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Management of Children With Sickle Cell Disease: A Comprehensive Review of the Literature



WHAT'S KNOWN ON THIS SUBJECT: Sickle cell disease (SCD) is a multisystem disease with hemolytic and infectious complications that contribute to high morbidity and mortality rates in children. However, a comprehensive review of the literature for the prevention and management of pediatric SCD-related complications is lacking.



WHAT THIS STUDY ADDS: This article presents a comprehensive review of the literature for the care provided to children with SCD. The results will enable practitioners and researchers to identify areas with the strongest evidence for clinical practice and those that need additional research.

abstract

OBJECTIVE: Sickle cell disease (SCD) affects 70 000 to 100 000 people in the United States, and 2000 infants are born with the disease each year. The purpose of this study was to review the quality of the literature for preventive interventions and treatment of complications for children with SCD to facilitate the use of evidence-based medicine in clinical practice and identify areas in need of additional research.

METHODS: We searched the Ovid Medline database and the Cochrane Library for articles published between January 1995 and April 2010 for English-language abstracts on 28 topics thought to be important for the care of children with SCD. We also added pertinent references cited by studies identified in our search. Each abstract was reviewed independently by 2 authors. Data from articles retrieved for full review were abstracted by using a common form.

RESULTS: There were 3188 abstracts screened, and 321 articles underwent full review. Twenty-six articles (<1% of abstracts initially screened), which consisted of 25 randomized controlled trials and 1 meta-analysis, were rated as having level I evidence. Eighteen of the 28 topics selected for this review did not have level I evidence studies published. The management and prevention of pain episodes accounted for more than one-third of the level I studies.

CONCLUSIONS: Although significant strides have been made in the care of children with SCD in the past 2 decades, more research needs to be performed, especially for acute events associated with SCD, to ensure that the health and well-being of children with SCD continues to improve. *Pediatrics* 2011;128:e1552–e1574

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KEY WORDS

sickle cell disease, systematic reviews, child and adolescent, evidence-based medicine

ABBREVIATIONS

SCD—sickle cell disease
RCT—randomized controlled trial
ACS—acute chest syndrome

Dr Kavanagh was responsible for performing the electronic literature searches, review of abstracts and articles, data entry and analysis, and drafting the manuscript; Dr Sprinz served as the hematologist on the team and participated in the review of abstracts and articles and write-up; Mr Vinci assisted in the literature review, data entry, and write-up; Dr Bauchner contributed significantly to the data analysis and write-up; and Dr Wang oversaw the entire project, including the study design, review of abstracts and articles, data analysis, and write-up.

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Sickle cell disease (SCD) is one of the most common genetic disorders in the United States and affects ~70 000 to 100 000 children and adults, predominantly of African and Hispanic descent.¹ SCD is a multisystem disease characterized by vascular injury caused by vaso-occlusion and hemolytic and infectious complications that contribute to high morbidity and mortality rates in this population.^{2,3} Many severe complications of SCD occur in childhood, including sepsis, stroke, acute chest syndrome, and painful episodes that require hospitalization.^{2,4}

Universal newborn screening and advances in routine care, including penicillin prophylaxis⁵ and immunization against serious bacterial infections,^{6,7} have significantly decreased mortality in young children with SCD.^{8,9} In addition, transcranial Doppler screening has been shown to identify children at higher risk of first-time stroke that can be treated prophylactically with chronic transfusion therapy.^{10,11} However, research studies are lacking in key areas for children with SCD, including studies of disease-modifying treatments. For example, the Multicenter Study of Hydroxyurea was published in 1995 and a significant decrease was shown in painful episodes and acute chest syndrome in adults,¹² and a single-center study revealed decreased mortality with long-term use.¹³ However, only 1 small randomized controlled trial (RCT) has been published on the use of hydroxyurea in children to date.¹⁴

The purpose of this study was to review the quality of the literature for preventive interventions and treatment of complications for children with SCD to facilitate the use of evidence-based medicine in clinical practice and identify areas in need of additional research. In this study we have focused on level I evidence, because it typically helps define the stan-

TABLE 1 Evidence Level of Articles Selected for Full Review

	Level I	Level II	Level III	Total
Acute events, <i>n</i>				
ACS	2	3	8	13
Aplastic crisis	0	1	1	2
Fever/sepsis	0	2	7	9
Osteomyelitis	0	1	7	8
Pain episodes	10	6	14	30
Priapism	0	0	8	8
Splenic sequestration	0	2	6	8
Stroke	0	8	13	21
Chronic conditions, <i>n</i>				
Asthma	0	4	3	7
Avascular necrosis	0	2	5	7
Gall bladder disease	0	1	7	8
Hepatic dysfunction	0	0	2	2
Leg ulcers	1	0	1	2
Nephropathy	0	2	5	7
Pulmonary hypertension	0	7	4	11
Retinopathy	0	2	0	2
Silent infarcts/neuropsychological testing	0	9	8	17
Routine health care maintenance and disease-modifying treatments, <i>n</i>				
Cardiac care	0	1	1	2
Comprehensive care	1	0	7	8
Folate supplementation	0	1	3	4
Genetic counseling/newborn screening	0	0	3	3
Growth	1	3	6	10
Prevention of pneumococcal infections ^a	4	4	7	15
Pulmonary function testing	2	0	8	10
Transcranial Doppler screening	2	7	17	26
Transfusion ^b	2	17	14	33
Hematopoietic stem cell transplant	0	7	3	10
Hydroxyurea	1	21	16	38
Total, <i>n</i> (%)	26 (8)	111 (35)	184 (57)	321 (100)

US Preventive Services Task Force ratings.¹⁷ Level I indicates RCTs; level II, well-designed controlled trials without randomization, cohort or case-control analytic studies, or multiple time series with or without intervention, and dramatic results from uncontrolled experiments; level III, opinions of respected authorities based on clinical experience, descriptive studies, or case reports, reports of expert committees.

^a Includes pneumococcal immunizations and penicillin prophylaxis.

^b Includes perioperative transfusions, chronic transfusions, and iron overload.

dards of medical care, including for pediatric SCD.

METHODS

Evidence Acquisition

We identified topics important to the care of children with SCD by using guidelines,^{2,15} review articles,^{3,16} and clinical expertise. In addition, we specifically searched for screening, diagnostic, and treatment interventions used in routine SCD care to ensure their inclusion in this study. The 28 topics identified are listed in Table 1. Individual topics were organized into 3 categories: (1) acute events; (2) chronic conditions; and (3) routine health care

maintenance and disease-modifying treatments for SCD. Acute SCD-related events were defined as those that require urgent or emergent care. Chronic conditions included (1) SCD-specific complications that typically do not require immediate attention and persist for ≥ 3 months (eg, avascular necrosis) and (2) chronic illnesses prevalent in the pediatric SCD population (eg, asthma). Finally, routine health care maintenance and disease-modifying treatments were defined as the comprehensive care needed for children with SCD. We searched for these topics in Ovid Medline for the time period of Janu-

ary 1995 through April 2010 and the Cochrane Library.

For each topic, we used several key words to identify relevant articles. We also added the term “sickle cell” to ensure that all of the articles captured for a topic were related to SCD and its specific genotypes (eg, sickle cell anemia, hemoglobin SC disease). We limited each search to “children 0–18 years” and “human” (Appendix 1). In addition to abstracts identified electronically, we performed an ad hoc search of bibliographies of articles selected for this review.

Study Selection

Each abstract was independently reviewed by 2 authors (Drs Kavanagh, Wang, and Sprinz). Abstracts were selected for full-article review if they pertained to the key topics identified, used experimental (eg, RCT) or quasi-experimental (eg, cohort studies with comparison groups) research methods, and enrolled children in the study. If the research methods were unclear in the abstract, the article was reviewed in detail. Studies were excluded if they enrolled adults only, were in vitro or animal studies, gene or genome-wide association studies, non-English-language abstracts or articles, commentaries or editorials, or case reports. We also excluded longitudinal cohort studies that presented outcomes aggregated over 1 or more decades without description of the care processes. Although these studies could provide important information on the historical natural history of SCD, they might not reflect outcomes that could be achieved under current standards of care.

Data Extraction

Articles selected from the review of abstracts were retrieved for full article evaluation. Data were abstracted by each reviewer using a common form.

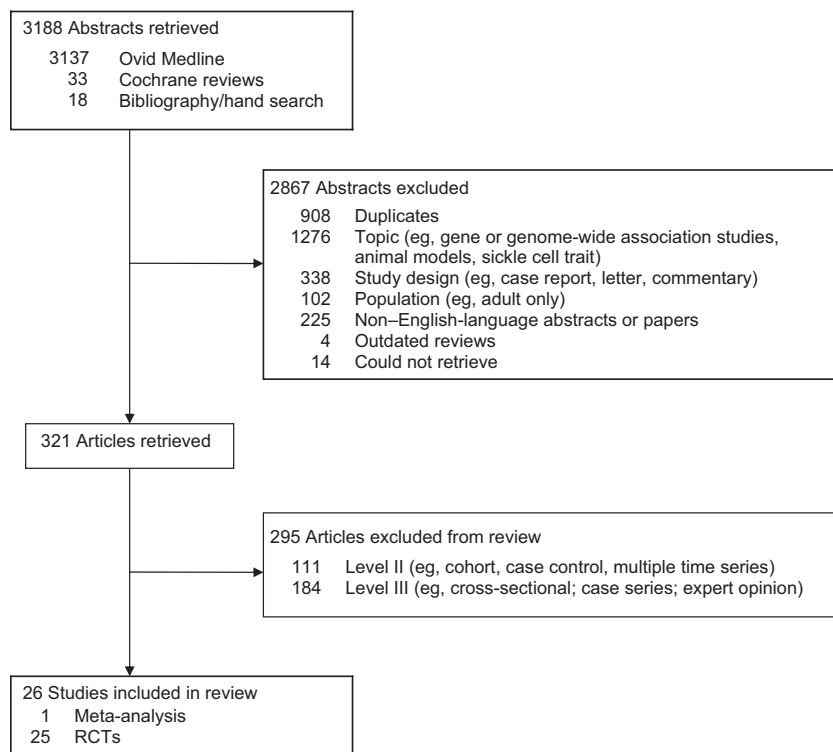


FIGURE 1 Flow diagram of identification of articles for full review.

The abstraction form included fields for the number of participants, population of interest, intervention(s) studied, and study design. Differences in coding were reconciled by the pair of reviewers (Drs Kavanagh, Wang, and Sprinz) in consultation with the third reviewer as needed. All references and abstracted data were maintained in Microsoft Excel 2003 (Redmond, WA).

Quality of the Literature

The hierarchy of research design was assigned following the US Preventive Services Task Force ratings.¹⁷ RCTs and meta-analyses were categorized as level I evidence. Level II evidence included well designed controlled trials without randomization, cohort and case-control studies, multiple time series analyses, and results from uncontrolled experiments. Level III evidence was defined as studies reflecting the opinions of respected authorities on the basis of clinical experience, de-

scriptive studies or case reports, and reports of expert committees.

RESULTS

We identified 3188 abstracts for screening (Fig 1). Of these, 2867 abstracts were eliminated because of duplicate references, topic, study design, population, non-English-language abstract or article, outdated reviews or unable to be retrieved. There were 321 (10% of abstracts screened) articles selected for full review (Appendix 2), of which 26 were rated as level I evidence (Table 1). We identified 25 RCTs and 1 meta-analysis from which we extracted summary data. Eighteen of the 28 topics selected for this literature review did not have level I evidence published during this 15-year period. Of the 321 articles selected for full review, 111 and 184 articles were categorized as level II and level III evidence, respectively (Table 1).

TABLE 2 Acute Events and Chronic Conditions in Children With SCD

Source	N	Age Range, y	Population	Intervention	Design
Acute events					
ACS					
Styles et al ¹⁸ (2007)	15	10–20	SCD	Single red blood cell transfusion vs standard care	RCT
Bernini et al ¹⁹ (1998)	43	1–21	SCD	Dexamethasone vs placebo	RCT
Pain episodes					
Treatment of pain episodes					
Qari et al ²⁰ (2007) ^a	253	Not given ^a	HbSS	Tinzaparin vs placebo plus morphine intravenous	RCT
Weiner et al ²¹ (2003)	20	10–21	SCD	Inhaled nitric oxide vs placebo	RCT
Orringer et al ²² (2001) ^a	255	9–53	SCD	Poloxamer 188 vs placebo	RCT
Eke et al ²⁷ (2000)	58	3–14	HbSS	Piroxicam vs aspirin	RCT
Hardwick et al ²⁴ (1999)	41	5–18	SCD	Ketorolac vs placebo plus morphine intravenous	RCT
Adams-Graves et al ²³ (1997) ^a	50	15–55	SCD	Poloxamer 188 vs placebo	RCT
Jacobson et al ²⁵ (1997)	50	5–17	SCD	Sustained-release oral morphine vs morphine continuous intravenous infusion	RCT
Prevention of pain episodes					
Lemanek et al ²⁸ (2009)	34	Not given ^b	SCD	Massage administered by caregivers vs standard care	RCT
Alvim et al ²⁹ (2005)	73	5–20	SCD	Piracetam vs placebo	RCT
Wambebe et al ³⁰ (2001)	82	Not given ^c	SCD	Niprisan vs placebo	RCT
Chronic conditions					
Leg ulcers					
Serjeant et al ³¹ (1997) ^a	15	17–40	HbSS	Propionyl-L-carnitine vs placebo	RCT

SCD indicates that all sickle genotypes were eligible for the study; HbSS, sickle cell anemia.

^a Mean: 22.8 ± 4.5 y (tinzaparin group) and 21.6 ± 3.8 y (placebo group).

^b Mean: 9.97 ± 2.47 y (massage group) and 11.55 ± 1.00 y (attention-control group).

^c A majority were adolescents (81.9%); only 3.6% were older than 30 y.

Acute Events

Twelve RCTs were identified for 2 topics: acute chest syndrome (ACS) and pain episodes (Table 2). We did not find any level I evidence for the acute management of aplastic anemia, fever/sepsis, osteomyelitis, priapism, splenic sequestration, or stroke in children with SCD for the 15-year period reviewed.

Two RCTs have been performed for ACS. In a pilot RCT, elevated serum phospholipase A2 seemed to identify those at risk of ACS, which could be prevented by a single blood transfusion.¹⁸ In addition, treatment with dexamethasone limited the severity of ACS in children, although it was associated with rehospitalization for severe pain within 72 hours of discharge.¹⁹

The treatment and prevention of SCD-related pain accounted for nearly 40% of the level I studies identified. Ten RCTs were identified for the management of SCD-related pain in children; 7 examined treatment regimens and 3

studied pain prophylaxis. Tinzaparin decreased the number of severe pain days and hospital days but was associated with minor bleeding events in 1.5% of patients.²⁰ In a pilot RCT it was found that nitric oxide was also a potentially useful as a treatment for acute pain.²¹ However, poloxamer 188 had little²² to no²³ effect on the duration of pain in intent-to-treat analyses, and ketorolac²⁴ proved ineffective as an adjunct to opioid treatment for severe pain requiring hospitalization. Sustained-release oral morphine proved as effective as the parenteral formulation in the inpatient setting²⁵; however, it was associated with an increased incidence of ACS in posthoc analyses.²⁶ In resource-poor settings, the nonsteroid anti-inflammatory drug piroxicam was superior to aspirin for SCD-related pain.²⁷ For pain prophylaxis, massage therapy was shown to decrease average pain scores among children with SCD, but increased anxiety among the parents administering it and had no effect on health care use.²⁸

Piracetam was not found effective in a Brazilian RCT²⁹; however, the Nigerian herbal remedy Niprisan did decrease the number of severe pain episodes.³⁰

Chronic Conditions

For SCD-related leg ulcers, a pilot RCT compared oral propionyl-L-carnitine to placebo in adolescents and adults, but showed no benefit as an adjunct to usual care (Table 2).³¹ Level I evidence was not available for the management or prevention of asthma, avascular necrosis, gall bladder disease, hepatic dysfunction, nephropathy, pulmonary hypertension, retinopathy, and silent infarcts/neuropsychological testing.

Routine Health Care Maintenance and Disease-Modifying Treatments

Our review found 1 meta-analysis and 12 RCTs for 7 of the 11 topics included in this category (Table 3). However, no level I evidence was identified for cardiac care, folate supplementation, genetic counseling, or hematopoietic stem cell transplant.

TABLE 3 Routine Health Care Maintenance and Disease-Modifying Treatment Options for Children With SCD

Source	N	Age Range	Population	Intervention	Design
Comprehensive care					
Chernoff et al ³² (2002) ^a	136	7–11 y	HbSS	Community-based, family support intervention vs standard care	RCT
Growth					
Zemel et al ³³ (2002)	42	4–10 y	HbSS	Elemental zinc vs placebo	RCT
Prevention of pneumococcal infections					
Immunizations					
Vernacchio et al ³⁴ (1998)	23	4–30 y	SCD	2 doses PCV-7 plus 23V pneumococcal PSV vs 23V pneumococcal PSV	RCT
Penicillin prophylaxis					
Hirst et al ^{5,35,36,62} (2009)	457	<16 y	HbSS, HbS β^0	Prophylactic antibiotics to prevent pneumococcal infection	Meta-analysis
Berkovitch et al ³⁷ (1998)	45	9–84 mo	HbSS	Slide show, weekly telephone calls, and a calendar vs standard care	RCT
Falletta et al ³⁶ (1995)	218	5.1 y	HbSS, HbS β^0	Penicillin vs placebo in children with SCD older than 5 y	RCT
Pulmonary function testing					
Hsu et al ³⁹ (2005)	20	5.6–13.4 y	SCD	Positive expiratory pressure device vs incentive spirometry	RCT
Bellet et al ³⁸ (1995)	38	8–21 y	SCD	Incentive spirometry vs standard care	RCT
Transcranial Doppler screening					
Adams et al ¹⁰ (2005)	80	2–16 y	HbSS, HbS β^0	Chronic transfusion vs standard care	RCT
Adams et al ¹¹ (1998)	130	2–16 y	HbSS, HbS β^0	Chronic transfusion vs standard care	RCT
Transfusion					
Iron chelation					
Vichinsky et al ⁴¹ (2007) ^a	195	3–54 y	SCD	Deferasirox vs deferoxamine	RCT
Perioperative transfusion					
Vichinsky et al ⁴⁰ (1995) ^a	604	Not given ^a	HbSS	Aggressive transfusion to decrease HbS to <30% vs simple transfusion	RCT
Disease-modifying treatment					
Hydroxyurea					
Ferster et al ¹⁴ (1996) ^a	22	2–22 y	HbSS	Hydroxyurea vs placebo	RCT

23V, 23-valent; PSV, polysaccharide vaccine; SCD, all sickle genotypes were eligible for the study; HbSS, sickle cell anemia; HbS β^0 , hemoglobin sickle- β^0 thalassemia.

^a Age from Table 1; 0 to 20 y or older at time of enrollment.

Comprehensive care for children with SCD includes family support and monitoring of growth.² A RCT that randomly assigned patients and their families to receive community support had a positive effect on the adjustment of children with serious conditions, including SCD, compared with those who received standard care.³² For growth, zinc supplementation for 1 year was proven beneficial in children with SCD.³³

Protection against *Streptococcus pneumoniae* through immunizations and penicillin prophylaxis has been studied extensively among children with SCD over the past 15 years. Immunization against *S pneumoniae* using the 7-valent conjugate vaccine resulted in higher immunoglobulin G antibody concentrations than using

the 23-valent polysaccharide vaccine alone.³⁴ A recent meta-analysis found that penicillin prophylaxis significantly reduced the risk of pneumococcal infection in children younger than 5 with sickle cell anemia.³⁵ Current guidelines recommend stopping prophylaxis at 5 years of age for children without a history of invasive pneumococcal disease or splenectomy because continuing prophylaxis provided no additional benefit.^{35,36} Adherence with penicillin prophylaxis, nevertheless, remains an issue. Interventions to increase adherence through education, telephone calls, and use of a calendar were not more effective than education alone.³⁷

Optimizing pulmonary function during pain episodes and use of transcranial Doppler screening, transfusions, and

iron chelation have been shown to be effective preventive or treatment strategies for SCD-related complications in children. Incentive spirometry has also been shown to prevent ACS during acute pain episodes in the chest or back.³⁸ In a pilot study, no difference was seen between the use of a positive expiratory pressure device (which requires less coordination to use) and incentive spirometry in preventing pulmonary complications during pain episodes.³⁹ Two studies provided level I evidence for chronic transfusion regimens to decrease the rate of first-time stroke in children with HbSS disease and HbS β^0 thalassemia identified as high risk by transcranial Doppler screening.^{10,11} Prophylactic transfusions are used to prevent perioperative SCD-related complications before

elective surgery. A large, multicenter RCT revealed that a conservative transfusion regimen designed to increase the hemoglobin level to 10 g/dL was as effective as an aggressive transfusion program that reduced the percentage HbS to <30%, for several elective surgical procedures.^{40,42–44} Finally, management of transfusion-related iron overload with oral deferasirox was shown to be comparable to deferoxamine.⁴¹

Hydroxyurea is currently used to treat individuals with severe manifestations of SCD. Only 1 small RCT has been published on its use in children with SCD to date, which showed a significant reduction in the number of hospitalizations and length of stay.¹⁴ Results from the Stroke With Transfusions Changing to Hydroxyurea (SWITCH) study⁴⁵ and Pediatric Hydroxyurea Phase III Clinical Trial (BABY HUG),^{46–49} in which the efficacy of hydroxyurea was examined in secondary stroke prevention and prevention of end-organ damage in infants with SCD, respectively, were not published at the time of this review. However, it is suggested in preliminary data from Infant HUGS that hydroxyurea use decreased the frequency of pain episodes and ACS in young children.⁴⁶ In addition, RCTs have not been conducted on different conditioning regimens or other aspects of management of hematopoietic stem cell transplantation in this population.

DISCUSSION

To our knowledge, this is the first comprehensive review of the literature for the care provided to children with SCD. On the basis of the results of this study, <1% of studies for children with SCD published from January 1995 to April 2010 represent level I evidence. In addition, >60% (18 of 28) of the topics selected for this review did not have any RCTs or meta-analyses supporting

treatment or prevention strategies for pediatric SCD. These findings are consistent with our review of the Cochrane Library of Systematic Reviews, in which it was concluded that in 14 of the 29 reviews on pediatric SCD-related topics no high-quality studies currently exist. The lack of RCTs performed in children with SCD is not unique to this population. Although we did not search the adult SCD literature to make a direct comparison, it was found in previous reports on other topics that significantly fewer high-quality studies have been published for children compared with adults in the both the generalist⁵⁰ and specialist⁵¹ journals.

The area most in need of additional investigation is acute events associated with SCD because many are associated with significant morbidity and mortality. We did not find any high-quality studies for 75% of the acute events listed, including the management of splenic sequestration and treatment of overt strokes. In addition, the level I evidence found for SCD-related pain focused primarily on the management of severe pain requiring emergency department or inpatient care. However, most pain episodes are managed at home,⁵² and no high-quality studies have been conducted in this setting to date.⁵³

In only 3 of the 26 studies included in this review was the effect of SCD measured on a child's academic achievement, parental stress level, or the quality of life of either the child or their parents.^{28,29,32} However, many SCD-related complications, particularly pain episodes, might last for days or weeks after the health care encounter.^{2,54} These outcomes are important measures to capture for children, especially those with chronic illness such as SCD, because their disease can negatively impact both their edu-

cational attainment and their family life.^{55–57}

In this review we focused on RCTs and meta-analyses conducted on children with SCD. However, there are circumstances when conducting a RCT might not be feasible. For example, it is impractical to use a RCT to study conditioning regimens for hematopoietic stem cell transplant at present because only a small number of children with severe SCD-related complications currently undergo this procedure. Research methodologies such as comparative effectiveness research and long-term observation studies can provide valuable information for these interventions.

There are several potential limitations to this study. First, we might have missed some studies by using our defined search strategies, including studies that enrolled both children and adults. However, we believe that our use of a broad approach using a combination of electronic search terms and hand-searches of bibliographies minimized the omission of important studies. In addition, more than one-third of studies selected for full review (90/321 articles) included both pediatric and adult subjects. Second, we limited our review to the English-language literature, which possibly eliminated important studies conducted abroad. However, by reviewing the bibliography of the articles reviewed for this study and those cited in National Institutes of Health guidelines for the management of SCD,² we believe that we captured the important articles on this subject. Third, we used Ovid Medline to conduct our searches, which largely focuses on the medical literature produced in North America. Therefore, we might have missed European and other international studies that would have been identified had another database been used. However, we captured a large number of European, South

American, and African studies in this review, whose bibliographies were used to supplement our electronic searches. Fourth, we conducted our literature searches using a list of predefined topics for pediatric SCD. Although we might have missed high-quality studies in areas not considered in this review, we believe this effort had an appropriately broad scope to comment on the evidence for the care currently provided to children with SCD. Finally, we limited our study to the 15-year period that ended April 2010 to focus on the recent advances in pediatric SCD. Although studies done before 1995 contributed significantly to the knowledge base, a review of the 15-year period (1980–1994) before our study revealed 7 RCTs had been con-

ducted during this time.^{5,58–63} Except for folate supplementation, these studies informed subsequent trials which are included in this report, which have helped define the current standard of care for children with SCD.

CONCLUSIONS

Providing appropriate care for children with SCD might help prevent or ameliorate many of the complications associated with this disease, and allow them to have a healthier, more productive adulthood. There are many important areas of care in pediatric SCD that lack RCTs. This finding highlights the dual difficulties of performing research on a rare disease⁶⁴ in a pediatric population.⁶⁵ Several important trials are currently under way, including the use of hydroxyurea in children

with abnormal transcranial Doppler screenings to prevent additional damage to the cerebral vessels and the use of chronic transfusions to prevent silent infarcts in children with SCD.^{47,66} However, more work is needed to ensure that the health and well-being of children with SCD continues to improve.

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 49. Ware RE, Rees RC, Sarnaik SA, et al. Renal function in infants with sickle cell anemia: baseline data from the BABY HUG trial. *J Pediatr*. 2010;156(1):66–70.e61
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65. Caldwell PHY, Murphy SB, Butow PN, Craig JC. Clinical trials in children. *Lancet*. 2004;364(9436):803–811
66. Ware RE. How I use hydroxyurea to treat young patients with sickle cell anemia. *Blood*. 2010;115(26):5300–5311

APPENDIX 1 Medline Search Strategies

I. Acute events

1. Acute chest syndrome
acute chest syndrome.mp.
or acute chest.mp. or exp pneumonia/or exp lung diseases
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
2. Aplastic crisis
exp anemia, aplastic
or aplastic crisis.mp. or exp parvovirus/or parvovirus B19, human
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
3. Fever/sepsis
exp fever
or exp bacteremia/or exp sepsis/or septicemia.mp./ or exp meningitis/or exp dehydration/or exp
gastroenteritis/or exp abdominal pain
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
4. Osteomyelitis
exp osteomyelitis
or bone infection.mp.
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
5. Pain episodes
exp pain
or vaso-occlusive crisis.mp. or vasoocclusive crisis.mp. or exp narcotics/or exp analgesics, opioid/or
exp analgesics
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
6. Priapism
exp priapism
or exp penile erection/impotence/or penile prosthesis
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
7. Splenic sequestration
splenic sequestration.mp.
or exp splenectomy/or exp spleen/or exp splenic diseases/or exp hypersplenism
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
8. Stroke
exp cerebrovascular accident
or stroke.mp. or CVA.mp.
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")

II. Chronic conditions

1. Asthma
exp Asthma
or reactive airway disease.mp.
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
2. Avascular necrosis
aseptic necrosis.mp.
or avascular necrosis.mp. or avn.mp. or exp femur head necrosis/or exp osteonecrosis/or humeral
head necrosis.mp.
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
3. Gall bladder disease
exp cholelithiasis
or exp cholecystitis/or exp choledocholithiasis/or exp cholestasis/or exp gallstones/or exp
gallbladder/or exp cholecystectomy
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")

APPENDIX 1 Continued

4. Hepatic dysfunction
exp liver
or hepatic sequestration.mp
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
 5. Leg ulcers
exp Leg ulcer
or leg ulcer.mp
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
 6. Nephropathy
exp proteinuria
or exp renal insufficiency, chronic/or exp hematuria/or exp kidney papillary necrosis/or (kidney and infarction).mp.
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
 7. Pulmonary hypertension
exp hypertension, pulmonary
or exp hypertrophy, right ventricular
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
 8. Retinopathy
retinopathy.mp.
or exp retinal neovascularization/or exp corneal neovascularization/or exp neovascularization, physiologic/or exp choroidal neovascularization/or exp neovascularization, pathologic/or exp neovascularization.mp. or photocoagulation.mp./ or exp laser coagulation/or exp light coagulation/or laser photocoagulation.mp. or exp macular degeneration/or exp retinal detachment/or exp glaucoma/or exp diagnostic techniques, ophthalmological/or exp ophthalmoscopy/or vision tests
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
 9. Silent infarcts/neuropsychological testing
exp neuropsychological tests
or exp brain/and exp magnetic resonance Imaging/or exp cognition/or silent stroke.mp or silent infarct.mp
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
- III. Routine health care maintenance and disease-modifying treatment options
1. Cardiac care
exp cardiomegaly
or exp hypertrophy, right ventricular/or exp ventricular dysfunction, right/or exp heart failure, congestive/or exp heart diseases/or exp echocardiography/or exp electrocardiography
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
 2. Comprehensive care
exp Primary health care
or health maintenance.mp/or health supervision.mp.
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
 3. Folate supplementation
exp folic acid
or folate.mp.
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
 4. Genetic counseling/newborn screening
exp genetic counseling
or exp neonatal screening
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
 5. Growth
exp growth and development
and sickle cell.mp.
limit to (humans and "all child (0 to 18 years)")
-

APPENDIX 1 Continued

6. Prevention of pneumococcal infections
 - exp immunization
 - or exp vaccines/or exp penicillins/or exp antibiotic prophylaxis
 - and sickle cell.mp.
 - limit to (humans and “all child (0 to 18 years)”)
 7. Pulmonary function testing
 - exp respiratory function tests
 - or exp pulmonary function test.mp or exp pulmonary fibrosis/or interstitial fibrosis.mp. or exp pulmonary diffusing capacity or exp lung diseases, obstructive/or exp bronchial hyperreactivity/
 - or exp sleep apnea, obstructive/or hypoxia.mp. or exp sleep apnea syndromes
 - and sickle cell.mp.
 - limit to (humans and “all child (0 to 18 years)”)
 8. Transcranial Doppler screening
 - exp ultrasonography, Doppler, transcranial
 - and sickle cell.mp.
 - limit to (humans and “all child (0 to 18 years)”)
 9. Transfusion
 - chronic transfusion.mp.
 - or exp iron overload/or exp chelation therapy/or exp deferoxamine/or exp iron chelating agents/or transfusion protocol.mp./ or hypertransfusion.mp. or transfusion.mp. or exp transfusion erythrocyte transfusion/or exp blood transfusion/or exp blood component transfusion/or exp blood transfusion, autologous/or exp exchange transfusion, whole blood
 - and sickle cell.mp.
 - limit to (humans and “all child (0 to 18 years)”)
 10. Hematopoietic stem cell transplant
 - exp bone marrow transplantation
 - or exp hematopoietic stem cell transplant
 - and sickle cell.mp.
 - limit to (humans and “all child (0 to 18 years)”)
 11. Hydroxyurea
 - exp hydroxyurea
 - and sickle cell.mp.
 - limit to (humans and “all child (0 to 18 years)”)
-

	Evidence Level
I. Acute events	
Acute chest syndrome ^{1–13}	
1. Sobota A, Graham DA, Heeney MM, Neufeld EJ. Corticosteroids for acute chest syndrome in children with sickle cell disease: variation in use and association with length of stay and readmission. <i>Am J Hematol</i> . 2010;85(1):24–28	III
2. Styles LA, Abboud M, Larkin S, Lo M, Kuypers FA. Transfusion prevents acute chest syndrome predicted by elevated secretory phospholipase A2. <i>Br J Haematol</i> . 2007;136(2):343–344	I
3. Sylvester KP, Patey RA, Milligan P, et al. Impact of acute chest syndrome on lung function of children with sickle cell disease. <i>J Pediatr</i> . 2006;149(1):17–22	II
4. Ballas SK, Files B, Luchtman-Jones L, et al. Safety of purified poloxamer 188 in sickle cell disease: Phase I study of a non-ionic surfactant in the management of acute chest syndrome. <i>Hemoglobin</i> . 2004;28(2):85–102	II
5. Crawford MW, Speakman M, Carver ED, Kim PCW. Acute chest syndrome shows a predilection for basal lung regions on the side of upper abdominal surgery. <i>Can J Anaesth</i> . 2004;51(7):707–711	III
6. Dean D, Neumayr L, Kelly DM, et al. Chlamydia pneumoniae and acute chest syndrome in patients with sickle cell disease. <i>J Pediatr Hematol Oncol</i> . 2003;25(1):46–55	III
7. Neumayr L, Lennette E, Kelly D, et al. Mycoplasma disease and acute chest syndrome in sickle cell disease. <i>Pediatrics</i> . 2003;112(1 pt 1):87–95	III
8. Jenkins TL. Sickle cell anemia in the pediatric intensive care unit: novel approaches for managing life-threatening complications. <i>AACN Clin Issues</i> . 2002;13(2):154–168	III
9. Wales PW, Carver E, Crawford MW, Kim PC. Acute chest syndrome after abdominal surgery in children with sickle cell disease: is a laparoscopic approach better? <i>J Pediatr Surg</i> . 2001;36(5):718–721	III
10. Vichinsky EP, Neumayr LD, Earles AN, et al. Causes and outcomes of the acute chest syndrome in sickle cell disease. National Acute Chest Syndrome Study Group [published correction appears in <i>N Engl J Med</i> . 2000;343(11):824]. <i>N Engl J Med</i> . 2000;342(25):1855–1865	III
11. Morris C, Vichinsky E, Styles L. Clinician assessment for acute chest syndrome in febrile patients with sickle cell disease: is it accurate enough? <i>Ann Emerg Med</i> . 1999;34(1):64–69	III
12. Bernini JC, Rogers ZR, Sandler ES, Reisch JS, Quinn CT, Buchanan GR. Beneficial effect of intravenous dexamethasone in children with mild to moderately severe acute chest syndrome complicating sickle cell disease. <i>Blood</i> . 1998;92(9):3082–3089	I
13. Emre U, Miller ST, Gutierrez M, Steiner P, Rao SP, Rao M. Effect of transfusion in acute chest syndrome of sickle cell disease. <i>J Pediatr</i> . 1995;127(6):901–904	II
Aplastic crisis ^{14–15}	
14. Smith-Whitley K, Zhao H, Hodinka RL, et al. Epidemiology of human parvovirus B19 in children with sickle cell disease. <i>Blood</i> . 2004;103(2):422–427	II
15. Wethers DL, Grover R, Oyeku S. Aplastic crisis and acute splenic sequestration crisis. <i>J Pediatr Hematol Oncol</i> . 2000;22(2):187–188	III
Fever and sepsis ^{16–24}	
16. Halasa NB, Shankar SM, Talbot TR, et al. Incidence of invasive pneumococcal disease among individuals with sickle cell disease before and after the introduction of the pneumococcal conjugate vaccine. <i>Clin Infect Dis</i> . 2007;44(11):1428–1433	II
17. McGregor D, Barton M, Thomas S, Christie CD. Invasive pneumococcal disease in Jamaican children. <i>Ann Trop Paediatr</i> . 2004;24(1):33–40	III
18. Adamkiewicz TV, Sarnaik S, Buchanan GR, et al. Invasive pneumococcal infections in children with sickle cell disease in the era of penicillin prophylaxis, antibiotic resistance, and 23-valent pneumococcal polysaccharide vaccination [published correction appears in <i>J Pediatr</i> . 2004;144(3):412]. <i>J Pediatr</i> . 2003;143(4):438–444	II
19. Norris CF, Smith-Whitley K, McGowan KL. Positive blood cultures in sickle cell disease: time to positivity and clinical outcome. <i>J Pediatr Hematol Oncol</i> . 2003;25(5):390–395	III
20. Hord J, Byrd R, Stowe L, Windsor B, Smith-Whitley K. Streptococcus pneumoniae sepsis and meningitis during the penicillin prophylaxis era in children with sickle cell disease. <i>J Pediatr Hematol Oncol</i> . 2002;24(6):470–472	III
21. West DC, Andrada E, Azari R, Rangaswami AA, Kuppermann N. Predictors of bacteremia in febrile children with sickle cell disease. <i>J Pediatr Hematol Oncol</i> . 2002;24(4):279–283	III
22. Neonato MG, Guillaud-Bataille M, Beauvais P, et al. Acute clinical events in 299 homozygous sickle cell patients living in France. French Study Group on Sickle Cell Disease. <i>Eur J Haematol</i> . 2000;65(3):155–164	III
23. Rahimy MC, Gangbo A, Ahouignan G, Anaonou S, Boco V, Alihonou E. Outpatient management of fever in children with sickle cell disease (SCD) in an African setting. <i>Am J Hematol</i> . 1999;62(1):1–6	III
24. Williams LL, Wilimas JA, Harris SC, Day SW, Dancy RM, Wang WC. Outpatient therapy with ceftriaxone and oral cefixime for selected febrile children with sickle cell disease. <i>J Pediatr Hematol Oncol</i> . 1996;18(3):257–261	III
Osteomyelitis ^{25–32}	
25. Berger E, Saunders N, Wang L, et al. Sickle cell disease in children: differentiating osteomyelitis from vaso-occlusive crisis. <i>Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med</i> . 2009;163(3):251–255	II
26. Almeida A, Roberts I. Bone involvement in sickle cell disease. <i>Br J Haematol</i> . 2005;129(4):482–490	III
27. Skaggs DL, Kim SK, Greene NW, Harris D, Miller JH. Differentiation between bone infarction and acute osteomyelitis in children with sickle-cell disease with use of sequential radionuclide bone-marrow and bone scans. <i>J Bone Joint Surg Am</i> . 2001;83-A(12):1810–1813	III
28. Chambers JB, Forsythe DA, Bertrand SL, Iwinski HJ, Steffik DE. Retrospective review of osteoarticular infections in a pediatric sickle cell age group. <i>J Pediatr Orthop</i> . 2000;20(5):682–685	III
29. Umans H, Haramati N, Flusser G. The diagnostic role of gadolinium enhanced MRI in distinguishing between acute medullary bone infarct and osteomyelitis. <i>Magn Reson Imaging</i> . 2000;18(3):255–262	III
30. William RR, Hussein SS, Jeans WD, Wali YA, Lamki ZA. A prospective study of soft-tissue ultrasonography in sickle cell disease patients with suspected osteomyelitis. <i>Clin Radiol</i> . 2000;55(4):307–310	III

APPENDIX 2 Continued

	Evidence Level
31. Frush DP, Heyneman LE, Ware RE, Bissett GS, 3rd. MR features of soft-tissue abnormalities due to acute marrow infarction in five children with sickle cell disease. <i>AJR Am J Roentgenol.</i> 1999;173(4):989–993	III
32. Sadat-Ali M, al-Umran K, al-Habdan I, al-Mulhim F. Ultrasonography: can it differentiate between vasoocclusive crisis and acute osteomyelitis in sickle cell disease? <i>J Pediatr Orthop.</i> 1998;18(4):552–554	III
Pain episodes ^{33–62}	
33. O'Brien SH, Fan L, Kelleher KJ. Inpatient use of laxatives during opioid administration in children with sickle cell disease. <i>Pediatr Blood Cancer.</i> 2010;54(4):559–562	III
34. Lemanek KL, Ranalli M, Lukens C. A randomized controlled trial of massage therapy in children with sickle cell disease. <i>J Pediatr Psychol.</i> 2009;34(10):1091–1096	I
35. McClellan CB, Schatz JC, Mark TR, et al. Criterion and convergent validity for 4 measures of pain in a pediatric sickle cell disease population. <i>Clin J Pain.</i> 2009;25(2):146–152	III
36. McClellan CB, Schatz JC, Puffer E, et al. Use of handheld wireless technology for a home-based sickle cell pain management protocol. <i>J Pediatr Psychol.</i> 2009;34(5):564–573	III
37. Nolan VG, Zhang Y, Lash T, et al. Association between wind speed and the occurrence of sickle cell acute painful episodes: Results of a case-crossover study. <i>Br J Haematol.</i> 2008;143(3):433–438	II
38. Qari MH, Aljaouni SK, Alardawi MS, et al. Reduction of painful vaso-occlusive crisis of sickle cell anaemia by tinzaparin in a double-blind randomized trial. <i>Thromb Haemost.</i> 2007;98(2):392–396	I
39. Quinn CT, Shull EP, Ahmad N, Lee NJ, Rogers ZR, Buchanan GR. Prognostic significance of early vaso-occlusive complications in children with sickle cell anemia. <i>Blood.</i> 2007;109(1):40–45	III
40. Alvim RC, Viana MB, Pires MAS, et al. Inefficacy of piracetam in the prevention of painful crises in children and adolescents with sickle cell disease. <i>Acta Haematol.</i> 2005;113(4):228–233	I
41. Buchanan ID, Woodward M, Reed GW. Opioid selection during sickle cell pain crisis and its impact on the development of acute chest syndrome. <i>Pediatr Blood Cancer.</i> 2005;45(5):716–724	III
42. Kopecky EA, Jacobson S, Joshi P, Koren G. Systemic exposure to morphine and the risk of acute chest syndrome in sickle cell disease. <i>Clin Pharmacol Ther.</i> 2004;75(3):140–146	II
43. Melzer-Lange MD, Walsh-Kelly CM, Lea G, Hillery CA, Scott JP. Patient-controlled analgesia for sickle cell pain crisis in a pediatric emergency department. <i>Pediatr Emerg Care.</i> 2004;20(1):2–4	II
44. Co JPT, Johnson KB, Duggan AK, Casella JF, Wilson M. Does a clinical pathway improve the quality of care for sickle cell anemia? <i>Joint Comm J Qual Safety.</i> 2003;29(4):181–190	II
45. Gil KM, Carson JW, Porter LS, et al. Daily stress and mood and their association with pain, health-care use, and school activity in adolescents with sickle cell disease. <i>J Pediatr Psychol.</i> 2003;28(5):363–373	III
46. Jacob E, Miaskowski C, Savedra M, Beyer JE, Treadwell M, Styles L. Management of vaso-occlusive pain in children with sickle cell disease. <i>J Pediatr Hematol Oncol.</i> 2003;25(4):307–311	III
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48. Rees DC, Olujohungbe AD, Parker NE, et al. Guidelines for the management of the acute painful crisis in sickle cell disease. <i>Br J Haematol.</i> 2003;120(5):744–752	III
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Priapism ^{63–70}	
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Stroke ^{79–99}	
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APPENDIX 2 Continued

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Asthma ^{100–106}	
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Avascular necrosis ^{107–113}	
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Gallbladder disease ^{114–121}	
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Hepatic dysfunction ^{122–123}	
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Leg ulcers ^{124–125}	
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Nephropathy ^{126–132}	
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Pulmonary hypertension ^{133–143}	
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Retinopathy ^{144,145}	
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Silent infarcts and neuropsychological testing ^{146–162}	
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APPENDIX 2 Continued

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III. Routine health care maintenance and long-term treatment options	
Cardiac care ^{163–164}	
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Comprehensive care ^{165–172}	
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Bone marrow transplant ^{274–283}	
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Hydroxyurea ^{284–321}	
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