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REVIEW

Haematology

Immune thrombocytopenic purpura secondary to COVID-19 vaccination: A systematic review

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Abstract

Introduction: This systematic review aimed to retrieve patients diagnosed with de novo immune thrombocytopenic purpura (ITP) after COVID-19 immunization to determine their epidemiological characteristics, clinical course, therapeutic strategies, and outcome.

Materials and Methods: We conducted the review using four major databases, comprising PubMed, Scopus, Web of Science, and the Cochrane library, until April 2022. A systematic search was performed in duplicate to access eligible articles in English. Furthermore, a manual search was applied to the chosen papers' references to enhance the search sensitivity. Data were extracted and analyzed with the SPSS 20.1 software.

Results: A total of 77 patients with de novo COVID-19 vaccine-associated ITP were identified from 41 studies, including 31 case reports and 10 case series. The median age of patients who developed COVID-19 vaccine-associated ITP was 54 years (IQR 36–72 years). The mRNA-based COVID-19 vaccines, including BNT16B2b2 and mRNA-1273, were most implicated (75.4%). Those were followed by the adenovirus vector-based vaccines, inclusive of ChAdOx1 nCoV-19 and vAd26.COV2.S. No report was found relating ITP to other COVID-19 vaccines. Most cases (79.2%) developed ITP after the first dose of COVID-19 vaccination. 75% of the patients developed ITP within 12 days of vaccination, indicating a shorter lag time compared to ITP after routine childhood vaccinations. Sixty-seven patients (87%) patients were hospitalized. The management pattern was similar to primary ITP, and systemic glucocorticoids, IVIg, or both were the basis of the treatment in most patients. Most patients achieved therapeutic goals; only two individuals required a secondary admission, and one patient who presented with intracranial hemorrhage died of the complication.

Conclusions: De novo ITP is a rare complication of COVID-19 vaccination, and corresponding reports belong to mRNA-based and adenovirus vector-based vaccines, in order of frequency. This frequency pattern may be related to the scale of administration of individual vaccines and their potency in inducing autoimmunity. The more the COVID-19 vaccine is potent to induce antigenic challenge, the shorter the lag time

Ali Bidari and Sara Asgarian contributed equally to this study (Co-first authors).

would be. Most patients had a benign course and responded to typical treatments of primary ITP.

KEYWORDS

COVID-19, idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura, immune thrombocytopenia, platelet, SARS-CoV-2, vaccine

NOVELTY STATEMENT

What is the new aspect of your work?

This study is the first systematic review on one of the rare but potentially life-threatening adverse effects of SARS-CoV-2 vaccination.

What is the central finding of your work?

Clinical presentations of COVID-19 vaccine-associated ITP (COVID-19 VITP) are very similar to idiopathic ITP and the mRNA-based and adenovirus vector-based vaccines are the most common culprits of COVID-19 VITP, respectively.

What is (or could be) the specific clinical relevance of your work?

Most COVID-19 VITP cases have a benign disease course and respond to treatment appropriately.

1 | INTRODUCTION

Since the emergence of SARS-CoV-2 in 2019, COVID-19 is still an ongoing pandemic that has devastated global health. It has resulted in an iconic international cooperative effort to produce and distribute vaccines to limit the outbreak, safeguard human lives, and avert further socio-economic impacts. $1-4$ $1-4$ COVID-19 vaccines have shown substantial efficacy in clinical trials and real-world data.⁵

However, the safety and adverse effects of the COVID-19 vaccines have been a major public concern, resulting in vaccine hesitancy that necessitates ongoing and comprehensive observation and research.^{[6](#page-17-0)–9} Contrary to mild and moderate local or systemic adverse effects that may occur after vaccination, intense medical conse-quences are uncommon.^{[2,10,11](#page-16-0)} Several case series, nevertheless, revealed hematological problems such as immune thrombocytopenic purpura (ITP) induced by vaccination.^{[8,12](#page-17-0)}

ITP is an autoimmune disease of platelet destruction resulting in a platelet count below 100 000 per cubic millimeter and has an inci-dence of two to five cases per 100 000 person-years.^{[13,14](#page-17-0)} Even today, it is quite frustrating that ITP remains a diagnosis of exclusion.^{[15](#page-17-0)} The most common type of ITP is the idiopathic primary condition, though it can also be found secondary to other conditions, such as systemic autoimmune disorders, medications, a variety of infections, and vacci-nations.^{[14,16](#page-17-0)} The latter is termed vaccine-associated ITP and has been reported following different types of vaccines. This phenomenon, still rare, has been diagnosed more frequently since employing programs for massive vaccination against COVID-19. 17 17 17 Similar to primary ITP, COVID-19 vaccine-associated ITP can manifest with a broad range of bleeding symptoms, from petechiae to fatal bleeding.^{18,19}

Nonetheless, it remains unclear whether COVID-19 vaccineassociated ITP is self-limited or persists and progresses to chronic $IP¹⁷$

The recent literature has witnessed a surge in research on COVID-19 vaccine-associated ITP. Several reports or case series have shown new presentations of ITP following different COVID-19 vacci-nations.^{[7,12,20](#page-17-0)} However, none of the prior works provide systematic information concerning the subject.

This systematic review aimed to highlight the characteristics of COVID-19 vaccine-associated ITP by analyzing the reaction onset, clinical manifestations, laboratory features, and management strategies based on pooled data extracted from the literature.

2 | MATERIALS AND METHOD

2.1 | Protocol and registration

This systematic review was conducted, and the results were reported according to Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) guidelines.²¹

2.2 | Search strategy and databases

Two researchers (APM and SA) conducted an independent search on major databases, including PubMed, Scopus, Web of Science, and Cochrane library, and retrieved all eligible articles published until 13 April, 2022. The adopted search keywords were COVID-19, coronavirus disease 2019, SARS-CoV-2, vaccine, vaccination, specific COVID-19 vaccine names, AND ITP, immune thrombocytopenia, ITP, idiopathic thrombocytopenia, idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura, petechiae, bleeding and their close word variations in addition to the related MESH terms. Table S1 represents the search strategy applied to each database. Furthermore, a manual search was performed through the selected articles' references to avoid missing relevant studies.

2.3 | Eligibility criteria

The eligible articles included case reports, case series, and observational studies that reported at least one case of de novo ITP following COVID-19 vaccination. Our search was limited to the original clinical studies published in English and did not include in vitro or animal studies. To enhance search validity, we sought to exclude reports and studies on vaccine-induced immune thrombotic thrombocytopenia (VITT), cerebral venous sinus thrombosis (CVST), disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC), heparin-induced thrombocytopenia (HIT), thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura (TTP) or inferring evidence of thrombosis, COVID-19 infection-induced ITP, or thrombocytopenia with any justification other than ITP. In addition, any case with evidence of previous episodes of ITP suggesting a relapse or exacerbation (depending on chronological interlude) was set aside from the final analysis.

2.4 | Screening

After removing study duplicates from the initial search results, two reviewers (APM and SA) independently screened the titles and abstracts of the retrieved articles to check gross relevancy. Afterward, MGM, SA, DN, and SRA formed two separate groups and scrutinized initially selected articles' full text to ascertain eligibility. Subsequently, the two groups cross-checked their results as a quality control measure. Disagreements were resolved in online meeting sessions held with the guidance of AB as the senior researcher.

2.5 | Case duplicates removal

We exerted a careful effort across included studies to eliminate case duplicates. For that purpose, a computer-assisted algorithm was generated. Eligible cases were extracted from included studies, and a trio of variables, including age, gender, and vaccine type, was used collectively for screening duplicates according to the algorithm. In this step, potential duplicates were indexed. Subsequently, two independent researchers (AP and MGM) reviewed the index cases for other available details such as demographic data, clinical manifestations, and applied management. Lastly, we removed verified duplicates.

2.6 | Data extraction

Data extraction was initiated by generating a structured database containing articles' titles, authors, and publication dates. Then, the following detailed information was obtained for every patient: the medical and drug history, vaccine brand and dose, time lag to develop ITP, selected clinical findings, and relevant laboratory markers such as platelet count prior to vaccination, platelet count at admission, the nadir platelet count, anti-platelet antibodies (nonspecific anti-platelet IgG antibodies, anti-platelet factor IV, anti GP IIb/IIIa), peripheral blood smear and bone marrow aspiration/biopsy findings, mode and setting of the treatment, length of hospital stay, and convalescent platelet count. Any patients with positive anti-platelet factor IV in laboratory data were excluded.

2.7 | Statistical analysis

Descriptive data were reported using frequency, median, mean, and standard deviation. Comparison across groups was made using Chisquare and Kruskal–Wallis test for qualitative and quantitative data, respectively. p values less than .05 were considered statistically significant. SPSS 20.1 software was used for all analyses.

3 | RESULTS

3.1 | Summary of evidence

A total of 1040 published articles were identified from four different databases: PubMed, Scopus, Web of Science, and Cochrane. Thereof, 320 articles were duplicated and removed. The remaining articles were screened for gross eligibility by evaluating titles and abstracts. As a result, 95 articles were selected. From excluded, most pertained to VITT. In the last screening step, the articles' full texts were scanned and scrutinized to determine whether they fulfilled all eligibility criteria. Accordingly, 54 articles were dismissed from the final analysis for various reasons; the most common were ITP relapse (14 articles) and inadequate data (12 articles). Eventually, we adopted 41 articles for our systematic review. Figure [1](#page-3-0) depicts the PRISMA chart.

3.2 | Baseline characteristics

A total of 77 patients with de novo post-COVID-19 vaccination ITP were identified from 41 articles, including 31 case reports and 10 case series. Females were dominant, comprising 46 (59.7%) of the entire selected cases. The median age of the study population was 54 years (IQR 36–72 years). The culprit COVID-19 vaccine types in the study population included BNT16B2b2 mRNA vaccine (Pfizer-BioNTech) in 35 cases (45.5%), mRNA-1273 vaccine (Moderna) in 23 cases (29.9%), ChAdOx1 nCoV-19 vaccine (AstraZeneca) 17 cases (22.1%), and Ad26.COV2.S vaccine (Johnson & Johnson) in two cases (2.6%).

Sixty-one patients (79.2%) were diagnosed with ITP after receiving the first vaccine dose for COVID-19, 14 patients (18.2%) after the second dose, one patient following the booster dose (1.3%), and the dose number was not specified in another case. The first and second vaccine doses were from the same brand for patients who developed ITP after the second dose. The premorbid autoimmune disease was cited in only eight patients (10.4%). The information for each case in all included studies are represented in Tables [1](#page-4-0) and [2](#page-13-0) demonstrates the summary of the entire extracted cases.

3.3 | ITP lag time and manifestations

Among 71 patients with available data, the median time between vaccination and the clinical presentation of ITP was 7 days (IQR 3–12). While ITP in 75% of cases had been presented by day 12 of vaccination, a lag time from 1 to 35 days was observed. The median lag times for the four different types of vaccines were calculated separately. The figure for BNT16B2b2 mRNA vaccine was 5 days (IQR 3–7.7), for mRNA-1273 vaccine was 7.5 days (IQR 1.75–13.5), for ChAdOx1 nCoV-19 vaccine was 11.0 days (IQR 5–16), and for Ad26.COV2.S vaccine was 24.5 days. Kruskal–Wallis test was conducted to examine the differences on duration onset of ITP reaction according to the types of vaccines administered. A significant difference (Chi square $= 10.25$, $p = .017$, df $= 3$) was found among the four categories of vaccine.

At the time of diagnosis, 10 patients (13%) had no evidence of thrombocytopenic-related bleeding, while 62 patients (80.5%) exhibited signs of bleeding, and clinical manifestations were not described in the other five cases (6.4%). The most prevalent manifestations were cutaneous involvement, encompassing petechiae, purpura, and ecchymoses, reported in 70.1% of the patients. Mucosal manifestations were seen in 46.7% of the patients. In 22.1% of the cases, internal organ involvements including hemoptysis, hematuria, scleral hemorrhage, gastrointestinal bleeding, vaginal bleeding, and cerebral hemorrhage were reported. Four individuals had intracranial hemorrhage (ICH), one of them had a fatal outcome. 22

Evans syndrome, a rare condition characterized by the coexistence of autoimmune hemolytic anemia (AIHA) and ITP, was diagnosed in one case after receiving the BNT16B2b2 mRNA vaccine.

3.4 | Laboratory findings

Seventeen patients had available prior-to-vaccination platelet count, which ranged from 126×10^9 /L to 429×10^9 /L with a median of 220×10^9 /L (IQR 172.5-255 $\times 10^9$ /L). Patients' platelet count at admission had a median of 3 \times 10⁹/L (IQR 2-10 \times 10⁹/L) and a mode of 2×10^9 /L. The minimum platelet count on the initial day of admission was <1 \times 10⁹/L, and the maximum count was 66 \times 10⁹/L. The median platelet nadir count was 4.5 \times 10 $^{\circ}$ /L (IQR 1.25–26.75 \times 10 $^{\circ}$ /L) in 12 cases with attainable data, ranged from <1 to 59 \times 10 $^{\circ}$ /L.

TABLE 1 Epidemiologic characteristics of included cases

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immobilization of platelet antigen; MGUS, monoclonal gammopathy of undetermined significance; NL, within normal range; NM, not mentioned; OCP, oral contraceptive pills; Plt, platelets; PCOS, poly cystic ovary syndrome;
PSL immobilization of platelet antigen; MGUS, monoclonal gammopathy of undetermined significance; NL, within normal range; NM, not mentioned; OCP, oral contraceptive pills; Plt, platelets; PCOS, poly cystic ovary syndrome; Abbreviations: AF, atrial fibrillation; AIDP, inflammatory demyelinating polyneuropathy; Anti PF-4, anti-platelet factor 4; CABG, coronary artery bypass graft; CAD, coronary artery disease; CKD, chronic kidney disease; DLP, ADDIEVIALION. AT, au al indition, ADC, Himaliiniauvy verinyeirialiai povineuropauv, And Française (ADC, November 2010) y Dypass gait, CAD, Condity arely unsease, CAD, Circuity Vissese, DC, DA, indidentia; DM, diabetes mell dyslipidemia; DM, diabetes mellitus; EPAG, eltrombopag; GERD, gastroesophageal reflux disease; HTN, hypertension; IDA, iron deficiency anemia; IVIG, intravenous immune globulin; MAIPA, monoclonal antibody-specific PSL, prednisolone; PSIFT, platelet suspension immunofluorescence test; RA, rheumatoid arthritis; TPO-RA, thrombopoietin receptor agonist. ₹

TABLE 1 (Continued)

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14 WILEY-Haematology BIDARI ET AL.

TABLE 2 Summary of patients' demographics

Patients underwent various tests based on managing physicians' discretion. In 36 patients (46.7%), antiplatelet antibodies were evaluated. Anti-platelet factor-4 antibody was negative in all 16 tested patients (20.7%). Anti-Glycoprotein IIb/IIIa was assessed in 19 patients (24.6%), it was negative in 16 patients (20.8%) and positive in three (3.9%). In four patients (5.1%), non-specific antibodies against platelets were detected.

Data for the peripheral blood smear (PBS) was available in 21 patients (27.2%); 20 patients had no morphologic changes in leukocytes and red blood cells. In one patient's PBS, rare schistocytes were seen, but other evidence was against the diagnosis of thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura (TTP). Bone marrow aspiration was performed in 15 patients (19.5%), which showed megakaryocyte proliferation in nine patients (11.7%), and

histopathologic findings in other reports were otherwise negligible.

3.5 | Treatment and clinical outcomes

Management settings of 69 patients were procurable; of them, only two (2.5%) were managed ambulatory. For 67 patients (87%) who were hospitalized, the median length of hospital stay was 6 days (IQR 4–13 days).

Glucocorticoids, alone or in combination, were used in 62 (80.5%) patients. The most frequent corticosteroid choices were prednisolone or methylprednisolone in 34 (44.2%) and dexamethasone in 19 (24.7%) patients. The next frequent medication was intravenous immunoglobulin (IVIg), used in 47 (61%) patients. Thrombopoietin receptor agonists (TPO-RA) were administered in 12 (15.6%) cases, with eltrombopag accounting for 8 (10.4%) and romiplostim accounting for 3 (3.9%) of circumstances. Six (7.8%) patients received rituximab as a rescue treatment, as they had not responded to a combination of treatments at least including corticosteroids and IVIg. Except for one, who had already sustained ICH and was pronounced to death, others improved.

Medications were implemented apart or in various combinations. Thirteen (16.9%) patients received corticosteroids alone, 19 (24.7%) in combination with IVIg, 4 (5.2%) in combination with platelet transfusion, and 14 (18.2%) in combination with both IVIg and platelet transfusion. One patient (1.3%) was given corticosteroids jointly with TPO-RA and platelet transfusion. Five patients (6.5%) received corticosteroids in combination with IVIg, TPO-RA, and platelet transfusion. One patient (1.3%) was managed by IVIg alone, and four patients (5.2%) underwent platelet transfusion as the only management modality. In two patients (2.6%), a combination of IVIg and platelet transfusion was the basis of treatment.

In summary, corticosteroids and IVIg, alone or in combination, were the most common treatment modalities. The various treatment strategies were successful in most circumstances. Nevertheless, platelet counts dropped in two patients after discharge, necessitating readmission.

A follow-up platelet count was available in 39 patients, of whom two achieved normal platelet counts. The included studies adopted different targets of platelet count to define a treatment response. Platelet counts of 30 \times 10⁹/L and 50 \times 10⁹/L were the most adopted thresholds, and according to those definitions, 38 and 35 patients responded to treatment, respectively.^{13,23}

4 | DISCUSSION

There is another systematic review on the COVID-19 vaccine and its association with ITP, which covers both de novo and relapsed ITP. However, we assume induction of de novo ITP following COVID-19 vaccination differs in pathophysiology from relapsed ITP post-COVID-19 vaccination, which primarily occurs due to another cause

than COVID-19 vaccination. Accordingly, this is the first study that systematically reviews the medical literature for a specific focus on de novo ITP following COVID-19 immunization.²⁴ We observed that COVID-19 vaccine-associated ITP was more frequent in the middleaged population and female gender. Most reported cases developed ITP after the first dose of vaccination. Furthermore, the mRNA-based and adenovirus vector-based COVID-19 vaccines were the most prevalent culprits in order of frequency.

Hemorrhagic mucocutaneous manifestations were the most common presentation, and thrombocytopenia was moderate to severe at the outset in affected patients. The vast majority of patients were managed in an in-patient setting and received various therapeutic regimens that included either glucocorticoids, IVIg, or both. Therapeutic goals were accomplished in most patients who had available followup data.

4.1 | COVID-19 vaccine-associated ITP pathophysiology

Scant data elaborates on immunopathogenic mechanisms of vaccineinduced thrombocytopenia.

Before introducing the COVID-19 vaccine, ITP had been known as a rare consequence of various vaccinations. There are reports of vaccine-associated ITP for live measles–mumps–rubella (MMR), varicella, inactivated hepatitis B, diphtheria-tetanus–acellular pertussis (DTaP), pneumococcus, hemophilus influenza B, varicella zoster virus (VZV), human papillomavirus (HPV) and polio vaccines. Amongst them, MMR is the most well-known vaccine that can induce ITP, and its cause-effect relationship has been discussed elsewhere.[25,26](#page-17-0)

The etiology of vaccine-associated ITP is perceived immunerelated as antibodies can be detected on platelets in roughly 80% of cases following administration of non-COVID-19 vaccines.^{7,27} The most accepted hypothesis for platelet autoantibody production after vaccine inoculation is molecular mimicry and cross-reactions between the vaccine antigens and the human molecules. That results in the activation of autoreactive B or T lymphocytes, emergence of antiplatelet antibodies, epitope spreading, polyclonal immune reaction, and the ultimate expression of ITP. $27,28$ Our results demonstrated that very few patients tested positive for ITP autoantibodies; we presume this finding ascribes to the very low sensitivity of platelet autoantibody test in ITP patients, and only a few numbers of patients were tested for specific ITP autoantibodies which were from various case reports and probably diverse laboratories.^{[29](#page-17-0)}

In addition, COVID-19 infection-associated ITP is wellknown. $30,31$ Thus, it would not be surprising that ITP risk after COVID-19 immunization increases through a similar mechanism as microbial infections induce antiplatelet autoantibodies with the same antigen utilized in COVID-19 vaccine production (e.g., Spike protein).^{[26](#page-17-0)}

The presence of adjuvants in the COVID-19 vaccine could be another trigger of immune cross-reactivity, termed autoimmune/ inflammatory syndrome induced by adjuvants; however, there is no

investigation to prove this hypothesis in COVID-19 vaccines and ITP has been linked to different COVID-19 vaccines.^{15,16,28}

4.2 | COVID-19 vaccine-associated ITP versus common forms of ITP (unrelated to the COVID-19 vaccines)

4.2.1 | Epidemiologic characteristics

ITP is defined as "Newly diagnosed" within 3 months from diagno- \sin^{32} ; given this definition, all of the patients retrieved in this study fell in this duration, thereby we could consider COVID-19 vaccineassociated ITP a sort of newly diagnosed ITP. Interestingly, the time lag between vaccination and ITP presentation was relatively short, and most cases presented within the first week of vaccination. In comparison, this lag time is significantly longer for MMR vaccinerelated ITP, ranging from 11 to 38 days with a median of 25 days. 33

We postulate two hypotheses to justify this observation: Firstly, implicated COVID-19 vaccines that followed ITP in our study were either mRNA or adenoviral based vector vaccines. Both vaccines employ the recipient's cells to reproduce selected epitopes of the COVID-19 spike protein. Thus the mechanisms of antigen production in these novel vaccines are incredibly robust. 34 Data supports that COVID-19 vaccines with novel technology are very potent in inducing favorable neutralizing antibodies against COVID-19. We hypothesize that this may also contribute to an early surge of auto-reactive antibodies against platelets, causing a shorter lag time for ITP presentation. On the other hand, MMR, an attenuated live virus vaccine, induces a more smooth immune reaction and a later onset ITP. Furthermore, our results showed that among COVID-19 vaccines, ITP lag time was even shorter in mRNA than in adenovirus-based vaccines. This observation is again in concert with the current understanding of the potency order of available vaccine choices.³⁴

Secondly, the typical recipient of the COVID-19 vaccine is much older than the very young children who receive the MMR vaccine. We postulate that previous exposure to coronaviruses in adults may have already modulated their immune response to vaccination against COVID-19.

The level of thrombocytopenia in COVID-19 vaccine-associated ITP is similar to non-vaccine-associated ITP, and a platelet count below 20 \times 10^9 /L was present in 60 (77%) cases. Indeed, in our study, the median of the lowest (nadir) platelet number was 3 \times 10⁹/L. In contrast, MMR vaccine-related ITP is associated with milder thrombocytopenia, and a platelet count of more than 20 \times 10⁹/L is usual.²⁷

The median age of our patients was 54. This figure may not necessarily suggest a particular age susceptibility but may correlate with age-related vaccination policies in the population. Notably, reports show that ITP-associated with COVID-19 infection has a comparable age distribution with the post-vaccinal type, and 70% of patients had an age above 50.^{[30,31](#page-17-0)}

Finally, one of the most dreaded complications of ITP is ICH. Hato et al. observed that in the setting of primary ITP, age above 60 and platelet count below 10×10^9 /L are two important risk factors for

4.2.2 | Clinical presentation and disease course

Except for 10 patients who were asymptomatic at the time of diagnosis, all other cases in our review presented with cutaneous, mucosal, and internal bleeding. These manifestations are typical for thrombocytopenic purpura and present in primary ITP, ITP secondary to COVID-19 infection, MMR vaccine-related ITP, druginduced ITP, and ITP after wild virus infections or helicobacter pylori.

Most COVID-19 vaccine-associated ITP cases had a benign course, and severe or life-threatening bleeding was rare. Only four patients sustained ICH, all had received mRNA-based vaccines and one led to a fatal outcome despite aggressive immunosuppressive therapy and craniotomy. Like COVID-19 infection-induced ITP, EVANS syndrome was also observed in one case.^{[27,30,36,37](#page-17-0)}

Regarding the constitutional symptoms, we noticed a higher prevalence of fever, headache and a lower occurrence of fatigue, compared to primary ITP.³⁶ Lastly, while no mortality has ever been reported for MMR vaccine-associated ITP, we had a single case of fatality in our data. Of notice, there are also rare reports of fatal outcomes in patients diagnosed with ITP secondary to COVID-19 infection.¹⁵

4.2.3 | Therapeutic strategy and response

Our series showed that the general treatment pattern in COVID-19 vaccine-associated ITP was analogous to primary ITP. Most patients were hospitalized and received systemic corticosteroids or IVIg, alone or in combination. A minority underwent other treatments, including a TPO-RA drug.

From the advent of TPO-RA drugs, a paradigm shift is proceeding in the management of ITP, and the center of focus is moving from immunosuppression to improving health-related quality of life in the patients. Accordingly, these drugs are making their way into guidelines on ITP management, especially for ITP duration of more than 3 months or refractory cases. Moreover, there has been a recent trend of employing that class of drugs in the acute management of ITP patients, though still, it is an unapproved indication.^{[13,15,23](#page-17-0)} Among our series, 12 (15.6%) of COVID-19 vaccine-associated ITP patients received either romiplostim or eltrombopag in combination with other measures. Platelet transfusion, plasmapheresis, rituximab, and tranexamic acid were reserved for rescue treatment or add-on therapy for the most severe cases.

Except for one patient who died of complications of ICH, no other mortality case has been found, and in most cases, the convalescent platelet count was available, which was in the acceptable range. These findings are in line with the Perricone et al. study that claimed most cases of vaccine-associated ITP are mild and treatment-responsive.^{[38](#page-17-0)}

Since we had excluded all cases of COVID-19 vaccine-associated ITP if had any prior clinical episode of ITP, we cannot comment on the risk of ITP relapse in case of repeat vaccination. Nevertheless, we noticed three cases in our series who developed purpuric rash after the first dose of the BNT16B2b2 mRNA vaccine, progressed to fullblown thrombocytopenic syndrome following the second vaccine dose. Therefore, despite the appearance of purpura earlier, ITP was diagnosed after the second dose. That limited observation is not surprising from the pathophysiological perspective and may suggest against revaccination by the same brand if thrombocytopenia had already developed after a prior vaccine dose.³⁹⁻⁴¹

4.3 | Study limitations

There were some important limitations to this study. First, we only retrieved articles published in the English language in full text. We may have overlooked the inherent differences in population susceptibilities and unequal availability of individual types of COVID-19 vaccines to nations based on local policies.

Second, we could only reach out to ITP cases secondary to four COVID-19 vaccine brands. The lack of data regarding the other brands may be related to under-reporting, the scale of vaccine administration, or their lower chance of inducing ITP.

Third, this was a systematic review based on published cases. Since many patients with ITP can be asymptomatic, the true incidence of significant thrombocytopenia after COVID-19 vaccination is unknown. In our series, only 10 patients (13%) were asymptomatic at the time of diagnosis, a figure that we believe is an underestimation.

Fourth, because the COVID-19 vaccination programs set a priority for the elderly population and patients with underlying comorbidities, it is probable that our sample is not representative of the whole population. This fact can affect the demographic aspects of our study. For instance, the results may underestimate the susceptibility of the young and shift the age of the population at risk to a higher range.

Finally, we made every effort to exclude articles with dubious implications of COVID-19 vaccine-associated ITP. However, because of inadequate data in some circumstances, we were not able to verify the diagnosis independently in a few cases and therefore relied on the authors' discrimination.

5 | CONCLUSION

In essence, our review provided a comprehensive, descriptive compendium of the reported cases of COVID-19 vaccine-associated ITP and highlighted the clinical features and real-world therapeutic interventions in this potentially life-threatening complication of SARS-CoV-2 immunization. We found that clinical manifestations of COVID-19 vaccine-associated ITP were very similar to primary ITP. The disease usually responded to high-dose corticosteroids, IVIg, or both, and fatal complications were rare.

Interestingly, we showed that the lag time for the ITP presentation after vaccination against COVID-19 is shorter than the gap

observed in ITP manifestation after routine vaccinations in childhood. The more the COVID-19 vaccine is robust to induce antigenic challenge, the shorter the lag time would be. We also revealed that most cases of post-vaccinal ITP were related to potent COVID-19 vaccine brands, including BNT16B2b2 mRNA and mRNA-1273 vaccine. We postulate that this observation might be related to the broad scale of administration of those vaccines in developed countries where vaccine surveillance, case finding, and case reports are typically more reliable. Still, we could not exclude the notion that potent vaccines are more prone to induce cross-immunity.

It merits consideration that further large-scale prospective studies are required to establish the features and risk factors of COVID-19 vaccine-associated ITP. Furthermore, we need basic research to explore the causality role of the COVID-19 vaccines in developing ITP via investigating epitope similarities between platelets and vaccinedriven antigens. The possible disparity between the brands of COVID-19 vaccines to induce ITP needs further investigation and may help manufacturing vaccines with less chance of induction of autoimmunity.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Ali Bidari, Sara Asgarian, and Milad Gholizadeh Mesgarha were responsible for conceptualization. Arash Pour Mohammad performed systematic search and analysis, tabulated data and prepared figure. Sara Asgarian, Delaram Naderi, Milad Gholizadeh Mesgarha, Shiva Rahimipour Anaraki, Mahya Naderkhani carried out study screening and data extraction. All authors participated in composing the inital draft, finalizing the manuscript, applying revisions, and approved of the final version.

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No Funding was received for this study.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Data sharing is not applicable to this article as no new data were created or analyzed in this study.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

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