

A Brief Review Highlighting the Broad Spectrum of Haemophagocytic Lymphohistiocytosis

Narvel H^{1*}, Mazzini J¹, Shao D¹, Yakkali S³, Mehta A¹, Kumar A²

¹Department of Internal Medicine, Albert Einstein College of Medicine, Jacobi Medical Center, New York, USA; ²Department of Hematology and Oncology, Albert Einstein College of Medicine, Jacobi Medical Center, New York, USA; ³Department of Seth, G.S. Medical College and K.E.M. Hospital, Mumbai, India

ABSTRACT

HLH is a rare, life-threatening condition characterized by an ineffective hyper stimulation of the immune system which leads to a pathologic rise in cytokine levels and to a hyper inflammatory state. Many conditions like Macrophage Activation Syndrome (MAS), sepsis, malignancies and even multi-inflammatory response syndrome after COVID 19 infection share overlapping clinical presentation and laboratory findings with HLH. Our review aims to provide updated clinical-practical generalities of HLH in terms of epidemiology, pathophysiology, clinical features, and management particularly in light of COVID19. The etiology of HLH can be classified as familial or secondary/ sporadic. The differentiation of primary and secondary HLH is very important because primary HLH may require different treatment modalities like hematopoietic stem cell transplantation. Since the emergence of the SARS-CoV2 pandemic, the number of reported cases of HLH in patients with COVID19 has progressively increased. A brief overview of the etiology, genetics, and immunology of HLH is also provided. This review also highlights the diagnostic challenges associated with HLH and emphasizes that early identification, low threshold for suspicion, thorough diagnostic work up and multidisciplinary approach are crucial for timely diagnosis and optimal management.

Keywords: Haemophagocytic Lymphohistiocytosis; Hyperinflammatory syndromes; Macrophage activating syndrome

INTRODUCTION

Haemophagocytic Lymphohistiocytosis (HLH) has gathered much attention in recent years especially during the COVID19 era. HLH is characterized by an ineffective hyperstimulation of the immune system which leads to a pathologic rise in cytokine levels and to a hyperinflammatory state. This Hyperinflammation leads to multiorgan dysfunction and carries a grave prognosis. HLH can be secondary to an underlying etiology or inherited due to genetic causes termed familial HLH. Familial HLH is generally reported in infants and children, although has recently been increasingly reported in adults; while secondary HLH (sHLH) is described in the setting of infections, malignancy, autoimmune conditions, or related to an immunodeficiency state.

HLH shares pathophysiologic, clinical, and laboratory findings with other hyper inflammatory conditions, such as Macrophage Activation Syndrome (MAS) in rheumatologic illness, which carries

a poor prognosis, [1] and COVID19 hyper inflammatory syndrome. Furthermore, it shares clinical features with severe bacterial sepsis or malignancies, which makes HLH clinical diagnosis convoluted and a feasible scenario for the use of diagnostic scales [2,3].

COVID19 hyper inflammatory syndrome is associated with a cytokine storm leading to a hyper inflammatory syndrome and in some cases to sHLH. There are some differences in the clinical presentation of COVID19 related sHLH vs. COVID19 hyper inflammatory syndrome such as hepatomegaly, splenomegaly, and hypertriglyceridemia which are not commonly seen in the latter. The use of the HScore in COVID19 s. HLH is recommended in patients with hypertriglyceridemia, raised ferritin level and low platelet count as it may aid in an early HLH detection and prompt management [4]. Our review aims to provide updated clinical-practical generalities of HLH in terms of epidemiology, pathophysiology, clinical features, and management particularly in light of COVID19.

Correspondence to: Narvel H, Department of Internal Medicine, Albert Einstein College of Medicine, Jacobi Medical Center, New York, USA; E-mail: narvelhiba@gmail.com

Received: 12-Aug-2022, Manuscript No. RCR-22-18837; **Editor assigned:** 16-Aug-2022, PreQC No. RCR-22-18837 (PQ); **Reviewed:** 24-Aug-2022, QC No. RCR-22-18837; **Revised:** 05-Sep-2022, Manuscript No. RCR-22-18817 (R); **Published:** 12-Sep-2022, DOI: 10.35841/2161-1149.22.12.313

Citation: Narvel H, Mazzini J, Shao D, Yakkali S, Mehta A, Kumar A (2022) A Brief Review Highlighting the Broad Spectrum of Haemophagocytic Lymphohistiocytosis. J Rheumatol. 12: 313.

Copyright: © 2022 Narvel H, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Definition

HLH is a clinical illness characterized by extreme hypercytokinemia induced by an overactive but inefficient immune response. HLH is not a sickness of itself, it is a resultant from an underlying anomaly of the immune system's genetics or an acquired incapacity to deal appropriately with a trigger [5]. In most situations, the trigger is an infectious agent

Epidemiology

HLH is a rare disease with an annual incidence of one in 800,000 individuals and one to ten per million children in the United States [6-8]. It is typically described as a childhood illness; however, it can affect people of any age, including young adults, and elders [9,10]. Geographical variation is a classically described epidemiological feature of HLH, as the most common causes varies by nation, implying a distinct genetic background and/or differences in probable triggering factors, notably infections [11]. Since the emergence of the SARS-CoV2 pandemic, the number of reported cases of HLH in patients with COVID19 has progressively increased [12].

Pathophysiology

Generalities: The exact cellular and molecular processes behind HLH are yet unknown. Decades of clinical observation, genetic analysis, and fundamental scientific study have yielded three significant findings: 1) In HLH, the disease is driven primarily by an abnormal immune response rather than underlying triggers; 2) immune responses in HLH do not appear to target self-antigens, as seen in autoimmune diseases; and 3) uncontrolled activation of T cells (especially CD8 cytotoxic T cells), rather than macrophages, is the root abnormality in most forms of HLH [13]. Susceptibility to HLH is genetically centered on genes whose products are involved in cell-mediated cytotoxicity and lymphocyte activation/survival. Immunosuppression and persistent inflammation are other risk factors for HLH; in these circumstances, HLH is frequently induced by infection, viruses like EBV and COVID19, and other intracellular pathogens. They are a rare entity in adults and are generally reported in the pediatric population [14].

DISCUSSION

Etiology

Classically HLH is classified into familial HLH and secondary/ sporadic/reactive HLH. Different causes have been implicated in sHLH, such as infections (49%), malignancies (27%), rheumatic conditions (7%), primary or acquired immunodeficiencies (6%), and others (i.e. HLH in the setting of drug hypersensitivities, or with immune-activating therapies). Among the infectious sHLH, viral illnesses are the main described microorganisms. Among the implicated viruses EBV and CMV are the most isolated, other described viruses are HSV, RSV, rotavirus, influenza, parvovirus B19, and HIV. Cases of HIV associated HLH secondary to triggering opportunistic infections are described, particularly secondary to tuberculosis. Other implicated microorganisms are rickettsia, Brucella, Leptospira, malaria, and systemic fungal infections. COVID19 causes HLH, as is described to cause severe inflammatory syndromes with pathophysiologic similarities to

HLH. Malignancy associated HLH can be seen in up to 1% of cancers in adults and is mainly to be seen in cases of hematologic malignancy, particularly in NK, T, and B-cell lymphomas. The most common reported rheumatic conditions to be associated with HLH are adult Still's disease and systemic lupus erythematosus.

Genetics

Genetic abnormalities significantly impact juvenile HLH and are increasingly being discovered in adult disease [15-18]. Up to one-quarter of HLH cases are familial. Genetic information can predict recurrence, the requirement for hematopoietic stem-cell transplantation, and the risk of HLH in family members. Most of the first implicated "HLH-linked" genes encode components of the perforin-dependent cytotoxicity mechanism [19]. Many HLH gene mutations can be mapped to a locus that transcribes to the formation of cytokine granules and release pathways and has been labeled familial hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis loci. The chances of detecting a gene mutation are most remarkable in younger patients. In a study of 476 North American children, a gene mutation was found in 45 percent of those under the age of one month. The rates of finding a gene mutation in individuals aged two months to one year, one to two years, and more than two years were 39, 20, and 6%, respectively [20]. The most often implicated genes are PRF1 null mutations and genes that impact degranulation (e.g., UNC13D, STX11, STXBP2). Adult individuals with hypomorphic PRF1, MUNC13-4, and STXBP2 mutations have a less severe course than pediatric patients [21].

Immunology

In HLH, there is absence of the normal inflammatory downregulation by activated macrophages and lymphocytes. Natural Killer cells and/or Cytotoxic lymphocytes (CD8+) fail to remove activated macrophages. The lack of feedback control, leads to an excessive CD8+ T cell and macrophage activation, as well as to significantly increased levels of interferon-gamma (IFN γ) and other cytokines, which are thought to be accountable for multiorgan failure and the syndrome's high mortality [22-24]. IFN γ , the chemokine CXCL9 (which is controlled by IFN γ), tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF alpha), interleukins (IL) particularly IL-6, IL-10, IL-12, and the soluble IL-2 receptor (CD25) have all been described at exceptionally high levels in the plasma of HLH patients [25-26]. In a study by Gursoy et al., severe COVID19 with cytokine storm displays symptoms comparable to hyperinflammatory syndromes but differs in the cytokine storm and certain clinical characteristics seen in MAS/sHLH [27].

Clinical characteristics

Like other viral infections such as CMV and EBV, SARS-CoV2 infection, regardless of vaccination status, can also cause secondary HLH, especially in immunocompromised patients with autoimmune disease, organ transplant, or receiving immunosuppressive therapy. There is a significant overlap between features of severe COVID-19 and those included in the HLH-2004 diagnostic criteria, such as fever, cytopenia and hyperferritinemia. Physical exam or imaging might show lymphadenopathy and/or splenomegaly, but those are less frequently reported [28,29]. Hypertriglyceridemia and/or hyperfibrinogenemia can be present and might be related to poor prognosis [30,31]. While lymphopenia is a key feature of severe COVID-19 and has prognostic values, bicytopenia and pancytopenia are relatively less common in COVID-19 patients

without complications [32,33]. Thus, multiple cell line involvement in severe COVID-19 might indicate progression or complication of the disease [34]. Multisystem inflammatory syndrome or cytokine release syndrome can present as complications of severe COVID-19 independent of HLH but share similar pathophysiology [35,36]. Qiurong Ruan et al. reported that common risk factors of mortality in COVID-19 infection are elevated ferritin and IL-6 level, which are crucial features in patients with HLH [37,38].

Diagnosis

Diagnosis of HLH in COVID-19 is mainly based on the HLH-2004 diagnosis criteria [39]. Elevated serum soluble CD25 (i.e., interleukin-2 receptor) level and low/absent NK cell activity are specific for HLH diagnosis and prognosis but might not be routinely performed due to laboratory limitations [40]. Pathologic evidence of HLH through tissue biopsies such as bone marrow, lymph node or liver biopsy is diagnostic. However, due to the high morbidity and mortality of the illness, HLH-specific treatment should not be delayed if five out of eight HLH-2004 diagnostic criteria (Table 1) are met even without a tissue biopsy. A more practical method is to use the HScore (Table 2) to predict the likelihood of HLH and initiate treatment [41]. Mei Meng et al. reported that a high HScore (>98 instead of the commonly used cutoff 169) was an independent predictor of mortality in severe COVID-19 patients with HLH. However, clinicians should understand the limitations of the HScore system, such as possible lack of sensitivity and inadequate published data when utilizing it for a presumed diagnosis of HLH in COVID-19 patients. The CDC criteria and the Brighton Collaboration Case Definition can help differentiate Multi-inflammatory response syndrome after COVID-19 infection from HLH.

Table 1: Diagnostic criteria of hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis -HLH-2004.

| Eight Hemophagocytic Lympho Histiocytosis-2004 diagnostic criteria |
|---|
| 1. Molecular diagnosis consistent with HLH |
| 2. Fulfill HLH diagnostic criteria (5 out of the 8 criteria shown below) |
| (1) Fever $\geq 38.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ for ≥ 7 days |
| (2) Splenomegaly (usually based on radiographic evidence) |
| (3) Cytopenia affecting ≥ 2 of 3 lineages in peripheral blood (Hemoglobin $<9\text{ g/L}^*$, Platelets $<100 \times 10^9/\text{L}$, or Absolute Neutrophil Count (ANC) $<1.0 \times 10^9/\text{L}$) |
| (4) Hypertriglyceridemia (Fasting triglycerides $\geq 265\text{ mg/dL}$), and/or hypofibrinogenemia (Serum fibrinogen $\leq 1.5\text{ g/L}$) |
| (5) Evidence of hemophagocytosis in the bone marrow or spleen or lymph node |
| (6) Low or absent NK cell activity (according to the local laboratory reference) |
| (7) Ferritin $\geq 500\text{ }\mu\text{g/L}$ |
| (8) Soluble CD25 (sIL-2 receptor) $\geq 2,400\text{ U/mL}$ |

Note: Diagnosis will be established if one of either (1) or (2) is fulfilled.

*According to HLH-2004 diagnostic criteria, in infants <4 weeks the cutoff hemoglobin is 100 g/L

Abbreviations: HLH, hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis; NK, natural killer; sIL-2, soluble interleukin-2.

Table 2: H-Score for diagnosis of hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis.

| A more practical method is to use the H Score | | |
|--|---------------------------------------|----|
| Variable | Points | |
| Known underlying immunosuppression* | No | 0 |
| | Yes | 18 |
| Temperature, °F (°C) | <101.1 (<38.4) | 0 |
| | 101.1 - 102.9 (38.4 - 39.4) | 33 |
| | >102.9 (>39.4) | 49 |
| Organomegaly | No | 0 |
| | Hepatomegaly or splenomegaly | 23 |
| | Hepatomegaly and splenomegaly | 38 |
| Numbers of Cytopenias** | 1 lineage | 0 |
| | 2 lineages | 24 |
| | 3 lineages | 34 |
| Ferritin, ng/ml ($\mu\text{g/L}$) | $<2,000$ | 0 |
| | $2,000$ - $6,000$ | 35 |
| | $>6,000$ | 50 |
| Triglyceride, mg/dL (mmol/L) | <132.7 (<1.5) | 0 |
| | 132.7 - 354 (1.5 - 4) | 44 |
| | >354 (>4) | 64 |
| Fibrinogen, mg/dL (g/L) | >250 (>2.5) | 0 |
| | ≤ 250 (≤ 2.5) | 30 |
| AST, U/L | < 30 | 0 |
| | ≥ 30 | 19 |
| Hemophagocytosis features on bone marrow aspirate | No | 0 |
| | Yes | 35 |

Note: Interpretation: the best cutoff value for H-Score was 169, corresponding to a sensitivity of 93%, specificity of 86%, and accurate classification of 90% of the patients. *HIV positive for receiving long-term immunosuppressive therapy (i.e. glucocorticoids, cyclosporine, azathioprine). **Defined as hemoglobin $\leq 9.2\text{ g/dL}$ ($\leq 5.71\text{ mmol/L}$), and/or WBC $\leq 5,000/\text{mm}^3$ and or platelets $\leq 110,000/\text{mm}^3$.

Management

Management consists of anti-viral treatment for COVID-19 and immuno-chemotherapy for HLH. Corticosteroids, especially dexamethasone given its long duration and central venous system permeability is the mainstay of treatment, targeting the hyperactivation of inflammatory factors seen in both COVID-19 and HLH. Etoposide-based chemotherapy has shown to be effective in inducing remission. It acts as a cytotoxic agent that directly kills excessively proliferated T cells [42]. Cytokine-specific treatments such as IL-1 inhibitor Anakinra or IL-6 inhibitor tocilizumab [43,44] are being used, but more prospective data are needed to solidify the mortality and prognosis benefit in those patients [45,46]. Most of the time, patients with COVID-19-induced HLH are critically ill and are prone to opportunistic infection due to lymphopenia/neutropenia related to COVID-19 infection and cytotoxic agent. Supportive treatments such as antibiotics/antifungals, ventilation, and pressor support are crucial and case specific. Allogeneic Hematopoietic Stem Cell Treatment (HSCT) is the last resort for refractory disease despite induction therapy or reactivated HLH. Continuation therapy using the same dose of dexamethasone and etoposide are commonly used before HSCT. However, the efficacy and benefit of HSCT in COVID-19-induced HLH are not well studied [47,48].

CONCLUSION

HLH is a rare, life-threatening condition that can be triggered by diverse etiologies including severe and life-threatening COVID-19. Given its dismal prognosis, and increased incidence in COVID-19 times, a low threshold for suspicion should be considered in patients with COVID-19 or other etiologies associated with HLH who presents with high grade fever, cytopenias, organomegaly, ARDS, and/or marked dysregulation of inflammatory markers. It is worth noting that Multi inflammatory response syndromes that occur after COVID-19 infection are difficult to differentiate from HLH and may occur in a fully vaccinated adult with COVID-19 infection.

Early identification of cases should lead to a rapid multidisciplinary approach. This approach should comprehend hematology and oncology specialists, rheumatologists, critical care and pulmonary specialists, internists, and infectious diseases specialists, with the end goal to rapidly start an aggressive and specialty-consensus antiviral and immunochemotherapeutic individual-tailored treatment. Although studies are limited to validate the use of scores for the diagnosis of HLH in SARS-CoV2 infection, the use of HScore, and/or the HLH-2004 diagnosis criteria may aid the clinician in an earlier detection of this devastating disease.

REFERENCES

- Grom AA, Horne A, de Benedetti F. Macrophage activation syndrome in the era of biologic therapy. *Nat Rev Rheumatol.* 2016;12(5):259-268.
- Akenroye AT, Madan N, Mohammadi F, Leider J. Hemophagocytic Lymphohistiocytosis mimics many common conditions: Case series and review of literature. *Eur Ann Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2017;49(1):31-41.
- Fardet L, Galicier L, Lambotte O, Marzac C, Aumont C, Chahwan D, et al. Development and validation of the HScore: A score for the diagnosis of reactive hemophagocytic syndrome. *Arthritis Rheumatol.* 2014;66(9):2613-2620.
- Meng M, Chen L, Zhang S, Dong X, Li W, Li R, et al. Risk factors for secondary hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis in severe coronavirus disease 2019 adult patients. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2021;21(1):14.
- Janka GE, Lehmborg K. Hemophagocytic syndromes—an update. *Blood Rev.* 2014 ;28(4):135-142.
- Aricò M, Danesino C, Pende D, Moretta L. Pathogenesis of haemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis. *Br J Haematol.* 2001;114(4):761-769.
- Niece JA, Rogers ZR, Ahmad N, Langevin AM, McClain KL. Hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis in Texas: Observations on ethnicity and race. *Pediatr Blood Cancer.* 2010;54(3):424-428.
- Biank VF, Sheth MK, Talano J, Margolis D, Simpson P, Kugathasan S, et al. Association of Crohn's disease, thiopurines, and primary Epstein-Barr virus infection with hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis. *J Pediatr.* 2011;159(5):808-812.
- Shin HJ, Chung JS, Lee JJ, Sohn SK, Choi YJ, Kim YK, et al. Treatment outcomes with CHOP chemotherapy in adult patients with hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis. *J Korean Med Sci.* 2008;23(3):439-444.
- Nagafuji K, Nonami A, Kumano T, Kikushige Y, Yoshimoto G, Takenaka K, et al. Perforin gene mutations in adult-onset hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis. *Haematologica.* 2007;92(7):978-981.
- Imajoh M, Hashida Y, Murakami M, Maeda A, Sato T, Fujieda M, et al. Characterization of Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) BZLF1 gene promoter variants and comparison of cellular gene expression profiles in Japanese patients with infectious mononucleosis, chronic active EBV infection, and EBV-associated hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis. *J Med Virol.* 2012;84(6):940-946.
- Retamozo S, Brito-Zerón P, Sisó-Almirall A, Flores-Chávez A, Soto-Cárdenas MJ, Ramos-Casals M. Haemophagocytic syndrome and COVID-19. *Clin Rheumatol.* 2021;40(4):1233-1244.
- Jordan MB, Allen CE, Greenberg J, Henry M, Hermiston ML, Kumar A, et al. Challenges in the diagnosis of hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis: Recommendations from the North American Consortium for Histiocytosis (NACHO). *Pediatr Blood Cancer.* 2019;66(11):e27929.
- Dhote R, Simon J, Papo T, Detournay B, Sailler L, Andre MH, et al. Reactive hemophagocytic syndrome in adult systemic disease: report of twenty-six cases and literature review. *Arthritis Rheum.* 2003;49(5):633-639.
- Stepp SE, Dufourcq-Lagelouse R, Deist FL, Bhawan S, Certain S, Mathew PA, et al. Perforin gene defects in familial hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis. *Science.* 1999;286(5446):1957-1959.
- Zhang K, Chandrakasan S, Chapman H, Valencia CA, Husami A, Kissell D, et al. Synergistic defects of different molecules in the cytotoxic pathway lead to clinical familial hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis. *Blood.* 2014;124(8):1331-1334.
- Zur Stadt U, Schmidt S, Kasper B, Beutel K, Diler AS, Henter JI, et al. Linkage of familial hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis (FHL) type-4 to chromosome 6q24 and identification of mutations in syntaxin 11. *Hum Mol Genet.* 2005;14(6):827-834.
- Ohadi M, Lalloz MR, Sham P, Zhao J, Dearlove AM, Shiach C, et al. Localization of a gene for familial hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis at chromosome 9q21. 3-22 by homozygosity mapping. *Am J Hum Genet.* 1999;64(1):165-171.
- Freeman HR, Ramanan AV. Review of haemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis. *Arch Dis Child.* 2011;96(7):688-693.
- Jordan MB, Allen CE, Weitzman S, Filipovich AH, McClain KL. How I treat hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis. *Blood.* 2011;118(15):4041-4052.
- Zhang K, Jordan MB, Marsh RA, Johnson JA, Kissell D, Meller J, et al. Hypomorphic mutations in PRF1, MUNC134, and STXBP2 are associated with adult-onset familial HLH. *Blood.* 2011;118(22):5794-5798.
- Filipovich A, McClain K, Grom A. Histiocytic disorders: Recent insights into pathophysiology and practical guidelines. *Biol Blood Marrow Transplant.* 2010;16(1):S82-89.
- Schmid JP, Côte M, Ménager MM, Burgess A, Nehme N, Ménasché G, et al. Inherited defects in lymphocyte cytotoxic activity. *Immunol Rev.* 2010;235(1):10-23.
- Risma K, Jordan MB. Hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis: Updates and evolving concepts. *Curr Opin Pediatr.* 2012;24(1):9-15.
- Ivashkiv LB, Donlin LT. Regulation of type I interferon responses. *Nat Rev Immunol.* 2014;14(1):36-49.
- Aricò M, Danesino C, Pende D, Moretta L. Pathogenesis of haemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis. *Br J Haematol.* 2001;114(4):761-9.
- Gürsoy B, Sürmeli CD, Alkan M, Satıcı C, Altunok ES, Kamat S, et al. Cytokine storm in severe COVID-19 pneumonia. *J Med Virol.* 2021;93(9):5474-5480.
- Henter JI, Horne A, Aricò M, Egeler RM, Filipovich AH, Imashuku S, et al. HLH-2004: diagnostic and therapeutic guidelines for hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis. *Pediatr Blood Cancer.* 2007;48(2):124-31.
- Ruscitti P, Bruno F, Berardicurti O, Acanfora C, Pavlych V, Palumbo P, et al. Lung involvement in macrophage activation syndrome and severe COVID-19: Results from a cross-sectional study to assess clinical, laboratory and artificial intelligence-radiological differences. *Ann Rheum Dis.* 2020;79(9):1152-1155.

30. Clark KE, Nevin WD, Mahungu T, Lachmann H, Singh A. Assessment of the hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis HScore in patients with coronavirus disease 2019. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2021;73(9):e3110-2.
31. Valade S, Azoulay E, Galicier L, Boutboul D, Zafrani L, Stepanian A, et al. Coagulation disorders and bleedings in critically ill patients with hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis. *Medicine.* 2015;94(40).
32. Park HS, Kim DY, Lee JH, Lee JH, Kim SD, Park YH, et al. Clinical features of adult patients with secondary hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis from causes other than lymphoma: An analysis of treatment outcome and prognostic factors. *Ann Hematol.* 2012 ;91(6):897-904.
33. Tholin B, Hauge MT, Aukrust P, Fehrle L, Tvedt TH. Hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis in a patient with COVID-19 treated with tocilizumab: A case report. *J Med Case Rep.* 2020;14(1):1-5.
34. Loscocco GG, Malandrino D, Barchiesi S, Berni A, Poggese L, Guglielmelli P, Vannucchi AM. The HScore for secondary hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis, calculated without a marrow biopsy, is consistently low in patients with COVID-19. *Int J Lab Hematol.* 2020:e270-3.
35. Romero J, Mazzini J, Yellapragada SV, Sosa IR, Rivero GA. Elderly Hemopoietic and Inflammatory Signature for Life-Threatening COVID-19 Infection. *Blood.* 2020;136:36-37.
36. Lorenz G, Moog P, Bachmann Q, La Rosée P, Schneider H, Schlegl M, et al. Cytokine release syndrome is not usually caused by secondary hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis in a cohort of 19 critically ill COVID-19 patients. *Sci Rep.* 2020;10(1):1-11.
37. Narvel H, Kaur A, Seo J, Kumar A. multisystem inflammatory syndrome in adults or hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis: A clinical conundrum in fully vaccinated adults with breakthrough covid-19 infections. *Cureus.* 2022;14(2).
38. Mehta P, McAuley DF, Brown M, Sanchez E, Tattersall RS, Manson JJ. COVID-19: Consider cytokine storm syndromes and immunosuppression. *Lancet.* 2020;395(10229):1033-1034.
39. Ruan Q, Yang K, Wang W, Jiang L. Song, JI: CAS: 528: DC% 2BB3cXkt1erurk% 3D: Clinical predictors of mortality due to COVID-19 based on an analysis of data of 150 patients from Wuhan, China. vol. 46, issue 5. *Intensive Care Med.* 2020:846-848.
40. Henter JI, Horne A, Aricó M, Egeler RM, Filipovich AH, Imashuku S, et al. HLH-2004: diagnostic and therapeutic guidelines for hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis. *Pediatr Blood Cancer.* 2007 Feb;48(2):124-131.
41. Imashuku S, Hibi S, Sako M, Ishida Y, Mugishima H, Chen J, et al. Soluble interleukin-2 receptor: A useful prognostic factor for patients with hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis. *Blood.* 1995;86(12):4706-4707.
42. England JT, Abdulla A, Biggs CM, Lee AY, Hay KA, Hoiland RL, et al. Weathering the COVID-19 storm: Lessons from hematologic cytokine syndromes. *Blood Rev.* 2021;45:100707.
43. Kim YR, Kim DY. Current status of the diagnosis and treatment of hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis in adults. *Blood Res.* 2021;56(S1):S17-S25.
44. Cavalli G, de Luca G, Campochiaro C, Della-Torre E, Ripa M, Canetti D, et al. Interleukin-1 blockade with high-dose anakinra in patients with COVID-19, acute respiratory distress syndrome, and hyperinflammation: A retrospective cohort study. *Lancet Rheumatol.* 2020;2(6):e325-331.
45. Mehta P, Cron RQ, Hartwell J, Manson JJ, Tattersall RS. Silencing the cytokine storm: The use of intravenous anakinra in haemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis or macrophage activation syndrome. *Lancet Rheumatol.* 2020;2(6):e358-367.
46. de la Calle C, López-Medrano F, Pablos JL, Lora-Tamayo J, Maestro-de la Calle G, Sánchez-Fernández M, et al. Effectiveness of anakinra for tocilizumab-refractory severe COVID-19: A single-centre retrospective comparative study. *Int J Infect Dis.* 2021;105:319-325.
47. Başaran S, Şimşek-Yavuz S, Meşe S, Çağatay A, Medetalibeyoğlu A, Öncül O, et al. The effect of tocilizumab, anakinra and prednisolone on antibody response to SARS-CoV-2 in patients with COVID-19: A prospective cohort study with multivariate analysis of factors affecting the antibody response. *Int J Infect Dis.* 2021;105:756-762.
48. Narvel H, Kaur A, Seo J, Kumar A. Multisystem Inflammatory Syndrome in Adults or Hemophagocytic Lymphohistiocytosis: A Clinical Conundrum in Fully Vaccinated Adults With Breakthrough COVID-19 Infections. *Cureus.* 2022;14(2).