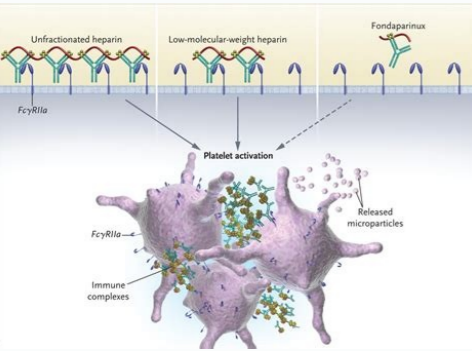


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5 Psoriasis

One to three per cent of most populations have psoriasis, which is most prevalent in European and North American white people, uncommon in American black people and almost non-existent in American Indians. It is a chronic non-infectious inflammatory skin disorder, characterized by well-defined erythematous plaques bearing large adherent silvery scales. It can start at any age but is rare under 10 years, and appears most often between 15 and 40 years. Its course is unpredictable but is usually chronic with exacerbations and remissions.

Cause and pathogenesis

The precise cause of psoriasis is still unknown. However, there is often a genetic predisposition, and sometimes an obvious environmental trigger. There are two key abnormalities in a psoriatic plaque: hyperproliferation of keratinocytes; and an inflammatory cell infiltrate in which neutrophils and TH-1 type T lymphocytes predominate. Each of these abnormalities can induce the other, leading to a vicious cycle of keratinocyte proliferation and inflammatory reaction; but it is still not clear which is the primary defect. Perhaps the genetic abnormality leads first to keratinocyte hyperproliferation that, in turn, produces a defective skin barrier (p. 11) allowing the penetration by, or unmasking of, hidden antigens to which an immune response is mounted. Alternatively, the psoriatic plaque might reflect a genetically determined reaction to different types of trauma (e.g. physical wounds, environmental irritants and drugs) in which the healing response is exaggerated and uncontrolled. To prove the primary role of an immune reaction, putative antigens (e.g. bacteria, viruses or autoantigens)

that initiate the immune response will have to be identified. This theory postulates that the increase in keratinocyte proliferation is caused by inflammatory cell mediators or signalling. Theories about the pathogenesis of psoriasis tend to tag along behind fashions in cell biology, and this idea is currently in vogue.

Genetics

A child with one affected parent has a 16% chance of developing the disease, and this rises to 50% if both parents are affected. Genomic imprinting (p. 301) may explain why psoriatic fathers are more likely to pass on the disease to their children than are psoriatic mothers. If non-psoriatic parents have a child with psoriasis, the risk for subsequent children is about 10%. In one study, the disorder was concordant in 70% of monozygotic twins but in only 20% of dizygotic ones. These figures are useful for counselling but psoriasis does not usually follow a simple Mendelian pattern of inheritance. The mode of inheritance has therefore to be categorized as genetically complex, implying a polygenic inheritance. Psoriasis is also genetically heterogeneous. Early onset psoriasis shows an obvious hereditary element and linkage analysis (p. 300) revealed the first psoriasis susceptibility locus (S1), on 6p—close to the major histocompatibility complex Class I (MHC-I) region, but probably not HLA-C itself. The risk of those with the HLA-CW6 genotype developing psoriasis is 20 times that of those without it; 10% of CW6+ individuals will develop psoriasis. Other MHC-I associated diseases include Behçet's disease, ulcerative colitis and anterior uveitis. Interestingly, T-cell mediated is also seen in these diseases. The hereditary element and the HLA associations are much weaker in late-onset psoriasis.

Case Study 2



How long does it take to recover from heparin induced thrombocytopenia. Heparin induced thrombocytopenia criteria. Heparin induced thrombocytopenia duration.

Heparin-induced thrombocytopenia (HIT) is a severe complication that can occur in patients exposed to any form or amount of heparin products. A fall in platelet counts and a hypercoagulable state characterize HIT. Patients who experience HIT may also develop thromboembolic complications that are associated with significant morbidity and mortality. This is a significant burden since heparin is widely used for treatment and prophylaxis of thromboembolism, line flushes, and heparin-coated catheters. This activity will review the pathophysiology, diagnosis, and management of patients with heparin-induced thrombocytopenia and highlight the role of the interprofessional team in caring for patients affected by this condition. Objectives: Describe the clinical presentation of heparin-induced thrombocytopenia. Explain the potential complications of heparin-induced thrombocytopenia. Review the recommended treatment of heparin-induced thrombocytopenia. Summarize the importance of an interprofessional approach to the identification and management of patients who are at risk for heparin-induced thrombocytopenia. Access free multiple choice questions on this topic. Heparin-induced thrombocytopenia (HIT) is a severe complication that can occur in patients exposed to any form or amount of heparin products.[1] A fall in platelet counts and a hypercoagulable state characterize HIT. Patients who experience HIT may also develop thromboembolic complications that are associated with morbidity and mortality. This is a significant burden since heparin is widely used for treatment and prophylaxis of thromboembolism, line flushes, and heparin-coated catheters. This review will discuss the pathophysiology, diagnosis, and management of patients with HIT. Types of thrombocytopenia that occur secondary to heparin use: [2] 3] Type I HIT, also known as heparin-associated thrombocytopenia (HAT), is a non-immune mediated reaction. Type II HIT is much more common than type I and can occur as early as day 1 of therapy. This is a mild reaction, it is not associated with any complications, and platelet counts will spontaneously normalize even if heparin is continued. Type II HIT is an immune, antibody-mediated reaction. Because it takes time for the antibodies to form, this reaction usually occurs after 5 to 14 days of receiving heparin. However, if a patient has been exposed to heparin within the last 100 days, antibodies may remain in the system, causing this reaction to manifest as soon as day one of re-exposure to heparin. This is a very serious reaction that causes a hypercoagulable state and can lead to life-threatening complications. The rest of this review will focus on type II HIT and its management. HIT can occur in up to 5% of patients exposed to heparin products. HIT causes an extremely hypercoagulable state, where up to 50% of patients develop thromboembolic complications, associated with a mortality rate of up to 30%. [4][5][6] There are several medication-related as well as patient-related factors that can increase the risk of HIT. Because of the difference in structure and function, HIT is more likely to occur with unfractionated heparin (UFH) than low molecular weight heparin (LMWH). Fondaparinux is a heparin-like drug that does not cause HIT, nor does it react with heparin-induced antibodies. UFH is a heterogeneous product that consists of long saccharide chains of varying lengths and molecular weights; the average UFH molecule is 45 saccharide units long. LMWH is also a heterogeneous product; however, LMWH is, on average, 15 saccharide units long. Fondaparinux is a synthetic pentasaccharide consisting of only the 5 sugars. The shorter the saccharide chain and the smaller the molecular weight, the less likely the drug is to bind to plasma proteins and cells. Therefore, there is a reduced risk of a HIT with LMWH compared to UFH, whereas fondaparinux does not cause HIT and can be safely utilized in patients with a history of HIT and potentially in the treatment of acute HIT. Although no amount of heparin is too small to cause this reaction, HIT is more likely to occur in patients exposed to higher doses of the drug; and the longer the duration of therapy, the higher the risk. Furthermore, females and elderly patients appear to be at an increased risk. The incidence of HIT is also higher among surgical patients, and this may be due to increased platelet activation and PF4 activity due to mechanical intervention and injury. Under normal physiological conditions, PF4 is stored in alpha-granules of the platelets and is released upon platelet activation. PF4 is positively charged and can, therefore, bind to the negatively charged heparan (a heparin-like substance normally present on the endothelial cell surface); PF4 can also bind to exogenous heparin with a much higher affinity than heparan. PF4 binding to heparin may trigger the formation of IgG, IgA, or IgM antibodies specific to the heparin-PF4 complex. HIT can only occur if IgG, while attached to the heparin-PF4 complex, binds to the FC receptor on the platelet surface and leads to platelet activation. Activated platelets then release pro-thrombotic substances (such as thrombin) and PF4. As IgG activates more platelets, more PF4 is released forming more complexes with heparin, thus activating more platelets. This creates a severely hypercoagulable state and a continuous cycle that can only be broken when heparin is discontinued, and appropriate treatment is initiated. The most characteristic clinical feature of HIT is thrombocytopenia. Platelet counts fall because macrophages consume the IgG-coated platelets and the reticuloendothelial system removes them. Simultaneously, as platelets become activated, they aggregate, and the platelet count drops as thrombus forms. Because HIT causes a hypercoagulable state, venous and/or arterial thrombosis can occur. The most common complications are deep venous thrombosis (DVT), pulmonary embolism (PE), or skin necrosis. The latter is particularly a risk if warfarin is administered in the acute phase. The risk of these complications is highest within the first 10 days, but the pro-thrombotic state persists up to 30 days after stopping heparin. [7] Signs and symptoms include sudden onset of pain, redness, and swelling of an arm or leg. Echinymotic lesions may develop. Typically, a rash or sore develops where a heparin shot was given. Patients may experience weakness, numbness, or problems, or painful extremity movement. [8][9] The most common symptom of HIT is enlargement or extension of a blood clot or the development of a new blood clot. This may take the form of clots either in arteries or veins. Venous thrombosis may occur in the arm or leg in the form of deep vein thrombosis and the lung in the form of a pulmonary embolism; the latter most often originates in the leg and migrates to the lung. In those receiving heparin IV, a complex of symptoms may occur. These include chills, fever, hypertension, tachycardia, shortness of breath, and chest pain. Others may develop a skin rash consisting of red spots. HIT should be suspected when there is an unexplained drop in platelet counts in a patient currently on heparin or recently exposed to heparin products. HIT typically presents as a steady drop in platelet counts (no fluctuations), while hemoglobin and hematocrit counts remain relatively stable. [10][11][12] The first step in the diagnosis of HIT is the calculation of the 4T score. This is a scoring system used to determine the likelihood of a patient having HIT based on the presence or absence of certain parameters. The score may be calculated using the following table. A 4T score of 0 to 3 points means HIT is unlikely, and heparin therapy may continue while the clinician looks for other causes of thrombocytopenia. A score of 4 to 5 corresponds to intermediate probability, and a score of 6 to 8 means high probability. All forms of heparin, including line flushes, should be immediately discontinued, and treatment with an alternative anticoagulant should be pursued in any patient who scores 4 or more. Also, the clinical diagnosis with the 4T score should be confirmed with the PF4 ELISA and the Serotonin Release Assay (SRA). The PF4 ELISA is an immunoassay that detects the presence of antibodies. This test is highly sensitive and has a high negative predictive value; HIT can be ruled out if this test is negative. The PF4 ELISA has low specificity, leading to false positives. This is because the test detects not only IgG antibodies but also IgA and/or IgM, neither of which is involved in the pathogenesis of HIT. The lab will report a positive ELISA when the optical density (OD) is greater than 0.4. The higher the optical density, the more likely the patient is to have true HIT and the higher their chance of thrombosis. Evidence from retrospective studies suggests that less than 3% of patients with an OD of 0.4-1 will have a true positive result. The ASH guideline recommends getting a confirmatory SRA for any patient with a positive ELISA; however, if the patient is in a region where the SRA is not available, the diagnosis of HIT may be confirmed with positive ELISA when the OD is greater than 2 (which correlates with ~ 90% chance of having HIT). Thus, if the PF4 ELISA is positive, the result should be confirmed with the SRA, the gold standard test for confirming HIT with high sensitivity and specificity. Unlike ELISA, which detects the presence of antibodies, the SRA is a functional test, which detects the activation of platelets in the presence of antibodies. A donor platelet that becomes activated in the presence of heparin and a sample of the patient's blood (containing IgG) will release serotonin. A positive SRA confirms the diagnosis of HIT, and negative SRA rules out HIT, even in the setting of a positive ELISA. The treatment of HIT should start as soon as a 4T score of 4 or more is calculated. The first step in the treatment is the discontinuation of all forms of heparin, including heparin flushes, heparin-coated catheters, and heparin in the dialysate. [13] Next, an alternative anticoagulant must be initiated to prevent or treat any HIT-induced thrombosis. In patients recently started on warfarin, warfarin should be held, and phytonadione (vitamin K) should be administered to replete protein C and S stores. The PF4 ELISA and SRA should be sent to confirm the diagnosis. [14][15] According to the 2018 American Society of Hematology (ASH) Guideline, an alternative anticoagulant must be initiated at the therapeutic intensity in the vast majority of patients, including the following: Any patient with a high-probability 4T score (6-8), any patient with intermediate-probability 4T score (4-5) and another indication for therapeutic anticoagulation, or any patient with intermediate-probability 4T score (4-5) and no indication for therapeutic anticoagulation, but who is not at high bleeding risk. Alternatively, a prophylactic dose of an alternative anticoagulant may be initiated in a small subset of patients who are considered to be at high risk of bleeding, provided that they do not require therapeutic anticoagulation for a different indication and they have an intermediate probability 4T score. If prophylactic anticoagulation is initiated in a patient meeting those criteria, and the immunoassay comes back positive, the patient should be switched to therapeutic anticoagulation while awaiting functional assay results. [16] As per the current practice guidelines, one of the following anticoagulants may be selected: argatroban, bivalirudin, danaparoid, fondaparinux, or a direct oral anticoagulant (DOAC). [16] Argatroban and bivalirudin have a short duration of action and are a good option for critically ill patients, patients who are at increased risk of bleeding, or patients who might require an urgent procedure. [16] Argatroban is a direct thrombin inhibitor that does not interact with PF4 or heparin-induced antibodies. Argatroban has a short half-life of 39 - 51 minutes. [17] It is given as a continuous infusion without a bolus to achieve aPTT 1.5 - 3 x baseline value. [13] This drug is hepatically metabolized and requires a lower starting rate and more frequent aPTT monitoring in patients with hepatic dysfunction, heart failure, and/or multi-organ failure. [17] Argatroban can profoundly increase INR; however, no therapeutic range for INR has been established for patients on argatroban. This is a false INR elevation due to the drug's reaction with the thromboplastin reagent and, therefore, does not relate to bleeding risk. Argatroban's effect on the INR must be considered, and a specific protocol must be followed when bridging back to warfarin because of the additive effect of the two drugs on INR. [18] Bivalirudin is another direct thrombin inhibitor that may safely be used in this patient population; however, this agent is usually reserved for use during cardiac catheterization procedures or cardiac surgery as an alternative to heparin. It is FDA approved for patients undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention with or without a HIT. It is more expensive than the argatroban. Another anticoagulant that may be used in a HIT is fondaparinux. Although not FDA-approved for this indication, fondaparinux is considered safe and effective and is one of the recommended agents according to the ASH guideline. Fondaparinux is given as a once-daily subcutaneous injection. An important consideration is that this drug is renally cleared and contraindicated in CrCL

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