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Chapter 1

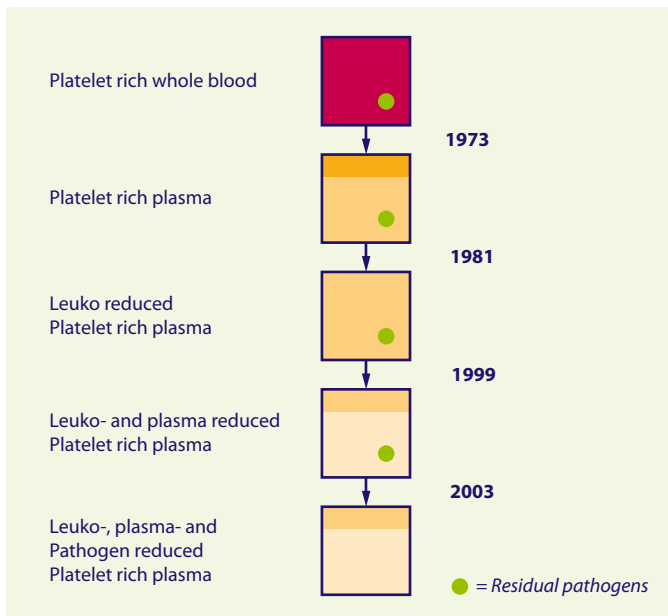
Introduction

1 Introduction

PLATELET TRANSFUSIONS: PRODUCTS AND ENDPOINTS IN RANDOMIZED CONTROLLED TRIALS

Under the assumption that thrombocytopenia correlates with bleeding complications, guidelines advise to institute a platelet transfusion policy to prevent and treat bleeding complications in haemato-oncology patients with thrombocytopenia due to myelosuppressive diseases and/or treatment.¹⁻⁴ At the start of the research for this thesis platelet transfusion therapy appeared to be a fact of life and a point of no return had been achieved, underlining the statement by Schiffer in 1992 “unfortunately, it will be scientifically impossible to perform studies 20 years after the horse is out of the barn to prove the value of this approach”⁵ Meanwhile clinicians paid only limited attention to the quality of the platelet products as long as they were available on demand. The product we tested in our first randomized controlled trial (RCT), platelets stored in an additive solution, was just one of the last of several modifications since the systematic preventive use of platelets. Studies concerning platelet transfusions conducted between the early eighties until the late nineties mainly investigated product modifications to reduce adverse reactions, such as (non)-immunological refractoriness and febrile transfusion reactions. It was only in the last decade that clinical efficacy became an issue, even more to blood bankers than to clinicians.⁶ The modifications which have been performed to improve the safety profile are typically characterised by removing one or more components after blood donation (figure 1). This introduction aims to recapitulate platelet transfusions from a historical perspective and the development of policy guidelines, mainly focussing on the clinical evidence for the several product modifications throughout time.

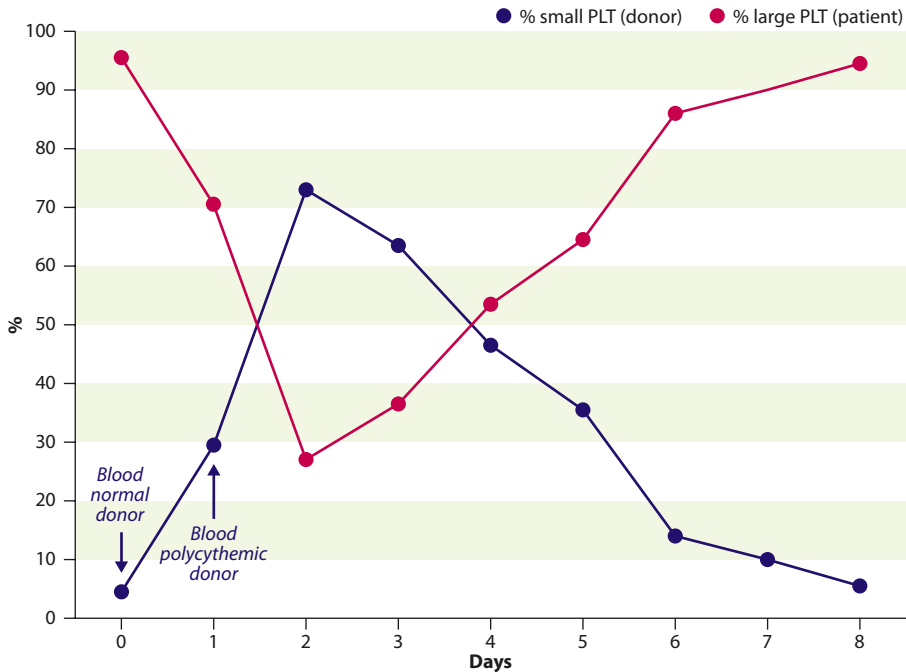
Figure 1: Figure 1 shows the several general modifications in the production of platelet products. Not shown is the proces of pooling (possible since the introduction of sterile docking devices in the eighties) leading to multidonor Platelet Rich Plasma v.s. Buffy-coat platelet products.



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One of the first physicians investigating the fate of transfused platelets and a potential method to treat bleeding was Duke in 1911.⁷ Using blood from a polycythemic donor Duke et al determined that donor platelets survived five to six days following transfusion in a young patient probably suffering from congenital thrombocytopenia. In contrast to the transfusion of blood of a normal donor, blood of the polycythemic donor resulted in a longer lasting rise of the platelet count and a reduction in bleeding time (figure 2).⁸ A platelet survival study in 22 patients using a direct transfusion of polycythemic blood after a first transfusion using a normal donor to prevent “platelet hunger” suggested a survival of 48 – 72 hours, potentially influenced by active bleeding and an enlarged spleen. Bleeding time was shortened promptly after transfusion, a beneficial effect which lasted approximately 24 hours longer than the platelet survival.⁹

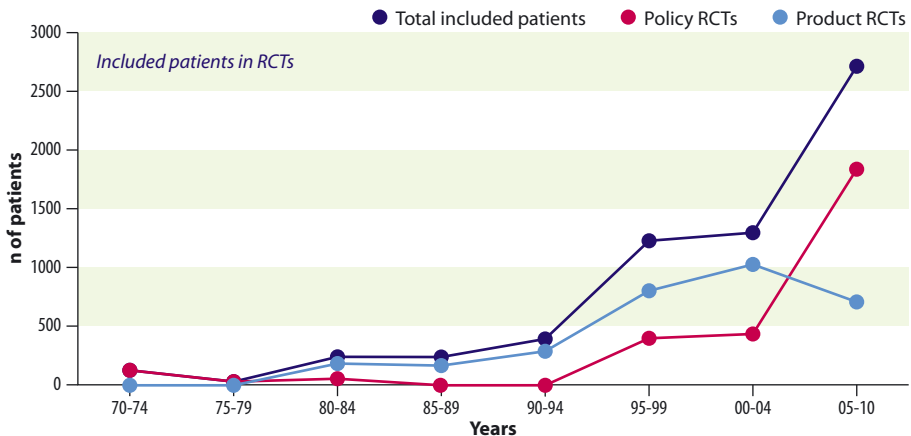
Figure 2: Figure 2 shows one of the first *in vivo* experiments studying the survival of transfused platelets in a thrombocytopenic patient. PLT= Platelets



Klein and Freireich et al developed a technique for platelet separation by differential centrifugation to obtain platelets for clinical use and a first study comparing fresh versus banked blood in the management of bleeding was performed.^{10,11} In one of the first reviews platelet transfusions were already considered as a part of the “total care” for patients with malignancies, however the difficulty of an objective evaluation of the “self-apparent” effects of platelet transfusions and the need for controlled studies was also emphasized.¹² A state-of-the-art review concerning the development and quality of platelet products as well as guidance for clinical use stated that the indication for platelet transfusions was haemorrhage associated with severe thrombocytopenia, defined as a platelet count less than $10 \times 10^9/l$.¹³ Two autopsy studies showed that fatal haemorrhages are frequently encountered in patients with acute leukaemia and two of these studies

reported a dramatic reduction of fatal haemorrhages after the implementation of platelet transfusions.^{14, 15} The first prospective landmark study in 92 patients with acute leukaemia by Gaydos et al showed a relationship between the platelet count as well as a decrease in platelet count and the risk of bleeding, although no threshold level could be observed. However, it was after this publication that the concept of prophylactic rather than therapeutic platelet transfusions emerged (figure 3).¹⁶

Figure 3: Figure 3 shows the number of patients included in randomised trials studying platelet transfusions. Policy driven RCTs are trials investigating indication (prophylactic versus therapeutic), thresholds and doses. Product related RCTs classically compare an alternative platelet product, for instance using additive solutions, with conventional platelet products, usually platelets stored in plasma



Since this publication, several strategies have been studied in clinical trials investigating the use of prophylactic transfusions as opposed to therapeutic platelet transfusions, platelet transfusion thresholds and platelet transfusion dose. In parallel with these trials the manufacturing of platelet products has constantly evolved with the development of several ways to harvest platelets, sterile docking device, storage bags and the introduction of additive solutions as well as pathogen reduction techniques, driven by emerging blood-borne infections and bacterial growth associated with prolonged storage of platelets at ambient temperature. Thus far 5 RCTs have studied prophylactic platelet transfusions as opposed to therapeutic transfusions.¹⁷⁻²¹ Based on the three oldest studies, the combined relative risk for major or more severe bleeding complications was 0.49 (95%CI 0.28 – 0.87) favouring prophylactic platelet transfusions.^{17, 19, 23, 22} More recently, a prophylactic versus therapeutic trial in patients with acute myeloid leukaemia reported also that bleeding complications were significantly increased in the therapeutic arm. There were 5 minor cerebral haemorrhagic complications and 2 lethal cerebral haemorrhages in the therapeutic arm as opposed to zero in the prophylactic arm.²¹ Four RCTs and six observational studies compared different platelet transfusion thresholds for prophylactic platelet transfusions from as low as $5 \times 10^9/l$ to $30 \times 10^9/l$.²⁷⁻³² Despite the heterogeneity of the studies, none of these studies has shown a difference with regard to bleeding complications, although lowering the platelet transfusion trigger led to a significant reduction in the mean number of platelet transfusions.²² Before the recent publication of the PLADO and the STOP trial, 4 RCTs and 1 observational study

investigated platelet dose.³³⁻³⁸ These trials were initiated to investigate the “optimal” platelet dose. Both economical as well as safety issues, i.e. minimizing donor exposure, are the main driving factors to reduce the transfusion threshold as well as the platelet dose. Both the PLADO as well as the STOP have made two important points. Firstly and most importantly, haemorrhagic complications are very frequent despite the use of prophylactic platelet transfusions (the % of patients with WHO ≥ 2 bleeding: PLADO 70%, STOP 50% without differences between the study arms with platelet doses reaching from $\pm 0.8 \times 10^{11}/m^2$ (lowest dose in the STOP trial) to $4.4 \times 10^{11}/m^2$ (highest dose in the PLADO trial) and secondly more transfusions are administered in patients receiving low-dose platelet transfusions.^{37, 38} Although prophylactic platelet transfusions likely prevent severe haemorrhages, no definitive quantitative strategy with regard to threshold or doses can be made based on these trials.

In contrast to the straight forward search for an “optimal” platelet transfusion strategy, the approach to develop the “optimal” platelet product evolved more complicated by a diversity of ways to manufacture and store platelet products. Trials studying product modifications use an array of endpoints, including transfusion efficacy, haemostatic efficacy and the incidence of adverse transfusion reactions. Platelets can be prepared using apheresis (AP) or a whole-blood method (WBD), of which the platelet-rich plasma (PRP) method is mostly used in the United States, whereas the buffy-coat method (BC) is used in Europe. On top of these different collection and production methods, a large diversity in platelet products arises if we also include a variety of storage bag systems, methods for leukoreduction, gamma irradiation, variations in storage time and several additive solutions, which all potentially affect efficacy. A simple calculation results in over a thousand different currently clinically used platelet products. This diversity resulted in the need for defining which requirements should ideally be met by new platelet products as stated in a draft guidance of the FDA in 1999 (table 1).³⁹

Table 1: FDA Guidance for industry.

	Test	Subcategory	Type of tests
A	Paired in vitro studies	Morphology	Different levels of resolution, including EM
		Biochemical	ATP, glucose, lactate, pH and LDH
		PLT activation	P-selectin (CD62), CD63, fibrinogen binding (PA-CI), B-thromboglobulin, Plateletfactor 3 and 4
		Physiological respons	HSR, aggregation and serotonin release
		Microparticles	
B	Platelet survival	Healthy volunteers	Radiolabeling of autologous platelets with ¹¹¹ Indium and/ or ⁵¹ Chromium
		Thrombocytopenic patients	Transfusion efficacy and haemostatic efficacy
C	Clinical haemostatic efficacy	Thrombocytopenic patients	Transfusion efficacy and haemostatic efficacy

PLT = Platelet; EM = Electron Microscopy; ATP = Adenosine Triphosphate; CD = Cluster of Differentiation; HSR = Hypotonic Shock Response; FDA = Food and Drug Administration

This manuscript mainly deals with efficacy, although most new platelet products or changes in production are driven by safety and economics. An optimal platelet product should be easy to produce with constant quality parameters, should be stored for preferably longer period than the current 5 – 7 days maintaining this quality, clinically efficient in terms of bleeding prevention and without adverse reactions such as febrile and allergic transfusion reactions, transfusion related acute lung injury (TRALI), infectious

complications and alloimmunization resulting in refractoriness. Moreover, preferably we would have in vitro measures to predict clinical safety and efficacy. However, to date there are no in vitro tests predicting viability in terms of recovery and survival or haemostatic function after transfusion in patients.⁴⁰ The suggested performance of recovery / survival studies is hampered by the fact that the use of radiolabeling in volunteers is not operational in many countries, performed studies are small showing huge variation and more important the efficacy in healthy volunteers does not reflect the clinical outcome in thrombocytopenic patients. From 1970 to 2005 thirty-four RCTs have been performed testing one or more platelet product modifications (table 2).

Table 2: RCTs with different products and/or product modifications up to 2005. ^{43-55, 57-65, 67-81}

Type of modification	Endpoints	N trials
Production (PRP, BC, AP)	Alloimmunisation	6
	Adverse TRF reactions	
	Post transfusion recovery	
Leukodepletion / inactivation	Alloimmunisation	11
	Post transfusion recovery	
Plasmareduction	Adverse TRF reactions	6
	Post transfusion recovery	
HLA or ABO matching	Post transfusion recovery	4
	Bleeding	
Preincubation	Post transfusion recovery	2
Storage	Post transfusion recovery	2
Photochemical pathogen reduction	Post transfusion recovery	3
	Bleeding	
Total		34

TRF = Transfusion; Note: all the trials have been counted once, although some trials could have been included in more than one category.

Apart from studies investigating the clinical effect of storage time or production method (PRP, BC, AP), in historical order the following modifications have been subject of study: leukoreduction (centrifugation, filtration and UV irradiation), plasmareduction (concentration, additive solutions) and pathogen reduction (Amotosalen / UVA) (see also figure 1).

The incentives for leukoreduction, by far the most studied topic in platelet product RCTs, were mainly the prevention of alloimmunisation, platelet refractoriness and febrile non-haemolytic transfusion reactions (FNHTR) and CMV transmission. As the use of prophylactic platelet transfusions started to increase exponentially, the induction of HLA-antibodies with refractoriness as a consequence posed a major problem. Observations in mice by Claas et al supported previous clinical observations that the antibody response to platelets was enhanced by contaminating leukocytes acting as professional antigen presenting cells directly stimulating recipient T cells.^{41,42} A first non randomised study subsequently showed a significant decrease in the incidence of alloimmunization, from 93% to 24%, in patients receiving platelet concentrates, depleted from leukocytes below 2×10^7 by centrifugation.⁴² The first RCT using leukocyte-depleted platelet products was published in 1983. This study failed to show a reduction of alloimmunisation with leukocyte-depleted platelet products using a centrifugation technique, although a trend was noticed in

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patients who were previously exposed to HLA antigens through pregnancy and/or transfusions.⁴³ In contrast two other RCTs showed a significant reduction in the rate of HLA-alloimmunisation as well as platelet transfusion refractoriness. In these studies the platelet products were leukodepleted using a filtration method.^{44,45} In a study comparing centrifugation and filtration as methods for leukoreduction van Marwijk Kooy et al showed that filtration was more efficient in reducing HLA-immunization and refractoriness, probably due to a more consistent reduction in leukocytes.⁴⁶ Apart from the reduction of alloimmunization, leukoreduction by filtration was also shown to reduce the number of febrile non-haemolytic transfusion reactions (FNHTRs).⁴⁷ In the end of the eighties when sterile docking connecting two plastic tubings became possible, in Europe, the method of producing platelet concentrates changed from the PRP-method to the BC-method. After filtration BC derived PCs contain less leukocytes as compared to filtered PRP platelets and Oksanen et al showed that the use of filtered BC derived PCs (pre- as well as post storage alike) as compared to PRP platelets caused significantly fewer and milder adverse reactions.⁴⁸ The first study testing UVB irradiation for the leukocyte inactivation showed comparable efficacy in terms of corrected count increments (CCI) but did not show a significant reduction of alloimmunization.⁴⁹ The largest trial studying leukoreduction / inactivation is the TRAP trial. Essentially, this study in which 530 alloantibody negative patients with AML were randomised to receive standard non-leukodepleted pooled platelet concentrates, filtered pooled platelet concentrates, UVB treated pooled platelet concentrates or filtered platelets obtained by aphaeresis showed that, regardless the method used to reduce/inactivate leukocytes, leukoreduction resulted in a reduction of alloantibody-mediated refractoriness.⁵⁰ A meta-analysis of European studies and the TRAP study confirmed that leukoreduction reduced immunological refractoriness by almost 80%.⁵¹

In 1994 Heddle et al showed that the supernatant plasma component of stored leukocyte-containing PCs was more likely to cause severe reactions as compared to the platelet concentrates itself, and a strong correlation was observed between the reactions and the concentration of interleukin-1 β and interleukin-6.⁵² Chalandon et al showed that cytokines arise during storage of leukocyte-containing PCs, supporting that pre storage leukoreduction favours over post storage leukoreduction.⁵³ Another trial suggesting that plasma removal is more effective in preventing adverse transfusion reactions, despite cytokines accumulate during storage also in additive solutions, gave rise to the development of platelet additive solutions.⁵⁴ Up till 2005 only 1 RCT reported on the clinical efficacy of BCs stored in additive solution (AS). This study showed a significantly decreased transfusion efficacy of platelets stored in AS, however AS stored BCs significantly reduced the incidence of adverse transfusion reactions. No comments were made regarding the haemostatic efficacy.⁵⁵ Despite the reduced transfusion efficacy the results of this trial as well as similar results in a subanalysis of another trial led to the introduction of this platelet additive solution (PAS) in clinical practice in the Netherlands.^{55,56}

Platelets have to be stored in ambient temperature and small inocula of bacterial contaminants sometimes grow exponentially beyond 4 days. Moreover, emerging new and still occurring known transfusion transmissible infections have led to the development of pathogen reduction (PR) techniques using a photoactive substance in conjunction with UV irradiation. Up till the start of the trials reported in this thesis 3 RCTs investigated the clinical efficacy of platelets treated with amotosalen HCl (S-59) and ultraviolet A light (UVA), at that time point the only clinically available photochemical pathogen reduction technique.⁵⁷⁻⁵⁹ These trials have shown a reduced transfusion efficacy of PR-treated platelets, but only one of these trials used haemostatic efficacy as a primary endpoint as

proposed by the FDA. Although this trial reported a high but similar proportion of patients with grade 2 or higher bleeding complications, patients supported with amotosalen-UVA treated platelets had a mean of 3.2 days with grade 2 or higher bleeding as opposed to 2.5 days in the control group ($p = 0.02$) and experienced more refractoriness not explained by lymphocytotoxic antibodies or significantly increased platelet consumption.⁵⁸

Apart from leukoreduction / inactivation to prevent alloimmunization and plasmareduction to reduce adverse transfusion reactions, two items need to be discussed as they were cause for debate and trials the past two decennia: the effect of platelet storage and the clinical effects of the differently collected/produced platelets (Whole blood derived BC or PRP versus single donor AP). The incentive to use single donor aphaeresis platelets (AP) is to reduce the exposure to alloantigens and micro organisms. The first RCTs conducted before leukoreduction of PC, to study the effect on alloimmunisation comparing AP with whole blood derived, multi donor platelets were published in the early eighties. In contrast to a stable recovery of AP transfusions the recovery of multi donor platelet products declined each subsequent transfusion resulting in refractoriness after a mean of nine transfusions and it turned out that alloimmunisation was postponed, but not prevented.^{60,61} The first trial to compare the clinical effectiveness of the three available production techniques was published in 1995 by Bishop et al. The corrected count increment (CCI) after 24 hours was not different between the three products, although the 1-hour CCI was higher with single donor AP.⁶² A similar trial published in 1996 did not find a significant difference in the 1- and 20 hour CCI of BC platelets as compared to AP, although the CCI of BC platelets declined with 30% during storage in contrast with AP, which did not show a significant reduction during storage.⁶³ Although the 1- and 20-hour CCIs of BCs, APs and PRPs did not differ significantly, transfusions with PRPs resulted in more FNHTRs.⁶⁴ A recent meta-analysis comparing the efficacy and safety of AP with WBD platelets concluded that AP platelets compared with PRP have better increments post transfusion and comparable increments as compared to BC. There was no difference in the occurrence of alloimmunization and refractoriness. Moreover provided the products were leukoreduced there were no differences in the occurrence of adverse transfusion reactions. More importantly there are no data comparing AP and WBD platelets with regard to haemostatic efficacy.⁶⁵ To date there are no RCTs comparing production techniques with regard to bacterial contamination, but in a recently published large non-randomised multicenter study bacterial contamination of pooled whole blood-derived platelets versus AP was studied. In this study the rate of confirmed-positive units was 0.06 and 0.09%, respectively $p = n.s.$ ⁶⁶

In these last three decades of technical advantages in the production of platelets has allowed for an increase in storage from 1 day in the late sixties to as long as 7 days nowadays provided that an adequate screening tool for bacterial contamination is instituted. Up till 2005 only three RCTs were published investigating the effect of storage time on clinical efficacy.^{63,67,68} In the study of Shanwell et al 39 patients were randomised to receive either fresh single donor AP or APs stored for 2 – 5 days. No difference was shown.⁶⁷ In a study of 25 patients Rosenfeld et al studied platelet function as well as efficacy comparing 1-day stored APs with 4-day stored APs and showed an immediate increase in number and function of platelets post transfusion independent of storage time.⁶⁸ As compared to single donor APs, although keeping within an acceptable range, BCs showed a larger decrease in post transfusion recovery with increasing storage.⁶⁹

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During the design of our first RCT using corrected count increments as a primary endpoint, we used a non-inferiority model accepting a fairly large decrease in transfusion efficacy without really knowing what would be the biological or clinical relevance. The main concept was to convince haematologists in our regional academic centre to shift from plasma stored platelet products to platelets stored in additive solution as these had shown to reduce FNHTRs.⁵⁵ The trial used platelets produced with the BC method, were prestorage leukoreduced and patients were transfused at the conventional guidelines with regard to dose and threshold, in compliance with the evidence so far. The trial and its design do reflect the leading question today: should we keep improving safety at the expense of efficacy? Adverse transfusion reactions are rare and difficult to classify.⁸² Alloimmunisation keeps occurring at a low level despite leukoreduction, moreover the far more frequent problem of non-immunological refractoriness (that may also be related to reduced product quality) seems to be an increasing issue in need for a solution. Last but not least the risk of transmittable infectious diseases is very low, making randomised studies testing the efficacy of preventive measures virtually impossible. With regard to efficacy as an endpoint for platelet transfusion recent years have shown increasing doubts and problems with the commonly used endpoints: (corrected) count increments and bleeding.

The (corrected) count increment is a ratio correcting for a measure of blood volume and the number of transfused platelets. This method has been challenged by several authors in the field with as main arguments a bias in favour of a preparation technique with fewer platelets combined with a not adequately estimated blood volume and doubts regarding the usefulness of the CCI as a surrogate outcome measure as it does not predict the clinical outcome bleeding.^{83, 84} However the CCI is an easy quantitative and objective measure and far more standardized than the more obvious outcome measure bleeding. Apart from the lack of a validated tool for the scoring and grading of bleeding, measurement of bleeding is hampered by difficulties with regard to the methods, persons and timing of the bleeding observation in thrombocytopenic patients.^{85, 86}

This thesis encompasses two RCTs encountering many challenges with regard to the studies endpoints but more importantly raises novel and old unsolved questions to be resolved in the near future.

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