

**UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DO RIO GRANDE DO SUL
FACULDADE DE MEDICINA
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM CIÊNCIAS MÉDICAS:
ENDOCRINOLOGIA**

**SÍNDROME DE TURNER,
TROMBOSE DE VEIA PORTA E FATOR VIII**

CRISTIANE KOPACEK ZILZ

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Trabalho apresentado ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências Médicas: Endocrinologia, da Faculdade de Medicina da Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, como requisito para obtenção do título de Mestre.

Orientador: Prof^ª. Dra. Regina Helena Elnecave

Porto Alegre

2006

APRESENTAÇÃO



PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM CIÊNCIAS MÉDICAS:

ENDOCRINOLOGIA

MESTRADO E DOUTORADO

ÁREAS DE CONCENTRAÇÃO:

ENDOCRINOLOGIA CLÍNICA

METABOLISMO E NUTRIÇÃO

Esta Dissertação de Mestrado segue o formato proposto pelo Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências Médicas: Endocrinologia da UFRGS, sendo apresentada na forma de 2 manuscritos sobre o tema da Dissertação:

- artigo de revisão geral do tema, que deverá ser submetido para publicação em periódico científico nacional;
- artigo original referente ao trabalho de pesquisa propriamente dito, que deverá ser submetido para publicação em periódico científico de circulação internacional.

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Your manuscript has been carefully reviewed and has been accepted for publication, but as Editor-in-chief, I am strongly convinced that your **paper would acquire greater value if you could compare your patients factor VIII levels with Turner syndrome patients with no thrombotic events.**

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LISTA DE ABREVIATURAS

▪ **Artigo de Revisão**

ST: Síndrome de Turner

GH: Hormônio do crescimento

Xq: Braço longo de X

Xp: Braço curto de X

45X: Monossomia de X

46Xi: Isocromossomo de braço longo de X

VAB: Válvula Aórtica Bicúspide

RM: Ressonância Magnética

TVP: Trombose de Veia Porta

▪ **Artigo de Original**

45X: X Chromosome Monosomy

PVT: Portal Vein Thrombosis

TS: Turner Syndrome

FVIII: factor VIII

vWF: von Willebrand Factor

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

BMI: Body Mass Index

FIX: factor IX

FXI: factor XI

ARTIGO DE REVISÃO - SÍNDROME DE TURNER

SÍNDROME DE TURNER

Cristiane Kopacek Zilz¹

RESUMO

Síndrome de Turner é causada por alterações no cromossomo X. Afeta de 1:2000 a 1:3000 recém-nascidas femininas. Apesar de ser uma doença genética, aspectos como crescimento deficiente e insuficiência ovariana são de interesse da Endocrinologia. Manifestações clínicas importantes também incluem malformações cardíacas, linfáticas e renais e estão implicadas em maior morbidade da doença. Muito embora já tenha sido descrita há quase 80 anos, novos aspectos genéticos relacionados à etiopatogenia da doença vem sendo descritos. As abordagens terapêuticas relativas aos tratamentos hormonais têm sido discutidas e novos diagnósticos clínicos, incluindo alterações cardíacas, hepáticas e casos de trombose vem sendo descritos recentemente.

Palavras-chave: Síndrome de Turner- manifestações - clínicas, trombose

ABSTRACT

Turner Syndrome is caused by X chromosome anomalies. It affects 1:2000 to 1:3000 live born females. Some aspects of the syndrome such as growth failure and ovarian failure are of interest to the Endocrinologist. Other important features of this disorder include cardiac, lymphatic and renal malformations, the cause of high morbidity. Although recognized and described for almost 80 years, new genetic information has been added to update the understanding of the etiopathogenesis of the disorder. Hormone therapies and novel clinical findings, cardiac, hepatic and thrombotic, recently described, are reviewed.

Keywords: Turner Syndrome - clinical findings - thrombosis

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INTRODUÇÃO

Síndrome de Turner (ST) é causada por alterações no cromossomo X. (1, 2). Foi descrita em 1938 por Henry Turner em um grupo de sete pacientes com baixa estatura, infantilismo sexual, pescoço alado, baixa implantação dos cabelos e *cubitus valgus*. (3,4). Sua incidência varia de 1:2000 a 1:5000 nascimentos de meninas (1,3,5,6). Aproximadamente metade dos casos é ocasionada por monossomia X (45X) e 5-10% por duplicação de braço longo (isocromossomo) de X (46Xi). Deleções, cromossomos em anel e mosaicismos também podem resultar em fenótipo de ST (2, 7).

As manifestações clínicas mais frequentes são a baixa estatura, a insuficiência ovariana e o linfedema congênito. Malformações cardíacas, renais e esqueléticas também são frequentes (1-4,6). Recentemente, têm sido descritos alterações hepáticas e casos de trombose venosa.

Esta revisão tem como objetivo revisar alguns dos aspectos atuais relacionados à ST.

DIAGNÓSTICO

Pré-natal

Os estudos citogenéticos e ultrassonográficos pré-natais têm se tornado mais disponíveis, no entanto, emergem algumas questões quanto ao seu valor preditivo no desfecho clínico, pois ainda são poucos os estudos realizados. Os achados mais comumente associados são o higroma cístico, a hidropsia fetal e o aumento da translucência nugal ao ultra-som. Menos de 10% dessas gestações chegam a termo, com alto índice de aborto e em aproximadamente 20% das gestações o cariótipo 45X é confirmado. Dos diagnósticos citogenéticos de 45X realizados por biópsia de vilosidade coriônica ou amniocentese, em

torno de 80% chegam a termo e, destes, 30% dos cariótipos são normais em análises posteriores. Os achados indicam um alto número de falso-positivos nestas análises, especialmente quando não relacionados aos achados ultra-sonográficos (5, 6).

Neonatal

Achados correlacionados a anomalias linfáticas como higroma cístico, linfedema das mãos e/ou pés são fortemente sugestivos de ST em meninas recém-nascidas (8,9). De 1/5 a 1/3 dos diagnósticos de ST são realizados neste período (6). Malformações congênitas como hipoplasia ventricular esquerda ou coarctação de aorta também são fortemente sugestivos da síndrome (2,10).

Infância e Adolescência

Na infância, aproximadamente 40% dos diagnósticos são feitos em virtude de baixa estatura. A média de idade varia de 7,5 a 15 anos (8). À exceção de baixa estatura familiar e retardo constitucional, a ST é a causa mais freqüente de baixa estatura em meninas (2). Amenorréia primária ou falha no desenvolvimento puberal e - em menor proporção - amenorréia secundária, fazem o diagnóstico na maioria dos demais casos e tem sido crescente o número de diagnósticos realizados em adultas por falha reprodutiva (6).

Cariótipo

A obtenção de cariótipo de amostra de sangue, com contagem de 20 a 50 linfócitos de sangue periférico é, na maioria das vezes, elucidativa para o diagnóstico, porém suficiente para detectar mosaicismo em apenas 5% dos casos (6). No entanto, procurar linhagens celulares 46XX em pacientes 45X não altera o prognóstico no manejo da doença, mas se o diagnóstico é suspeito clinicamente e o cariótipo é normal, sugere-se ampliar o número de

células para 100 e realizar biópsia de pele para cariótipo de fibroblastos (2). Pacientes com mosaicismo para linhagens com cromossomo Y apresentam risco aumentado de gonadoblastoma. Uma investigação complementar para fragmentos de Y também deve ser realizada em pacientes com características clínicas de virilização (11-13).

GENÉTICA

A ST é a única monossomia compatível com a vida (6). Origina-se pela não inclusão de um cromossomo sexual em um dos gametas ou por sua perda na fase de zigoto ou embrião inicial. A primeira possibilidade é a causa mais comum do cariótipo 45X, pois 70-80% das pacientes com esse cariótipo são concebidas de um espermatozóide sem cromossomo sexual (13). Embora conceitos 45 X correspondam a 1-2 % das gestações, menos de 1% dos conceitos 45X resultam em nativivo. Estima-se que 10 a 15% do total de abortos em mulheres tenham tal cariótipo (5,8). Essa alta taxa de abortos sugere a importância de um segundo cromossomo para a sobrevivência intra-uterina (13, 14).

As regiões cromossômicas responsáveis pelas características clínicas da ST ainda permanecem incertas. A ausência de 2 cromossomos sexuais normais antes da inativação do cromossomo X e a própria aneuploidia são as possíveis causas das manifestações clínicas da ST (2,4). Os genes *SHOX* (*short stature homeobox-containing gene*) e *linfogênico*, ambos da região pseudo-autossômica (PAR), escapam à inativação de X. A haploinsuficiência desses genes (50% do material genético necessário para desenvolver determinada característica) tem sido correlacionada a algumas das manifestações da síndrome (3, 6, 14).

O gene *SHOX* parece estar implicado na baixa estatura e nas alterações esqueléticas das pacientes com ST, embora provavelmente não seja o único responsável por estas alterações (3,4,14). O gene *linfogênico* foi proposto como crítico para características relacionadas ao

linfedema. As malformações decorrentes da haploinsuficiência deste gene parecem ocorrer seqüencialmente nos tecidos conjuntivo e visceral, derivadas de alterações mecânicas no período fetal. (2, 14).

Estudos atuais indicam que os genes envolvidos na ST localizam-se predominantemente no braço curto de X (Xp) (12), porém genes para a função ovariana (DIAPH2) (3,15) e para a viabilidade fetal (RPS4X) têm sido identificados no braço longo de X (Xq). Um outro gene que normalmente escapa da inativação de X – o USP9X – localiza-se na região proximal de Xp e também está implicado na função ovariana (3).

Outros mecanismos possivelmente envolvidos com características fenotípicas da síndrome são o desequilíbrio cromossômico nas células mitóticas e a severa falha no pareamento de células meióticas. Desordens auto-imunes como a tireoidite de Hashimoto parecem ser conseqüência do desequilíbrio cromossômico, levando a displasias teciduais e têm sido mais relacionadas à presença de isocromossomo de Xq (14).

A apresentação fenotípica altamente variável também é explicada pelo fato de a haploinsuficiência de genes críticos para o desenvolvimento estar associada a uma grande variação de expressividade e penetrância dos genes, dependentes de outros fatores genéticos e ambientais (14).

No entanto, sugerem-se algumas correlações entre cariótipo e fenótipo. Pacientes 45X mais freqüentemente apresentam linfedema e alterações cardíacas. Mosaicos 45X/46XX ou 45X/47XXX mais freqüentemente têm menarca e podem ser férteis. Alguns mosaicos 45X/46XX também conseguem atingir estaturas um pouco mais altas em relação a pacientes com genótipos 45X. Cromossomo em anel confere maior risco de retardo mental. Contudo, predições em relação a fenótipos não são absolutas (2).

MANIFESTAÇÕES CLÍNICAS

Apesar de ser uma desordem genética, a ST, com frequência, é de manejo da endocrinologia em virtude do déficit de crescimento, da falência ovariana e de alterações metabólicas e hormonais associadas. As manifestações clínicas clássicas, de acordo com sua frequência encontram-se no Quadro 1.

Algumas das manifestações clínicas mais frequentes, que tem recebido atenção terapêutica na atualidade e outras recentemente descritas, serão revisadas em detalhe.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Muito frequentes (> 50% das pacientes) Baixa estatura “Disgenesia gonadal” Linfedema mãos e pés Hiperconvexidade unhas Malformação pavilhão auricular Micrognatia Baixa implantação de cabelos Tórax largo com hipertelorismo mamário e/ou mamilo invertido <i>Cubitus valgus</i> 4º metacarpiano curto Exostose tibial Tendência à obesidade Otite média recorrente • Frequentes (< 50% das pacientes) Perda auditiva Nevos pigmentados Pescoço alado Anormalidades renais Anomalias cardiovasculares Hipertensão Hipotireoidismo Intolerância à glicose Hiperlipidemia • Ocasional (< 5% das pacientes) Escoliose, cifose, lordose Osteoporose Gonadoblastoma Doença inflamatória intestinal Câncer de colon Neuroblastoma Artrite reumatóide juvenil Doença hepática

Quadro 1 - Anormalidades clínicas na Síndrome de Turner

Fonte: Adaptado de Frias *et al* - (12)

Baixa estatura

É o achado mais consistente da ST, resultando em uma estatura final aproximadamente 20 cm abaixo da média para o grupo étnico correspondente (2) e ocorre em 95-100% das pacientes (4). As meninas com ST costumam nascer com estatura normal ou nos limites inferiores da normalidade e vão apresentar uma queda na velocidade de crescimento após os 18 meses de vida (2,16).

Embora meninas com ST não tenham *déficit* de hormônio do crescimento (GH), o tratamento tem sido recomendado (3,12). O ganho estatural foi variável em estudos com controles históricos ou não controlados, não demonstrando, em algumas séries, benefício na estatura final e em outras, um ganho de até quase 17 cm (17). A maioria destes estudos, no entanto, apresenta um ganho estatural intermediário (18). O primeiro ensaio randomizado e controlado demonstrou que a altura final pode aumentar em até 7 cm com GH e iniciando o uso de estrógeno aos 13 anos. No entanto, houve uma grande variabilidade de resposta entre as pacientes (19). Este estudo não conseguiu demonstrar benefício em qualidade de vida e melhora na auto-estima com o possível ganho de estatura das pacientes (17). Além disso, os riscos do tratamento com GH a longo prazo em crianças menores e os riscos adicionais para cardiopatias ainda são desconhecidos (6, 12). A terapêutica, muitas vezes, faz uso de doses supra-fisiológicas de GH que induzem a altos níveis de IGF-1, os quais podem elevar o de risco de câncer (20). Vale ressaltar que pacientes com ST já apresentam risco aumentado de câncer de colon (21). Sugere-se que tais aspectos sejam discutidos com familiares ou responsáveis antes do início do tratamento (17).

Insuficiência gonadal

Insuficiência gonadal ocorre em cerca de 90% dos casos de ST (4). Sugere-se que o

termo disgenesia gonadal seja modificado para degeneração ovariana, pois apenas casos em que há presença de ambas as linhagens celulares de X e Y poderiam ser considerados disgenesias. Na maioria dos casos, o que ocorre é uma atresia folicular acelerada, provavelmente por oócitos gerados a partir de aneuploidia ou haploinsuficiência dos genes relacionados ao X, responsáveis pelo adequado desenvolvimento dessa linhagem celular (6).

A reposição hormonal se faz necessária nestes casos para a indução da puberdade, mas há controvérsia na literatura sobre a melhor idade de início, bem como sobre as doses de estradiol (6). Embora pareça razoável imitar o *timing* da puberdade, há controvérsias sobre a melhor idade de início, bem como das doses de estrogênio em virtude dos seus efeitos sobre a cartilagem de crescimento. (8,19). A terapia de reposição nestas pacientes é crucial para induzir pico máximo de massa óssea. Se descontinuada na adulta jovem, há um rápido declínio no conteúdo mineral ósseo (6, 8, 19).

Além dos benefícios conhecidos na prevenção de osteoporose, há melhora do perfil lipídico, da rigidez aórtica nos casos de malformação cardíaca e da resposta vasodilatadora endotelial destas pacientes após o início da reposição hormonal (1, 3, 22, 23). Apesar de possíveis controvérsias surgidas após estudos com terapia de reposição hormonal em mulheres menopáusicas, esta deve ser mantida em mulheres com ST durante a idade adulta. As contra-indicações para o uso de estrogênio são as mesmas para as mulheres em geral e incluem história de câncer ginecológico, de trombose ou distúrbio de coagulação conhecido e história familiar de câncer de mama (6).

Osteoporose

Tem-se associado a ST a um maior risco de desenvolvimento de osteoporose e fraturas, principalmente devido à insuficiência ovariana. (21). No entanto, a densidade óssea fica

subestimada em pacientes com menos de 150 cm. Pacientes em adequada reposição hormonal com estradiol parecem apresentar densidade óssea semelhante a controles pareados por idade após ajuste para estatura (24). Quando comparadas a controles com insuficiência ovariana precoce, mulheres com ST, após ajuste para estatura, tempo de uso de estrogênio e início puberal, apresentaram uma redução da densidade apenas do osso cortical do antebraço, sem diferença na do osso trabecular (25). Esses achados sugerem que a redução óssea seletiva nessas pacientes seja independente da exposição ao estrógeno. Supõe-se que a haploinsuficiência de alguns genes do cromossomo X possa estar envolvida em sua etiologia (6, 25).

Anormalidades cardiovasculares

Defeitos congênitos, principalmente dos grandes vasos cardíacos estão presentes em 20-40% das pacientes com ST (1, 10, 27, 28) e mais comumente associados a cariótipos 45X e a mal-formações linfáticas concomitantes (8, 14, 28). As doenças cardiovasculares são responsáveis por aproximadamente 50% dos óbitos nas pacientes com ST (3).

Através da avaliação ecocardiográfica, a válvula aórtica bicúspide (VAB) e a coarctação de aorta vinham sendo as alterações mais descritas (8, 10). Outros achados como drenagem venosa pulmonar parcialmente anômala (28, 29) e prolapso ou regurgitação mitral (26) também são encontradas em pacientes com ST. Estudos com ressonância magnética (RM) demonstram uma prevalência de quase 50% de ectasias do arco aórtico (8, 28).

O exame ecográfico tem falhado em detectar VAB em aproximadamente 30% dos casos (6) contra menos de 1% da RM. Esta tem a vantagem de visualizar todos os grandes vasos cardíacos e revelar anomalias clinicamente não suspeitas e coarctação de aorta oculta em 8-12% das séries de casos estudados. Malformações venosas também são visualizadas em

aproximadamente 20% das pacientes, tornando-se tão prevalentes quanto VAB (6). Todavia, a RM é um procedimento de alto custo e não é tão amplamente disponível. Ambos os métodos podem ser úteis e complementares no diagnóstico das malformações cardíacas em ST. É preconizado que a ecocardiografia seja feita de rotina, porém é recomendável que, pelo menos em casos de pacientes com VAB e naquelas com difícil visualização ecográfica, a RM seja realizada (30).

Anormalidades eletrocardiográficas foram recentemente evidenciadas neste grupo de pacientes. Dentre as encontradas estão bloqueio de ramo, condução AV acelerada e anormalidades de onda T. Estes novos achados demonstram a importância da realização de eletrocardiograma nas pacientes com ST, especialmente para monitorizar possíveis usos de medicações que possam alterar o ritmo e a condução cardíaca (6).

Anormalidades hepáticas

Alterações de enzimas hepáticas são descritas como manifestações clínicas pouco freqüentes (2,12). Em meninas não parecem tão prevalentes (31), mas em mulheres adultas com ST níveis elevados foram encontrados em até 80% de pacientes (8).

Desde as primeiras demonstrações do aumento das enzimas hepáticas em pacientes com ST *versus* controles há cerca de 15 anos (32), vários estudos têm tentado estabelecer uma causa para tal distúrbio. Os achados foram inicialmente relacionados a alterações auto-ímmunes (33) e ao uso de estrogênio ou oxandrolona (34, 35). Porém alguns autores demonstraram melhora dos níveis elevados das transaminases após o início da reposição estrogênica (8, 36, 37). Alterações de provas de função hepática também já foram associadas ao uso de GH em pacientes com ST (38).

Estudo recente demonstrou que pacientes com ST e elevação persistente das enzimas hepáticas apresentam, em análise histopatológica, alterações da arquitetura hepática não atribuídas à reposição estrogênica, mas a anomalias vasculares de provável origem congênita (39).

Sugere-se que a função hepática seja adicionada ao painel inicial da avaliação das pacientes com ST (6, 35, 39).

Trombose

Trombose é um achado pouco descrito em ST. São 3 os relatos na literatura (41-43).

O primeiro, de uma paciente adulta, de 56 anos, com diabetes melito, e diagnóstico de trombo móvel em arco aórtico, com posterior evento de trombose mesentérica e sem evidência de arritmia cardíaca. O diagnóstico de ST foi feito na ocasião por baixa estatura e amenorréia. O segundo caso foi de uma paciente de 17 anos, já com diagnóstico estabelecido de ST mosaico, que apresentou episódio de trombose venosa profunda após início da reposição estrogênica. A investigação para causas de trombose nesta paciente demonstrou mutação G20210A da protrombina. A terapia de reposição hormonal foi descontinuada pelo risco elevado do uso de estrogênio e trombose. Sabe-se que portadoras desta mutação têm um risco de trombose de 16 vezes quando em uso de estrogênio. Um ano após o evento, foi demonstrada uma diminuição da massa óssea e a reposição hormonal tornou-se um dilema terapêutico. Em ambos os casos descritos, podem ser observados fatores comumente relacionados a um aumento do risco de trombose como a idade mais avançada, o diabetes, a presença de trombofilia hereditária e o uso de estrogênio.

O terceiro relato inclui casos de trombose de veia porta (TVP) em 2 meninas de 2,8 e 1,3

anos. Foram investigadas para trombofilias hereditárias no Ambulatório de Gastroenterologia Infantil do Hospital de Clínicas de Porto Alegre. Nestas pacientes não foi identificada nenhuma trombofilia hereditária, tampouco ou outro fator de risco envolvido com TVP em crianças (43). Uma terceira paciente, deste mesmo serviço, teve diagnóstico de TVP aos 11,9 anos, mas foi a óbito antes do estudo.

É importante lembrar que pacientes com ST apresentam freqüentemente malformações cardíacas (26-30) ou outras malformações vasculares (39), com possível alteração de fluxo sanguíneo, e alterações endoteliais que também estão implicadas no aumento de risco de trombose.

Fatores de Risco para Trombose

Trombose é uma doença multicausal. Fatores genéticos, adquiridos ou o somatório deles podem contribuir para o desenvolvimento da doença. A maioria está relacionada a mudanças de fluxo sanguíneo e modificações na composição do sangue que, em combinação com dano endotelial, cria um estado de hipercoagulabilidade (44, 45).

Os fatores de risco para trombose venosa diferem dos de trombose arterial, que incluem fumo, hipertensão, aterosclerose e diabetes. A trombose venosa está mais relacionada à estase venosa e a alterações na composição sanguínea (45).

Fatores adquiridos incluem imobilização, cirurgia e uso de hormônio feminino. Gestação e puerpério também são considerados estados pró-trombóticos. Infecções e doenças malignas também causam. O risco de trombose também aumenta com a idade (44, 45).

Anormalidades genéticas relacionadas ao aumento do risco de trombose incluem a deficiência dos anticoagulantes endógenos (antitrombina, proteína C e proteína S), fator V de

Leiden e mutação do gene G20210A da protrombina (44-47).

Altos níveis dos fatores de coagulação VIII, von Willebrand, IX e XI, fibrinogênio e de homocisteína, bem como a presença de anticorpos antifosfolípido, também aumentam as chances de um evento trombótico (44-47).

CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS

A morbidade na ST é elevada pela alta frequência de doenças cardiovasculares, digestivas, metabólicas e hormonais. A mortalidade, por conseguinte, também é 4 vezes maior (8). Há uma redução na expectativa de vida em aproximadamente 13 anos, principalmente decorrente das complicações cardíacas (30). Embora a ST seja conhecida há quase oito décadas, novos distúrbios clínicos têm sido descritos, com os quais se desconhece a interação com os tratamentos recentemente empregados na síndrome.

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**ARTIGO ORIGINAL - PORTAL VEIN THROMBOSIS AND HIGH FACTOR VIII IN
TURNER SYNDROME**

PORTAL VEIN THROMBOSIS AND HIGH FACTOR VIII IN TURNER SYNDROME

Cristiane Kopacek Zilz²

ABSTRACT

Backgrounds/Aims: *Turner Syndrome is not usually associated to thrombotic events. The aim of this study is to report three patients with Turner Syndrome and portal vein thrombosis, in two of them, high factor VIII. These findings are compared to values in Turner Syndrome patients without thrombosis and controls.*

Methods: *Three patients with Turner Syndrome presented at our hospital with portal vein thrombosis in different years. After the most common causes of portal vein thrombosis and thrombophilias were excluded, the two surviving patients were studied for clotting factors. The same factors were also assessed in 25 Turner Syndrome patients without thrombosis and 25 normal girls.*

Results: *One of the patients with portal vein thrombosis died before the study. In the two surviving patients, factors VIII and von Willebrand levels were > 150UI/dL, what are considered high. In Turner Syndrome patients without thrombosis, mean factor VIII was 127.2±41.1 UI/dL and von Willebrand was 101.2±26.9 UI/dL, while in control girls, these were 116.0±27.6 UI/dL and 94.28±27.5UI/dL, respectively. Factors VIII and von Willebrand were not different between these two groups. When non-O blood groups Turner Syndrome patients and normal girls were compared, the former ones had significantly higher levels of both factors VIII and von Willebrand.*

Conclusions: *This is the first report of the unusual finding of thrombosis in patients with Turner Syndrome, in whom high levels of factors VIII and von Willebrand are found.*

INTRODUCTION

Turner Syndrome (TS) is caused by X chromosome anomalies. It affects 1:2000 to 1:3000 live born females. X chromosome monosomy (45X) occurs in approximately 50% of the cases. The main features of the syndrome include short stature and gonadal failure. Cardiac and renal malformations are also frequent (1, 2). Thrombotic events are not related to the syndrome (3-5).

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Portal vein thrombosis (PVT) in children is mostly related to congenital or acquired disorders of the umbilical vein and portal vein systems and intra-abdominal infections. Thrombotic inherited disorders are not usually associated to PVT in this age group (6).

High levels of clotting factors VIII (FVIII) , IX (FIX) and XI (FXI) have also been implicated in thrombosis (7-10).

CASE REPORTS

Three patients with TS and PVT were seen at the same hospital in different years.

Patient 1 presented with upper digestive bleeding secondary to portal hypertension due to PVT at 2.6 years of age and had several recurrent episodes. No vascular malformation of the portal venous system was found. Propranolol therapy for portal hypertension was initiated and the patient had no more bleeding episodes. At the age of 5.3 years the diagnosis of TS was made, because of short stature.

Patient 2 had neonatal diagnosis of TS due to bicuspid aortic valve and other stigmas of the syndrome. She presented with esophageal variceal bleeding due to PVT at the age of 1.3 years and had fifteen new episodes thereafter. Splenic vein thrombosis was also diagnosed thereafter. Therapy for portal hypertension was instituted with propranolol.

Patient 3 had known diagnosis of TS as she presented with PVT at the age of 11.9 years, with repeated episodes of variceal bleeding due to portal hypertension. This patient had other complications of the syndrome such as coarctation of the aorta and horseshoe kidney. The patient died at the age of nineteen, due to complications of portal hypertension.

More detailed clinical characteristics of the patients are described in Table 1.

Table 1 - Clinical characteristics of the patients

Characteristics	Patient 1	Patient 2	Patient 3
Age (years)	12.3	12.1	19.8*
Turner diagnosis (years)	5.3	0.08	Not available
Karyotype	45X	45X	45X
Blood group	A+	A+	AB+
Cardiac malformation	No	Bicuspid aortic valve	Coarctation of the aorta
Urinary tracts alterations	Ureteral stenosis	Vesico-ureteral reflux	Horseshoe kidney
Portal hypertension	Yes	Yes	Yes
Age of PVT diagnosis (years)	2.8	1.3	11.9
Year of diagnosis	1996	1994	1989
PVT Diagnosis (image)	Doppler US Magnetic resonance	Doppler US Angiography	Doppler US
Other thrombosis	No	Splenic vein	No
Ascites	No	No	Yes
Liver biopsy	Normal	Normal	Cirrhosis
Enlarged spleen	Yes	Yes	Yes
Enlarged liver	Yes	No	Yes

* Patient died at this age

Patients 1 and 2 had been previously investigated at Pediatric Gastroenterology Clinic (6). Liver biopsies and studies for chronic hepatic disease were normal. Thrombophilia panel, including factor V Leiden, prothrombin G20210A mutation, ant thrombin and fibrinogen levels were normal; studies for anti-phospholipid syndrome were normal. **Patient 2** was homozygous for the C677T methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase polymorphism, but homocystein levels were normal in later assessment. Protein C levels in the two patients were slightly low and protein S was low in one of them. Deficiencies of proteins C and S were ruled out and thus, were interpreted as due to liver damage secondary to portal hypertension. Family history of thrombosis was negative in both patients. None of them was in estrogen use.

Recently, the investigation was expanded to include also clotting factors. FVIII levels and von Willebrand factor (vWF), FIX and FXI were measured in the two surviving patients.

These values are listed in table 2. Both patients had elevated FVIII and vWF levels. There was no evidence of recent infection, inflammatory disease, malignancy or surgery at the time of the assessment. These patients had also normal blood glucose levels and thyroid hormone status.

Table 2 - Clotting factors levels of the Turner patients with PVT

CLOTTING FACTORS	Patient 1	Patient 2
Factor VIII (53-131 IU/dL)*	170 / 164	153 / 170
Factor von Willebrand (46-153 IU/dL)*	157 / 166	258 / 246
Factor IX (59-122 IU/dL)*	69	63
Factor XI (50-97 IU/dL)*	68	83

* Normal values for age (11)

In order to verify whether TS patients without thrombosis had different levels of FVIII, FIX, vWF from normal girls, a case-control study was performed.

CASE CONTROL STUDY

Methods

Twenty five TS patients without thrombosis (ages 3.6 to 29 years) and 25 normal girls (ages 4.2 to 28.6 years) were matched for age and blood groups (O and non-O) and FVIII, FIX and vWF levels were assayed and compared. The TS patients were routinely seen at the Endocrine Clinic of Hospital de Clínicas de Porto Alegre. Sample size was determined to obtain a one standard deviation from the reported normal mean of FVIII (11). Neither TS patients nor control girls had a history of recent infection or surgery. Controls were of normal height and had no chronic illnesses. Ethnicity was tried to be controlled. Of the 25 patients, two were black and were matched to black girls. The other ones were white or mixed.

Height, weight, body mass index (BMI) and hormonal status (pre-pubertal or in use of

estrogens) were assessed in all studied subjects.

Blood for coagulation factors was collected in citrate from a superficial vein of the upper extremity. Plasma was prepared by centrifugation for 15 minutes at 3500 rpm and 20°C and stored at -70°C until assayed. The coagulation factors VIII and IX were assessed by one-stage coagulometric assay (Stago STA Compact Equipment – Holliston, Massachusetts-USA). Factor von Willebrand was determined by immunoturbidimetric assay (Stago STA Compact Equipment – Holliston, Massachusetts-USA). C-reactive protein was also determined in patients and controls and categorized as reactive ($> 5\text{mg/L}$) or not ($> 5\text{mg/L}$).

Results of echocardiography, renal ultrasound, thyroid function tests, liver function tests and blood glucose were obtained from the TS charts. History or evidence of lymphedema was also assessed. In TS patients, the levels of FVIII and vWF were assessed according to the presence of one or more malformation (heart, kidney and lymphatic malformation). No TS patient was hypothyroid or diabetic.

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA) was used for statistical analysis. Student's T tests, both for independent and paired samples were used. Results were expressed as mean and standard deviation. Bonferroni correction was used for multiple analysis adjustment. One-way ANOVA was used to compare more than two groups of categorical variables. P-value of less than 0.05 was considered to represent a statistically difference.

RESULTS

Characteristics like height, weight, body mass index (BMI) and hormonal status (pre-pubertal or in use of estrogens) from cases and controls are described in table 3.

Table 3 - Clinical characteristics and hormonal status from cases and controls

	Cases	Controls	T test
Mean Age (years)	15,7 ± 5,7	16,1 ± 7,0	0,470
Weight (Kg)	41,1 ± 14,5	50,5 ± 16,2	<0,001
Stature (cm)	136,8 ± 13,2	159,5 ± 16,7	<0,001
BMI (Kg/m ²)	21,6 ± 5,2	20,1 ± 4,3	0,093
Pre-pubertal	11	7	
Normal puberty	1	8	
Estrogenic use	13	10	

The mean values did not differ between patients and controls in the paired analysis, neither for FVIII (127.2±41.1 vs 116.0±27.6 ; p=0.228), FIX (118.1±38.7 vs 116.2±50.5; p=0.783) or vWF (101.2 ±26.9 vs 94.2±27.5; p=0.282). However, when classified according to blood groups, O or non-O, FVIII levels in TS patients were significantly higher (p=0.008, after Bonferroni adjustment) than in controls only in non-O subjects. (Figure 1). This difference was not seen for vWF.

FVIII and vWF were compared between O and non-O TS patients. Non-O when compared to O TS patients had significantly higher levels of both FVIII (157.1 ± 34.3 vs 103.71 ± 29.34; p=0.004, after Bonferroni adjustment) and vWF (123 ± 20.16 vs 84 ± 17.56; p=0.004, after Bonferroni adjustment) (Figure 1a e 1b).

Figure 1. Clotting factors levels in Turner and controls

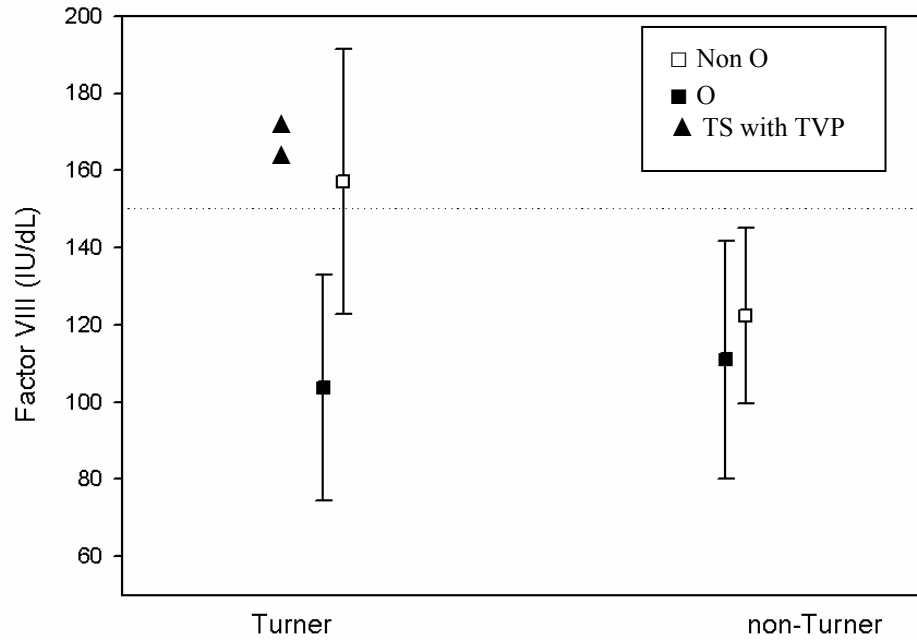


Figure 1a - Factor VIII levels

Compared groups	P values after adjustment
Turner O and non-O	0.004
Non Turner O and non-O	0.39
Turner and non-Turner O	0.57
Turner and non-Turner non-O	0.008

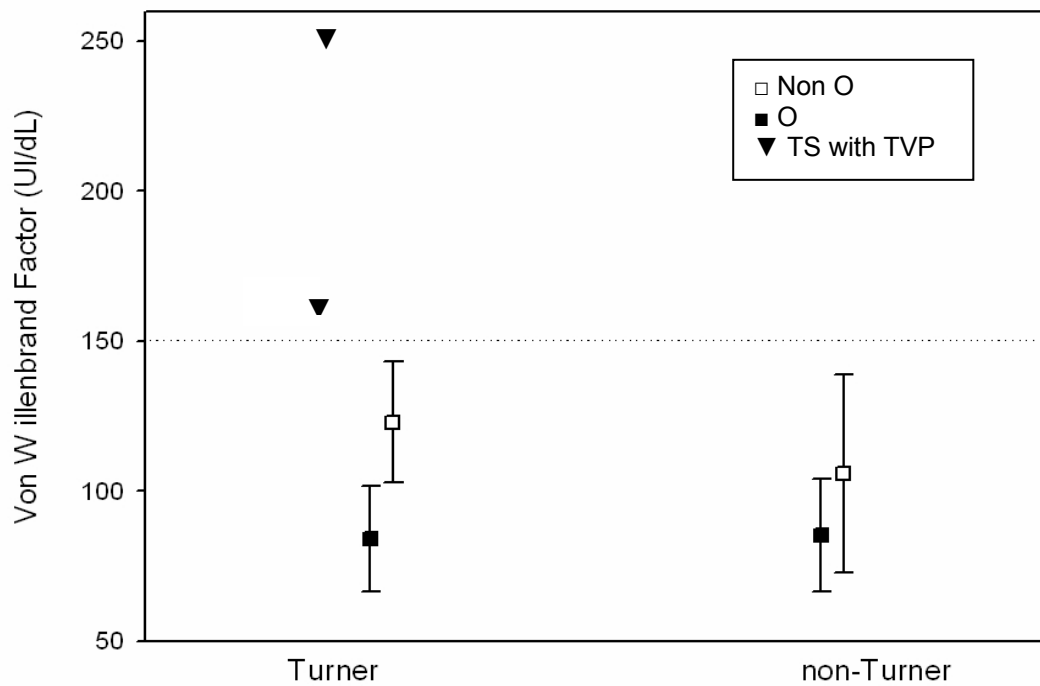


Figure 1b - Von Willebrand Factor levels

Compared Groups	P values after adjustment
Turner O and non-O	0.004
Non Turner O and non-O	0.12
Turner and non-Turner O	0.87
Turner and non-Turner non-O	0.16

Seventy two percent of TS patients and 92% of controls had negative C-reactive protein levels, while the remaining ones displayed low levels. C-reactive protein had no influence on the FVIII and vWF (Table 4).

There was no statistic significance in correlation test from the continuous variables (glucose levels, TGO, TGP and GGT vs FVIII and vWF). Clotting factors levels were also not statistic different in patient and controls in relation to their hormonal status.

As expected, the correlation between FVIII and vWF was highly significant in cases ($r=0.756$; $p<0.001$) and controls ($r=0.531$; $p=0.006$). These two correlations are not statistically different ($p=0.19$).

Although not significant, there was a trend for higher FVIII and vWF levels as the number of malformations in TS patients increased (Table 5).

Table 4 - Clotting factors levels according to C-reactive protein

		Cases		Controls	
	C-reactive protein	Mean \pm SD	P-value	Mean \pm SD	P-value
FVIII	Non-reactive (n=23)	115.91 \pm 28,3	0.96	120.55 \pm 38.0	0.20
	Reactiv(n=2)	117.00 \pm 25.4		144.28 \pm 46.7	
vWF	Non-reactive (n=18)	94.39 \pm 27.9	0.94	97.83 \pm 28.4	0.32
	Reactiv(n=7)	93.00 \pm 31.1		109.85 \pm 22.3	

Table 5. Clotting factors levels according to the number of malformations in patients with TS

Clotting Factors	Number of malformations	n	Mean \pm SD
FVIII*	0	8	111.87 \pm 32.6
	1	7	123.71 \pm 47.7
	2	7	139.85 \pm 48.8
	3	3	146.66 \pm 21.3
vWF**	0	8	88.25 \pm 24.7
	1	7	95.85 \pm 25.6
	2	7	108.85 \pm 23.5
	3	3	130.33 \pm 26.3

ANOVA one-way; p-value * 0,50 and **0.09 (between groups).

DISCUSSION

The diagnosis of TS in three patients with PVT in early life, at the same hospital in different years is surprising. None of them had the conditions commonly associated to portal vein thrombosis in childhood, which include infections (especially acute abdomen or omphalitis), splenectomy, sickle cell disease, malignancy or trauma (12). The presence of antiphospholipid antibodies was also excluded in the cases (13). Congenital vascular anomalies (14) of the hepatic venous system were also excluded by the imaging (doppler US, magnetic resonance and angiography – Table 1). As described above, inherited thrombotic disorders are not a common etiology (6), but had been previously ruled out. No apparent cause for PVT is evident in more than one-third of patients (15). Many of these patients probably have an underlying hypercoagulable state.

In the last 10 years, high levels of clotting factors, FVIII, vWF, FIX and FXI, had also been implicated in thrombosis (7-10, 16-19). Cut-off levels for FIX and FXI are uncertain and there is little published data about their thrombogenic risk (10). On the other hand, FVIII and vWF increased plasma concentrations have been associated with a moderately increased risk of thrombosis, vWF mainly in arterial and FVIII, in venous thrombosis (20). The reported cases had only high FVIII and vWF levels.

FVIII is a coactivator of the intrinsic pathway of the coagulation cascade (21) FVIII may increase thrombosis by an increase in FIXa activity, which results in an increase in factor Xa and thrombin formation. It also may cause increased resistance in factor Va to activate protein C. The latter is committed in the inactivation of factor VIII (10, 18, 21).

Most determinants of FVIII levels are vWF and blood group. VWF serves as a carrier for FVIII, protecting it from proteolysis. Non-O blood group is associated with higher vWF and FVIII than O group (18, 22, 23). Most of the effect of blood group on FVIII levels is mediated through vWF. Blood group affects vWF clearance and in non-O individuals, FVIII half-life is longer (18). The ABO group explains 30% of the variation in vWF levels (18).

Since FVIII levels are highly influenced by its carrier protein vWF, an effort to investigate the existence of genetic components was made through the investigation of several polymorphisms in the vWF and FVIII genes, none of which were associated with plasma vWF, FVIII levels, or the risk of venous thrombosis.(20, 25). Familial clustering has been shown for vWF and FVIII .Mostly, more than one family member had thrombotic events(25). These TS girls with the described thrombosis had no family history of thrombosis.

Sex (female) and ethnicity (black) are associated with higher FVIII and vWF plasma levels. Constitutional long-term changes influencing their levels are older age and increased BMI (obesity). Chronic inflammation, cancer, liver/renal disease, diabetes, surgery and pregnancy also enhance FVIII and vWF levels. Adrenergic stimulus and exercise also increase their levels (20). The Turner cases with thrombosis were all white. BMI and hormonal status did not influence the data in the case-control study. Some authors found an increased susceptibility to thrombosis with oral contraceptive in patients with high FVIII levels (26); but if oral contraceptive has some influence in FVIII values when they are normal remains uncertain (18) Neither TS patients, with thrombosis, nor those without thrombosis had a diagnosis of diabetes. Some had mildly elevated liver enzymes. Glucose levels and hepatic function did not influence the data in the TS patients without thrombosis. The PVT cases had higher liver enzymes. Liver cirrhosis was not present in the histopathology investigation of the surviving patients with PVT (Table1). In cirrhosis, FVIII levels are lower,

according to the severity of the disease (25).

Although the upper limit implicated with thrombotic events has been recently questioned (28), high plasma levels of FVIII is an established moderately high risk factor for venous thromboembolism. The risk appears to be independent of the acute phase reaction and is dose-dependent (20). Levels > 150 UI/dL, are known to be a risk factor for venous thrombosis and its recurrence in adults (17-19) and in children (29-30). Recently, the association of high FVIII levels with PVT has also been reported (31-33). In our patients, FVIII levels were lower than in the patients reported. But it is noteworthy that they were taking beta-blockers, which are known to decrease factor VIII levels (34).

High vWF levels were also found in our patients with PVT. There is a well known concordant increase of FVIII and vWF levels; although FVIII remains an independent risk factor for thrombosis (18).

The FVIII gene is located in the X chromosome (Xq28) (21) and to the present time, a few cases of hemophilia A were found in TS patients (35). High FVIII levels were also recently reported in one patient with Klinefelter Syndrome (XXY) and venous ulcerous and thrombotic disease (36).

To our knowledge, this is the first report on the association of increased FVIII levels and PVT in TS patients. Although the FIX gene is also located in the X chromosome, the patients with PVT, TS patients with no thrombosis and the control group had similar levels.

Comparing the initial cases described with the others from the case-control study, FVIII and vWF levels were higher in the patients with PVT than the mean values of the TS group without thrombosis and also of the control group (Figure 1). Our data were probably not

influenced by acute phase reaction. This is in agreement with the finding that high FVIII levels persist over time and are not caused by acute phase reaction. (16, 18).

All our reported cases with PVT were of non-O blood groups and had the highest levels of both factors among the study's subjects, even in the presence of beta-blockers (Figure 1). The non-O TS patients without thrombosis had also high levels, with mean values for FVIII >150UI/dL (Figure 1a). Koster et al. demonstrate a 5-fold increased risk of venous thrombosis at this level or greater compared to levels under 100UI/dL (7). For every 10 IU/dl increment of FVIII, the risk of a first thrombotic event is increased in 10%, whereas the risk for a recurrence in 24% (37).

Mean levels of vWF in the non-O group of TS patients without thrombosis were also higher than in the O group ones, but <150 UI/dL. Although, these levels were higher in the patients with PVT (Figure 1b). The blood group is estimated to affect only 50% of FVIII levels. There is increasing evidence that vWF has a pivotal role in venous thrombosis, but whether it is an independent effect or due to the increased levels of FVIII remains unclear (7, 38).

Some studies implicate vWF >156 IU/dL with a threefold increased risk of cardiovascular and all-cause mortality. There are some evidence that high vWF confers a moderately higher risk for atherothrombotic cardiovascular disease (10,20). High FVIII levels had also been correlated to ischemic heart disease and stroke, but it seems that the impact of high FVIII levels on arterial thrombosis is clearly smaller in magnitude and less well established than that on venous thrombosis. High FVIII levels and possibly high vWF levels should be included as risk factors of multifactorial diseases of venous and arterial thrombosis, respectively (20).

Increased blood flow and endothelial damage are known to increase FVIII and vWF levels (30,38,39). The vWF is a good index of endothelial cell damage/dysfunction, and raised vWF concentrations have been reported in numerous cardiovascular conditions (40). In TS, these are the main cause of increased mortality (41-43). TS patients have a fundamental arterial wall defect extending beyond the arch of the aorta, with intimal thickening. Other large vessels are also enlarged. This may be related to genetic factors or estrogen deficiency. In these large vessels, endothelial dysfunction was not demonstrated in one study (42). However, Chan and cols. Demonstrate an impaired endothelial vasodilatation without estrogen replacement in TS patients (44).

Thrombosis and angiogenesis may be related to disturbances of endothelial cells. The expression of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), an essential component in angiogenesis, was thought to be a link between the three processes of angiogenesis, thrombogenesis, and endothelial disturbance. It could not be fully demonstrated as of now. Further studies are needed to confirm the hypothesis (40) Recently, it was hypothesized that increased levels of VEGF are implicated in the pathophysiology of TS complications, especially cardiovascular and lymphatic malformations. It also remains to be elucidated (45).

Endothelial dysfunction was also found to be present in a group of idiopathic hepatic vessel thrombosis (46). Vascular adhesion molecules were measured and significant differences indicated that there was an overall activation of endothelium comparable to normal subjects, suggesting that there is an unknown abnormality in endothelial functions. Authors suggest that other endothelial functions tests like plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 (PAI-1), vWF or thrombomodulin could be measured to confirm these results. Our two TS cases with PVT have high vWF (figure 1b), indicating that endothelial dysfunction could be present and that the high FVIII levels could be related to the increased vWF levels.

Therapeutic challenges in the two patients with PVT include the need of anticoagulation and the future use of estrogen replacement. It was recently suggested that some subgroups of patients, with idiopathic venous thrombosis, including those with high FVIII plasma levels, may benefit from indefinite anticoagulation and long-term prevention (47). Continuous use of beta-blockers for portal hypertension may contribute for to the non as high levels in the reported patients. Oral contraceptive use is associated with a fourfold increase in the risk of venous thromboembolism.(48). It has been reported that the risk of venous thromboembolism due to oral contraceptive is further increased 13 fold in women with elevated levels of FVIII (> 195 IU/dL), and that the raised levels of the coagulation factor and oral contraceptive use have a synergistic and dose-dependent effect (26). The same occurs with some others thrombophilic alterations such as factor V Leiden (49) and G20210A prothrombin mutation (50).

CONCLUSION

Thrombogenesis occurs when several risk factors are combined (46, 51, 52). TS in itself encompasses many of these factors, such as vascular and lymphatic malformations, endothelial dysfunction and estrogen replacement (40,44,45,53). Non-O TS patients may have an additional risk factor by having higher FVIII and vWF levels. The possibility of thrombotic events in this population should be clinically screened.

The unusual finding of thrombosis in patients with TS with no evidence of other related causes, in whom high levels of FVIII and vWF were found, is intriguing and point to the need of further studies on this association.

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ANEXOS

**ANEXO A - PERFIL DAS PACIENTES AMBULATÓRIO DE
ENDOCRINOLOGIA INFANTIL DO HCPA**

- **Idade: 3- 30 anos (n=27)**
- **Cariótipo 45 X: 48%**
- **MF cardíaca: 41%**
 - **Aorta bicúspide (45%)**
 - **Coarctação de Aorta (36%)**
 - **Aorta Bicúspide + Coarctação de Aorta (9%)**
 - **CIA (9%)**
- **MF renal: 33%**
- **MF linfática: 64%**
- **Alteração da função hepática: 22%**
- **IGT ou DM: 0%**
- **Hipotireoidismo: 44%**
- **ATPO + : 40%**
 - ◆ **OUTRAS COMPLICAÇÕES (casos):**
 - trombose veia porta (2)**
 - angiodisplasia de delgado (1)**
 - esplenomegalia (1)**
 - hipoplasia pulmonar (1)**
 - AVC (1)**

ANEXO B - BANCO TURNER

PACIENTES	Idade	IMC	Cariótipo	uso GH	MF CARD	MF REN	MF LINF	FÇ HEP	GLICEMIA	HAS	HIPOTIR.	ATPO +	OUTRAS COMPLIC
A.N.O	10a9m	22,17	0	0	CA	RP	1	0	89	1	sim	sim	AVC
A.P.M.	15a7m	30,47	0	0	CA	normal	1	0	95	0	sim	sim	-
C.S.P.	16a5m	29	0	0	normal	normal	1	0	77	0	sim	sim	GRAVES/ODOABLATIVO
C.M.	29a1m	28,7	1	0	VAB	DPC	1	1	109	0	sim	ND	-
C.A.P.	19a10m	21,07	1	0	normal	normal	0	0	69	0	nao	nao	-
D.A.M.	20a10m	25,3	0	0	VAB	DPC	ND	0	83	1	sim	nao	INFECÇÃO URINÁRIA REPETIÇÃO
D.L.S.	10a6m	19,07	1	1	CA+VAB	RF	0	0	69	0	nao	nao	HIPOPLASIA PULMONAR
F.E.R.	14a8m	21,63	1	1	normal	normal	ND	0	72	0	nao	nao	-
F.N.P.	10a7m	17,68	1	0	normal	normal	0	1	84	0	nao	nao	-
G.V.I.	19a5m	17,44	0	0	CA	normal	1	0	74	1	nao	nao	DEFORMIDADE DO CARPO
J.F.R.	22a3m	17,38	1	0	normal	normal	0	0	77	0	nao	nao	-
J.F.D	3a7m	15,3	0	0	VAB	normal	1	0	74	0	nao	nao	-
K.D.	14a	21,74	1	1	normal	normal	1	0	79	0	sim	nao	PSORÍASE
K.A.S	19a7m	25,68	1	0	normal	normal	1	0	70	0	nao	sim	ASMA
L.S.L.	18a11m	23,98	0	0	normal	normal	1	0	86	0	nao	nao	ANGIODISPLASIA DE DELGADO
L.G.D.	18a	28,47	1	0	CIA	normal	1	0	99	0	nao	nao	-
M.W.	12a8m	27,7	1	1	normal	normal	0	1	87	0	sim	sim	-
M.A.S.	8a11m	16,48	1	0	normal	normal	0	0	72	0	nao	nao	-
S.L.	8a9m	15,59	0	1	normal	normal	0	0	89	0	nao	nao	-
T.X.O	17a	19,12	1	0	normal	RF	1	0	95	0	sim	sim	LINFEDEMA MID PERSISTENTE
Y.M.	9a10m	18,27	0	1	normal	normal	0	1	94	0	sim	sim	ESPLENOMEGALIA
M.C.F.	11a10m	20,37	0	1	normal	RF	0	0	79	0	nao	nao	-
M.C.	15a3m	19,39	1	0	CA	DPC	1	0	84	1	nao	sim	LINFEDEMA MID PERSISTENTE
G.P.R.	23a2m	35,2	0	0	normal	normal	1	0	99	1	sim	sim	-
A .B.	21a4m	23,27	1	0	VAB	normal	1	0	82	0	sim	sim	LINFEDEMA MIE PERSISTENTE
			45 X		10 de 25	6 de 25	14 de 23	4 de 25		5 de 25	11 de 25	10 de 25	
			11 de 25		40%	24%	61%	16%	Média=83,5	20%	44%	40%	
			44%										

LEGENDA

PARA CARIÓTIPO:

0 - 45 X

1 - outro

CA - coarctação de aorta

VAB - válvula aórtica bicúspide

RP - rins policísticos

DPC - dilatação pielocalicinal

RF - rim em ferradura

0 - NÃO (ou normal)

1 - SIM (ou anormal)

ND : não disponível

ANEXO C - RESULTADOS CASOS E CONTROLES

	caso 0					
	controle 1					
CASOS-CONTROLES		fator VIII	fator IX	fator VW	Grupo ABO	proteína C
ANP	0	122	109	102	O	8,65
DPZ	1	127	104	89	O	<3,08
APM	0	118	153	78	O	4,92
CSM	1	151	234	70	O	<3,13
CSP	0	148	137	96	A	9,94
LBC	1	130	105	108	A	<3,08
CM	0	158	143	135	A	7,6
TF	1	99	147	71	A	12,5
CAP	0	105	183	65	O	<3,08
JB	1	130	167	64	O	<3,08
DAR	0	172	177	128	A	4,64
EG	1	134	226	95	A	<3,08
DLS	0	182	137	110	O	8,37
EJR	1	85	70	68	O	<3,08
FER	0	98	101	74	O	<3,08
MN	1	105	60	89	O	<3,08
FNP	0	127	141	129	A	<3,08
K K	1	150	95	197	A	<3,08
GVI	0	114	120	117	O	27,5
KK	1	95	103	96	O	<3,08
JFR (raça negra)	0	133	82	88	O	<3,08
ARG (raça negra)	1	105	102	75	O	<3,13
JFD	0	97	78	80	A	<3,13
MF	1	79	67	75	A	<3,08
KD	0	134	67	123	A	<3,08
KMP	1	118	65	102	A	<3,08
KAS	0	214	210	136	A	11,9
RH	1	127	179	108	A	<3,08
LSL	0	83	113	96	O	<3,08
RE	1	99	123	82	O	<3,08
LGD	0	72	123	73	O	8,71
PB	1	107	97	92	O	<3,13
MW	0	75	88	67	O	<3,13
MV	1	172	108	140	O	<3,08
MAS	0	99	67	98	O	<3,08
DBO	1	72	59	82	O	<3,08
SL	0	82	66	67	O	<3,08
FFO	1	95	84	91	O	<3,08
TXO (raça negra)	0	136	101	134	A	<3,08
TM (raça negra)	1	117	95	103	A	<3,08
YM	0	176	77	118	A	<3,13
NBA	1	101	72	94	A	<3,13
MCF	0	80	100	67	O	<3,08
LF	1	147	82	88	O	<3,08
MCF	0	160	91	154	A	<3,08
PM	1	135	133	115	A	5,97
GPR	0	89	131	75	O	<3,08
DG	1	64	125	68	O	<3,08
AB	0	206	157	120	B	<3,08
GP	1	156	204	95	B	4,05

