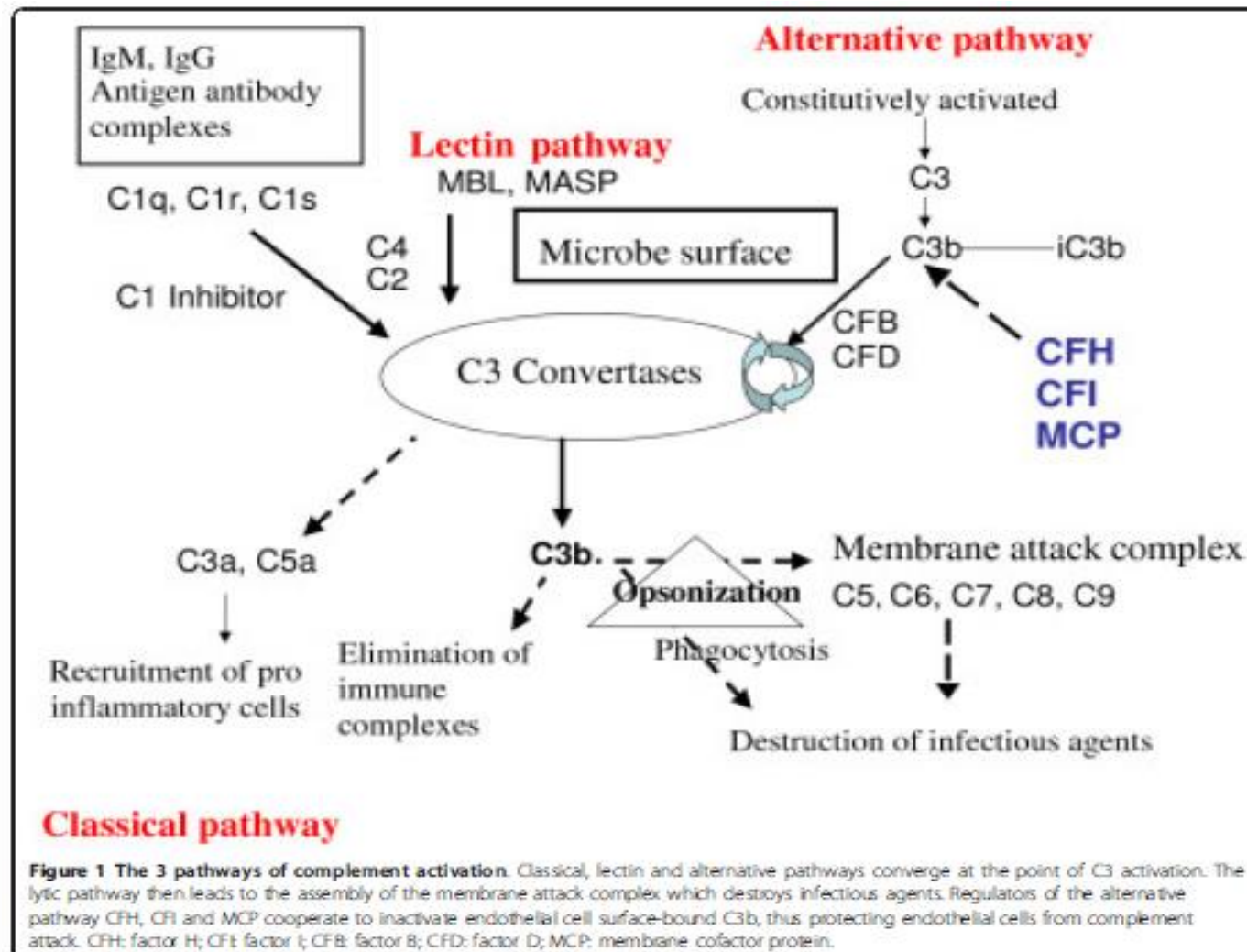
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D- HUS Pathophysiology

- Complement proteins are part of our immune system that act in a controlled way to destroy invading microorganisms.
- Normally, these complement proteins are regulated by other proteins (ie. Factor H, I, CD46/MCP) so our own cells are not destroyed.
- If there are genetic mutations (or rarely, loss of action by an autoantibody) in these regulator proteins our own cells come under attack by excessive activation of the complement pathway.

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Table 2. Common Disorders Associated with Microangiopathic Hemolytic Anemia and Thrombocytopenia.*

Systemic infection

Systemic cancer

Severe preeclampsia, eclampsia, HELLP syndrome

Severe hypertension

Autoimmune disorders (e.g., systemic lupus erythematosus, systemic sclerosis, antiphospholipid syndrome)

Hematopoietic stem-cell or organ transplantation

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Table I. Characteristic spectrum of pathophysiological features seen in microangiopathic haemolytic anaemia.

Diagnosis	TTP	HUS	Pre-eclampsia/ eclampsia	HELLP	DIC
CNS symptoms/signs	+++	+/-	+/-	+/-	+/-
Renal impairment	+/-	+++	+	+	+/-
Fever	+/-	-/+	-	-	+/-
Liver impairment	+/-	+/-	+/-	+++	+/-
Hypertension	-/+	+/-	+++	+/-	-
Haemolysis	+++	++	+	++	+
Thrombocytopenia	+++	++	+/-	++	+++
Coagulopathy	-	-	+/-	+/-	+++

British Journal of Haematology, 2003, 120, 556–573



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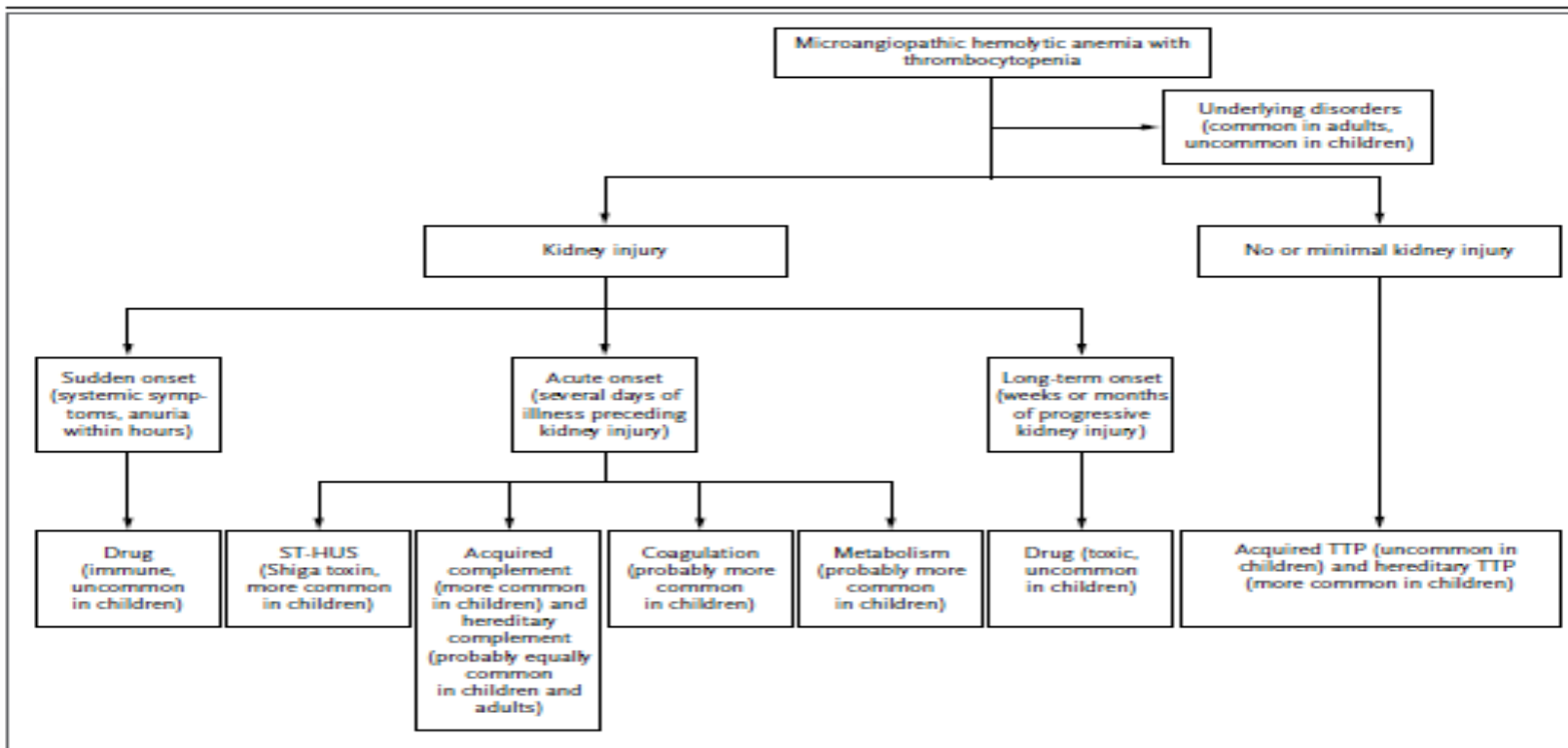


Figure 3. Algorithm for the Evaluation of Children and Adults Presenting with Microangiopathic Hemolytic Anemia and Thrombocytopenia. After the exclusion of common underlying disorders, the severity of kidney injury is a distinguishing feature. Among patients with severe acute kidney injury, the initial clinical diagnosis is related to the pace of onset of kidney injury. In this regard, complement-mediated TMA that may be acquired is not distinguished from hereditary complement-mediated TMA. Although kidney injury is characteristic of complement-mediated TMA, it may be minimal. Several conditions (e.g., pregnancy, surgery, and inflammatory disorders) may precipitate acute TMA episodes. Not included in this algorithm are patients with microangiopathic hemolytic anemia and thrombocytopenia in whom neither an underlying condition nor a primary TMA syndrome is identified. Such patients with idiopathic disease represent about 20% of all adults who present with microangiopathic hemolytic anemia and thrombocytopenia. TTP is also called ADAMTS13 deficiency–mediated TMA.

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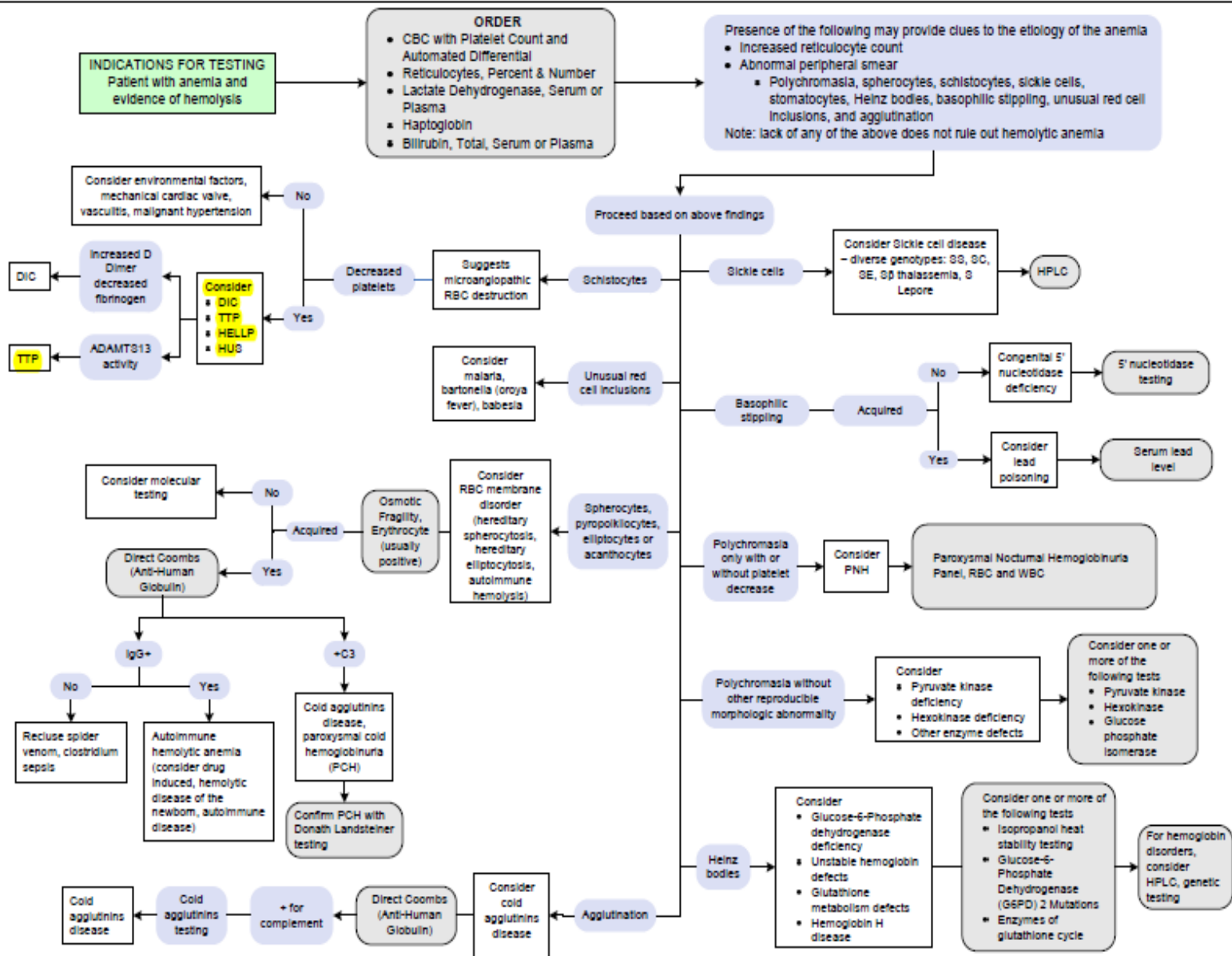
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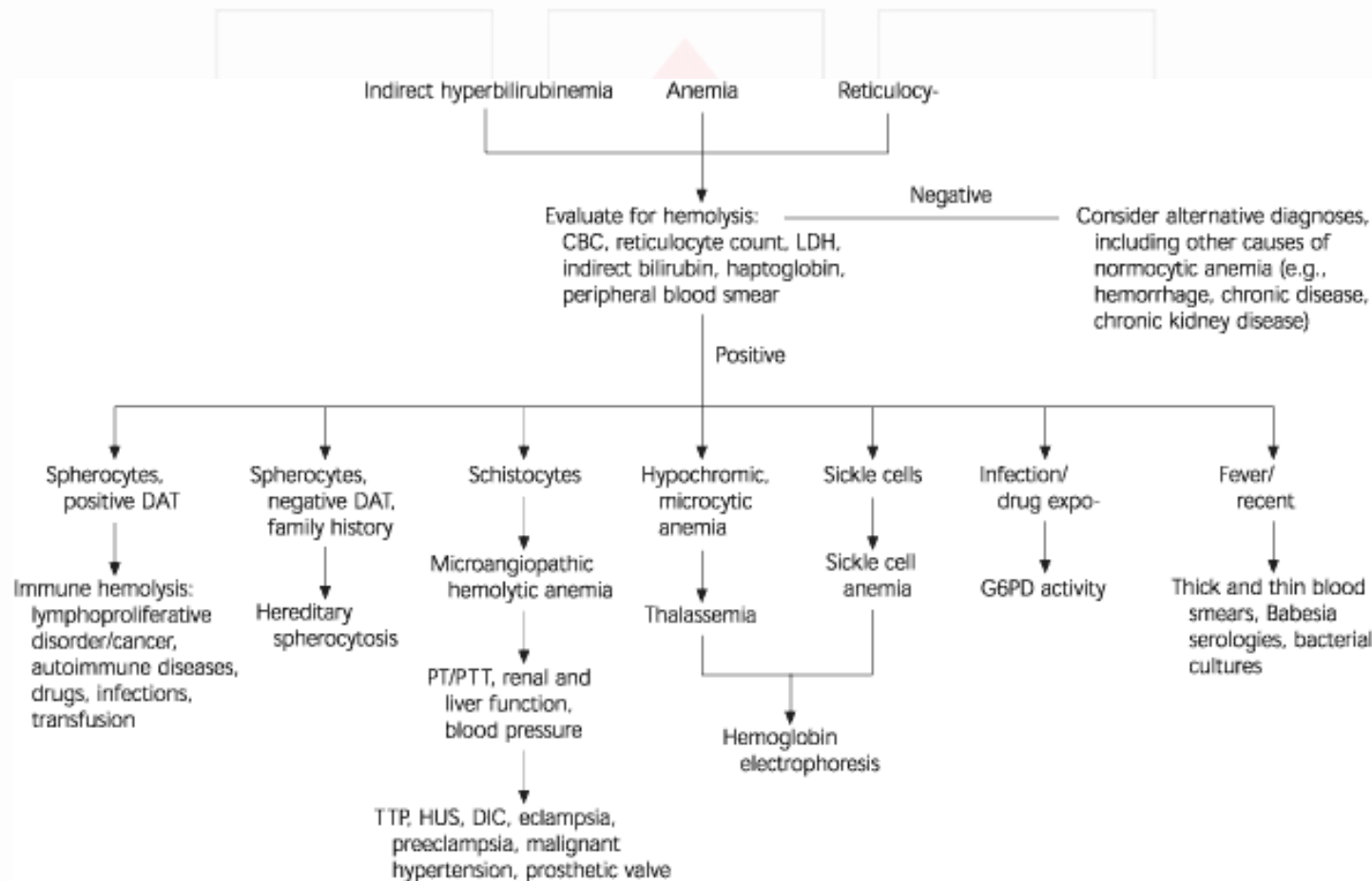
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Table I. Differential diagnosis of thrombocytopenia and microangiopathic haemolytic anaemia.

Autoimmune haemolysis/Evans syndrome

Disseminated intravascular coagulation

Pregnancy-associated e.g. HELLP (haemolysis, elevated liver enzymes and low platelets), eclampsia, haemolytic uraemic syndrome

Drugs eg quinine, simvastatin, interferon, Calcineurin inhibitors

Malignant hypertension

Infections, typically viral (cytomegalovirus, adenovirus, herpes simplex virus) or severe bacterial (meningococcus, pneumococcus), fungal

Autoimmune disease (lupus nephritis, acute scleroderma)

Vasculitis

Haemolytic uraemic syndrome (diarrhoea positive/negative)

Malignancy

Catastrophic antiphospholipid syndrome

Guidelines on the diagnosis and management of thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura and other thrombotic microangiopathies

Marie Scully,¹ Beverley J. Hunt,² Sylvia Benjamin,³ Ri Liesner,⁴ Peter Rose,⁵ Flora Peyvandi,⁶ Betty Cheung,⁷ Samuel J. Machin⁸ and on behalf of British Committee for Standards in Haematology



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Table V. Differential Diagnosis of haemolytic uraemic syndrome.

Infection (diarrhoea-positive)	Shiga & verocytotoxin (Shiga-like toxin)-producing bacteria
Disorders of complement regulation (diarrhoea-negative)	Genetic disorders of complement regulation e.g. Factor H, I, MCP (CD46), factor B (CFB), C3 (C3), thrombomodulin Acquired disorders of complement regulation e.g. anti-FH antibody
Other causes of secondary HUS	<i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i> HIV Malignancy Defective cobalamin metabolism Drugs e.g. quinine, some chemotherapy e.g. gemcitabine, bleomycin) Pregnancy Other autoimmune diseases e.g. SLE, APLS

HUS, haemolytic uraemic syndrome; HIV, human immunodeficiency virus; SLE, systemic lupus erythematosus; APLS, antiphospholipid syndrome.

Table II. Presenting clinical features and signs in acute TTP.

Thrombocytopenia	Epistaxis, bruising, petechiae, gingival bleeding, haematuria, menorrhagia, gastrointestinal bleeding, retinal haemorrhage and haemoptysis
Central neurological – often flitting and variable 70–80%	Confusion, headache, paresis, aphasia, dysarthria, visual problems, encephalopathy, coma (10%)
Fever (>37.5°C)	
Non-specific symptoms	Pallor, jaundice, fatigue, arthralgia or myalgia
Jaundice	Resulting from microangiopathic haemolytic anaemia
Renal Impairment	Proteinuria, microhaematuria
Cardiac	Chest pain, heart failure, hypotension
Gastro-intestinal tract	Abdominal pain

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Table III. Recommended diagnostic laboratory investigations at presentation of TTP.

Full blood count and blood film

Reticulocyte count

Clotting screen including fibrinogen and D-dimers

Urea and electrolytes

Liver function tests

Lactate dehydrogenase

Urinalysis

Direct antiglobulin test

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Table III. Testing and expected results for patients with a suspected diagnosis of TTP Blood samples should be sent for investigation before first PEX.

For diagnosis	
Full blood count and blood film	Anaemia, thrombocytopenia, fragments on film
Reticulocyte count	Raised
Haptoglobin	Reduced
Clotting screen including fibrinogen	Normal
Urea and electrolytes	Renal impairment
Troponin T/Troponin I	For cardiac involvement
Liver function tests	Usually normal
Calcium	May reduce with PEX
Lactate dehydrogenase	Raised due to haemolysis
Urinalysis	For protein
Direct antiglobulin test	Negative
Blood group and antibody screen	To allow provision of blood products
Hepatitis A/B/C and human immunodeficiency virus testing	Pre-blood products and to exclude an underlying viral precipitant
Pregnancy test (in women of child-bearing age)	
ADAMTS 13 assay (activity/antigen and inhibitor/antibody in specialized laboratory)	Do not wait for result before starting treatment in suspected TTP
Electro-cardiogram/Echocardiogram	To document/monitor cardiac damage
CT/MRI brain	To determine neurological involvement*
For possible underlying cause	
Thyroid function tests	To exclude Graves Disease
Auto-antibody screen (ANA/RF/IA/ACLA), including lupus anticoagulant	Exclude associated autoimmune disease
Stool culture	For pathogenic <i>Escherichia coli</i> (if diarrhoea)
CT Chest/abdomen/pelvis (if indicated) ± tumour markers	To look for underlying malignancy

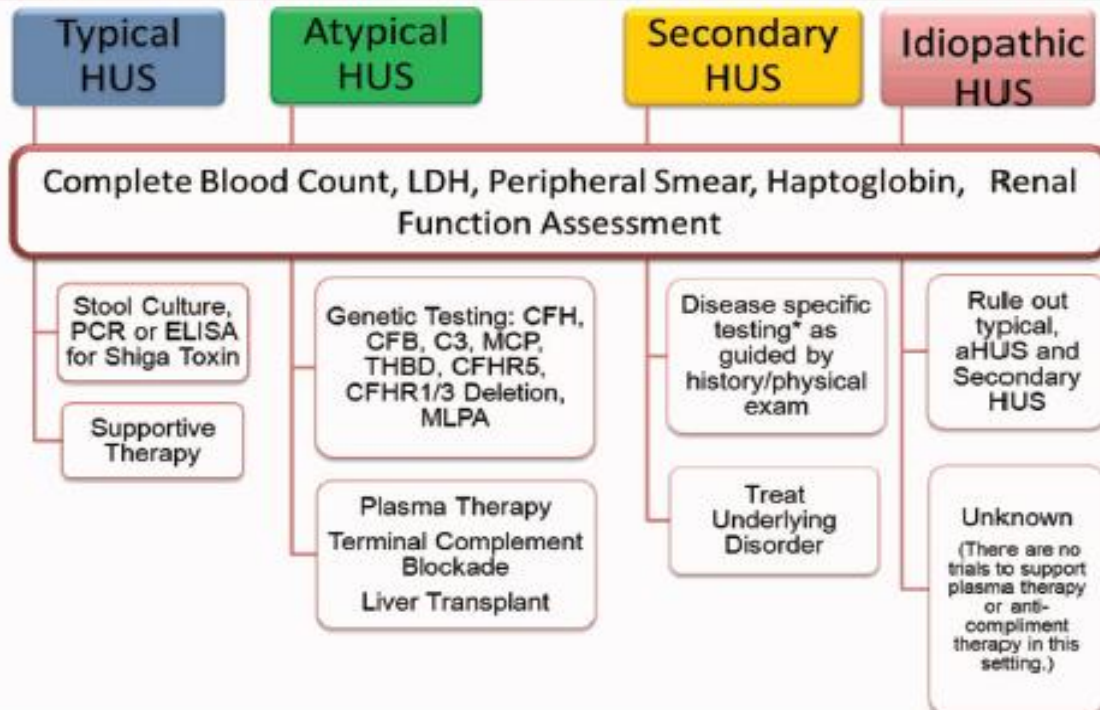
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Guidelines on the diagnosis and management of thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura and other thrombotic microangiopathies

مرکز تحقیقات

دوکان

Diagnosis and Management of Hemolytic Uremic Syndromes



Atypical hemolytic uremic syndrome: what is it, how is it diagnosed, and how is it treated?

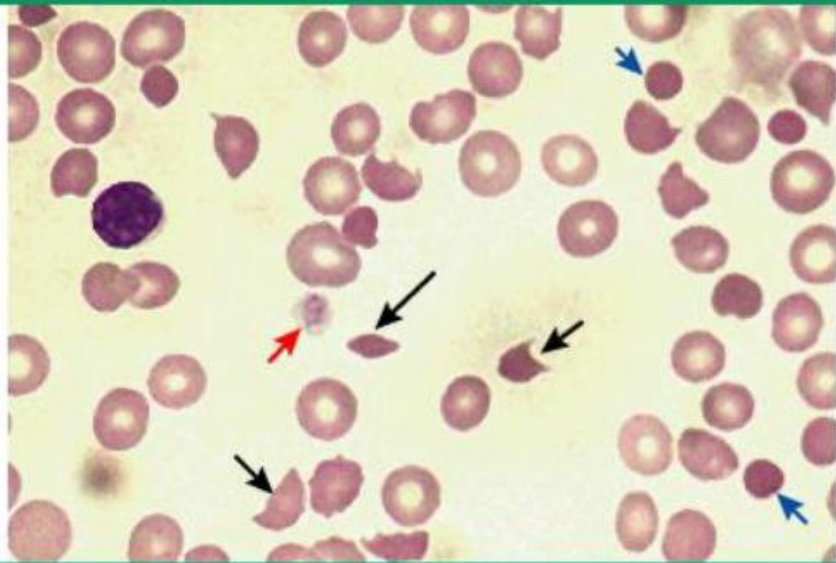
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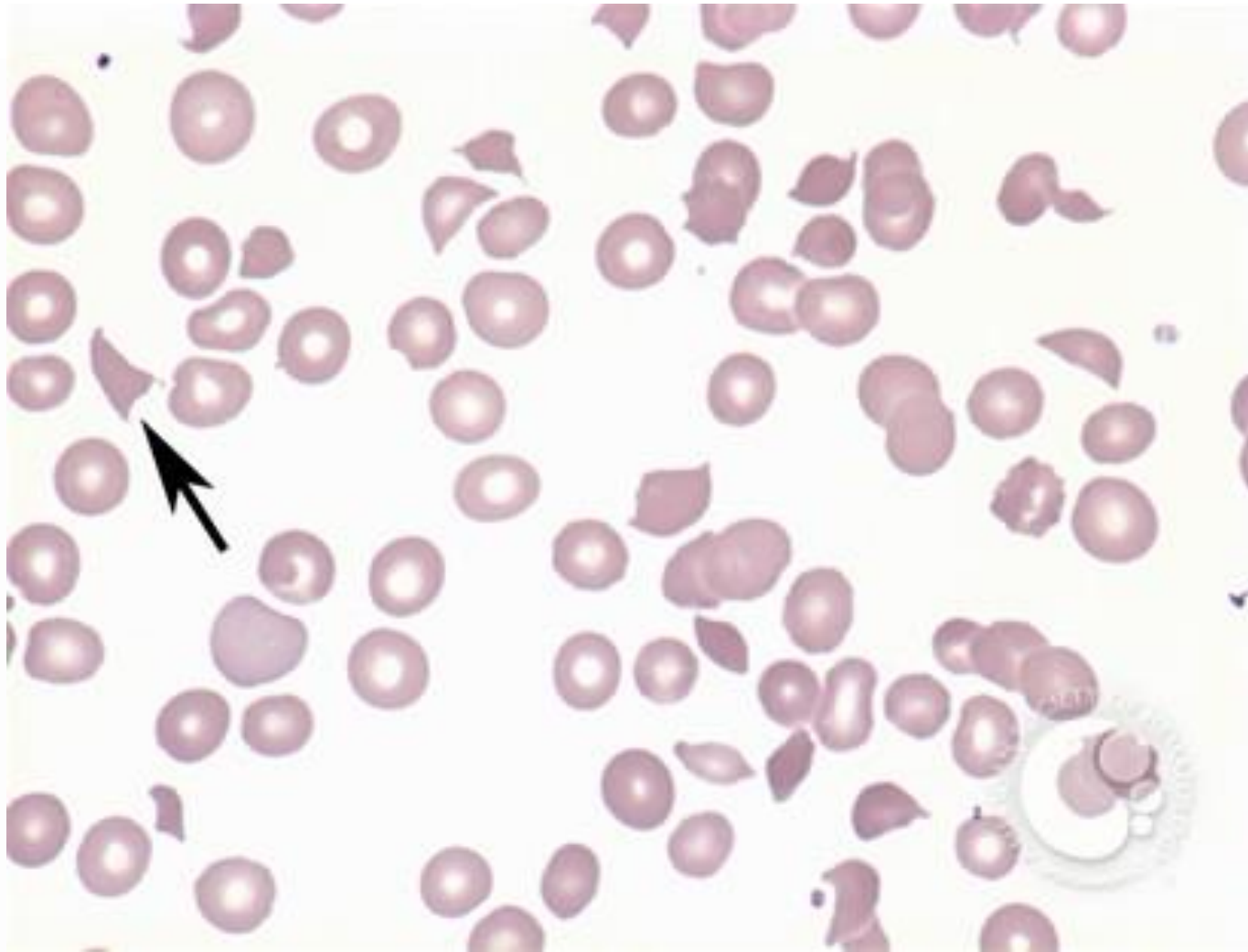
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Peripheral smear in microangiopathic hemolytic anemia showing presence of schistocytes



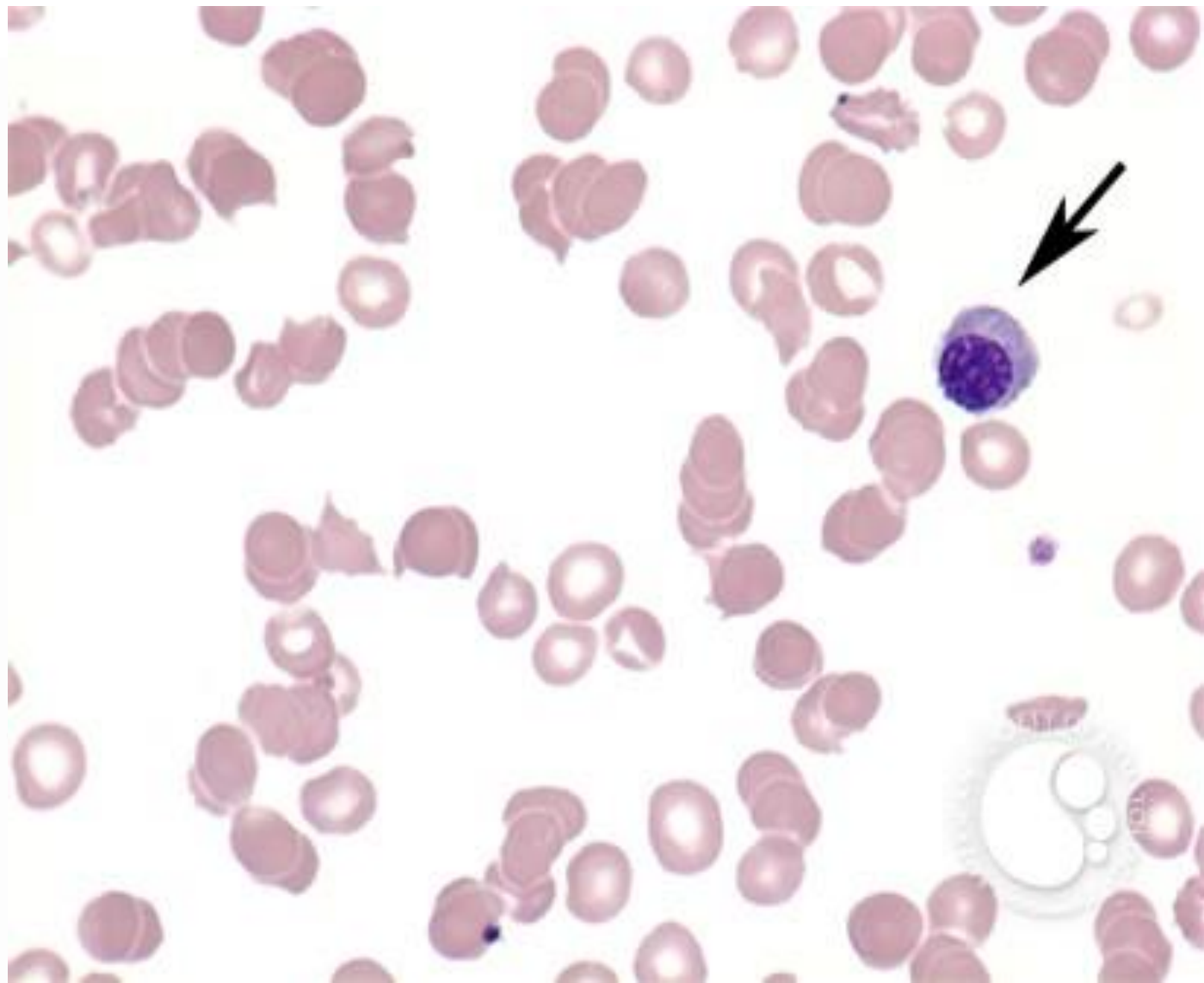
Peripheral blood smear from a patient with a microangiopathic hemolytic anemia with marked red cell fragmentation. The smear shows multiple helmet cells (small black arrows), other fragmented red cells (large black arrow); microspherocytes are also seen (blue arrows). The platelet number is reduced; the large platelet in the center (red arrow) suggests that the thrombocytopenia is due to enhanced destruction.
Courtesy of Carola von Kapff, SH (ASCP).

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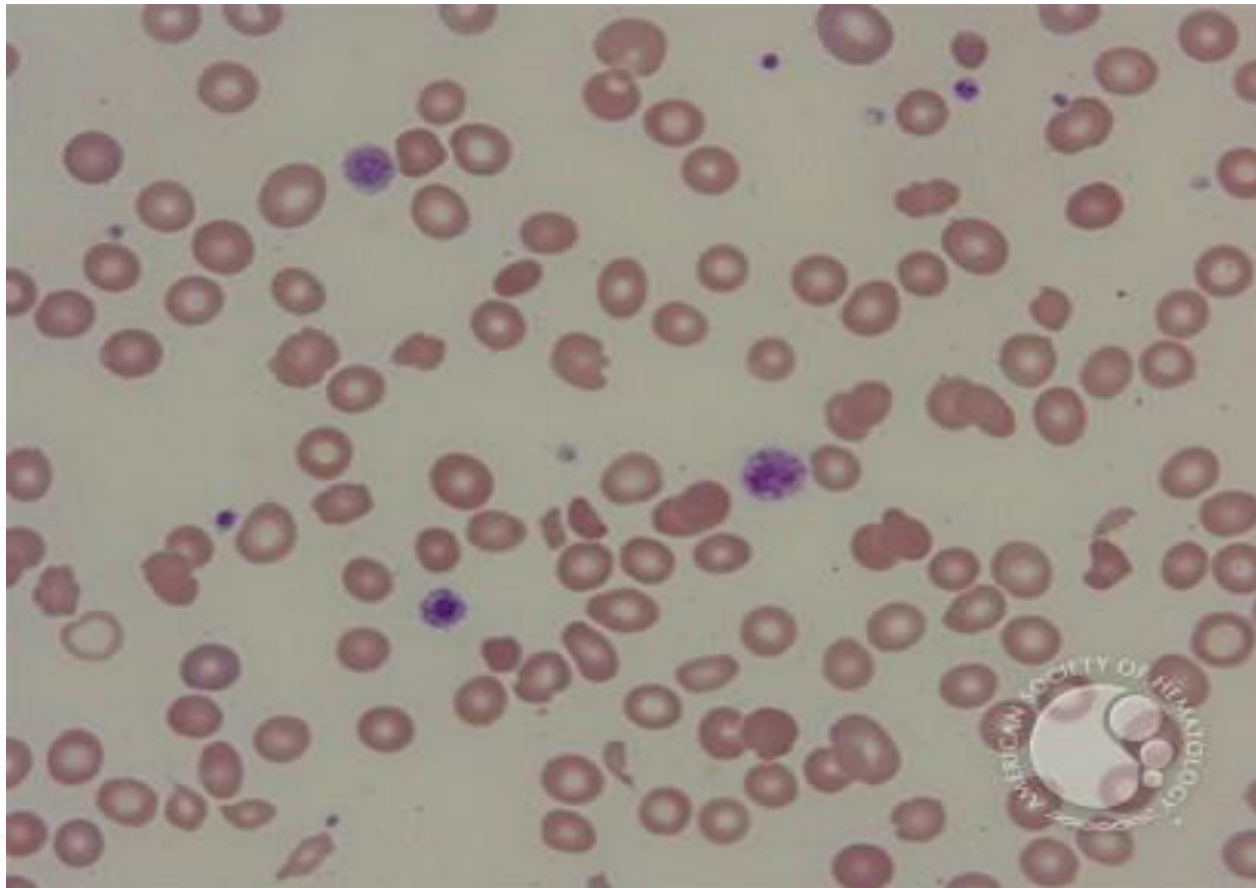


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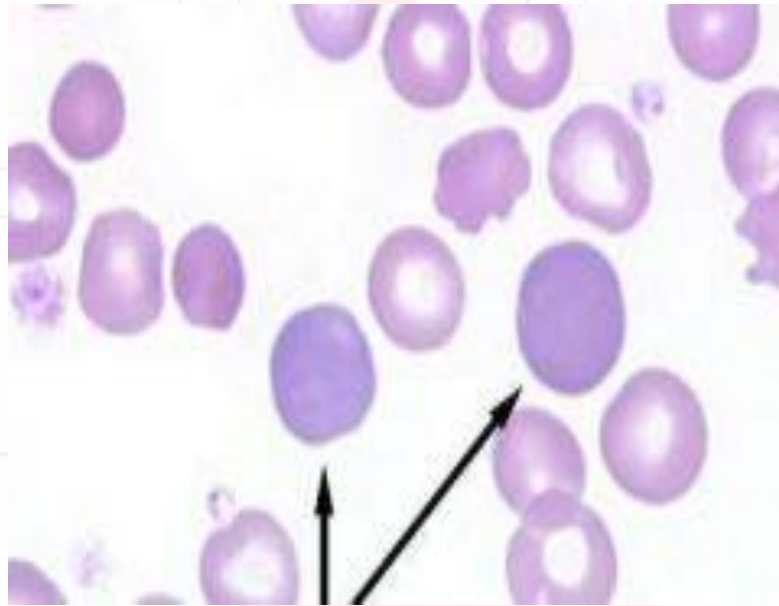


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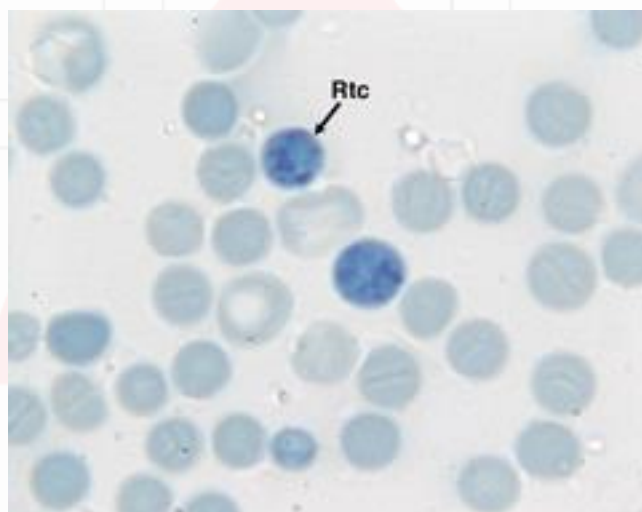


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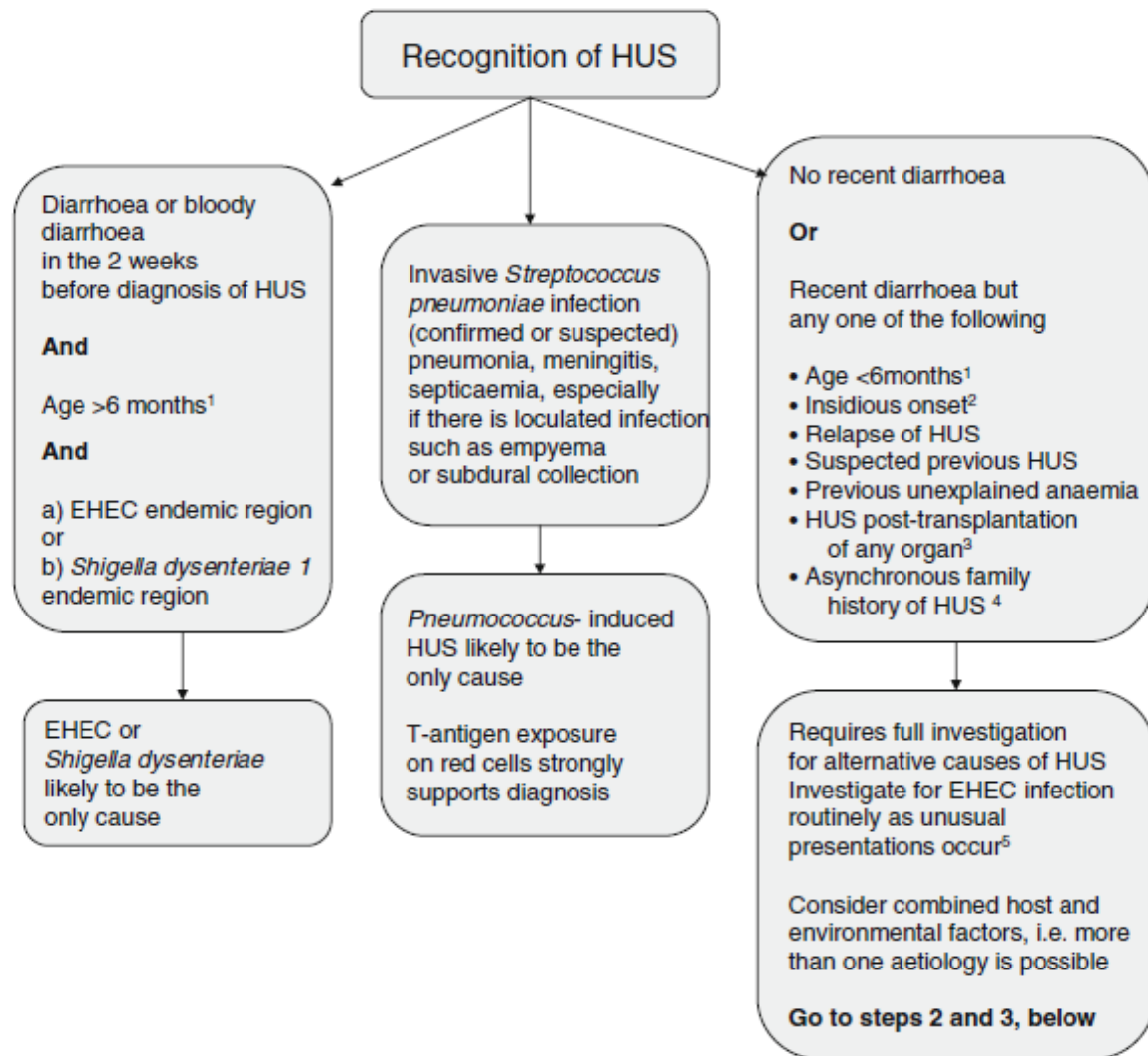
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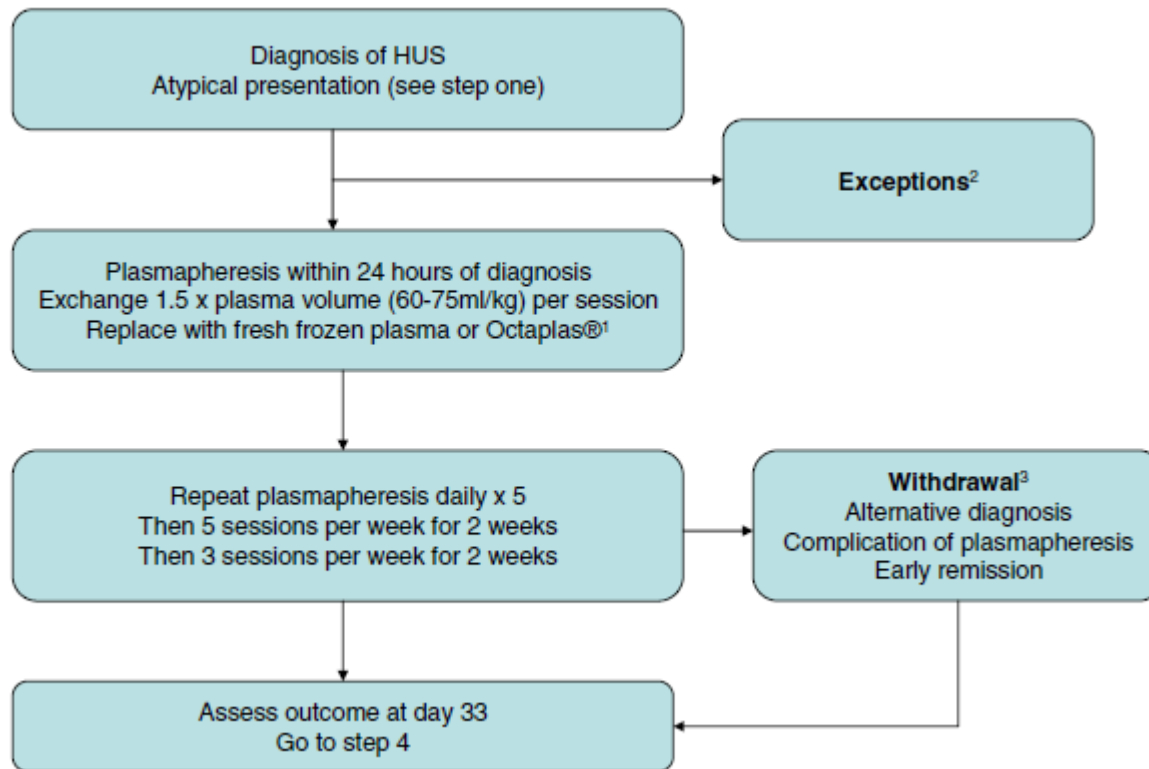
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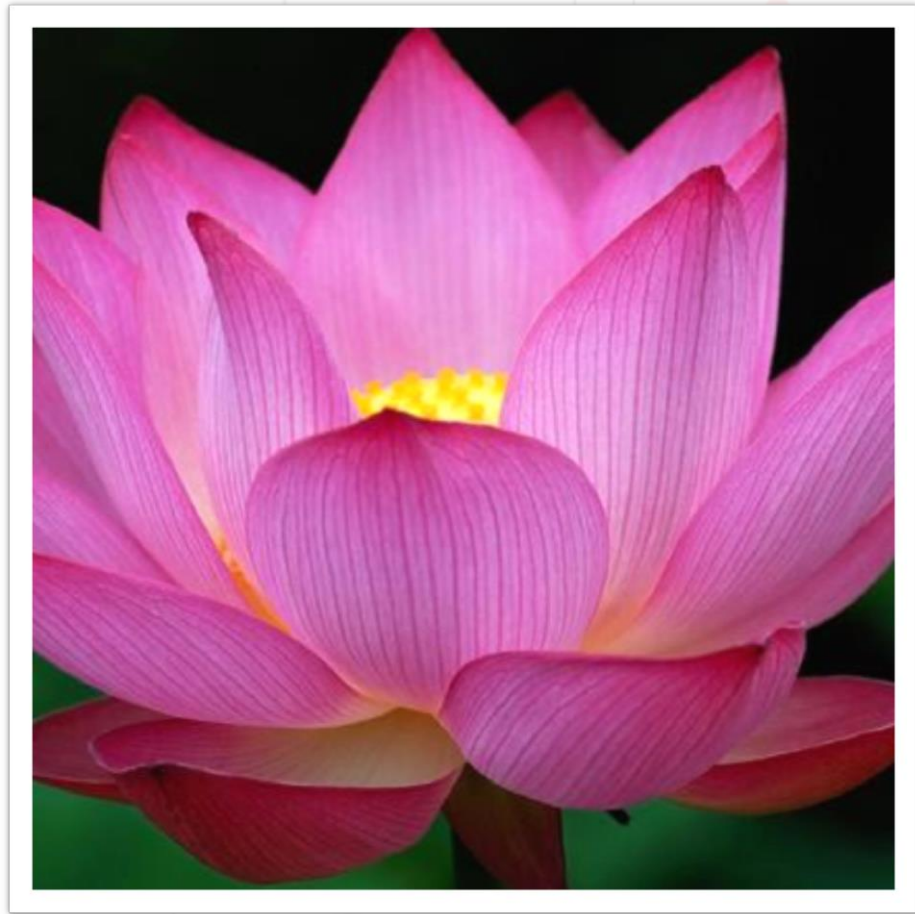
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 Pediatric Congenital Hematologic
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Suspected TTP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Suspect TTP if patient has MAHA and thrombocytopenia in absence of other identifiable cause • Start treatment immediately if TTP is suspected and refer urgently for specialist advice and PEX • See Tables I, II and IV
Investigations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Take blood before starting PEX: FBC, blood film, reticulocytes, clotting, fibrinogen, U+E, Troponin I/Troponin T, LFTs, Amylase, TFTs, calcium, LDH, pregnancy test, DAT, blood group with antibody screen, ADAMTS13, Hepatitis A/B/C, HIV serology and autoantibody screen • See Table III
Further Investigations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Other investigations should be performed promptly but can be delayed until after starting PEX: urinalysis, stool culture (if diarrhoea), echocardiogram, CT brain (if neurological signs), and CT chest/abdomen/pelvis to check for underlying malignancy (if indicated) • See Table III
Blood Products	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Request S/D FFP, if any delay in starting PEX then give FFP infusion (watch for fluid overload) • Use standard FFP if S/D unavailable • Transfuse packed red cells when necessary to correct anaemia • Platelet transfusions are contraindicated unless bleeding is life-threatening
URGENT treatment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Start PEX with S/D FFP as soon as possible • 1-5 plasma volumes X3, then 1 plasma volume/day with stabilization of condition
Start immediately after PEX	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Give steroids; either IV methylprednisolone (1 g/day for 3 days) or oral prednisolone (e.g. 1 mg/kg/day) with an oral proton pump inhibitor • Give oral folic acid 5 mg OD
Special cases	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If HIV-positive, start HAART immediately • If neurological or cardiac involvement, start rituximab • See Section 3.7.2
Prevent thrombosis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When platelet count $>50 \times 10^9/l$, start low molecular weight heparin thromboprophylaxis and aspirin 75 mg OD
Treatment Success?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continue daily PEX for a minimum of 2 d after platelet count has been $>150 \times 10^9/l$, then stop • If progressive symptoms, refractory disease or early relapse, then refer to Section 4

Guidelines on the diagnosis and management of thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura and other thrombotic microangiopathies



Thank you!

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