Identifying and treating refractory ITP: difficulty in diagnosis and role of combination treatment

Oriana Miltiadous,^{1,2} Ming Hou,³ and James B. Bussel¹

¹Division of Hematology/Oncology, Department of Pediatrics, Weill Cornell Medicine, New York, NY; ²Department of Pediatrics, Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center, New York, NY; and ³Department of Hematology, Qilu Hospital, Shandong University, Jinan, China

Immune thrombocytopenia (ITP) is the most common acquired thrombocytopenia after chemotherapy-induced thrombocytopenia. Existing guidelines describe the management and treatment of most patients who, overall, do well, even if they present with chronic disease, and they are usually not at a high risk for bleeding; however, a small percentage of patients is refractory and difficult to manage. Patients classified as refractory have a diagnosis that is not really ITP or have disease that is difficult to manage. ITP is a diagnosis of exclusion; no specific tests exist to confirm the diagnosis. Response to treatment is the only affirmative confirmation of diagnosis. However, refractory patients do not respond to front-line or other treatments; thus, no confirmation of diagnosis exists. The first section of this review carefully evaluates the diagnostic considerations in patients with refractory ITP. The second section describes combination treatment for

Introduction

Immune thrombocytopenia (ITP) is an autoimmune bleeding disorder with thrombocytopenia resulting from increased platelet destruction and inhibition of platelet production.¹⁻⁴ Most children with ITP have good outcomes with a substantial rate of spontaneous improvement, and those who require intervention or progress to chronic disease usually respond well to treatment. Adults with ITP do not improve as often as children, but they have a higher rate of improvement than generally recognized, perhaps as much as 40% over 1 year and 60% over 3 years.⁵ Most patients can usually be managed with conventional treatment.^{1,6} However, small groups of patients exist who are very difficult to manage and do not respond to any treatment (ie, have refractory disease).

Current treatment of ITP is not strictly regimented.⁷ First-line therapy usually consists of steroids (high-dose dexamethasone or prednisone) or IV immunoglobulin (IVIG), or even a combination of both for certain patients. Second-line treatment primarily includes thrombopoietin receptor agonists (TPO-RAs) and rituximab, with splenectomy deferred until \geq 1 y from diagnosis. Additional second-line agents include fostamatinib and immunosuppressive agents (eg, azathioprine, cyclosporine, mycophenolate

refractory cases of ITP. The reported combinations are divided into the era before thrombopoietin (TPO) and rituximab and the current era. Current therapy appears to have increased effectiveness. However, the definition of refractory, if it includes insufficient response to TPO agents, describes a group with more severe and difficultto-treat disease. The biology of refractory ITP is largely unexplored and includes oligoclonality, lymphocyte pumps, and other possibilities. Newer treatments, especially rapamycin, fostamatinib, FcRn, and BTK inhibitors, may be useful components of future therapy given their mechanisms of action; however, TPO agents, notwithstanding failure as monotherapy, appear to be critical components. In summary, refractory ITP is a complicated entity in which a precise specific diagnosis is as important as the development of effective combination treatments. (Blood. 2020;135(7):472-490)

mofetil, and others). There are no guidelines to specify the order in which second-line agents should be used. The American Society of Hematology guidelines suggest TPO-RAs be used as the first second-line agent in patients with persistent disease. In patients with refractory disease, a number of agents are likely to have been used, including steroids, IVIG, TPO-RAs, rituximab, and/or others, whereas splenectomy will not necessarily have been performed.

Refractory ITP

Defining refractory as "no response to treatment" is subjective.⁸ We will use the definition of response as outlined by Rodeghiero et al, achieving a platelet count of 30 000/µL and doubling baseline platelet counts.⁹ Ideally the treatment would be repeated to enhance validity of the lack of response. Failure to respond to splenectomy is included in the definition of "refractory" according to Rodeghiero et al, although this is disputed in children. Currently, there is increasing reluctance to undergo or recommend splenectomy among patients and physicians,¹⁰ such that refractory needs to be defined without reference to splenectomy. Furthermore, there is a reluctance to pursue splenectomy when other treatments have been ineffective, based on the not well-documented but widely believed consensus that splenectomy will likely not be effective in such a circumstance.¹¹ Thus, splenectomy may not be performed in otherwise refractory patients. Therefore, we reserve the description of "refractory" for patients whose platelet counts do not respond to \geq 2 treatments, there is no single medication to which they respond, and their platelet counts are very low and accompanied by bleeding. These refractory patients have not necessarily undergone splenectomy. Unlike the great majority of patients with ITP, refractory patients do not do well; they respond poorly to a variety of treatments, they develop worsening disease and medication-induced toxicities, they have markedly reduced quality of life, and they have a higher hemorrhagic and infectious morbidity and mortality. The most common reason for medication toxicities in these patients is using steroids at a very high dose or for a very prolonged course.

Very low platelet counts can predispose patients to serious bleeding; however, typical patients with ITP rarely manifest with serious bleeding, even with very low platelet counts.¹² A manual count of the platelets in patients with severe thrombocytopenia is typically required, especially with older autoanalyzers, which could be less accurate. Modern autoanalyzers, although not perfect, are more accurate in these cases. Risk factors associated with a high incidence of bleeding are older age, certain comorbidities, need for antiplatelet agents or anticoagulation,¹³ polypharmacy, and refractory ITP (ie, patients not responsive to many different treatments with very low platelet counts).¹⁴ Patients with refractory ITP require vigilant care because of their substantial risk for serious hemorrhage, especially in older age. One hypothesis for the aging effect on the incidence and severity of bleeding is the absence of tonic growth factor nourishment from platelets to aging endothelial cells (eg, VEGF); thus, the endothelium becomes fragile, permitting hemorrhage.^{13,15,16}

These uncommon and very difficult to manage patients are the focus of this review. They are variously described as severe, chronic, refractory, or very-difficult-to-treat patients with ITP. There are 2 parts to the discussion. The first explains the identification and diagnosis of refractory ITP, which is much more complicated than the diagnosis of "common" cases of ITP. The second part describes combination treatments that have been tried in refractory patients. These 2 seemingly disparate topics are united here because they represent the 2 primary considerations for the diagnosis and management of refractory ITP: either the thrombocytopenia is not actually ITP or it is indeed a very-difficult-to-manage refractory ITP.

Diagnosis

ITP is a diagnosis of exclusion because no specific test defines its presence.^{17,18} At diagnosis, recommended laboratory testing is a complete blood cell count (CBC) with differential and review of the smear plus/minus immunoglobulin levels, as well as hepatitis C and HIV testing. The general practice of performing only a limited number of tests creates a higher likelihood of an incorrect diagnosis. In a large series of cases seen by experienced hematologists, the 2 leading misdiagnoses were secondary ITP and myelodysplastic syndrome (MDS).^{19,20} Other misdiagnoses included inherited thrombocytopenia, drug-induced thrombocytopenia, and presentation of bone marrow failure with primarily thrombocytopenia (Tables 1-3).²¹⁻²⁴ Figure 1 presents an estimate of primary ITP vs other diagnoses in patients thought to have "refractory ITP." Response to treatments, especially IVIG, is the only criterion allowing diagnosis of ITP with a high degree of certainty (however, the degree of response required to have a high degree of certainty remains ill defined). In contrast, there is no reliable way to confidently diagnose patients with refractory ITP, because (by definition) the patient does not respond to standard ITP treatment. Figure 2 provides a flowchart of the identification and then the diagnosis of refractory ITP.

Numerous patients with inherited thrombocytopenia have been reported to be initially diagnosed with "ITP" and subsequently received inappropriate and ineffective treatments, including cyclophosphamide and splenectomy. Furthermore, an estimate, based on the incidence of each disease, is that for every 10 cases of apparent ITP, there should be 1 case of inherited thrombocytopenia. This ratio confirms that we substantially underdiagnose inherited thrombocytopenia cases.

Bone marrow failure syndromes may present primarily with thrombocytopenia. However, these patients often provide subtle clues, such as a high mean corpuscular volume in a CBC or a dysmorphic feature, such as hypoplasia of the thenar eminence.

Secondary ITP requires specific testing because patients often do not exhibit overt evidence of their underlying disease. Examples include common variable immune deficiency (CVID) without a history of infections, autoimmune lymphoproliferative syndrome (ALPS) without substantial lymphadenopathy,²⁵ and cytomegalovirus (CMV) infection²⁶ with only mild transaminitis or atypical lymphocytes on smear. These are all "game changers" in that the specific diagnosis dramatically alters management; however, without the specific diagnosis, the ITP would be difficult, if not impossible, to manage. CVID is treated with maintenance IVIG replacement and rituximab if needed.²⁷ ALPS responds to sirolimus (and mycophenolate mofetil),28 and patients with CMV infection worsen with immunosuppression and require direct treatment of CMV.²⁶ Although all of these are very important to identify, altogether they represent <5% of patients with ITP. Other causes of secondary ITP are also important, and the initial estimate by Cines et al (20% of cases of apparent primary ITP are secondary) has been confirmed by 2 studies in France.^{14,20,29} Drug-induced thrombocytopenia is rarely diagnosed directly by testing.²⁴ Instead, the diagnosis is confirmed when thrombocytopenia resolves after stopping the offending agent. Interestingly, in clinical practice, this change infrequently affects the platelet count. Also, if a patient has been on the same medication for years, it may be essential to other aspects of the patient's health or it may be difficult to discontinue because of acquired dependence.

When a previously healthy patient presents with isolated thrombocytopenia, one often suspects ITP. As discussed, the rule of thumb is to do as limited an amount of testing as possible if a patient has isolated thrombocytopenia, there are no findings on history or physical examination suggestive of another process, and examination of the peripheral smear reveals blood cells with normal morphology. To exclude all other etiologies by laboratory testing can be an exhaustive task, highly expensive, and hugely unnecessary for the typical ITP patient. However, for difficult cases, as seen in Tables 1 through 3, there is a long list of differential diagnoses to consider, including inherited thrombocytopenia, secondary ITP, and bone marrow failure syndromes. Therefore, one needs to choose which diagnoses to

	Primary ITP ^{3,78}	SLE ^{79,80}	Evans syndrome ^{®1,82}	ALPS ^{83,84}	CVID ^{85,86}	CLL ^{87,88}	HIV ^{89,90}	Hepatitis C ³⁸	H pylori ^{91,92}	Drug induced³7	Postvaccine ⁹³	Other infections ⁹⁴
Clinical characteristics Age at presentation Incidence Distinguishing features	Any age, more common at age > 65 y. 1.6-3:100 000 Isolated thrombo- cytopenia with petechiae/ brusing in a healthy- looking patient.	Teenagers and older 1-10:100 000 Multisystem involvement, comon arthridis and renal.	Mostly adults 1:80000 Usually not concurrent hemolysis- hepatosplenomegaly/ lymphadenopatry.	Can present at any age Rare Splenomegaly/ lymphadenopathy may resolve when child gets older	Young adults 1-25 000-50 000 10% ITP, 10% AIIA, 5% Syndrome; not necessarily history of infections present at diagnosis.	>70 years, rarely younger. 4.9:100.000 Suspect if increased number of small mature lymphocytes on differential and smear	Any, common at age 20-40 y. 10:100000 Fluike illness, lymphadenopathy, opmortunistic infections; thrombocytopenia secondary to high viral load.	30-49 years, rare in younger. 1:100000 Arthralgias, paresthesias, myalgias, puritus, multifactorial thrombo- cytopenia.	Any, common at age > 60 y. 3-14:100 Nausea/vomiting, addominal pain; variable correlation with thrombocytopenia - related to geography.	Any Rare History of new drug treatment; difficult to diagnose.	Children and young adults Rare History of recent nost comonly <6 wk after and secondary to live vaccines.	Any Rare depending on the infection. Typicaly constitutional symptoms.
Diagnostic tests	CBC, peripheral blood smear.		CBC: ↓Hb ↓Plt ±↓WBC	s	tlgG + tlgM or tlaA	Peripheral blood smear. large	p24 by ELISA, HIV IaM/IaG bv	HCV IgM/IgG, HCV RNA.	Urea breath test, fecal <i>H pvlori</i>	Stopping offendina	None	PCR, serum antibodies -
	the state of the s	CRP, ESR, dsDNA+, ANA+.	JANC; freticulocytes, tbilirubin; thaptoglobins, Coombs+, JIgG; BM: normal.	Flow cytometry: α-β CD4 - CD8- T cells	} ;	atypical immature cells, flymphocytes. flow cytometry: flymphocytes.	westrend block HIV DNA PCR. Flow cytometry: CD4 < 200/μL.	HCV genotyping, liver function tests.	antigen, histological confirmation - rapid urease test.	agent should increase plt within a few days		depending on infection.
Mole cular characteristics	None identified	None identified	None identified	Defect in FAS gene	<10% various genetic defects identified	Possible chr abnl: 11q del, 13q del, 17p del, 12 copy.	None	None	None	None	None	None identified
Clinical approach	Standard first- and second- line treatment	Treat underlying disease, caution for thrombosis ńsk.	WIG, rituximab, sirolimus, MMF.	WIG/steroids acutely, MMF, sirolimus long- term, rituximab.	IVIG/SCIG, rituximab (very effective but requires lifelong IVIG).	Chemotherapy, rituximab.	HAART, TPO-RA, anti-D.	Antivirals, limited TPO-RA.	Eradicate infection	Stop offending agent	Likely mild and not requiring treatment, expected to resolve.	Treat underlying cause, TPO-RA.

 \downarrow indicates a decrease in value; $\downarrow\downarrow$ indicates a significant decrease in value; \uparrow indicates an increase in value.

abnl, abnormalities; AlHA, autoimmune hemolytic anemia; ALPS, autoimmune lymphoproliferative syndrome; ANA, anti-nuclear antibody; ANC, absolute neutrophil count; BM, bone marrow; chr, chromosome; CRP, C-reactive protein; CVID, common variable immune deficiency; del, deletion; dsDNA, double-stranded DNA; ELISA, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay; ESR, erythrocyte sedimentation rate; H*pylon*; Helicobacterpylori; HAART, highly active antinetroviral therapy; HD, hemoglobin; HCV, hepatitis C virus; MMF, mycophenolate mofeti; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; PlYplt; platelets; RBC, red blood cells; SLE, systemic lupus erythematosus; SCIG, subcutaneous immunoglobulin G; WBC, white blood cells.

Table 1. Approach considerations for primary and secondary ITP

	Primary ITP ^{3,78}	WAS ^{35,95} ,*	XLT ^{96,97,*}	BSS ^{98,99,} *	TAR ^{100,101}	X-linked gray plt syndrome ^{102,*}	Gray plt syndrome ^{103,*}	Disorders of filamen A¹⁰₄	MYH9-RD ^{105,*}	wWF type IIb [™] *	Plt-type VWD ^{107,*}	RUNX1 ^{108.*} heterozygous
Clinical characteristics Incidence	1-6.4:100000	1-4:1 million males	1:10 million males	<1:1 million	0.4:100000	Rare	Rare	Rare	Rare	Rare	Rare	Rare
Distinguishing features	Isolated thrombo- cytopenia with petechiae/ healthy- looking patient	Male with eczema, petechiae, and infections.	thrombocytopenia, very small ph, and peebly milk alesty-related GI bleeding.	Very large plt, falsely decreased number, and epistaxis fromozygous type than heterozygous).	Missing radii, other skeletal abnormalities, spontane ous improvement of counts within first year of life.	Variable thrombooytop platelets missing a (myelofibrosis due to granule contents (T(into the marrow.	aenia, "Irvisible" granules, of α "faakagge" of α 5F-β and PDGF) 5F-β and PDGF)	Variable: bleeding, CNS dysplasia, deafness, dysplasia, dysplasia,	Döhle bodies, genotype/ penotype/ penotype correlation: May Hegglin anomaly, Fechtner Fechtner Fechtner Sebastian Srndrome, etc. syndrome, etc.	Variable plt count that f with stress, plt clumpi type WF. type WF.	alls dramatically rg on smear, wVF common than plt-	Mild thrombo- sydopenia with plt dysfunction, 50% isk of melignancy 2/3 leukemia, 1/3 solid tumors).
Diagnostic tests	CBC, peripheral blood smear. l.pht: normal normal RBCs and WBCs. RUle out other causes.	Peripheral blood smear: small plt Decreased number/ function of function of fu	Peripheral blood smear: small plt, genetic panel and WES.	Peripheral blood smear: giantplt. No platelet agregation in response to istocetin. Flow cytometry: genetic panel and WES.	XR forearm Fetal US (missing nadii, ulna, humerus, tibia, etc.). If plt don't normalize, they may deteriorate; genetic panel and WES.	Iplit count, large- sized gray platelets. Hb electrophoresis: g-thalassemia- like phenotype (I,HbA2); genetic testing and WES.	Iplit count, large-sized gray platelets. BM shows myeloftorasis; genetic testing and WES.	Clinical characteristics, radiologic thistory, X-thiked inheritance; genetic testing and WES.	Macrothrombo- cytopenia, Döhle-like bodies: Hearing screen hearing loss; genetic testing and WES.	wWD panel: IWWF: RCo/WF:Ag atio: increased affinity of wF with low-dose intocetin, loss of high-molecular monomers with variable thrombocytopenia; genetic panel and WES.	Abnormal WD panel: aggregation aggregation aggregation monomers; monomers; monomers; monomers; monomers; genetic panel genetic panel and WES.	CBC: mild thrombo- cytopenia. Plt wpgregation: impaired to ADP; genetic testing and WES.
Mole cular characteristics	None identified	Mutations of WAS chromosome	gene on X	Mutation of GP1BA gene, resulting in lack of GP1b receptor.	Mutations in RBM8A gene.	Mutation in GATA1 gene	NBEAL2 or GFI1B mutation	FLNA gene mutations	Mutations in MYH9 gene	Mutations in vWF gene	GP1BA mutations	RUNX1 mutations
Clinical approach	Standard first- and second- line treatment.	HSCT. Future: gene tx.	TPO-RA, splenectomy, HSCT. Future: gene tx.	Transfusions, desmopressin, antifibrinolytics.	Plt transfusions, antifibrinolytics until improvement.	HSCT	HSCT	Supportive	Usually not requiring treatment, plt transfusions and TPO-RAs, if needed.	Infuse WVF	Plt transfusions	Supportive care, plt transfusions for procedures and surgeries.

Table 2. Primary ITP and inherited thrombocytopenia

↓ indicates a decrease in value; ↓↓ indicates a significant decrease in value; ↑ indicates an increase in value.

ADP, adenosine diphosphate; BM, bone marrow; CNS, central nervous system; GI, gastrointestinal; Hb, hemoglobin; HSCT, hematopoietic stem cell transplant; PDGF, platelet-derived growth factor; Plt/plt, platelets; RBC, red blood cells; RUNX1, RUNT-related transcription factor 1; TAR, thrombocytopenia basent radii syndrome; TGF, transforming growth factor; x, therapy; US, ultrasound; WD, von Willebrand disease; WF, von Willebrand factor; Plt/plt, platelets; RBC, red blood cells; RUNX1, RUNT-related activity/von Willebrand disease; WF, von Willebrand factor; WMF, RCo/WF:Ag ratio, ratio of von Willebrand factor ristocetin cofactor activity/von Willebrand antigen; WAS, Wiskott-Aldrich syndrome; WBC, whole exome sequencing; XLT, X-linked thrombocytopenia; XR, X-ray.

*In these diseases, a patient with a mild phenotype may go undiagnosed until screening is initiated upon a relative's positive diagnosis.

Table 3. Bone marrow failure states presenting with isolated thrombocytopenia

	Primary ITP ^{3,78}	FA ³⁰	CAMT ¹⁰⁹	DC ¹¹⁰	SDS ¹¹¹	MDS ^{39,112}
Clinical characteristics Age at presentation Incidence Distinguishing features	Any age, more common after age 65 y 1-6.4:100 000 Isolated thrombocytopenia with petechiae/bruising in a healthy-looking patient	Young children (6-9 y), but up to 40 y of age 1:1 million Could present as isolated thrombocytopenia at any age; thumb/skeletal abnormalities, short stature.	Type I: newborn. Type II: 3-6 y. Rare Isolated severe thrombocytopenia in neonate; often progresses to complete AA within several years; 1/3 with skeletal abnormalities.	Young children (<5 y) and up to 40 y of age <1:1 million Skin/nail abnormalities	Infancy/early childhood and up to 30 y of age Rare Exocrine pancreas dysfunction	Most common in older adults 1-4:1 million Other abnormalities on CBC and dyspoiesis in BM, possibly associated with trisomy 8 or 21, FA, etc.
Diagnostic tests	CBC, peripheral blood smear. Utplt: normal or increased in size. Normal RBCs and WBCs. Rule out other causes.	BM evaluation, DEB, MMC. Genetic panel and WES.	BM evaluation: reduced/ absent megakaryocytes; genetic panel and WES.	BM evaluation. Telomere length. Genetic panel and WES.	Pancytopenia, BM, fecal studies: elastase, trypsinogen; serum trypsinogen, isoamylase; genetic panel and WES.	BM evaluation. Cytogenetics: 5q del, 7 del, trisomy 8; genetic panel and WES.
		Rule out viral infections: PCR/Ic	gM/lgG of CMV, hepatitis, EBV	, HIV, parvovirus. Rule out d	rugs/toxins. Rule out renal, h	epatic, thyroid dysfunction.
Molecular characteristics	None identified	Mutations in FANCA, FANCC, FANG genes.	Mutation in c-Mpl gene	11 gene mutations	Mutations in SBDS gene	Monosomy 7, trisomy 8 or 21.
Clinical approach	Standard first- and second- line treatment	Transfusions, androgens, HSCT, TPO-RA, G-CSF.	Transfusions, HSCT.	Transfusions, androgens, HSCT, TPO-RA, G-CSF	Supportive. HSCT. Plt transfusions.	Chemotherapy. HSCT. TPO-RA (controversial).

11 indicates a significant decrease in value.
AA approximation of the indicates o



Figure 1. An estimate of the incidence of primary ITP vs other diagnoses in patients defined as having "refractory ITP." These percentages may vary considerably depending on the clinical setting and geographical location. BMF, bone marrow failure syndromes.

explore first, and this is often not straightforward. Table 4 lists many diagnostic tests that can be used to identify other underlying etiologies.

If several ITP treatments are administered with minimal or no response, it becomes less likely that the patient has ITP (Tables 1-3). Ideally, a work-up is initiated and continued until another diagnosis is made or ITP is confirmed. The following findings are some that may focus the work-up: (1) a history of recurrent infections suggests immunodeficiency, (2) a first-degree relative with low platelet counts suggests an inherited thrombocytopenia, which may also be supported by examination of the peripheral smear, and (3) mild mental retardation, hypocalcemia, and a right-sided aortic arch suggest DiGeorge syndrome. There are many other possible examples and not all are listed in the tables.

It is tempting to perform whole-exome sequencing (WES) or even whole-genome sequencing (WGS). Although this would identify mutations, especially those responsible for bone marrow failure syndromes, inherited thrombocytopenias, and possibly MDSs, it is far from perfect. A 335-patient series of inherited thrombocytopenias identified definite and probable gene findings in less than half of the cases.²² Among bone marrow failure cases, chromosome fragility (diepoxybutane breakage test) can identify Fanconi anemia (FA), and telomere length can identify dyskeratosis congenita (DC); these are often the initial tests done.³⁰

In refractory patients, a poor response to platelet transfusion is not as helpful diagnostically as a good durable response, because many causes of thrombocytopenia can result in a suboptimal response to platelets. Refractory patients should undergo bone marrow examination, including aspirate and biopsy, cytogenetics, and flow cytometry. However, bone marrow

examination findings do not allow diagnosis of ITP; they can only be compatible with it. If the bone marrow is normal, WES or whole-genome sequencing is a reasonable next step. Tables 1 through 3 list many entities and their diagnostic modalities. Given the mantra that large platelets mean ITP and not leukemia, myosin heavy chain 9-related disorders (MYH9-RDs), Bernard-Soulier syndrome (BSS), and other macrothrombocytopenias are often misdiagnosed as ITP, especially if they have falsely low platelet counts (ie, if the platelets are too large to be accurately counted).^{31,32} As already indicated, inherited thrombocytopenias are commonly underdiagnosed. If a TPO-RA is used and responses are only seen to this agent, it may not be helpful diagnostically, because many forms of inherited thrombocytopenia, as well as certain bone marrow failure states, might respond.^{33,34} Table 3 refers to bone marrow failure states with predominant thrombocytopenia at presentation. Although these are traditionally thought of as pediatric diseases, a number of cases present in adults. The current practice, not to perform routine bone marrow examinations in patients with newly diagnosed suspected ITP, may delay the diagnosis of these diseases, such as FA, acquired amegakaryocytic thrombocytopenia, and telomeropathies (Table 3). Other diagnoses may resemble ITP more closely, including DC (Table 3), chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL; if the lymphocyte count is not high) (Table 1), the X-linked thrombocytopenia form (thrombocytopenia only) of Wiskott-Aldrich syndrome³⁵ (Table 2), and asymptomatic HIV (Table 1). MDS may be confused with ITP because it has a similar combination of hypercellular marrow and increased megakaryocytes; signs of dyspoiesis may not be overt, and progression may be required to clarify the diagnosis. Observing a response to IVIG would exclude some of these cases but not secondary ITP; however, a patient who responds to IVIG would not be considered refractory.

Another category is drug-induced thrombocytopenias. Certain medications are known to cause thrombocytopenia.^{36,37} As mentioned earlier, there is not readily available testing for this entity, and certain cases (ie, quinine in tonic water) can be overlooked.²⁴ Liver disease can cause thrombocytopenia by a number of mechanisms and resemble ITP³⁸; however, typically thrombocytopenia is moderate, and patients usually do not present as having refractory ITP. The incidence of silent hepatic disease can vary enormously depending on geography and the type of population served. Splenomegaly (with/without hepatomegaly) may suggest a body computed tomography scan, which may uncover lymphoma or another malignancy.

A work-up needs to be age (and gender) oriented: for example, CLL and MDS are primarily diseases of the elderly and lupus has a ninefold greater incidence in females, with a distinct peak in early adulthood.³⁹⁻⁴¹ CVID can be seen at any age, but it primarily occurs in patients who are 20 to 50 years old. Studies have emphasized that gain-of-function immune defects can manifest as autoimmunity, presenting as refractory ITP at any age.⁴² High thrombopoietin (TPO) levels might support bone marrow failure syndromes.⁴³ If a work-up has been completed and does not reveal secondary ITP (Table 1), inherited thrombocytopenia (Table 2), or bone marrow failure (Table 3), this does not ensure that the patient has primary ITP. Each category requires thorough investigation with a wide range of testing, including extensive genomic analyses. Furthermore, certain diagnoses do



Figure 2. Flowchart for the identification and treatment of patients with refractory ITP. Ag, antigen; ANA, anti-nuclear antibodies; CMP, comprehensive metabolic panel; CRP; C-reactive protein; CMV, cytomegalovirus; ESR, erythrocyte sedimentation rate; Eval, evaluation; HCV, hepatitis C virus; H pylori, *Helicobacter pylori*; plt/Plt, platelets; PT, prothrombin time; PTT, partial thromboplastin time; TIBC, total iron binding capacity; Tx, treatment.

not have specific testing available that will identify all cases. In summary, it is impossible to unequivocally eliminate all possible etiologies of thrombocytopenia.

With these considerations, if an extensive work-up is negative, it remains very difficult to distinguish "world's worst ITP" from "not ITP at all." Ideally, a bone marrow examination would exclude MDS and other bone marrow failure conditions; however, this is not infallible and, in certain patients, repeated bone marrow examinations with up-to-date genomic analyses may be required before specific diagnoses can be clarified.

Combination treatment to manage refractory patients with ITP

If a case truly appears to be refractory ITP, the authors' experiences suggest that, in 50% of cases, it may still be another diagnosis, depending upon the experience of the hematologist and the extent of the work-up. However, if it appears to be ITP and multiple single agents have failed to stably increase the platelet count, combination treatments are the next step. These have been explored in ITP but have not been well reviewed.

Currently, refractory ITP would include lack of response to rituximab and TPO agents. This is not as uncommon as sometimes assumed. The lack of response to these leading secondline agents is what necessitates the use of combination treatment in many patients.

Table 5 lists combination therapies identified for inclusion. The first group of therapies antedates the availability of TPO agents and are no longer used extensively, but they deserve mention. The first combination treatment of which we are aware was cyclophosphamide and prednisone combined with vincristine (CVP), vincristine plus procarbazine (C-MOPP), or etoposide (CEP). The first treated patient was a woman with ITP in 1981 who had relapsed Hodgkin disease and developed refractory ITP. When she was treated with CMOPP for the Hodgkin disease, the ITP improved and, 10 years later, she was still in remission. A further trial of a selection of CMOPP, CEP, or CVP in 8 refractory patients found 4 complete responses (CRs) and 1 partial response (PR). These patients had failed splenectomy and steroids.⁴⁴ A follow-up letter emphasized that responders remained in remission and

Table 4. Diagnostic tests and differential diagnosis

Diagnostic tests	Possible diagnosis to be identified
CBC with differential	Leukemia, Evans syndrome
Reticulocytes	FA, DC, SDS, MDS
Smear review	WAS, XLT, BSS, X-linked gray plt syndrome, gray plt syndrome, MYH9- RD, RUNX1 heterozygous, leukemia
Immunoglobulins (IgM, IgG, IgA)	CVID, WAS
Liver Function Tests	Hepatitis C
Infectious work-up: CMV, HIV PCR	Infectious-associated thrombocytopenia
H pylori stool antigen/urea breath test	H pylori-associated thrombocytopenia
Flow cytometry for lymphocyte subsets	ALPS, WAS, CLL, HIV
ESR, CRP	SLE, other inflammatory causes
ANA, dsDNA	SLE, other inflammatory causes
Bone marrow aspirate/biopsy/cytogenetics	MDS, FA, CAMT, DC, SDS, CLL
Genetic testing: whole-genome sequencing vs specific panels	WAS, XLT, BSS, TAR, X-linked gray plt syndrome, disorders of filamin A, MYH9-RD, vWF type IIb, plt-type vWD, RUNX1 heterozygous, FA, CAMT, DC, SDS, MDS, ALPS
Telomere length	DC
DEB, MMC	FA
Stool elastase, trypsinogen	SDS
Serum trypsinogen, isoamylase	SDS
Plt aggregation	BSS, vWF type IIb, plt-type vWD, RUNX1 heterozygous
vWD panel	vWF type IIb, plt-type vWD

ANA, anti-nuclear antibody; BSS, CAMT, congenital amegakaryotic thrombocytopenia; CRP; C-reactive protein; DEB, diepoxybutane test; dsDNA, double-stranded DNA; ESR, erythrocyte sedimentation rate; MMC, mitomycin C; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; Plt/plt, platelets; RUNX1, RUNT-related transcription factor 1; SDS, Shwachman-Diamond syndrome; SLE, systemic lupus erythematosus; TAR, thrombocytopenia absent radii syndrome; vWD, von Willebrand disease; vWF, von Willebrand factor; WAS, Wiskott-Aldrich syndrome; XLT, X-linked thrombocytopenia

included 4 additional patients, 3 with no response and 1 with a PR. $^{\rm 45}$

In 2009, a trial of R-CVP (rituximab, vincristine, cyclophosphamide, and prednisone; a version of R-CHOP without procarbazine) was initiated with disappointing results: of 8 patients treated, only 4 responded, and they were the same ones who had responded previously to rituximab alone (CR or PR).⁴⁶ Furthermore, time to relapse was approximately the same compared with when patients received rituximab alone. In addition, patients with no response to rituximab did not respond to R-CVP.

In 2007, in the prerituximab era and pre-TPO era, patients who failed to respond to steroids and/or IVIG received induction therapy, followed by combination maintenance therapy. Induction was IVIG, steroids, and IV anti-D and/or vinca alkaloids. The 18 patients needing maintenance therapy received a combination of danazol and azathioprine, with 13 responses.⁴⁷ More recently, our anecdotal experience in 5 patients found this combination to be ineffective in patients who failed rituximab and/or a TPO agent. This illustrates that the current

functional definition of "refractory" has shifted to patients with ITP that is harder to treat in the era of TPO-RA and rituximab availability.

One attempted approach, combining agents that inhibit different T-cell pathways, was administering, at lower-than-maximal dose, azathioprine, cyclosporine, and mycophenolate mofetil in 19 ITP patients with a range of disease severity. The reasoning behind combining these drugs at lower doses was to increase efficacy while reducing toxicity.⁴⁸ In the pre-TPO era, they demonstrated a 74% response rate without infections; however, long-term follow-up showed that only 2 patients had sustained off-treatment remission.⁴⁸

Another pre-TPO era approach was triple therapy in newly diagnosed (40%) and "refractory" (chronic) ITP (60%) patients (N = 20), including 5 with secondary ITP (25%). Triple therapy was dexamethasone (4 days at 40 mg/d), low-dose rituximab (4 weekly doses of 100 mg), and low-dose cyclosporine (2.5-3 mg/kg for 28 days) to complete therapy within 1 month. Four of 12 refractory cases responded and maintained their response for

Table 5. Combination therapies for refractory ITP

							Fo	llow-up			
References	Arms, n	Medication	Dosing	Cycles	Patients, n	Reported response	1 mo	3 mo	6 mo	12 mo	24 mo
				Pre-T	PO-RA era						
Figueroa et al44	1	Cyclophosphamide Prednisone Vincristine Procarbazine or etoposide	400-650 mg/m² IV, days 1 and 8 40 mg/m² PO, days 1 and 14 2 mg IV, days 1 and 8 100 mg/m² PO, days 1 and 14 or 100 mg/m² IV, days 14-16	3-8	10	CR, 60% (>4, 9, 11, 30, 53, and 126 mo); PR, 20% (>2, >9 mo)	CR, 70%; PR, 20%	CR, 70%; PR, 10%	CR, 60%; PR, 10%	CR, 40%; PR, 0%	CR, 40%; PR, 0%
Choudhry et al ¹¹³	1	Vinblastine Danazol	4 mg/m² IV, weekly and then monthly 2-3 mg/kg PO, daily	8 mo	16	CR, 38%; PR, 25% after induction Remission in 25% during f/u (6-10 mo)	CR, 38%; PR, 25%		CR, 19%; PR, 6%		
McMillan ⁴⁵	1	Cyclophosphamide Prednisone Vincristine Procarbazine, or Etoposide	400-650 mg/m² IV, days 1 and 8 40 mg/m² PO, days 1, and 14 2 mg IV, days 1 and 8 100 mg/m² PO, days 1 and 14 100 mg/m² IV, days 14-16	3-8	12	CR 42%; PR 8%	CR, 58%; PR, 17%	CR, 58%; PR, 8%	CR, 50%; PR, 8%	CR, 50%; PR, 8%	CR, 50%; PR, 0%
Kappers-Klunne and van't Veer' ¹⁴	2	Cyclosporine tapered by 50 mg/d every 2 wk Dosing below 3 mg/kg PO, BID CSA Prednisone	3 mg/kg PO, BID 2.5 mg/kg PO BID 0.4 mg/kg/d	>4 wk <4.5 mo	10 10	CR, 30%; PR, 20% CR, 20% (>2 y, >4 y); PR, 40%	CR, 30%; PR, 20%	CR, 30%; PR, 20%	CR, 20%; PR, 10% CR, 20%; PR, 40%	CR, 20%; PR, 0% CR, 20% Unclear leng follow-up	CR, 20%; PR, 0% CR, 20% gth of
Williams & Boxer ¹¹⁵	1	Vincristine Methylprednisone CSA	1.5 mg/m² IV, weekly 100 mg/m² IV, weekly 5 mg/kg PO, BID	2-4 doses 2-4 doses 3-6 mo	10	80% had PR or CR. Treated pts have been off therapy for a median of 13 mo.	CR, 70%; PR, 0%	CR, 70%; PR, 10%	CR, 70%; PR, 10%	CR, 50%; PR, 10%	CR, 20%; PR, 0%
Boruchov et al*	Acute Maintenance	IVIG Anti-D Vincristine Vinblastine Danazol Azathioprine	1 g/kg IV 0.03 mg/kg IV 10 mg IV 10 mg/kg PO 2-2.5 mg/kg PO		17 18	66% responded to acute IV therapy. Response, 65% at 2 mo and 71% at 4 mo (did not start immunosuppressive therapy in 8 pts with HIV)		65% (11/17)			
Hasan et al™	1 2 3	Second-dose rituximab* Rituximab Cyclophosphamide Vincristine Prednisone DDR	375 mg/m² IV, weekly ×4 weeks 375 mg/m² IV, weeks 1, 2, 5, and 8 750 mg/m² IV, every 4 wk 1.4 mg/m² IV, every 4 wk 100 mg PO, days 1-5, every 4 wk 750 mg/m² IV, weekly	4 wk 4 infusions 3 3 3 4 wk	20 8 8	None with benefit over standard-dose rituximab; 38% responded to R-CVP but short duration; 63% responded to DDR, 4 pts with longer response compared with initial treatment. No pt with Nito initial rituximab responded to DDR.		CR, 50%; PR, 20% CR 38% PR 0% CR, 50%; PR, 13%	CR, 45%; PR, 20% CR 38% PR 0% CR, 50%; PR, 13%	CR, 40%; PR, 5% CR 13% PR 0% CR. 38%; PR, 13%	CR, 5%; PR, 0% CR 0% PR 0% CR, 0%; PR, 0%
Amold et al ⁴⁸	1	Azathioprine CSA MMF	2 mg/kg/d 2 mg/kg/d 1-2 g/d		19	CR, 11%; PR, 63% in a median of 24 mo of follow-up (11.5- 46.8 mo); 57% relapsed.					
Gómez-Almaguer et al ¹¹⁶	1	Rituximab Alemtuzumab	100 mg IV, weekly 10 mg SQ, days 1-3	4 wk	11	45% achieved CR, 55% achieved PR. Median duration of CR was 46 wk.	CR, 27%; PR, 73%	CR, 36%; PR, 64%	CR, 36%; PR, 55%	CR, 18%; PR, 27%	PR, 0%; CR, 0%

Long-term follow-up may be low because patients relapsed or because of the small number of patients at the specific time point.

AKI, acute kidney injury; ATRA, all-trans retinoic acid; BID, twice a day; CSA, cyclosporine A; DDR, double the standard dose rituximab; f/u, follow-up; GI, gastrointestinal; HA, headache; HSCT, hematopoietic stem cell transplant; HSV, herpes simplex virus; HTN, hypertension; ICH, intracranial hemorrhage; MI, myocardial infarction; min, minimum; MMF, mycophenolate mofetil; MRR, major response rate; NSAID, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug; OR, overall response; plt, platelets; PO, by mouth; pt/pts, patient/patients; R-CVP, rituximab, cyclophosphamide, vincristine, and prednisone; RFS, relapse-free survival; rhTPO, recombinant human TPO; SQ, subcutaneous; SR, sustained response; TID, 3 times a day; TRR, total response rate; tx, treatment; UTI, urinary tract infection.

		Serious treat	tment complic	ations		Previous tr failur	eatment es	
Kidney, %	Liver, %	Thrombosis, %	Infections, %	Other	Concomitant tx at baseline	Rituximab	тро	Notes
					Pre-TPO-RA era			
0	0	10	0	Nausea, alopecia, acne, malaise	No	No	No	2 pts have secondary ITP. ~10 y follow-up. 2 pts had NR and died of ICH 2 mo later.
0	0	0	0		No	No	No	1 pt had ICH. CR, plt $>$ 150 000; PR, less than twofold increase in plt and $>$ 50 000//µL .
0	0	0	0	Nausea, alopecia, acne, malaise	No	No	No	Follow-up of Figueroa et al. ⁴ 3 pts had ICH. CR, plt > 140000/μL; PR, plt < 50000/μL.
10				30% HTN; severe muscle pain, HA, nausea, gum hyperplasia.				CR, plt $>$ 110000/µL for 12 wk; PR, plt $>$ 40000/µL for 8 wk. 1 pt required longer CSA to retain CR.
0	0	0		30% peripheral neuropathy, 30% constipation, 30% jaw pain, 20% alopecia, 40% nausea	Many pts on concomitant tx	No	No	40% Evans syndrome.CR, normal plt after cessation of CSA; PR, plt 80 000-120 000/ μ L for \geq 3 mo while off CSA.
0	0	6; plt very low at the	0		No	No	No	Increase in plt to ${>}30000/\mu L$ to a total count ${>}50000/\mu L$
0	0	time. 0	0	6% ileus	No	No	No	
0	0	0	0	13% allergy	No No No	Yes Yes Yes	No No No	CR, plt > 150 000/µL for ≥3 mo; PR, plt > 50 000/µL for ≥3 mo.
0	0	0	32	16%, gum hypertrophy and tremors.	No	No	No	Response: more than twofold and plt $> 30000/\mu L$ for 4 wk. Infections reported to be unrelated to tx.
0	0	0	18%, HSV; 36%, UTI	9% died from unclear cause				Patients should have Evans syndrome. CR, plt $>$ 150 000/ μ L; PR, plt $>$ 50 000/ μ L on 2 consecutive occasions.

Long-term follow-up may be low because patients relapsed or because of the small number of patients at the specific time point.

AKI, acute kidney injury; ATRA, all-trans retinoic acid; BID, twice a day; CSA, cyclosporine A; DDR, double the standard dose rituximab; f/u, follow-up; GI, gastrointestinal; HA, headache; HSCT, hematopoietic stem cell transplant; HSV, herpes simplex virus; HTN, hypertension; ICH, intracranial hemorrhage; MI, myocardial infarction; min, minimum; MMF, mycophenolate mofetil; MRR, major response rate; NSAID, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug; OR, overall response; plt, platelets; PO, by mouth; pt/pts, patient/patients; R-CVP, rituximab, cyclophosphamide, vincristine, and prednisone; RFS, relapse-free survival; rhTPO, recombinant human TPO; SQ, subcutaneous; SR, sustained response; TID, 3 times a day; TRR, total response rate; tx, treatment; UTI, urinary tract infection.

Table 5. Combination therapies for refractory ITP (Continued)

								Follow-up			
References	Arms, n	Medication	Dosing	Cycles	Patients, n	Reported response	1 mo	3 mo	6 mo	12 mo	24 mo
					Post-TPO-	RA era					
Wang et al ¹¹⁷	1	фТРО	1 μg/kg SQ, daily for		73	MRR, 38%; TRR, 60%					
	2	Danazol Danazol	200 mg PO, TID 200 mg PO, TID		19	MRR, 8%; TRR, 37%					
Cui et al ¹¹⁸	1	mTPO CSA	1 μg/kg SQ daily 1.5-2 mg/kg PO, BID	14 d 3 mo	19	Relapse rate: 17.7% at 1 mo, 29.4% at 2 mo, and 29.4%	Response, 82%	Response, 71%			
	2Ь	rhTPO	1 μg/kg SQ, daily	14 d	17	Relapse rate: 50% at 1 mo, 68.8% at 2 mo, and 87.5% at 3 mo.	Response, 50%	Response, 13%			
Li et al ¹¹⁹	1	CSA Prednisone	3 mg/kg PO, BID 10-20 mg PO, daily	3-6 mo	45	SR, 37% (59% in CR group and 9% in PR group); 39% relapsed after stopping tx					
	2	Rapamycin Prednisone	6 mg PO, then 2 mg PO, daily 10-20 mg PO, daily	3-6 mo	43	SR, 68% (80% in CR group, 50% in PR group); 24% relapsed after stopping tx.					
Choi et al49	1	Dexamethasone CSA	40 mg PO, days 1-4 2.5-3 mg/kg PO, days 1-28		20	Response, 60% at 6 mo. Responders had RFS of 92% at 12 mo and 76% at 24 mo.				Response, 55%; CR, 30%	
		Rituximab	100 mg IV, days 7, 14, 21, and 28								
Zhou et al ^{s2}	1	Rituximab rhTPO	100 mg IV, weekly 400 U/kg SQ, initially daily and then weaned depending on plt	4 wk	77	CR, 45%; OR, 79%; SR, 44%			Response, 67%	Response, 44%	Response, 25%
	2	Rituximab	counts 100 mg IV, weekly	4 wk	38	CR, 23%; OR, 71%; SR, 30%			Response, 54%	Response, 30%	Response, 19%
Li et al ¹²⁰	1	Rituximab rhTPO	100 mg IV, weekly 300 μg/kg/d	4 wk 14 d	14	CR, 50%; PR, 43%. Median follow-up 17 mo (range, 3-44 mo).	CR, 50%; PR, 43%	CR, 50%; PR, 43%	CR, 43%; PR, 43%	CR, 43%; PR, 43%	CR, 36%; PR, 43%
Mahévas et al ⁵⁰	1	Supportive: IVIG, CSA,			12	NR				0%	0%
	2 3	Immunosuppressants TPO + immunosuppressants			14 10	Response, 7% Response, 70% with median follow-up of 15 mo. At end of follow-up, response was				0%	0%
	4	TPO and supportive IVIG/CSA			5	30% (median, 84 mo). NR				0%	0%
Gudbrandsdottir et al ⁵³	1	CSA/MMF, TPO, and IVIG			18						72% (CR + PR)
Feng et al ⁵⁴	1	Danazol	200 mg PO, BID	16 wk	45	OR, 82% (CR, 38%); 24%	Response, 47%			Response, 62%	
	2	Danazol	200 mg PO, BID		48	OR, 44% (CR, 8%); 43% relapsed	Response, 15%			Response, 25%	
Wang et al ¹²¹	1 2 3	Rituximab Cyclophosphamide Rituximab	100 mg IV, weekly 0.8 g IV weekly; 2 mg/kg/d PO 100 mg IV, weekly.	4 wk 3 mo 4 wk	79 86 84	CR, 33%; PR, 25%; MR, 14% CR, 13%; PR, 36%; MR, 13% CR, 58%; PR, 17%; MR, 7%					
		Cyclophosphamide	0.8 g IV weekly, 2 mg/kg/d PO	3 mo							

Long-term follow-up may be low because patients relapsed or because of the small number of patients at the specific time point.

AKI, acute kidney injury: ATRA, all-trans retinoic acids BID, twice a day; CSA, cyclosporine A; DDR, double the standard dose rituximab; f/u, follow-up; GI, gastrointestinal; HA, headache; HSCT, hematopoietic stem cell transplant; HSV, herpes simplex virus; HTN, hypertension; ICH, intracranial hemorrhage; MI, myocardial infarction; min, minimum; MMF, mycophenolate mofetil; MRR, major response rate; NSAID, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug; OR, overall response; plt, platelets; PO, by mouth; pt/pts, patient/patients; R-CVP, rituximab, cyclophosphamide, vincristine, and prednisone; RFS, relapse-free survival; rhTPO, recombinant human TPO; SQ, subcutaneous; SR, sustained response; TID, 3 times a day; TRR, total response rate; tx, treatment; UTI, urinary tract infection.

		Serious trea	atment compli	cations		Previous t failu	reatment res	
Kidney, %	Liver, %	Thrombosis, %	Infections, %	Other	Concomitant tx at baseline	Rituximab	тро	Notes
				Po	ost-TPO-RA era			
0	0	0	0	9% visual field defect	Antifibrinolytics	No	No	1 pt had ICH. MRR, plt $>$ 100 000/µL; TRR, plt $>$ 50 000/µL; OR, increase in plt of 30 000/µL and no bleeding.
0	0	0	0		No		No	Response, twofold increase in plt, >30 000/μL and no bleeding. Long-term follow-up 3 mo.
0	0	0	0	11% bleeding 7% bleeding	No No	No No	No 2%	CR, plt $>100000/\mu L$;PR, plt $>30000/\mu L$ and doubled from baseline; SR, plt $>50000/\mu L$ in follow-up. Mean observation period 18 mo.
0	0		5	15% HTN	No	Not clear	Not clear	Response defined by Rodeghiero et al.º 5 pts had secondary ITP; 1 pt had AKI 18 mo after tx due to NSAIDs.
	0		26	1% MI	No	No	8%	1 pt in rituximab/rhTPO group had ICH and died, and 1 pt died from MI with plt count of 26,000/ul
	0	0	21	0%	No	No	5%	CR, plt $>$ 100 000/µL and no bleeding; PR, plt $>$ 30,000/µL and twofold increase from baseline and no bleeding.
0	0	0	7	1 pt died from interstitial pneumonitis. 1 pt died from Aspergiilus lower respiratory infection and ICH.	No	No	No	CR, plt \geq 100 000 and no bleeding; response, plt $>$ 30 000/µL and 2 occurrences of increased plt compared with baseline and no bleeding.
		24	40 infection, 3 sepsis		No	Yes	Yes	Response, plt > 100 000/µL or >30 000/µL and doubled from baseline. Pts crossed over from 1 group to the other. No. of pts here represents total no. of pts treated in a specific arm. 7 patients had ICH, 2 pts had HSCT, and 5 pts died.
0				6 HTN				Duration of combination treatment, min 1 mo (mean, 5 mo)
0	0	0		2% serious bleeding, 64% dry skin, 20% HA, 20% GI disorders, 7% HTN	36%	7%	9%	PR, plt $>30000/\mu L$ and at least doubled from baseline; CR, plt $>100000/\mu L$ and no bleeding, without rescue medication at 12-mo follow-up.
0	2	0		8% serious bleeding, 6% dry skin, 17% HA, 19% GI disorders, 6% HTN.	35%	6%	10%	
3 6 1	3 6 1		1% 3% 0%	10% dizziness/HA, 15% vomiting 14% dizziness/HA, 17% vomiting 6% dizziness/HA, 7% vomiting				CR, plt $>100000/\mu L$ for 2 mo and no bleeding; PR, plt $>50000/\mu L$ for 2 mo and no bleeding; minimal effective, plt $>20000/\mu L$ for 2 mo and improved bleeding.

Long-term follow-up may be low because patients relapsed or because of the small number of patients at the specific time point.

AKI, acute kidney injury: ATRA, all-trans retinoic acid; BID, twice a day; CSA, cyclosporine A; DDR, double the standard dose rituximab; f/u, follow-up; GI, gastrointestinal; HA, headache; HSCT, hematopoietic stem cell transplant; HSV, herpes simplex virus; HTN, hypertension; ICH, intracranial hemorrhage; MI, myocardial infarction; min, minimum; MMF, mycophenolate mofetil; MRR, major response rate; NSAID, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug; OR, overall response; plt, platelets; PO, by mouth; pt/pts, patient/patients; R-CVP, rituximab, cyclophosphamide, vincristine, and prednisone; RFS, relapse-free survival; rhTPO, recombinant human TPO; SQ, subcutaneous; SR, sustained response; TID, 3 times a day; TRR, total response rate; tx, treatment; UTI, urinary tract infection.

 \geq 7 months; however, follow-up was limited (<24 months), so further duration of responses is unknown.⁴⁹ With the exception of "triple therapy," it is not clear whether any of these regimens is active.

In the TPO era, 1 study⁵⁰ included 37 patients, with a 6-year median duration of ITP, who had failed a median of 10.5 therapies before being categorized as multirefractory. In 14 patients receiving immunosuppressants alone, only 1 achieved CR, and 13 had no response, whereas the combination of immunosuppressants and TPO agents achieved on-treatment responses in 7 of 10 patients (50% CR, 20% PR). This emphasizes the importance of including TPO agents in combination treatments, even if there has not been a response to them as single treatment.⁵¹

A trial performed in China explored 2:1 randomization of 4 low-dose rituximab infusions with the recombinant human TPO (300 mg; 3SBio) administered subcutaneously daily for 14 days vs rituximab alone in a total of 105 patients who were refractory to or relapsing on steroid therapy.⁵² TPO was used to obtain an immediate effect until rituximab achieved a lasting effect. The combination increased the platelet count earlier and reduced bleeding (45% vs 24% in the first 2 months, P = .03); however, there was no difference in sustained response.

Another combination treatment was explored in 18 patients refractory to IVIG and TPO agents alone, using a combination of romiplostim or eltrombopag to increase platelet production, an immunosuppressant (cyclosporine [n = 14] or mycophenolate mofetil [n = 4] at standard doses) to inhibit T-cell effects, and IVIG as needed to inhibit platelet destruction.⁵³ The combinations resulted in very good responses in 72% of these patients with chronic ITP who had failed a median of 6.5 previous treatments. This study emphasized using agents with different mechanisms of action, including a TPO agent, to achieve best effects. There were minimal side effects, and no severe/serious infection was reported; however, the follow-up was limited.

One randomized trial compared danazol plus all-trans retinoic acid (n = 45 patients) with danazol alone (n = 48 patients). At 1-year of follow-up, 63% of patients on all-trans retinoic acid plus danazol showed a sustained response, whereas only 26% of patients receiving danazol monotherapy were relapse free. This population was not very refractory (ie, they had failed steroids but had not undergone splenectomy), and one third of the patients were taking concomitant medications at baseline. This combination needs to be explored in more refractory patients.⁵⁴

Given the long-term effects of rituximab alone (40%-60% response lasting 1 year with 20%-30% apparent cure, in typical, not refractory, patients with ITP),^{55,56} the search for the optimal agent(s) to combine with rituximab continues. Several studies explored the addition of dexamethasone to rituximab. Two studies of patients with ITP at diagnosis (or never treated) by Zaja et al⁵⁷ and Gudbrandsdottir et al⁵⁸ initially delivered 4 days of high-dose dexamethasone, followed by 4 infusions of standarddose rituximab. Initial results combining dexamethasone and rituximab demonstrated higher response rates (50% to 70%) compared with dexamethasone alone (20%-35%), but longterm follow-up was not reported. A set of studies in adults⁵⁹ and children⁶⁰ combined 3 (4-day) cycles of dexamethasone and standard rituximab with good clinical results. In particular, women of child-bearing age (including female adolescents younger than 18 years old) appeared to have a high and lasting remission rate (>70% out to 6 years), whereas all other groups did not (remission rates were \leq 10% past 1-2 years). These results emphasized the good responses in younger (child-bearing age) women and were confirmed in another study by Marangon et al.⁶¹ However, women with chronic refractory disease did not do as well, so the search for what to combine with rituximab in refractory patients continues.

Biology of refractoriness

Patients with very difficult cases of chronic ITP may lose responsiveness to treatment over time; 1 reason could be evolution to MDS. Another possible mechanism is antigen/epitope spread, generating antiplatelet antibodies directed at new platelet antigens.⁶ Upregulation of "pumps" that expel treatment molecules from inside cells has been reported in refractory patients, demonstrating another way in which resistance to treatment could develop.⁶² Treatment with cyclosporine repolarizes the membrane and can reverse the activity of certain lymphocyte pumps.⁶³ If ITP converts from primarily antibody driven to T-cell driven, it may become harder to treat. The study by Chapin et al performed in patients during their follow up visits, elucidated a mechanism of rituximab resistance which might be associated with oligo/monoclonal expansion of VB T-cell receptor (VBTCR).⁵⁹ Among long-term responders, only 1 of 10 had oligo/monoclonal VBTCR expansion, whereas oligo/ monoclonal populations were seen in 13 of 26 nonresponders.⁶⁴ Clonal expansions have been reported in other small series of patients with ITP who are unresponsive to different treatments: splenectomy, rituximab, and TPO agents.^{65,66} The utility of prospective testing for clonality as a marker of refractoriness, the mechanism of refractoriness in oligo/monoclonal patients, and the appropriate approach to these patients remain to be determined. Other possible mechanisms accounting for rituximab resistance in ITP include expansion of long-lived plasma cells in spleen.^{67,68} The latter has therapeutic implications (eg, antiplasma cell therapies, such as bortezomib, might be useful).⁶⁹ Focusing on rituximab, studies have suggested that identifying anti-platelet glycoprotein antibodies pretreatment may predict good responses, consistent with a mechanism of reducing/eliminating anti-platelet antibodies.⁷⁰ Similar findings exist for fostamatinib.71 The absence of these antibodies might predict failure of treatment if antibody-negative cases are not antiplatelet-antibody mediated. The presence of platelet glycoprotein Ib antibodies as markers of drug resistance (eg, to IVIG and steroids) remains controversial.72,73

Combination treatments have been explored in ITP patients closer to diagnosis (Table 6). They are not considered here, despite promising results, because they were used at or very soon after diagnosis; thus, their efficacy in refractory patients is unknown. These include dexamethasone, eltrombopag, rituximab, and/or alemtuzumab.

Finally, other components of combination therapy may be included in the future. The role of rapamycin in blocking the mTOR pathway has been documented in ALPS-related multiple autoimmune cytopenias.⁷⁴ Recently approved or encouraging ITP therapies include fostamatinib (an inhibitor of SYK); demethylating agents, such as decitabine⁷⁵; FcRn inhibitors; and BTK inhibitors. These agents have novel mechanisms of action, and

		Notes	SR, plt > 50 000/μL at 6 mo. Hematologic response, plt > 100 000/μL Patients on dexamethasone monotherapy with NR received rituximab, with 56% SR.	Response, plt: 30000-100000/µL; CR, plt >10000/µL at day 33. Response 2 and CR2 same as response and CR but at 6 mo 75% grade 2 bleeding.	2% ICH but not deemed to be treatment related. If plt < 10000/µL, rescue medications, plt transfucions, and hemostatic agents were allowed. Response, plt between 30000-100000/µL between 30000-100000/µL between 30000-100000/µL between 30000-100000/µL	ASH abstract No major adverse effects
		Other	2% bleeding 4% SVT, 2% seizue			
	mplications	Infections	4%	%0		
	s treatment co	Thrombosis, %	0 0	0	t	
	Seriou	Liver Gr3	0% 4%	%0		
		Kidney	%0 0	%0		
		24 mo		No		
		12 mo		RFS, 67%		
	dn-	9 Mo	36% 63%		CR, 46%: response, 19% CR, 32%: response, 5%	
	Follow	1 mo	46% 37%	Response, 17%; CR, 83%		
		Reported response	SR 63% in the combination am vs am vs 3.6% in the dexamethasone am	CR, 83%, response, 17%, 33% relapsed, RFS, 67% at 1 y; CR2, 50%, response 2, 25%	At 14 d: CR + response 89% in the combination ams vs 67% in the dexamethasone am; CR, 75% am; CR, 75% 6 mo; CR + fesponse 6 mo; CR + response 6 mo; CR + vs 37% in the dexamethasone amy cR, 46% vs 32%.	56% of the patients with prolonged response
of ITP		Patients, n	52 49	12	100 96	46
jnosis (Cycles, n	~	-		ب
nt at diag		Dosing	40 mg PO, daity, days 1-4 40 mg PO, daity, days 1-4 375 mg/m ² NV, days 7, 14, 21, and 28	40 mg PO, daily, days 1-4 50 mg PO, for 28 d	40 mg PO, daily, days 1.4 ± days 11.14 300 U/kg 300 U/kg 300 U/kg daily for 141 ± days 11.14 ± days 11.14 ± days	25-75 mg/ d for 12 wk 40 mg PO, daily, days 1-4
ation treatme		Medications	Dexame thas one Dexame thas one Rituximab	Dexame thas one Eltrombopag	Dexamethasone rhTPO Dexamethasone	Eltrombopag Dexamethasone
ombiná		Arms, n	- N	-	← 0	~
Table 6. C		References	Zaja et al ^{ss}	Gómez- Almaguer et al ¹²²	Wang et al ¹²³	Zhang et al ¹²⁴

ASH, American Society of Hematology; Gr3, grade 3; ICH, intracranial hemorrhage; NR, no response; plt, platelets; PO, by mouth; rhTPO, recombinant human TPO; RFS, relapse-free survival; SO, subcutaneously; SR, sustained response, SVT, supraventricular tachysardia.



Figure 3. Illustration of the different mechanisms of action of ITP medications. Immunosuppressive agents are also listed. Ab, antibody; BTK inh, BTK inhibitor; c-MpL, thrombopoietin receptor; IL, interleukin; MMF, mycophenolate mofetil; PC, plasma cell; Plt, platelets; Th, helper T cell; TLR-4, Toll-like receptor-4; TNF-α, tumor necrosis factor-α; Treg, regulatory T cell.

their role in single-agent treatment of ITP remains to be determined. How to use them in combination treatment will be an important determination, especially if one espouses the view suggested here that using agents with different mechanisms of action is important for combination treatment (note: combining IVIG and IV anti-D, even though they appear redundant, may work because they interact with different Fc receptors). Furthermore, as described above, IVIG has been used with TPO agents and immunosuppressive agents. The mechanism of IVIG in blocking platelet destruction might be simulated by fostamatinib, which blocks FcR signaling. Finally, anecdotal evidence suggests that there may be an enhanced effect by adding romiplostim and eltrombopag to a combination regimen, based on their different binding sites on the TPO receptor, different effects on megakaryocytes and their precursors, and the observation that 50% of patients not responding to 1 drug may respond to the other.^{76,77} Figure 3 illustrates the different mechanisms of action of medications used for ITP.

In summary, the pathogenesis of ITP is heterogenous. The inability to identify critical pathobiologic differences between patients is a major factor limiting the optimization of diagnosis and treatment, which leaves us in a "trial and error" mode to determine effective therapy. The immune state in a patient may change with time and/or treatment. Thus, diversified and individualized therapeutic methods are needed, which include combination treatments to better treat patients with refractory ITP. For these refractory ITP patients, we believe that combination therapy works better than single-agent therapy. Successful combination therapies appear to include a TPO agent and medication(s) with different mechanisms of action that inhibit platelet destruction. The latter may contribute to increased platelet production by ameliorating immune attack on megakaryocytes. There are many unanswered questions regarding combination therapy, including which agents to use and at what dose, how long to give them, and to which patients to give them. Nonetheless, compared with single-agent therapy, combination therapies are more effective in patients with challenging disease. Therapies may have tolerable toxicities, potentially as a result of the ability to use them at slightly lower effective doses. Based on the studies described, we propose the following tenets. First, refractory ITP is even harder to treat in patients unresponsive to TPO agents and rituximab than it was before the advent of these treatments. Second, when choosing agents to combine, select agents with different mechanisms of effect and different primary toxicities (despite the latter not being discussed here); agents active in different parts of the same pathway may have additive or synergistic effects. TPO-RAs appear to be uniquely useful. Third, if a treatment is not effective, instead of stopping it and starting another treatment, it may be better to add the new treatment to the one already being given (ie, initiate combination therapy, despite the lack of effect of the initial treatment). Fourth, based on small studies, oligoclonal/ monoclonal T-cell populations may be important biomarkers, indicating a higher likelihood of refractory disease. Finally, patients with the most difficult to treat disease are reasonably likely not to have ITP. MDS and inherited thrombocytopenias would be the most likely "misdiagnoses,"¹⁹ but many other possibilities exist; multiple examples have been included. We believe that the identification of a specific cause of thrombocytopenia often results in a specific treatment approach. Ideally, for all cases of ITP, this will be the path forward in the future. Ideally, identification of the pathophysiology in each patient would precede initiation of treatment. Furthermore, because chronic ITP sometimes involves more than just accelerated platelet destruction, ≥ 2 agents may be required for combination therapy to provide optimal effective management.

Acknowledgment

O.M. acknowledges support from National Institutes of Health, National Cancer Institute grant P30 CA008748.

Authorship

Contribution: All authors contributed to the writing and critical review of this manuscript and agreed on its submission.

Conflict-of-interest disclosure: M.H. has received research support from 3SBio and is a member of the Advisory Board for Novartis and 3SBio. J.B.B. is a member of the Advisory Board for Dova Pharmaceuticals,

REFERENCES

- 1. Cooper N, Bussel J. The pathogenesis of immune thrombocytopaenic purpura. *Br J Haematol.* 2006;133(4):364-374.
- Cooper N. State of the art how I manage immune thrombocytopenia. Br J Haematol. 2017;177(1):39-54.
- Zufferey A, Kapur R, Semple JW. Pathogenesis and therapeutic mechanisms in immune thrombocytopenia (ITP). J Clin Med. 2017;6(2):E16.
- Xu M, Li J, Neves MAD, et al. GPlbα is required for platelet-mediated hepatic thrombopoietin generation. *Blood.* 2018;132(6):622-634.
- Sailer T, Lechner K, Panzer S, Kyrle PA, Pabinger I. The course of severe autoimmune thrombocytopenia in patients not undergoing splenectomy. *Haematologica*. 2006;91(8):1041-1045.
- Cines DB, Blanchette VS. Immune thrombocytopenic purpura. N Engl J Med. 2002; 346(13):995-1008.
- Bussel J, Miltiadous O. Immune thrombocytopenia: are we stuck in the mud or is there light at the end of the tunnel? https://www. atlantis-press.com/journals/chi/125914914/ view. Accessed 1 November 2019.
- Ruggeri M, Fortuna S, Rodeghiero F. Heterogeneity of terminology and clinical definitions in adult idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura: a critical appraisal from a systematic review of the literature. Haematologica. 2008;93(1):98-103.
- Rodeghiero F, Stasi R, Gernsheimer T, et al. Standardization of terminology, definitions and outcome criteria in immune thrombocytopenic purpura of adults and children: report from an international working group. *Blood.* 2009;113(11): 2386-2393.
- Boyle S, White RH, Brunson A, Wun T. Splenectomy and the incidence of venous thromboembolism and sepsis in patients with immune thrombocytopenia. *Blood.* 2013;121(23):4782-4790.
- Kim DJ, Chung JH. Long-term results of laparoscopic splenectomy in pediatric chronic immune thrombocytopenic purpura. Ann Surg Treat Res. 2014;86(6): 314-318.
- Adelborg K, Kristensen NR, Nørgaard M, et al. Cardiovascular and bleeding outcomes in a population-based cohort of patients with chronic immune

thrombocytopenia. J Thromb Haemost. 2019;17(6):912-924.

- Cohen YC, Djulbegovic B, Shamai-Lubovitz O, Mozes B. The bleeding risk and natural history of idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura in patients with persistent low platelet counts. Arch Intern Med. 2000;160(11): 1630-1638.
- Moulis G, Germain J, Comont T, et al; CARMEN Investigators Group. Newly diagnosed immune thrombocytopenia adults: clinical epidemiology, exposure to treatments, and evolution. Results of the CARMEN multicenter prospective cohort. Am J Hematol. 2017;92(6):493-500.
- Cortelazzo S, Finazzi G, Buelli M, Molteni A, Viero P, Barbui T. High risk of severe bleeding in aged patients with chronic idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura. *Blood.* 1991;77(1):31-33.
- Schattner E, Bussel J. Mortality in immune thrombocytopenic purpura: report of seven cases and consideration of prognostic indicators. Am J Hematol. 1994;46(2):120-126.
- Provan D, Arnold D, Bussel J, et al. Updated international consensus report on the investigation and management of primary immune thrombocytopenia. *Blood Adv.* 2019;3(22):3780-3817.
- Neunert C, Lim W, Crowther M, Cohen A, Solberg L Jr, Crowther MA; American Society of Hematology. The American Society of Hematology 2011 evidence-based practice guideline for immune thrombocytopenia. *Blood.* 2011;117(16):4190-4207.
- Arnold DM, Nazy I, Clare R, et al. Misdiagnosis of primary immune thrombocytopenia and frequency of bleeding: lessons from the McMaster ITP Registry. *Blood* Adv. 2017;1(25):2414-2420.
- Moulis G, Palmaro A, Montastruc JL, Godeau B, Lapeyre-Mestre M, Sailler L. Epidemiology of incident immune thrombocytopenia: a nationwide population-based study in France. *Blood.* 2014;124(22):3308-3315.
- Balduini CL, Savoia A, Seri M. Inherited thrombocytopenias frequently diagnosed in adults. J Thromb Haemost. 2013;11(6): 1006-1019.
- Balduini CL, Melazzini F, Pecci A. Inherited thrombocytopenias-recent advances in clinical and molecular aspects. *Platelets*. 2017; 28(1):3-13.
- 23. Bettaieb A, Fromont P, Louache F, et al. Presence of cross-reactive antibody between

Amgen, Novartis, Rigel Pharmaceuticals. Inc., UCB, Inc., and Momenta Pharmaceuticals, Inc. O.M. declares no competing financial interests.

Correspondence: Oriana Miltiadous, Memorial Sloan Kettering Institute, Zuckerman Research Center, Z-1419, 408 East 69th St, New York, NY 10021, e-mail: miltiado@mskcc.org.

Footnote

Submitted 4 October 2019; accepted 8 November 2019; prepublished online on *Blood* First Edition 22 November 2019. DOI 10.1182/blood. 2019003599.

human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and platelet glycoproteins in HIV-related immune thrombocytopenic purpura. *Blood*. 1992; 80(1):162-169.

- Mitta A, Curtis BR, Reese JA, George JN. Drug-induced thrombocytopenia: 2019 update of clinical and laboratory data. Am J Hematol. 2019;94(3):E76-E78.
- Vandrovcova J, Salzer U, Grimbacher B, et al. FAS mutations are an uncommon cause of immune thrombocytopenia in children and adults without additional features of immunodeficiency. *Br J Haematol.* 2019;186(6): e163-e165.
- DiMaggio D, Anderson A, Bussel JB. Cytomegalovirus can make immune thrombocytopenic purpura refractory. Br J Haematol. 2009;146(1):104-112.
- Gobert D, Bussel JB, Cunningham-Rundles C, et al. Efficacy and safety of rituximab in common variable immunodeficiencyassociated immune cytopenias: a retrospective multicentre study on 33 patients. Br J Haematol. 2011;155(4):498-508.
- Teachey DT, Obzut DA, Axsom K, et al. Rapamycin improves lymphoproliferative disease in murine autoimmune lymphoproliferative syndrome (ALPS). *Blood.* 2006; 108(6):1965-1971.
- Cines DB, Bussel JB, Liebman HA, Luning Prak ET. The ITP syndrome: pathogenic and clinical diversity. *Blood*. 2009;113(26): 6511-6521.
- Fiesco-Roa MO, Giri N, McReynolds LJ, Best AF, Alter BP. Genotype-phenotype associations in Fanconi anemia: a literature review. *Blood Rev.* 2019;37:100589.
- Noris P, Klersy C, Gresele P, et al; Italian Gruppo di Studio delle Piastrine. Platelet size for distinguishing between inherited thrombocytopenias and immune thrombocytopenia: a multicentric, real life study. Br J Haematol. 2013;162(1):112-119.
- Caen JP, Nurden AT, Jeanneau C, et al. Bernard-Soulier syndrome: a new platelet glycoprotein abnormality. Its relationship with platelet adhesion to subendothelium and with the factor VIII von Wilebrand protein. J Lab Clin Med. 1976;87(4):586-596.
- Zaninetti C, Barozzi S, Bozzi V, Gresele P, Balduini CL, Pecci A. Eltrombopag in preparation for surgery in patients with severe MYH9-related thrombocytopenia. Am J Hematol. 2019;94(8):E199-E201.

- Gerrits AJ, Leven EA, Frelinger AL III, et al. Effects of eltrombopag on platelet count and platelet activation in Wiskott-Aldrich syndrome/X-linked thrombocytopenia. *Blood.* 2015;126(11):1367-1378.
- Canales ML, Mauer AM. Sex-linked hereditary thrombocytopenia as a variant of Wiskott-Aldrich syndrome. N Engl J Med. 1967;277(17):899-901.
- George JN, Kojouri K, Perdue JJ, Vesely SK. Management of patients with chronic, refractory idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura. Semin Hematol. 2000;37(3):290-298.
- Aster RH, Bougie DW. Drug-induced immune thrombocytopenia. N Engl J Med. 2007;357(6):580-587.
- Rajan SK, Espina BM, Liebman HA. Hepatitis C virus-related thrombocytopenia: clinical and laboratory characteristics compared with chronic immune thrombocytopenic purpura. Br J Haematol. 2005;129(6):818-824.
- Greenberg PL, Stone RM, Al-Kali A, et al. Myelodysplastic syndromes, version 2.2017, NCCN Clinical Practice Guidelines in Oncology. J Natl Compr Canc Netw. 2017;15(1):60-87.
- Weckerle CE, Niewold TB. The unexplained female predominance of systemic lupus erythematosus: clues from genetic and cytokine studies. *Clin Rev Allergy Immunol.* 2011;40(1):42-49.
- Abolhassani H, Hammarstrom L, Cunningham-Rundles C. Current genetic landscape in common variable immunodeficiency. *Blood*. In press.
- Zhang L, Radigan L, Salzer U, et al. Transmembrane activator and calciummodulating cyclophilin ligand interactor mutations in common variable immunodeficiency: clinical and immunologic outcomes in heterozygotes. J Allergy Clin Immunol. 2007;120(5):1178-1185.
- Al-Samkari H, Kuter DJ. Thrombopoietin level predicts response to treatment with eltrombopag and romiplostim in immune thrombocytopenia. *Am J Hematol.* 2018; 93(12):1501-1508.
- Figueroa M, Gehlsen J, Hammond D, et al. Combination chemotherapy in refractory immune thrombocytopenic purpura. N Engl J Med. 1993;328(17):1226-1229.
- McMillan R. Long-term outcomes after treatment for refractory immune thrombocytopenic purpura. N Engl J Med. 2001; 344(18):1402-1403.
- Hasan A, Michel M, Patel V, et al. Repeated courses of rituximab in chronic ITP: three different regimens. *Am J Hematol.* 2009; 84(10):661-665.
- Boruchov DM, Gururangan S, Driscoll MC, Bussel JB. Multiagent induction and maintenance therapy for patients with refractory immune thrombocytopenic purpura (ITP). *Blood.* 2007;110(10):3526-3531.
- Arnold DM, Nazi I, Santos A, et al. Combination immunosuppressant therapy for patients with chronic refractory immune thrombocytopenic purpura. *Blood.* 2010; 115(1):29-31.

- Choi PY, Roncolato F, Badoux X, Ramanathan S, Ho SJ, Chong BH. A novel triple therapy for ITP using high-dose dexamethasone, low-dose rituximab, and cyclosporine (TT4). *Blood.* 2015;126(4): 500-503.
- Mahévas M, Gerfaud-Valentin M, Moulis G, et al. Characteristics, outcome, and response to therapy of multirefractory chronic immune thrombocytopenia. *Blood.* 2016;128(12): 1625-1630.
- Di Buduo CA, Currao M, Pecci A, Kaplan DL, Balduini CL, Balduini A. Revealing eltrombopag's promotion of human megakaryopoiesis through AKT/ERK-dependent pathway activation. *Haematologica*. 2016; 101(12):1479-1488.
- Zhou H, Xu M, Qin P, et al. A multicenter randomized open-label study of rituximab plus rhTPO vs rituximab in corticosteroidresistant or relapsed ITP. *Blood.* 2015; 125(10):1541-1547.
- Gudbrandsdottir S, Imahiyerobo A, Lee CS, Bussel JB. Combination of TPO-RA, CSA/ MMF and IVIG as treatment of severe refractory ITP in adults and children. Br J Haematol. In press.
- Feng FE, Feng R, Wang M, et al. Oral all-trans retinoic acid plus danazol versus danazol as second-line treatment in adults with primary immune thrombocytopenia: a multicentre, randomised, open-label, phase 2 trial. *Lancet Haematol.* 2017;4(10):e487-e496.
- 55. Lucchini E, Zaja F, Bussel J. Rituximab in the treatment of immune thrombocytopenia: what is the role of this agent in 2019? *Haematologica*. 2019;104(6):1124-1135.
- Patel VL, Mahévas M, Lee SY, et al. Outcomes 5 years after response to rituximab therapy in children and adults with immune thrombocytopenia. *Blood.* 2012; 119(25):5989-5995.
- Zaja F, Baccarani M, Mazza P, et al. Dexamethasone plus rituximab yields higher sustained response rates than dexamethasone monotherapy in adults with primary immune thrombocytopenia. *Blood.* 2010; 115(14):2755-2762.
- Gudbrandsdottir S, Birgens HS, Frederiksen H, et al. Rituximab and dexamethasone vs dexamethasone monotherapy in newly diagnosed patients with primary immune thrombocytopenia. *Blood.* 2013;121(11):1976-1981.
- Chapin J, Lee CS, Zhang H, Zehnder JL, Bussel JB. Gender and duration of disease differentiate responses to rituximabdexamethasone therapy in adults with immune thrombocytopenia. Am J Hematol. 2016;91(9):907-911.
- Oved JH, Lee CSY, Bussel JB. Treatment of children with persistent and chronic idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura: 4 infusions of rituximab and three 4-day cycles of dexamethasone. J Pediatr. 2017;191: 225-231.
- Marangon M, Vianelli N, Palandri F, et al. Rituximab in immune thrombocytopenia: gender, age, and response as predictors of long-term response. *Eur J Haematol.* 2017; 98(4):371-377.

- Levy AS, Cunningham-Rundles S, Mazza B, Simm M, Gorlick R, Bussel J. High P-glycoprotein-mediated export observed in patients with a history of idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura. *Br J Haematol.* 2002;118(3):836-838.
- Sikic BI, Fisher GA, Lum BL, Halsey J, Beketic-Oreskovic L, Chen G. Modulation and prevention of multidrug resistance by inhibitors of P-glycoprotein. *Cancer Chemother Pharmacol.* 1997;40(suppl): S13-S19.
- 64. Stasi R, Cooper N, Del Poeta G, et al. Analysis of regulatory T-cell changes in patients with idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura receiving B cell-depleting therapy with rituximab. *Blood*. 2008;112(4):1147-1150.
- 65. Zhang H, Zhang BM, Guo X, et al. Blood transcriptome and clonal T cell correlates of response and nonresponse to eltrombopag therapy in a cohort of patients with chronic immune thrombocytopenia [published online ahead of print 11 July 2019]. *Haematologica*. doi:10.3324/haematol. 2019.226688.
- Fogarty PF, Rick ME, Zeng W, Risitano AM, Dunbar CE, Bussel JB. T cell receptor VB repertoire diversity in patients with immune thrombocytopenia following splenectomy. *Clin Exp Immunol.* 2003;133(3):461-466.
- Mahévas M, Patin P, Huetz F, et al. B cell depletion in immune thrombocytopenia reveals splenic long-lived plasma cells. J Clin Invest. 2013;123(1):432-442.
- Thai LH, Le Gallou S, Robbins A, et al. BAFF and CD4⁺ T cells are major survival factors for long-lived splenic plasma cells in a B-celldepletion context. *Blood.* 2018;131(14): 1545-1555.
- Li G, Wang S, Li N, et al. Proteasome inhibition with bortezomib induces apoptosis of long-lived plasma cells in steroid-resistant or relapsed immune thrombocytopaenia. *Thromb Haemost.* 2018;118(10):1752-1764.
- Porcelijn L, Huiskes E, Schipperus M, van der Holt B, de Haas M, Zwaginga JJ; Dutch HOVON 64 Study Group. Lack of detectable platelet autoantibodies is correlated with nonresponsiveness to rituximab treatment in ITP patients. *Blood.* 2017;129(25): 3389-3391.
- Bussel J, Amold DM, Grossbard E, et al. Fostamatinib for the treatment of adult persistent and chronic immune thrombocytopenia: results of two phase 3, randomized, placebo-controlled trials. Am J Hematol. 2018;93(7):921-930.
- Zeng Q, Zhu L, Tao L, et al. Relative efficacy of steroid therapy in immune thrombocytopenia mediated by anti-platelet GPIIbIIIa versus GPIbα antibodies. Am J Hematol. 2012;87(2):206-208.
- Webster ML, Sayeh E, Crow M, et al. Relative efficacy of intravenous immunoglobulin G in ameliorating thrombocytopenia induced by antiplatelet GPIIbIIIa versus GPIbalpha antibodies. *Blood*. 2006;108(3): 943-946.
- Bride KL, Vincent T, Smith-Whitley K, et al. Sirolimus is effective in relapsed/refractory autoimmune cytopenias: results of a

prospective multi-institutional trial. *Blood*. 2016;127(1):17-28.

- Zhou H, Qin P, Liu Q, et al. A prospective, multicenter study of low dose decitabine in adult patients with refractory immune thrombocytopenia. *Am J Hematol.* 2019; 94(12):1374-1381.
- González-Porras JR, Mingot-Castellano ME, Andrade MM, et al. Use of eltrombopag after romiplostim in primary immune thrombocytopenia. Br J Haematol. 2015; 169(1):111-116.
- Currao M, Balduini CL, Balduini A. High doses of romiplostim induce proliferation and reduce proplatelet formation by human megakaryocytes. *PLoS One.* 2013;8(1): e54723.
- Feudjo-Tepie MA, Robinson NJ, Bennett D. Prevalence estimates of adult chronic idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura (ITP) in the United States. *Blood.* 2007;110(11): 3202.
- Jung JH, Soh MS, Ahn YH, et al. Thrombocytopenia in systemic lupus erythematosus: clinical manifestations, treatment, and prognosis in 230 patients. *Medicine* (*Baltimore*). 2016;95(6):e2818.
- Pons-Estel GJ, Alarcón GS, Scofield L, Reinlib L, Cooper GS. Understanding the epidemiology and progression of systemic lupus erythematosus. Semin Arthritis Rheum. 2010; 39(4):257-268.
- Michel M, Chanet V, Dechartres A, et al. The spectrum of Evans syndrome in adults: new insight into the disease based on the analysis of 68 cases. *Blood.* 2009;114(15): 3167-3172.
- Shaikh H, Zulfiqar H, Mewawalla P. Evans syndrome. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ books/NBK519015/. Accessed 1 November 2019.
- Shah S, Wu E, Rao VK, Tarrant TK. Autoimmune lymphoproliferative syndrome: an update and review of the literature. *Curr Allergy Asthma Rep.* 2014;14(9):462.
- Price S, Shaw PA, Seitz A, et al. Natural history of autoimmune lymphoproliferative syndrome associated with FAS gene mutations. *Blood*. 2014;123(13):1989-1999.
- Pituch-Noworolska A, Siedlar M, Kowalczyk D, Szaflarska A, Błaut-Szlósarczyk A, Zwonarz K. Thrombocytopenia in common variable immunodeficiency patients - clinical course, management, and effect of immunoglobulins. *Cent Eur J Immunol.* 2015;40(1): 83-90.
- Cunningham-Rundles C, Bodian C. Common variable immunodeficiency: clinical and immunological features of 248 patients. *Clin Immunol.* 1999;92(1):34-48.
- Zent CS, Kay NE. Autoimmune complications in chronic lymphocytic leukaemia (CLL). Best Pract Res Clin Haematol. 2010;23(1): 47-59.
- National Cancer Institute, . Howlader N, Noone AM, Krapcho M, et al. SEER Cancer Statistics Review (CSR) 1975-2016. https:// seer.cancer.gov/csr/1975_2016/. Accessed 1 November 2019.

- 89. Scaradavou A. HIV-related thrombocytopenia. *Blood Rev.* 2002;16(1):73-76.
- Oksenhendler E, Seligmann M. HIV-related thrombocytopenia. *Immunodefic Rev.* 1990; 2(3):221-231.
- Kuwana M. Helicobacter pylori-associated immune thrombocytopenia: clinical features and pathogenic mechanisms. World J Gastroenterol. 2014;20(3):714-723.
- Veneri D, Bonani A, Franchini M, Fedrizzi A, Pizzolo G. Idiopathic thrombocytopenia and Helicobacter pylori infection: platelet count increase and early eradication therapy. *Blood Transfus.* 2011;9(3):340-342. 10.2450/ 2011.0014-10
- Cecinati V, Principi N, Brescia L, Giordano P, Esposito S. Vaccine administration and the development of immune thrombocytopenic purpura in children. *Hum Vaccin Immun*other. 2013;9(5):1158-1162.
- 94. Assinger A. Platelets and infection an emerging role of platelets in viral infection. *Front Immunol.* 2014;5:649.
- Buchbinder D, Nugent DJ, Fillipovich AH. Wiskott-Aldrich syndrome: diagnosis, current management, and emerging treatments. Appl Clin Genet. 2014;7:55-66.
- Haddad E, Cramer E, Rivière C, et al. The thrombocytopenia of Wiskott Aldrich syndrome is not related to a defect in proplatelet formation. *Blood.* 1999;94(2):509-518.
- Albert MH, Bittner TC, Nonoyama S, et al. X-linked thrombocytopenia (XLT) due to WAS mutations: clinical characteristics, longterm outcome, and treatment options. *Blood.* 2010;115(16):3231-3238.
- Savoia A, Pastore A, De Rocco D, et al. Clinical and genetic aspects of Bernard-Soulier syndrome: searching for genotype/ phenotype correlations. *Haematologica*. 2011;96(3):417-423.
- Lanza F. Bernard-Soulier syndrome (hemorrhagiparous thrombocytic dystrophy). Orphanet J Rare Dis. 2006;1(1):46.
- Toriello HV. Thrombocytopenia absent radius syndrome. https://www.ncbi.nlm. nih.gov/books/NBK23758/. Accessed 1 November 2019.
- 101. Martínez-Frías ML, Bermejo Sánchez E, García García A, et al. [An epidemiological study of the thrombocytopenia with radial aplasia syndrome (TAR) in Spain]. An Esp Pediatr. 1998;49(6):619-623. Epub19990211.
- Tubman VN, Levine JE, Campagna DR, et al. X-linked gray platelet syndrome due to a GATA1 Arg216Gln mutation. *Blood.* 2007; 109(8):3297-3299.
- 103. Gunay-Aygun M, Zivony-Elboum Y, Gumruk F, et al. Gray platelet syndrome: natural history of a large patient cohort and locus assignment to chromosome 3p. *Blood*. 2010; 116(23):4990-5001.
- 104. Nurden P, Debili N, Coupry I, et al. Thrombocytopenia resulting from mutations in filamin A can be expressed as an isolated syndrome. *Blood*. 2011;118(22): 5928-5937.

- 105. Savoia A, Pecci A. MYH9-related disorders. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/ NBK2689/. Accessed 1 November 2019.
- Sharma R, Flood VH. Advances in the diagnosis and treatment of von Willebrand disease. *Blood*. 2017;130(22):2386-2391.
- 107. Othman M, Kaur H, Favaloro EJ, et al; Subcommittees on von Willebrand Disease and Platelet Physiology. Platelet type von Willebrand disease and registry report: communication from the SSC of the ISTH. J Thromb Haemost. 2016;14(2): 411-414.
- 108. Latger-Cannard V, Philippe C, Bouquet A, et al. Haematological spectrum and genotype-phenotype correlations in nine unrelated families with RUNX1 mutations from the French network on inherited platelet disorders. Orphanet J Rare Dis. 2016;11(1):49.
- 109. Al-Qahtani FS. Congenital amegakaryocytic thrombocytopenia: a brief review of the literature. *Clin Med Insights Pathol.* 2010;3: 25-30.
- Fernández García MS, Teruya-Feldstein J. The diagnosis and treatment of dyskeratosis congenita: a review. J Blood Med. 2014;5: 157-167.
- 111. Myers KC, Davies SM, Shimamura A. Clinical and molecular pathophysiology of Shwachman-Diamond syndrome: an update. *Hematol Oncol Clin North Am.* 2013;27(1): 117-128, ix. PubMed PMID: 23351992; PMCID: PMC5693339.
- 112. Saumell S, Solé F, Arenillas L, et al. Trisomy 8, a cytogenetic abnormality in myelodysplastic syndromes, is constitutional or not? *PLoS* One. 2015;10(6):e0129375.
- 113. Choudhry VP, Kashyap R, Ahlawat S, Pati HP. Vinblastine and danazol therapy in steroid resistant childhood chronic idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura. *Int J Hematol.* 1995;61(3):157-162.
- 114. Kappers-Klunne MC, van't Veer MB. Cyclosporin A for the treatment of patients with chronic idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura refractory to corticosteroids or splenectomy. Br J Haematol. 2001;114(1): 121-125.
- Williams JA, Boxer LA. Combination therapy for refractory idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura in adolescents. J Pediatr Hematol Oncol. 2003;25(3):232-235.
- 116. Gómez-Almaguer D, Solano-Genesta M, Tarín-Arzaga L, et al. Low-dose rituximab and alemtuzumab combination therapy for patients with steroid-refractory autoimmune cytopenias. *Blood.* 2010;116(23): 4783-4785.
- 117. Wang S, Yang R, Zou P, et al. A multicenter randomized controlled trial of recombinant human thrombopoietin treatment in patients with primary immune thrombocytopenia. *Int J Hematol.* 2012;96(2):222-228.
- 118. Cui ZG, Liu XG, Qin P, et al. Recombinant human thrombopoietin in combination with cyclosporin A as a novel therapy in corticosteroid-resistant primary immune thrombocytopenia. Chin Med J (Engl). 2013; 126(21):4145-4148.

- 119. Li J, Wang Z, Dai L, et al. Effects of rapamycin combined with low dose prednisone in patients with chronic immune thrombocytopenia. *Clin Dev Immunol.* 2013;2013:548085.
- 120. Li Y, Wang YY, Fei HR, Wang L, Yuan CL. Efficacy of low-dose rituximab in combination with recombinant human thrombopoietin in treating ITP. Eur Rev Med Pharmacol Sci. 2015;19(9):1583-1588. Epub20150526.
- 121. Wang J, Wang B, Sun Z, Xue K. Therapeutic effects of rituximab combined with

cyclophosphamide on refractory idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura. *Exp Ther Med.* 2019;17(3):2137-2142. 10.3892/etm.2019. 7196

- 122. Gómez-Almaguer D, Herrera-Rojas MA, Jaime-Pérez JC, et al. Eltrombopag and high-dose dexamethasone as frontline treatment of newly diagnosed immune thrombocytopenia in adults. *Blood*. 2014; 123(25):3906-3908.
- 123. Wang M, Qin P, Zhou H, et al. Recombinant human thrombopoietin (rhTPO) and high-

dose dexamethasone (HD-DXM) versus high-dose dexamethasone monotherapy as frontline treatment in newly diagnosed adult immune thrombocytopenia (ITP): a prospective, multicentre, randomised, controlled trial [abstract]. *Blood*. 2017; 130(suppl 1). Abstract 13.

124. Zhang L, Zhang M, Du X, Cheng Y, Cheng G. Eltrombopag plus pulsed dexamethasone as first line therapy for subjects with immune thrombocytopenic purpura (ITP). *Blood*. 2018;132(suppl 1):733.