

Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension in Previously Splenectomized Patients with β -Thalassemic Disorders

Vichai Atichartakarn,^a Khanchit Likittanasombat,^b Suporn Chuncharunee,^a
Pakorn Chandanammattha,^b Surapon Worapongpaiboon,^c
Pantep Angchaisuksiri,^a Katcharin Aryurachai^a

*Divisions of ^aHematology and ^bCardiology, Department of Medicine, and ^cDepartment of Pathology,
Faculty of Medicine, Ramathibodi Hospital, Mahidol University,
Bangkok, Thailand*

Received October 17, 2002; received in revised form March 31, 2003; accepted April 2, 2003

Abstract

Our aim was to study the cause and describe the clinical features of pulmonary arterial hypertension (PHT) in splenectomized β -thalassemia (β -Thal) patients. Ten splenectomized β -Thal patients with systolic pulmonary artery (PA) pressure >30 mm Hg were evaluated by echocardiography, right-heart catheterization, and pulmonary angiography. Five of these patients later underwent hemodynamic studies. Echocardiography and pulmonary angiography on the 10 patients showed normal values of left ventricular systolic function and no findings of acute or chronic pulmonary embolism. Hemodynamic evaluation showed very high PA pressures associated with markedly increased pulmonary vascular resistance indices (PVRIs). Hematological evaluation of the 10 patients showed marked anemia, markedly increased numbers of nucleated red blood cells (nRBCs), and serum ferritin. Mean platelet count, plasma β_2 thromboglobulin, and thrombin-antithrombin III complex levels were significantly increased. It was concluded that PHT can be found in splenectomized β -Thal patients. Features associated with PHT were female sex, hemoglobin E/ β -Thal, status many years postsplenectomy, marked anemia, markedly increased nRBC count, thrombocytosis, and very high serum ferritin levels. PHT was not due to pulmonary emboli. Our findings suggested that severe PHT was due to increased PVRI from thrombotic pulmonary arteriopathy, likely from chronic low-grade hypercoagulability and platelet activation after splenectomy. *Int J Hematol.* 2003;78:139-145.

©2003 The Japanese Society of Hematology

Key words: Thalassemia; Splenectomy; Pulmonary hypertension

1. Introduction

Compared with systemic arterial hypertension, pulmonary arterial hypertension (PHT) is less common, is more difficult to manage, and has a worse prognosis. It results from reductions in the caliber of the pulmonary arteries and/or increases in pulmonary blood flow [1]. In thalassemia (Thal), a hereditary hemolytic anemia, PHT could simply be due to an increased pulmonary blood flow from chronic anemia. Decreased caliber of the pulmonary vessels had never been suspected until Sonakul et al [2,3], in reviewing autopsy materials of Thal patients, found many old and new irregularly distributed thrombi mostly in 100- to 800- μ m arteries

and vascular changes indistinguishable from those of primary arteriosclerosis in larger arteries. Evidence of vasculitis and of infarction was lacking. Most of those patients had undergone splenectomy and had hemoglobin E/ β -thalassemia (E/ β -Thal). The nature of the studies did not provide evidence of the cause of pulmonary thrombi, but the authors favored the diagnosis of thromboembolism. Although deep vein thrombosis (DVT) has been reported to be increased in β -Thal [4,5], our experience does not support this conclusion. Instead of acute pulmonary embolism (PE) from DVT, we not infrequently see cases of suspected acute PE that lack both clinical evidence of acute and/or chronic DVT and evidence of thrombi in the pulmonary artery (PA) on ultrafast computed tomographic (CT) scans of the lungs. Lack of knowledge of the true nature of pulmonary thrombi in Thal patients has led physicians to treat such patients for PE, a therapy that may not be appropriate. We therefore performed this study to determine the nature of pulmonary thrombi and the cause of PHT in these patients. Because the pathology of pulmonary vasculature in Thal patients as

Correspondence and reprint requests: Vichai Atichartakarn, MD, FACP, Division of Hematology, Department of Medicine, Ramathibodi Hospital, Rama 6 Road, Bangkok 10400, Thailand; 66-2-201-1392; fax: 66-2-201-1392 (e-mail: ravtc@mucc.mahidol.ac.th).

reported by Sonakul et al [2,3] is quite similar to that of primary PHT, in which thrombi can form in situ in small PAs or arterioles [1], studies for evidence of coagulation and platelet activation were performed to understand the pathogenesis. Clinical features, if any, are described.

2. Materials and Methods

During July 1998 to June 1999, 100 patients with Thal disease in our clinic were screened for clinical evidence of PHT (eg, loud P₂, right ventricular heave, and elevated jugular venous pressure) and acute and chronic DVT (eg, unilateral leg swelling, dilated superficial veins, tender venous cord, chronic ankle ulcers). No patient was found to have clinical evidence of DVT, but 17 had clinical evidence of PHT. All had undergone splenectomy in the past. None had clinical evidence of chronic liver disease or portal hypertension. After being informed of the objectives of the study, 16 patients consented to participate. To confirm the diagnosis, establish disease severity, and find causes of PHT, we used echocardiography and right-heart catheterization. Of the 16 patients enrolled, 10 had findings compatible with PHT at echocardiography (systolic PA pressure >30 mm Hg) [1] and underwent right-heart catheterization for additional measurement of PA pressure and definitive assessment of PE by pulmonary angiography. Hemodynamic studies were performed later on 5 of these patients.

Cardiac evaluation consisted of chest roentgenogram, 12-lead electrocardiography (ECG), echocardiography, and right-heart catheterization with pulmonary angiography.

Echocardiography was used to obtain systolic PA pressure and to evaluate left ventricular (LV) systolic function. PA pressure was estimated by adding the peak pressure gradient of tricuspid regurgitation as recorded on the Doppler flow chart to the height (centimeters) of jugular venous pulse obtained by physical examination [6]. This method of measurement was not applicable in the absence of tricuspid regurgitation. The person performing echocardiography was blinded to cardiac catheterization data. LV systolic function was evaluated from LV ejection fraction, which was obtained from M-mode measurement. We followed the methods recommended by the American Society of Echocardiography [7].

Right-heart catheterization was done after patients were premedicated with antihistamine and a mild sedative. Venous access was through the femoral vein with a 7F Cournand catheter inserted retrograde to the PA. PHT was considered present when PA systolic and mean pressures exceed 30 and 20 mm Hg, respectively [1].

After PA pressure was measured, pulmonary angiography was performed selectively and serially into the right and left PAs via a 7F pigtail catheter. An injection of nonionic contrast medium (30 mL) was delivered into each PA with a power injector at the rate of 15 mL/s. Image acquisition was done simultaneously at the rate of 30 frames/s for 15 seconds with a 512 × 512 format (262,144 pixels). Image interpretation was done independently by a radiologist and 2 cardiologists; disagreement was settled by consensus. PE was diagnosed if 1 or more of the following 3 findings was present: intraluminal filling defect, abrupt vessel cut off, or a "railroad sign" caused by squeezing of contrast medium through the space between the

obstructive area and the vascular wall. Changes consistent with previous thromboembolism, such as PA web [8] and irregular walls of the vascular trees were also sought.

Negative findings at pulmonary angiography in all 10 patients suggested that PE was not the cause of PHT. To understand the mechanism of PHT, we later performed hemodynamic studies using thermodilution technique to assess cardiac output, which allowed calculation of cardiac index and pulmonary vascular resistance index (PVRI), as previously described [9]. Pulmonary capillary wedge pressure (PCWP) also was measured. Five of the 10 patients agreed to the study.

Hematologic evaluation for evidence of hemostatic/thrombotic activation consisted of measurement of plasma fibrinogen, plasma thrombin-antithrombin III complex (TAT), and prothrombin fragment 1.2 (F 1.2) for evidence of thrombin generation or coagulation activation, and plasma β_2 -thromboglobulin (β TG) as a reflection of platelet activation. Other blood tests were complete blood cell count, hemoglobin (Hb) analysis, serum ferritin, serum antibodies to human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) 1 and 2 and hepatitis C virus (HCV), and serum hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg).

Blood was drawn from the antecubital vein after the patient had fasted overnight. A tourniquet was applied briefly for easy venous access, after which it was released. Venous blood was obtained through a 20-gauge scalp vein needle. After the first 2 mL was discarded, blood was drawn into a new plastic syringe for biochemical, hematological, and infectious markers assays. Blood for plasma TAT, F 1.2, and β TG assays was obtained from a new plastic syringe. Blood anticoagulated with 3.2% sodium citrate (9:1 ratio) was centrifuged at 2000g for 20 minutes to obtain plasma, which was stored at -80°C for later assay of TAT [10] and F 1.2 [11]. Blood anticoagulated in a Diatube H tube (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) was processed strictly according to the insert of the β TG enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kit to prevent in vitro platelet activation. The separated plasma was stored at -80°C for later assay of β TG [12].

Plasma TAT and F 1.2 levels were measured with the Enzygnost TAT and Enzygnost F 1 + 2 micro ELISA kits (Behring Diagnostics, San Jose, CA, USA), respectively. Plasma β TG level was measured with the Asserachrom ELISA kit (Diagnostica Stago, Asnieres-sur-Seine, France). Plasma fibrinogen was measured by the method of Ellis and Stransky [13]. Complete blood cell count was performed by Coulter counter JT3 (Coulter Electronics, Luton, England), Hb analysis by high performance liquid chromatography [14] (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA), and serum ferritin, anti-HIV-1/HIV-2 antibodies, and HBsAg by microparticle enzyme immunoassay [15] with AxSYM ferritin, AxSYM HIV-1/HIV-2, and AxSYM HBs Ag (V2), respectively (Abbott, Abbott Park, IL, USA). Serum anti-HCV was measured by immunometric technique with a Vitros Anti-HCV assay kit (Ortho-Clinical, Amersham, UK).

3. Results

Because of the small number of patients, results are shown in median and range when appropriate. Patient characteristics are shown in Table 1. The patients were underweight for height [16], as is usual in Thal major [17].

Table 1.

Patient Characteristics (n = 10)*

Diseases	E/ β -Thal (n = 9), β -Thal (n = 1)†
Age, y	26 (21-39)
Sex, M:F	2:8
Height, cm	160 (135-166)
Weight, kg	44.5 (27.3-52)
Duration postsplenectomy, y	16 (5-21)

*Results are shown in median and range where applicable. Numbers in parentheses are number of patients or range. E/ β -Thal indicates hemoglobin E/ β -thalassemia; β -Thal, homozygous β -thalassemia.

†M:F of E/ β -Thal was 2:7; the only β -Thal patient was a woman.

Results of cardiac evaluations to confirm and to determine the cause of PHT are shown in Table 2. All patients except 1 had cardiomegaly and an enlarged PA trunk consistent with PHT. Six patients had radiographic changes of extramedullary hematopoiesis indicating intense compensatory erythropoietic activity, a common finding in Thal [17]. ECG results showed that right-axis deviation and right ventricular hypertrophy were present in approximately one half of the patients but were present in all patients with systolic PA pressure more than 45 mm Hg. PA pressure determined by echocardiography and by right-heart catheterization correlated well (correlation coefficient = 0.7). Right-heart catheterization results confirmed elevated PA pressure and no intracardiac shunt. Pulmonary angiographic findings were negative for evidence of acute and chronic PE, suggesting PE as an uncommon cause of PHT.

Cardiac output assessment of the 5 patients is shown in Table 3. Note the markedly increased values of both PVRI

Table 2.

Cardiac Evaluation (n = 10)*

Investigative Tool	
Chest roentgenogram	
Cardiomegaly	9 patients
Enlarged pulmonary trunk	9 patients
Osteopenia	10 patients
Extramedullary hematopoiesis	6 patients
Lung findings	All within normal limits
Electrocardiography	
Rhythm	All normal sinus
Axis	
Normal	5 patients
Right-axis deviation	5 patients
Chamber hypertrophy	
Right ventricular hypertrophy	6 patients
Echocardiography	
Left ventricular ejection fraction (normal value, ≥ 0.6)	0.74 (0.6-0.86)
Right-heart catheterization	
Systolic/diastolic pressure, mm Hg	
Right ventricle	45 (30-92)/10 (7-13)
Pulmonary artery	46 (33-86)/22 (13-40)
Intracardiac shunt	None
Pulmonary angiogram	No emboli

*Results are shown in median and range (in parenthesis) where applicable.

and PA pressure in cases 4 and 5 and the borderline PHT in case 1.

Results of testing with selected serum infectious markers and hematologic evaluations for evidence of hemostatic/thrombotic activation are shown in Table 4. Although both TAT and F 1.2 are markers of thrombin generation, only the former showed a statistically significant difference from normal, indicating that thrombin generation had occurred. All but 1 patient had an elevated plasma β TG level, indicating platelet activation, and all but 2 patients had a low normal plasma fibrinogen concentration consistent with low-grade consumption coagulopathy. Values of all other hematologic evaluations, such as peripheral blood Hb, percentage neutrophils, platelet count, percentage nucleated red blood cells (nRBC), and serum ferritin, were statistically significantly different from normal. Chronic anemia, thrombocytosis, neutropenia, and lymphocytosis are consistently found in splenectomized β -Thal patients [17,18]. Markedly increased nRBC count indicated intense compensatory erythropoietic activity. Markedly increased serum ferritin level consistent with iron overload was related to multiple previous blood transfusions and the increased intestinal iron absorption associated with Thal [19].

4. Discussion

Our studies using echocardiography and right-heart catheterization confirmed that PHT can be found in splenectomized β -Thal patients. In contrast to the suggestion of Sonakul et al [2], our pulmonary angiographic findings did not support the diagnosis of old or recent PE [8]. In support of our conclusion, results of animal studies have suggested that more than 22 million thromboemboli to the pulmonary arterioles would be required to raise mean PA pressure 5 mm Hg [20], and none of our patients ever had clinical evidence of acute or chronic DVT on physical examination or positive findings on ultrafast CT scan of the lungs during clinically suggestive acute PE.

To understand the mechanism of PHT, we performed hemodynamic studies on 5 of the 10 patients who had systolic PA pressure >30 mm Hg, all of whom had E/ β -Thal, to determine their cardiac indices, PCWP, and PVRI, because PA pressure is governed by these 3 factors. Cardiac index values were increased in all except patient 5, who had a very high PVRI. Increased cardiac index was expected because of chronic anemia [21]. Resultant PHT was nonspecific or reactive [1].

Increased PCWP values were found in all except patient 1, who had borderline PHT in this study. Increased PCWP also could have caused PHT. However, increases in both cardiac indices and PCWP led only to a slight increase in PA pressure (cases 2 and 3 versus cases 4 and 5 in Table 3). Our finding of normal LV systolic function on echocardiogram suggested that increased PCWP was likely due to LV diastolic dysfunction, possibly secondary to chronic anemia [21] and chronic iron overload [22]. LV diastolic dysfunction is an early sign of LV dysfunction in β -Thal major [23].

Increased PVRI was found only in cases of markedly increased PA pressure (cases 4 and 5). With a mean PA pressure >25 mm Hg at rest as a definition [24], only these 2 cases were PHT. This finding further stressed the importance of increased PVRI in the pathogenesis of disease. Pathologic

Table 3.Cardiac Output Assessment of 5 Splenectomized Female Hemoglobin E/ β -Thalassemia Patients*

Case No.	Age/Post-splenectomy Period, y	Body Weight, kg/Height, cm	LVEF (N, ≥ 0.6)	Hemoglobin, g/dL	Cardiac Catheterization				
					Cardiac Index, L/min per m ² (N, 2.6-4.2)	PCWP, mm Hg (N, 2-10)	PVRI, dyne·sec·cm ⁻⁵ ·m ² (N, 123 \pm 54)	Systolic/Diastolic Pressure (mean), mm Hg	
								RV (N, 15-30/2-8)	PA (N, 15-30/4-12)
1	30/7	45/160	0.6	6.5	5.89	9	67.91	32/11	31/10 (20)
2	22/10	57/155	0.78	7.7	4.48	13	89.28	37/13	32/15 (22)
3	28/19	45/160	0.76	4.2	7.37	15	97.69	37/14	32/14 (24)
4	21/7	37/145	0.7	6.5	6.89	17	406.39	80/8	82/32 (52)
5	28/23	50/165	0.86	6.1	4.17	12	613.91	66/7	63/28 (44)

*LVEF indicates left ventricular ejection fraction; N, normal value; PCWP, pulmonary capillary wedge pressure; PVRI, pulmonary vascular resistance index; RV, right ventricle; PA, pulmonary artery.

changes in small PAs on postmortem examination of a patient who died a few months after right-heart catheterization explained the cause of increased PVRI. She was a 24-year-old E/ β -Thal patient who was 21 years postsplenectomy. PA pressure was 75/32 mm Hg, and the PAs (size, 50-400 μ m) showed changes similar to those of primary PHT [1] or thrombotic pulmonary arteriopathy (Figure 1). There was no vasculitis, pulmonary infarction, or PA web, only minimal iron deposition and unremarkable pulmonary venules. These findings supported those previously described by Sonakul et al [2] and were more in keeping with in situ thrombus formation than embolism [25]. The elevated plasma TAT levels were supportive of hypercoagulability contributing to the vascular abnormalities.

This systemic hypercoagulability [26] is likely related to the presence of phosphatidylserine (PS) [27] on the surface of β -Thal RBC membranes [28,29]. These highly thrombogenic RBCs normally would have been cleared by macrophages [30], but splenectomy allows an increased number of such PS-exposed RBCs to circulate [31] and enhance hyper-

coagulability. Intense compensatory erythropoiesis would further increase the number of these cells. Splenectomy also results in slower clearance of activated clotting factors [32,33]. Decreased plasma levels of protein C, protein S, antithrombin III [5,26,34], and heparin cofactor II [35] also facilitate thrombin formation. Thrombin from the coagulation process can activate platelets [36], and the platelet activation can facilitate the process further [37]. Increased plasma β TG levels confirmed that there was platelet activation, and subsequent release of growth factors by activated platelets may lead to vascular changes [1]. Thrombocytosis, which is consistently found in splenectomized E/ β -Thal patients, likely augments thrombosis and vascular changes. Previous studies [38-40] have shown the importance of splenic absence, coagulation, and platelet activation in the pathogenesis of pulmonary microthrombi.

PS-exposed RBCs adhere selectively to vascular endothelial cells (VEC) [41,42], especially during infection [43], the frequency of which has been reported to be increased in splenectomized Thal patients [44,45]. Furthermore, markedly

Table 4.

Hematologic Evaluation (n = 10)*

Feature	Result	Normal Value, mean \pm 2 SD	P†
Hemoglobin typing	E/ β -Thal, 9; β -Thal, 1	AA ₂	—
Hemoglobin, g/L	M, 59 (56-62) F, 64.5 (55-75)	M, 155 \pm 25 F, 140 \pm 20	.020 <.001
WBC count, $\times 10^9$ /L	10.5 (5.2-17.5)	7.5 \pm 2.5	.021
Neutrophils, %	37 (25-50)	60 \pm 15.0	<.001
Platelet count, $\times 10^9$ /L	513 (310-885)	270 \pm 130	<.001
nRBC count, /100 WBCs	1062 (180-2567)	0	—
TAT, μ g/L	9.63 (6.04-16.14)	3.0 \pm 2.4	.002
F 1.2, nmol/L	1.35 (0.75-1.92)	1.03 \pm 0.48	.067
β TG, IU/mL	87 (26-196)	25.3 \pm 12.8	.019
Fibrinogen, mg/dL	203 (132-238)	289 \pm 114	.001
Ferritin, ng/mL	M, 2706 (2318-3094) F, 3858 (987-6778)	M, 163.5 \pm 136.5 F, 70 \pm 60	— .005
Anti-HIV antibody	Negative	Negative	—
HB _s Ag	Negative	Negative	—
Anti-HCV antibody	Positive, 5 patients	Negative	—

*Results are shown in median and range where applicable. Numbers in parentheses are range. E/ β -Thal indicates hemoglobin E/ β -thalassemia; β -Thal, homozygous β -thalassemia; WBC, white blood cell; nRBC, nucleated red blood cell; TAT, thrombin antithrombin III complex; F 1.2, prothrombin fragment 1.2; β TG, β_2 -thromboglobulin; HIV, human immunodeficiency virus; HB_sAg, hepatitis B surface antigen; HCV, hepatitis C virus. †t test.

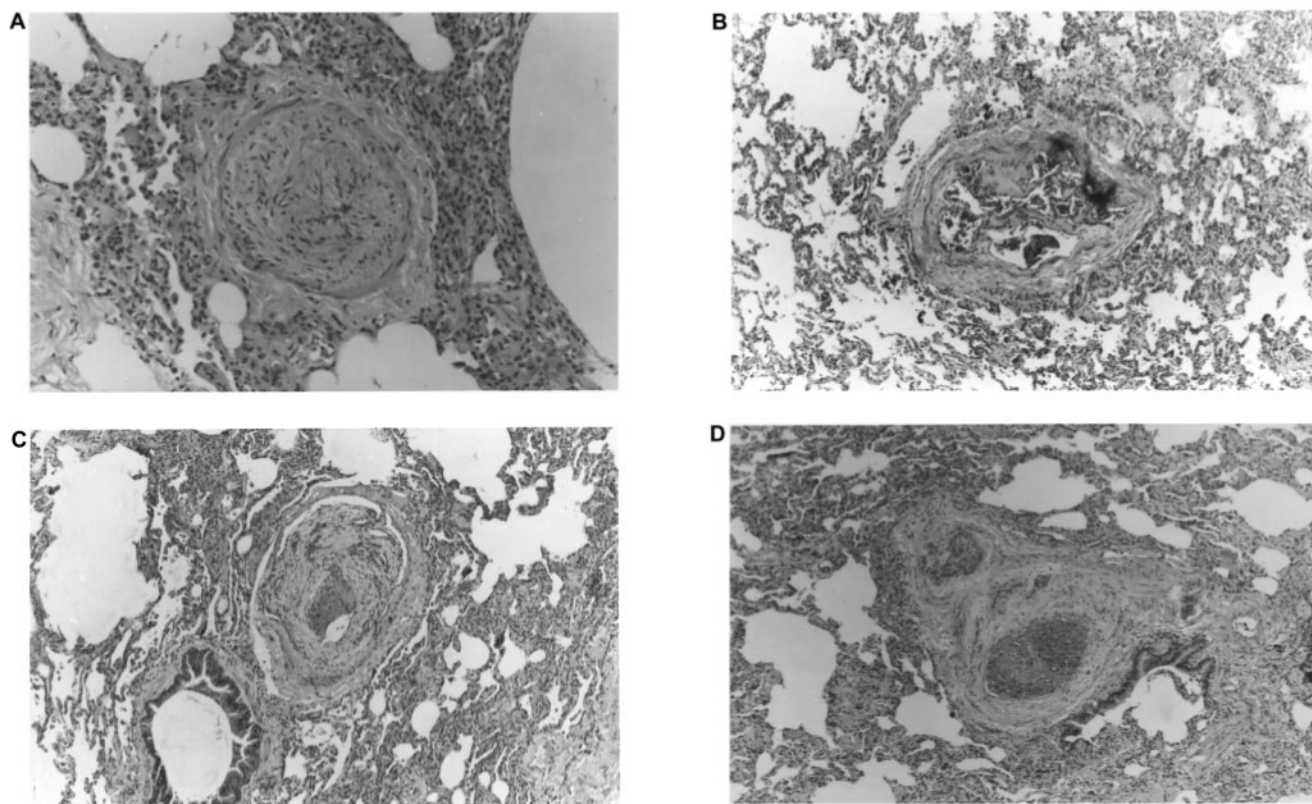


Figure 1. A, Prominent medial hypertrophy with intimal fibrosis resulted in total luminal occlusion of this pulmonary artery (hematoxylin and eosin, original magnification $\times 400$). B, Pulmonary hypertension, grade IV. In addition to medial hypertrophy and intimal fibrosis, numerous endothelial-lined vascular channels with focal fibrinoid necrosis were noted (hematoxylin and eosin, original magnification $\times 200$). C, Severe intimal fibrosis, muscular hypertrophy with focal recanalization of the lumen, and fibrin thrombi were noted (hematoxylin and eosin, original magnification $\times 200$). D, Plexiform lesion of this pulmonary artery was characterized by aneurysmal expansion of the vascular wall with fibrin thrombi occluding the lumen (hematoxylin and eosin, original magnification $\times 200$).

increased numbers of nRBCs, which deform poorly, may facilitate adherence by impeding flow in the microcirculation. Once adherent, these cells would promote local clot formation, particularly in the presence of systemic hypercoagulability. In addition, pulmonary endothelial damage from increased pulmonary blood flow [46,47] and lung injury from recurrent respiratory tract infections may explain why thrombi are limited to the PA in this systemic hypercoagulable state.

Pathogenesis of thrombotic pulmonary arteriopathy is not yet completely understood [1]. In primary PHT [1], VEC injury or dysfunction is believed to be the cause. We propose, on the basis of our findings and those of others [38-43], one possible pathophysiologic change that occurs in postsplenectomy β -Thal and leads to PHT (Figure 2).

Aessopos et al [48,49] also found increased cardiac output and PVRI in splenectomized β -Thal intermedia patients, an effect originally thought to be due to hypoxia and cirrhosis. We did not find consistent clinical evidence of these changes. We found hypoxia only in cases of severe PHT, which likely was the effect of rather than the major cause of increased PVRI. Iron excess resulting in LV, lung, and liver dysfunction also has been thought to contribute to PHT [50], but previ-

ous studies from Thailand [2,51] failed to show iron excess in heart or lungs.

All our patients were relatively young, and the time of their PHT diagnosis was distant from splenectomy. Almost all patients were female, as were those who had primary PHT [1]. The greater prevalence of E/ β -Thal cases in our series and in a previous autopsy report [3] (ratio of E/ β -Thal to homozygous β -Thal, approximately 3.3:1) might have been due to a higher incidence of the disease among Thais [52]. However, there could have been differences between homozygous β -Thal and E/ β -Thal RBCs, as has previously been shown in α - and β -Thal RBCs [53]. That only 3 of our 10 PHT patients had the disease sooner than 15 years postsplenectomy indicates the process is slow and progressive (Table 3), in agreement with previous autopsy findings [2]. However, absence of PHT in many of our patients who were many years postsplenectomy and who had evidence of in vivo coagulation activation [31] suggested that other modifying factors, such as genetic predisposition [54], shear stress, and inflammation [55], may be operative. The finding of severe PHT 7 years postsplenectomy in case 4 (Table 3) is supportive. A markedly increased nRBC count, which is compensatory to severe anemia, also might indicate the presence of more severe disease

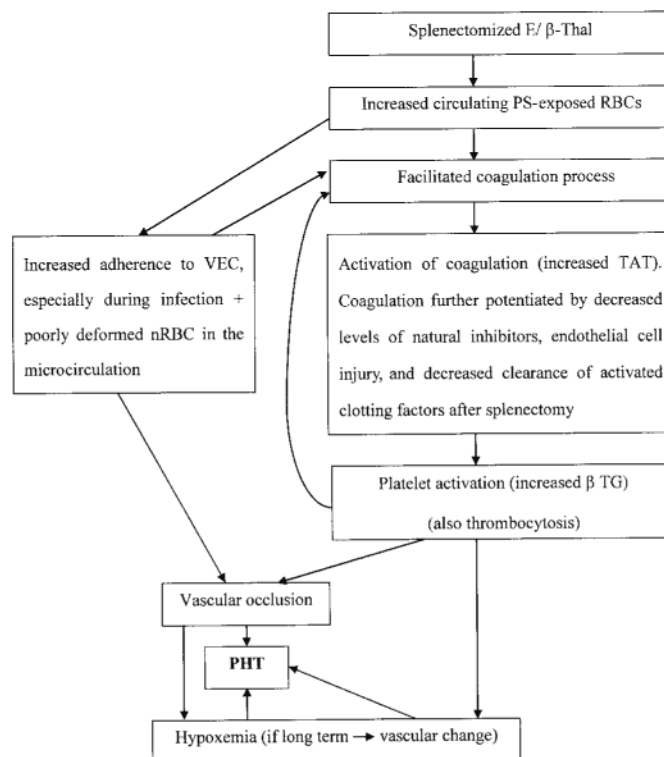


Figure 2. Proposed pathogenesis of vasculopathy and microthrombi leading to increased pulmonary vascular resistance index in splenectomized hemoglobin E/β-thalassemia (E/β-Thal) patients with severe pulmonary hypertension (PHT). PS indicates phosphatidylserine; nRBC, nucleated red blood cell; VEC, vascular endothelial cell; TAT, plasma thrombin antithrombin III complex; β TG, plasma β₂-thromboglobulin.

in this group of patients. More studies are required to define the determinants of this serious complication.

In conclusion, our studies on PHT in postsplenectomy β-Thal do not support PE as the likely cause. Increased cardiac index from chronic anemia and increased PCWP possibly from chronic anemia and chronic iron overload could cause a minor rise in PA pressure. A further rise in PA pressure requires an increased PVRI due at least to thrombotic pulmonary arteriopathy from chronic hypercoagulation. Systemic hypercoagulability and platelet activation are in turn facilitated by the presence of increased numbers of circulating PS expressing RBCs and nRBCs that results in part from splenectomy. The results of this study suggest that splenectomy in β-Thal creates long-term risk of low-grade hypercoagulability and PHT. It also provides a model for testing whether appropriate therapeutic intervention can prevent or ameliorate the severity of PHT found in splenectomized β-Thal patients.

Acknowledgment

We deeply appreciate the efforts of Prof. Victor J. Marder, MD, Los Angeles Orthopaedic Hospital and UCLA School of Medicine, for reviewing and editing the manuscript.

References

1. Rich S. Pulmonary hypertension. In: Braunwald E, Zipes DP, Libby P, eds. *Heart Disease: A Textbook of Cardiovascular Medicine*. Philadelphia: WB Saunders; 2001:1908-1935.
2. Sonakul D, Pacharee P, Laohapand T, Fucharoen S, Wasi P. Pulmonary artery obstruction in thalassemia. *Southeast Asian J Trop Med Public Health*. 1980;11:516-523.
3. Sonakul D, Fucharoen S. Pulmonary thromboembolism in thalassaemic patients. *Southeast Asian J Trop Med Public Health*. 1992; 23(suppl 2):25-28.
4. Borgna-Pignatti C, Carnelli V, Caruso V, et al. Thromboembolic events in beta thalassemia major: an Italian multicenter study. *Acta Haematol*. 1998;99:76-79.
5. Cappellini MD, Robbiolo L, Bottasso BM, et al. Venous thromboembolism and hypercoagulability in splenectomized patients with thalassaemia intermedia. *Br J Haematol*. 2000;111:467-473.
6. Oh JK, Seward JB, Tajik AJ. Pulmonary hypertension. In: Oh JK, Seward JB, Tajik AJ, eds. *The Echo Manual*. Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 1999:215-222.
7. Oh JK, Seward JB, Tajik AJ. Assessment of ventricular systolic function. In: Oh JK, Seward JB, Tajik AJ, eds. *The Echo Manual*. Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 1999:37-44.
8. Peterson KL, Fred HL, Alexander JK. Pulmonary arterial web: a new angiographic sign of previous thromboembolism. *N Engl J Med*. 1967;277:33-35.
9. Grossman W. Blood flow measurement: the cardiac output and vascular resistance. In: Baim DS, Grossman W, eds. *Grossman's Cardiac Catheterization, Angiography and Intervention*. Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2000:159-178.
10. Pelzer H, Schwarz A, Heimburger N. Determination of human thrombin-antithrombin III complex in plasma with an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay. *Thromb Haemost*. 1988;59:101-106.
11. Pelzer H, Schwarz A, Stuber W. Determination of human prothrombin activation fragment 1+2 in plasma with an antibody against a synthetic peptide. *Thromb Haemost*. 1991;65:153-159.
12. Kaplan KL, Owen J. Plasma levels of β₂-thromboglobulin and

- platelet factor 4 as indices of platelet activation in vivo. *Blood*. 1981;57:199-202.
13. Ellis BC, Stransky A. A quick and accurate method for the determination of fibrinogen in plasma. *J Lab Clin Med*. 1961;58:477-488.
 14. Kutlar A, Kutlar F, Wilson JB, Headlee MG, Huisman TH. Quantitation of hemoglobin components by high performance cation-exchange liquid chromatography. *Am J Hematol*. 1984;17:39-53.
 15. Forman DT, Parker SL. The measurement and interpretation of serum ferritin. *Ann Clin Lab Sci*. 1980;10:345-350.
 16. Buri PS, Hathirat S, Watthanakaset S, Na Ranong W. Weight and height in normal Thai adult. *Thai Med Counc Bull*. 1983;12:409-414.
 17. Weatherall DJ. The thalassemias. In: Beutler E, Lichtman MA, Coller BS, Kipps TJ, Seligsohn U, eds. *Hematology*. New York: McGraw-Hill; 2001:547-580.
 18. Pattanapanyasat K, Thepthai C, Lamchiagdhase P, et al. Lymphocyte subsets and specific T-cell immune response in thalassemia. *Cytometry*. 2000;42:11-17.
 19. Pootrakul P, Kitcharoen K, Yansukon P, Anuwatanakulchai M, Thuvassethakul P, Wasi P. The effect of erythroid hyperplasia on iron balance. *Blood*. 1988;71:1124-1129.
 20. Rich S, Brundage BH. Pulmonary hypertension: a cellular basis for understanding the pathophysiology and treatment. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 1989;14:545-550.
 21. Stone RM, Bridges KR, Libby P. Hematological-oncological disorders and cardiovascular disease. In: Braunwald E, Zipes DP, Libby P, eds. *Heart Disease: A Textbook of Cardiovascular Medicine*. Philadelphia: WB Saunders; 2001:2223-2243.
 22. Andrews NC. Disorders of iron metabolism. *N Engl J Med*. 1999;341:1986-1995.
 23. Lau KC, Li AMC, Hui PW, Yeung CY. Left ventricular function in β -thalassaemia major. *Arch Dis Child*. 1989;64:1046-1051.
 24. Gibbs JSR, Higenbottam TW. Recommendations on the management of pulmonary hypertension in clinical practice. *Heart*. 2001;86(suppl 1):i1-i13.
 25. Kay JM. Vascular disease. In: Thurlbeck WM, Churg AM, eds. *Pathology of the Lung*. New York: Thieme Medical Publishers; 1995: 931-1066.
 26. Eldor A, Durst R, Hy-Am E, et al. A chronic hypercoagulable state in patients with β -thalassaemia major is already present in childhood. *Br J Haematol*. 1999;107:739-746.
 27. Zwaal RFA, Schroit AJ. Pathophysiologic implications of membrane phospholipid asymmetry in blood cells. *Blood*. 1997;89: 1121-1132.
 28. Borenstain-Ben Yashar V, Barenholz Y, Hy-Am E, Rachmilewitz EA, Eldor A. Phosphatidylserine in the outer leaflet of red blood cells from beta-thalassaemia patients may explain the chronic hypercoagulable state and thrombotic episodes. *Am J Hematol*. 1993;44: 63-65.
 29. Helley D, Eldor A, Girot R, Ducrocq R, Guillin MC, Bezeaud A. Increased procoagulant activity of red blood cells from patients with homozygous sickle cell disease and β -thalassaemia. *Thromb Haemost*. 1996;76:322-327.
 30. Srinivasan PT, Basu J. Altered membrane phospholipid organization and erythrophagocytosis in E β -thalassaemia. *Biochim Biophys Acta*. 1996;1285:65-70.
 31. Atichartakarn V, Angchaisuksiri P, Aryurachai K, et al. Relationship between hypercoagulable state and erythrocyte phosphatidylserine exposure in splenectomized haemoglobin E/ β -thalassaemic patients. *Br J Haematol*. 2002;118:893-898.
 32. Rodriguez-Erdman F, Naimi S. Studies on the pathogenesis of the generalized Shwartzman reaction. *Thromb Diath Haemor*. 1967;17: 156-164.
 33. Lee L. Reticuloendothelial clearance of circulating fibrin in the pathogenesis of the generalized Shwartzman reaction. *J Exp Med*. 1962;15:1065-1082.
 34. Shirahata A, Funahara Y, Opartkiattikul N, Fucharoen S, Laosombat V, Yamada K. Protein C and protein S deficiency in thalassaemic patients. *Southeast Asian J Trop Med Public Health*. 1992; 23(suppl 2):65-73.
 35. O'Driscoll A, Mackie IJ, Porter JB, Marchin SJ. Low plasma heparin cofactor II levels in thalassaemia syndromes are corrected by chronic blood transfusion. *Br J Haematol*. 1995;90:65-70.
 36. Brass LF, Ahuja M, Belmonte E, Pizarro S, Tarver A, Hoxie JA. The human platelet thrombin receptor: turning it on, turning it off. *Ann N Y Acad Sci*. 1994;714:1-12.
 37. Tracy PB. Role of platelets and leukocytes in coagulation. In: Colman RW, Hirsh J, Marder VJ, Clowes AW, George JN, eds. *Hemostasis and Thrombosis: Basic Principles & Clinical Practice*. Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2001:575-596.
 38. Rostagno C, Prisco D, Abbate R, Poggesi L. Pulmonary hypertension associated with long-standing thrombocytosis. *Chest*. 1991;99: 1303-1305.
 39. Kisanuki A, Kietthubthaw S, Asada Y, Marutsuka K, Funahara Y, Sumiyoshi A. Intravenous injection of sonicated blood induces pulmonary microthromboembolism in rabbits with ligation of the splenic artery. *Thromb Res*. 1997;85:95-103.
 40. Hoepfer MM, Niedermeyer J, Hoffmeyer F, Flemming P, Fabel H. Pulmonary hypertension after splenectomy? *Ann Intern Med*. 1999; 130:506-509.
 41. Hovav T, Goldfarb A, Artmann G, Yedgar S, Barshtein G. Enhanced adherence of beta-thalassaemic erythrocytes to endothelial cells. *Br J Haematol*. 1999;106:178-181.
 42. Closse C, Dachary-Prigent J, Boisseau MR. Phosphatidylserine-related adhesion of human erythrocytes to vascular endothelium. *Br J Haematol*. 1999;107:300-302.
 43. Vordermeier S, Singh S, Biggerstaff J, et al. Red blood cells from patients with sickle cell disease exhibit an increased adherence to cultured endothelium pretreated with tumor necrosis factor. *Br J Haematol*. 1992;81:591-597.
 44. Wanachiwanawin W. Infections in thalassemia. In: Pansatiakul B, ed. *Proceedings of the 7th International Conference on Thalassemia and the Haemoglobinopathies, Bangkok, Thailand, 31 May-4 June 1999*. 1999:162, S1104.
 45. Aswapokee P, Aswapokee N, Fucharoen S, Sukroongreung S, Wasi P. Severe infection in thalassemia: a prospective study. *Birth Defects*. 1988;23:521-526.
 46. Rich S, Levitsky S, Brundage BH. Pulmonary hypertension from chronic pulmonary thromboembolism. *Ann Intern Med*. 1988;108: 425-434.
 47. Butthep P, Bunyaratvej A, Funahara Y, et al. Alterations in vascular endothelial cell-related plasma proteins in thalassaemic patients and their correlation with clinical symptoms. *Thromb Haemost*. 1995;74:1045-1049.
 48. Aessopos A, Stamatelos G, Skoumas V, Vassilopoulos G, Mantzourani M, Loukopoulos D. Pulmonary hypertension and right heart failure in patients with β -thalassaemia intermedia. *Chest*. 1995;107:50-53.
 49. Aessopos A, Farmakis D, Karagiorga M, et al. Cardiac involvement in thalassaemia intermedia: a multicenter study. *Blood*. 2001;97: 3411-3416.
 50. Du ZD, Roguin N, Milgram E, Saab K, Koren A. Pulmonary hypertension in patients with thalassaemia major. *Am Heart J*. 1997;134: 532-537.
 51. Sonakul D, Pacharee P, Wasi P, Fucharoen S. Cardiac pathology in 47 patients with beta thalassaemia/haemoglobin E. *Southeast Asian J Trop Med Public Health*. 1984;15:554-563.
 52. Wasi P. Hemoglobinopathies including thalassaemia. *Clin Haematol*. 1981;10:707-729.
 53. Schrier SL. Pathophysiology of the thalassemias. *West J Med*. 1997; 167:82-89.
 54. Morse JH, Barst RJ, Itescu S, et al. Primary pulmonary hypertension in HIV infection: an outcome determined by particular HLA class II alleles. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 1996;53:1299-1301.
 55. Voelkel NF, Tuder RM. Cellular and molecular mechanisms in the pathogenesis of severe pulmonary hypertension. *Eur Respir J*. 1995; 8:2129-2138.