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研究成果の刊行物・別冊

Positive and Negative Regulation of Integrin Function

YOSHIAKI TOMIYAMA, MASAMICHI SHIRAGA, AND HIROKAZU KASHIWAGI

Summary. Platelet integrin $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$, a prototypic non-I domain integrin, plays an essential role in platelet aggregation. The structure and function of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ is dramatically changed during platelet plug formation and pathological thrombus formation. The function of this integrin is regulated by the balance of actions of positive and negative regulatory factors. Several novel regulators have emerged from recent studies. As a positive regulator, the P2Y₁₂ plays a critical role in thrombus stability; and continuous interaction between ADP and P2Y₁₂ is essential for sustained $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation. Semaphorin 3A and SHPS-1 have been identified as negative regulators. These molecules are secreted from or expressed on endothelial cells and inhibit the function of platelets as well as $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$. Investigation on these positive and negative regulatory factors should provide a new insight into the treatment of pathological thrombosis.

Key words. Inside-out signaling · Outside-in signaling · P2Y₁₂ · Semaphorin 3A · SHPS-1

Introduction

Platelets play a crucial role not only in hemostatic plug formation but also in a pathological thrombus formation, particularly in atherosclerotic arteries subjected to high shear stress [1, 2]. Moreover, recent studies have revealed that the platelet is a major player in the initiation of vascular remodeling as well as atherosclerotic lesion formation [3, 4]. As an initial step in thrombogenesis, platelets adhere to altered vascular surfaces or exposed subendothelial matrices and then become activated and aggregate with each other. As summarized in Fig. 1, it has been well documented that these processes are primarily mediated by platelet surface glycoproteins: GPIb-IX-V, integrin $\alpha_2\beta_1$ (also known as GPIa-IIa), GPVI, and integrin $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ (GPIIb-IIIa) [5, 6].

Integrins comprise a family of heterodimeric adhesion receptors that mediate cellular attachment to the extracellular matrix and cell cohesion [7–9]. Platelets express at least five integrins on their surface: $\alpha_2\beta_1$ (GPIa-IIa); $\alpha_5\beta_1$ (GPIc-IIa); $\alpha_6\beta_1$ (GPIc'-IIa); $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ (GPIIb-IIIa); $\alpha_v\beta_3$. Platelet integrin $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ is a prototypic non-I domain integrin and plays an essential role in platelet aggregation as a physiological receptor for fibrinogen and von Willebrand factor. The importance of this integrin has been well documented by the clinical features of a congenital bleeding disorder, Glanzmann

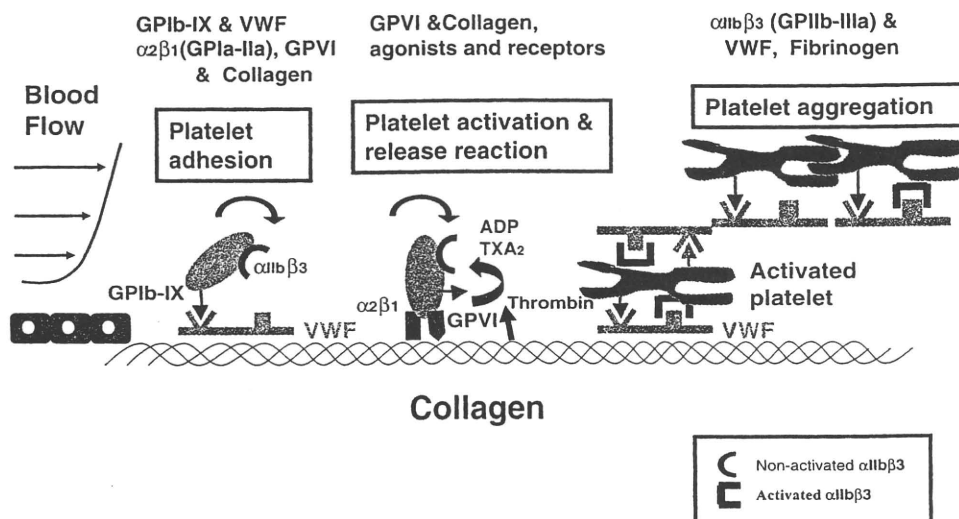


FIG. 1. Mechanisms of platelet plug formation and pathological thrombus formation. These processes depend primarily on platelet adhesive interactions with both platelet surface glycoproteins including integrins and extracellular matrix proteins. Platelet adhesion (or tethering) is mainly mediated by glycoprotein (GP)Ib-IX and von Willebrand factor (VWF) especially under high shear rates; and platelet aggregation is mediated by $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ and VWF and fibrinogen. Platelet activation and released factors such as adenosine diphosphate (ADP) play a critical role in thrombus stability. TXA_2 , thromboxane A_2

thrombasthenia (GT) [10, 11]. The crystal structure of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ revealed that the ligand-binding head is formed by a seven-bladed β -propeller domain from α_{IIb} and a β I-domain from β_3 [12, 13]. Despite the presence of integrin $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ and its ligands, single platelets circulate freely within the vascular tree that is lined by an intact monolayer of endothelial cells. Thus, the function of integrin $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ is regulated by the balance of actions of positive and negative regulatory factors. During thrombogenesis, the affinity of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ for macromolecular ligands is dynamically changed [8, 9]. In resting platelets, $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ is in a low-affinity state and does not bind soluble macromolecular ligands. However, after exposure to subendothelial matrix and several mediators such as adenosine 5'-diphosphate (ADP), thromboxane A_2 , and thrombin, platelets become activated, and activation signals (inside-out signaling) that induce a high-affinity state of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ for soluble ligands ($\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation) are generated. After ligand binding to $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$, postligand-binding signals (outside-in signaling) that induce tyrosine phosphorylation and cytoskeletal reorganization are further generated, leading to full expression of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ function. Molecular characterization of GT due to a dysfunctional $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ (referred as variant GT) provides strong evidence that the cytoplasmic domain of β_3 is involved in inside-out signaling [14, 15]. Indeed, specific binding of the cytoskeletal protein talin to integrin β subunit cytoplasmic tails leads to $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation as a final common step in integrin activation [16]. Major advances have been made regarding the structural basis of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation, resulting in the proposal of the "switchblade" model [17]. However, much remains to be elucidated about factors (or molecules) surrounding platelets that positively or negatively regulate $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ function. In this review, we focus on recently identified factors and/or mechanisms that regulate $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ function.

Positive Regulators for $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ Function

In vivo fluorescence microscopy reveals that a few platelets are tethered to the intact vascular wall even under physiological conditions [18]. However, ~100% of these platelets were displaced from the vascular wall without firm arrest. Thus, a threshold for further platelet activation and the initiation of thrombus formation seems to exist, and $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ function should be dynamically controlled by the balance of positive and negative regulators. A number of factors have been identified as a positive regulator for $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ function (Table 1). These factors contribute to stabilize the platelet thrombus as well as initiate thrombus formation. ADP, collagen, and thrombin are classic, well-known factors that initiate thrombus formation by inducing $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ activation. In contrast, serotonin acts as a potentiator, rather than an initiator, for $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ activation. Recently, several factors that contribute to stabilize platelet thrombus have been identified: CD40L and $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$, Eph kinases and ephrins, Gas6 and its receptors, and ADP and P2Y₁₂ receptor (for review see ref. 19). CD40L, a member of the tumor necrosis factor (TNF) family, is expressed on the platelet surface after platelet activation, and a soluble form of CD40L (sCD40L) is generated by the activation as well. Although CD40 is known to be a receptor for CD40L, the effect of CD40L (and sCD40L) on platelets is mediated by $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ but not by CD40. The interaction of CD40L and $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ contributes to thrombus stability, probably via augmentation of $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ -mediated outside-in signaling [20, 21]. Eph kinases and ephrins also augment $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ outside-in signaling [22, 23]. Platelets express the Eph receptor kinase (EphA4 and EphB1) and the Eph kinase ligand, ephrinB1; and blockade of the Eph/Ephrin interactions causes platelet disaggregation induced by low concentrations of ADP and decreased platelet thrombus volume on a collagen-coated surface at high shear rates. Gas6 is a secreted protein localized in α -granules; and its receptors Axl, Sky, and Mer are also expressed

TABLE 1. Regulators for $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ function

Positive regulators
ADP
Collagen
Thrombin
Epinephrine
PAF
Serotonin
CD40L
Eph kinases/ephrins
Gas6
Leptin
Negative regulators
Prostacyclin
Nitric oxide
CD39 (NTPDase1)
PECAM-1
Semaphorin 3A
SHPS-1 (SIRP α 1)

on platelets. It has been demonstrated that secreted Gas6 binds to its receptors, leading to the promotion and stabilization of platelet plug formation via $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ outside-in signaling [24]. Thus, these newly identified factors may play a role in the stability of platelet aggregation *in vivo*. However, recent studies have revealed that the interaction between ADP and its receptor P2Y₁₂ play a critical role in the stability of platelet thrombus.

Role of the Interaction Between ADP and P2Y₁₂ in the Maintenance of $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ Activation

ADP is stored within platelet dense granules and actively secreted upon platelet activation; approximately 2.5 μmol ADP exists in 10^{11} platelets [25]. Platelets have at least two major G protein-coupled ADP receptors: P2Y₁ is a G_q-coupled receptor responsible for mediating platelet shape change and reversible platelet aggregation through intracellular calcium mobilization, whereas P2Y₁₂ is a G_i-coupled receptor responsible for mediating the inhibition of adenylyl cyclase and sustained platelet aggregation [26]. P2Y₁₂ consists of 342 amino acid residues with seven transmembrane domains. The importance of P2Y₁₂ is well documented by the clinical feature of congenital bleeding disorder due to P2Y₁₂ deficiency [27–29]. We have identified a Japanese patient with P2Y₁₂ deficiency, OSP-1, caused by a point mutation in the translation initiation codon (ATG to AGG) [30]. P2Y₁₂-mediated signaling evoked by endogenous ADP plays a major role in platelet aggregation induced by low concentrations of collagen, U46619, and PAR1 TRAP *in vitro*. We and others have demonstrated impaired thrombus stability under flow conditions [29, 30]. Employing whole blood obtained from OSP-1, real-time analysis of thrombogenesis on a type I collagen-coated surface under a high shear rate (2000 s^{-1}) revealed that P2Y₁₂ deficiency led to loosely packed thrombus and impaired thrombus growth with enhancing adhesion to collagen. The increase in platelet adhesion to collagen was probably due to the impaired platelet consumption by the growing thrombi. Moreover, our real-time observation indicated that the loosely packed aggregates were unable to resist against high shear stress, and most of the aggregates at the apex of the thrombi came off the thrombi [30]. In a mesenteric artery injury model P2Y₁₂-knockout mice also demonstrated the instability of thrombus formation [31]. Thus, the ADP-P2Y₁₂ interaction plays a major role in the stability of thrombus.

We assessed the $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ activation on OPS-1 platelets *in vitro* by the binding of ligand-mimetic monoclonal antibody, PAC-1. Interestingly, $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ activation is markedly impaired by stimulation with PAR1-TRAP, PAR4-TRAP, or U46619 in the absence of P2Y₁₂ [30]. On the other hand, PAR1-TRAP and U46619 are able to induce transient aggregation of OPS-1 platelets, indicating that $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ could be transiently activated with these agonists. Based on these findings, we assume that $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ activation may be too short and unstable to be detected by the PAC1 binding assay on OPS-1 platelets and that released ADP and P2Y₁₂-mediated signaling may play a critical role in the maintenance of $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ activation. Employing modified ligand-binding assays, we have analyzed the mechanism of sustained $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ activation induced by thrombin. After completion of $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ activation and induction of α -granule secretion, a P2Y₁₂ antagonist (AR-C69931MX) was added to the activated platelets [32]. Under these conditions, the stimulated platelets showed long-lasting $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ activation. However, the addition

of 1 μM AR-C69931MX at any time tested after thrombin stimulation disrupted the sustained $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ activation without inhibiting CD62P expression (Fig. 2). Neither yohimbine (an adrenergic receptor antagonist), MIC-9042 (a 5-HT₂ receptor antagonist), nor SQ-29548 (a thromboxane A₂ receptor antagonist) inhibited sustained $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ activation. Dilution of platelet concentrations from 50 000 platelets/ μl to 500 platelets/ μl also abolished sustained $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ activation, and disruption of $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ activation by the dilution was abrogated by the addition of small amounts of “exogenous” ADP. Thus, the continuous interaction between secreted ADP with P2Y₁₂ is necessary for sustained $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ activation induced by thrombin; and substantial amounts of ADP (= substantial platelets) are needed to maintain $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ activation. The critical role of the interaction between ADP and P2Y₁₂ is also evident in the sustained $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ activation induced by U46619 (TXA₂ analogue) [32]. Even in the absence of P2Y₁₂, platelets can transiently aggregate with each other. However, platelets lacking G_q and G₁₃ are completely unresponsive to thrombin, and the activation of G_i-mediated signaling alone is not sufficient to induce platelet aggregation [33]. Thus, it is likely that once $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ is activated by G_q and/or G₁₃-mediated signaling the ADP-P2Y₁₂ may prevent the shift from the activated $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ to the resting $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ (Fig. 2).

Recent *in vivo* observations demonstrated that during platelet thrombus formation circulating platelets were tethered to the luminal surface of growing thrombi by VWF-GPIb interaction. However, more than 95% of tethered platelets were subsequently translocated and/or detached [18]. Activated $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ on the detached platelets should become inactivated because the released ADP is immediately diluted by the

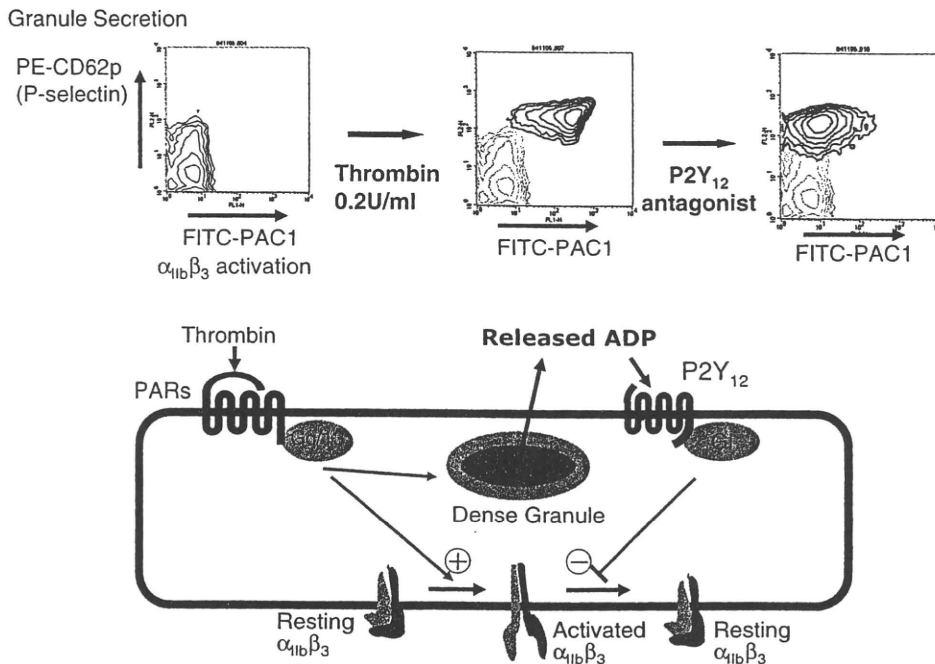


FIG. 2. Critical role of ADP-P2Y₁₂ interaction in the maintenance of $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ activation. Blockade of ADP-P2Y₁₂ interaction at any time after thrombin stimulation disrupts $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ activation. Once $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ is activated by G_q- and/or G₁₃-mediated signaling, the ADP-P2Y₁₂ may prevent the shift from activated $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$ to resting $\alpha_{\text{IIb}}\beta_3$. FITC-PAC1, fluorescein isothiocyanate-conjugated PAC1

blood flow. At the luminal surface, activated $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ on the tethered platelets would be maintained only when the platelets are continuously exposed to ADP released from adjacent activated platelets. At the inside of growing thrombi, it appears that platelets are constantly exposed to such high concentrations of released ADP that $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ can be maintained in its high-affinity state in concert with the effects of thrombin and TXA_2 . It is possible that ADP concentrations surrounding platelets may largely influence whether platelets participate in thrombus formation. Thus, P2Y_{12} may serve as a sensor for thrombogenic status surrounding individual platelets, and the interaction between ADP and P2Y_{12} likely determines thrombus size.

Negative Regulators for $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ Function

Prostacyclin and nitric oxide produced by endothelial cells are well-known negative regulators for the platelet function [34]. In addition to these molecules several negative regulators have been emerged in recent studies (Table 1). We have identified that semaphorin 3A and SHPS-1 act as negative regulators for $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ function [35, 36].

Semaphorin 3A as a Negative Regulator for Platelet Function

The semaphorin family comprises soluble and membrane-bound proteins that are defined by the presence of a conserved 500-amino-acid semaphorin domain at their amino termini. Class 3 semaphorins are secreted disulfide-bound homodimeric molecules; and *Sema3A*, a prototypic class 3 semaphorin, causes growth cone collapse and provides chemorepulsive guidance for migrating axons. Cell surface receptor for *Sema3A* consists of a complex of two distinct transmembrane receptors, neuropilin-1 and plexin A (A1-A3). It has been demonstrated that *Sema3A* is produced by endothelial cells and inhibits integrin function on endothelial cells in an autocrine manner [37]. Employing two distinct *Sema3A* chimera proteins, we have demonstrated that *Sema3A* has extensive inhibitory effects on platelet function [35]. *Sema3A* inhibited agonist-induced $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation dose-dependently. Moreover, *Sema3A* inhibited granular secretion as well as platelet spreading on immobilized fibrinogen. However, *Sema3A* did not show any effects on the levels of cAMP or cGMP or thrombin-induced increase in intracellular Ca^{2+} concentrations. It is likely that *Sema3A* inhibits cytoskeletal reorganization in activated platelets as *Sema3A* inhibits platelet spreading and granule secretion.

Indeed, *Sema3A* inhibited agonist-induced elevation of filamentous actin (F-actin) contents and Rac1 activation. Rac1 activation is necessary for platelet actin assembly and lamellipodia formation after agonist stimulation. Therefore, marked impairment of Rac1 activation is likely to account for the *Sema3A*-induced impairment of actin rearrangement and spreading in platelets. There were two major downstream effectors of Rac1 identified: PAK and WAVEs [Wiskott-Aldrich syndrome protein (WASP) family verprolin-homologous proteins]. Several PAK substrates or binding partners have been implicated in the effects of PAK, including filamin, LIM kinase, myosin, and paxillin. Among them, LIM kinase phosphorylates and inactivates cofilin, a protein that promotes severing and depolymerization of F actin. Consistent with the inhibition of Rac1 activation, *Sema3A* inhibited phosphorylation of cofilin in both resting

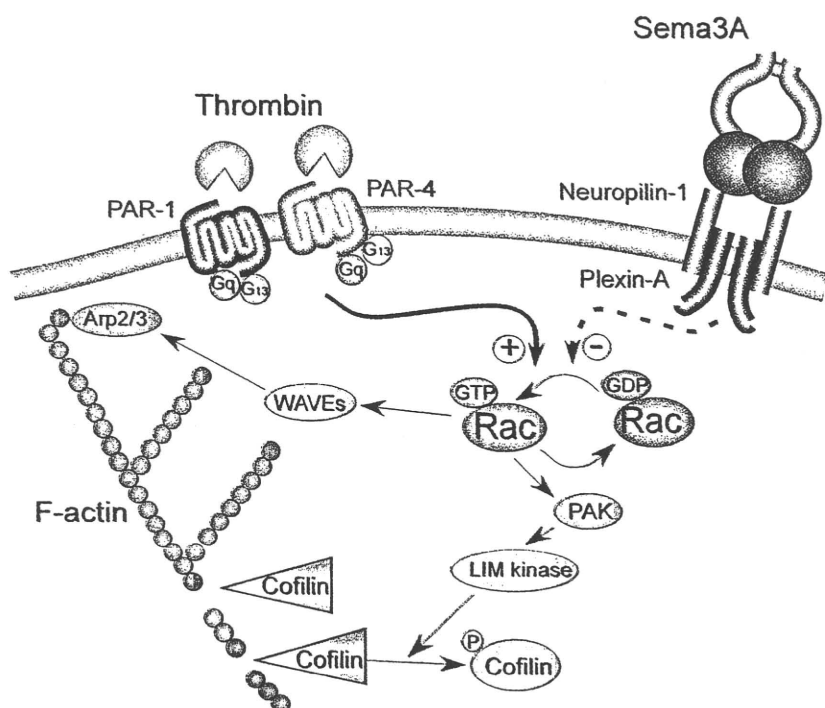


FIG. 3. Inhibitory mechanisms of platelet function by Sema 3A. Sema 3A inhibits platelet spreading and granular secretion as well as $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation. The inhibitory effects are mediated in part by the inhibition of agonist-induced Rac1 activation and phosphorylation of cofilin. This inhibition leads to the inhibition of F-actin elevation and cytoskeleton rearrangement

and activated platelets, suggesting that Sema3A increases severing and depolymerization of F-actin by keeping cofilin in the activated state (Fig. 3). In addition to Rac1 inactivation, our recent data showed that Sema3A inhibited the PI3 kinase pathway, including Rap1B, which may account for the inhibition of $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$ activation (unpublished data).

SHPS-1 as a Negative Regulator for Platelet Function

SHPS-1 (Src homology 2 domain-containing protein tyrosine phosphatase substrate-1), also known as signal regulatory protein $\alpha 1$ (SIRP $\alpha 1$), is a membrane glycoprotein with three extracellular immunoglobulin (Ig)-like domains, a single transmembrane domain, and an intracellular domain containing two immunoreceptor tyrosine-based inhibitory motifs (ITIM) and expressed on endothelial cells and leukocytes. CD47 (integrin-associated protein, or IAP) is a ubiquitously expressed 50-kDa membrane glycoprotein with an extracellular Ig domain, five membrane-spanning domains, and a short cytoplasmic tail. CD47 physically associates with $\alpha_{IIb}\beta_3$, $\alpha_v\beta_3$, and $\alpha_2\beta_1$ and modulates a variety of cell functions [38]. Two ligands are known to bind to CD47: thrombospondin-1 (TSP-1) and SHPS-1. The TSP-1-CD47 interaction has been believed to augment integrin-mediated platelet function. On the other hand, SHPS-1-Ig, a fusion protein consisting of the extracellular domain of SHPS-1 and human Ig Fc domain, impaired secondary platelet aggregation induced by a low concentration

of ADP (2.5 μ M). Moreover, SHPS-1-Ig markedly impaired $\alpha_{11b}\beta_3$ -mediated platelet spreading onto immobilized fibrinogen. The inhibition of platelet spreading is CD47-specific because it was not observed in CD47-deficient (CD47^{-/-}) murine platelets. Of particular interest is that SHPS-1 inhibits $\alpha_{11b}\beta_3$ -mediated platelet spreading without disturbing Syk and FAK tyrosine phosphorylation. SHPS-1 did inhibit tyrosine phosphorylation of α -actinin, a downstream effector of FAK. Thus, SHPS-1 negatively regulates platelet function through CD47, especially $\alpha_{11b}\beta_3$ -mediated outside-in signaling, by interfering with the downstream pathway of FAK.

Conclusion

Thrombogenesis is a complex process regulated by the balance of positive and negative regulatory proteins (or molecules). Further investigations of these regulatory molecules would provide a new insight into the more effective prevention of pathological thrombosis.

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2. ITP における *H. pylori* 除菌療法の治療成績は？

1 序論

特発性血小板減少性紫斑病 idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura (ITP) は血小板破壊の亢進により血小板減少を来し、皮膚や粘膜に紫斑を主体とする出血症状を来す基礎疾患や原因の明らかでない後天性の出血性疾患である。

急性型は小児に多く、ウイルス感染など感染症の後に急激に出血症状を伴って発症し6か月以内に治癒するのに対し、慢性型は成人に多く、緩慢に出血傾向を繰り返す。慢性 ITP は出血性疾患の中で日常最も遭遇する機会が多く、最近では中高年齢者に多い傾向がある¹⁾。

慢性 ITP の血小板破壊については、種々の原因で血小板膜特異糖蛋白 (GPIIb/IIIa, GPIb/IX/V, GPVI, GPV など) に対する自己抗体 (血小板抗体) が産生され²⁾、この血小板抗体によって感作された血小板は脾臓を中心とする網内系細胞の Fc レセプターを介して貪食され、或いは補体成分の活性化による血小板溶解、さらにはリンパ球を介して血小板が破壊され (ADCC) 血小板減少が生じる。

またこの抗体は巨核球にも作用して巨核球の成熟を抑制する結果血小板産生が低下するとの報告も成されている³⁾。いずれにしても免疫学的に末梢における血小板の貪食・破壊、さらには血小板産生抑制などが加わって血小板数の減少がもたらされる病態と考えられている。従って特発性 idiopathic と言うよりむしろ免疫性血小板減少性紫斑病 immune thrombocytopenic purpura としての概念が主流である。免疫性血小板減少性紫斑病には続発性免疫性血小板減少性紫斑病と、原因が不明の原発性免疫性血小板減少性紫斑病に分けられている。

2 指針

基礎疾患や薬剤の関与がなく、原因の明らかでない ITP に対して従来は、副腎皮質ステロイド、摘脾療法が標準的治療として主流を成していた。1998年イタリアの Gasbarrini A らによって *Helicobacter pylori* (以下 HP) 菌陽性の ITP 症例に対し HP 除菌療法成功後に血小板数が増加した8症例が報告された⁴⁾。これを契機に特にイタリア、本邦において多くの HP 陽性 ITP 症例に対して除菌療法による血小板増加効果が報告された。2004年厚生労働省難治性疾患克服研究事業「血液凝固異常症に関する調査研究班」では、これら本邦のエビデンスに基づいた ITP 治療ガイドラインを提案している (図1)⁵⁾。

このガイドラインの特徴は ITP と診断されればまず HP 検査を行い、HP 陽性症例に対しては血小板数にかかわらず除菌療法を行う点にある。一方 HP 陰性例や、除菌成功後も血小板増加効果のない症例に対しては、血小板数と出血傾向に応じて治療を層別化し、従来の治療指針に準じて治療を行う。すなわち出血傾向を認めたり血小板数2万以下では積極的に従来

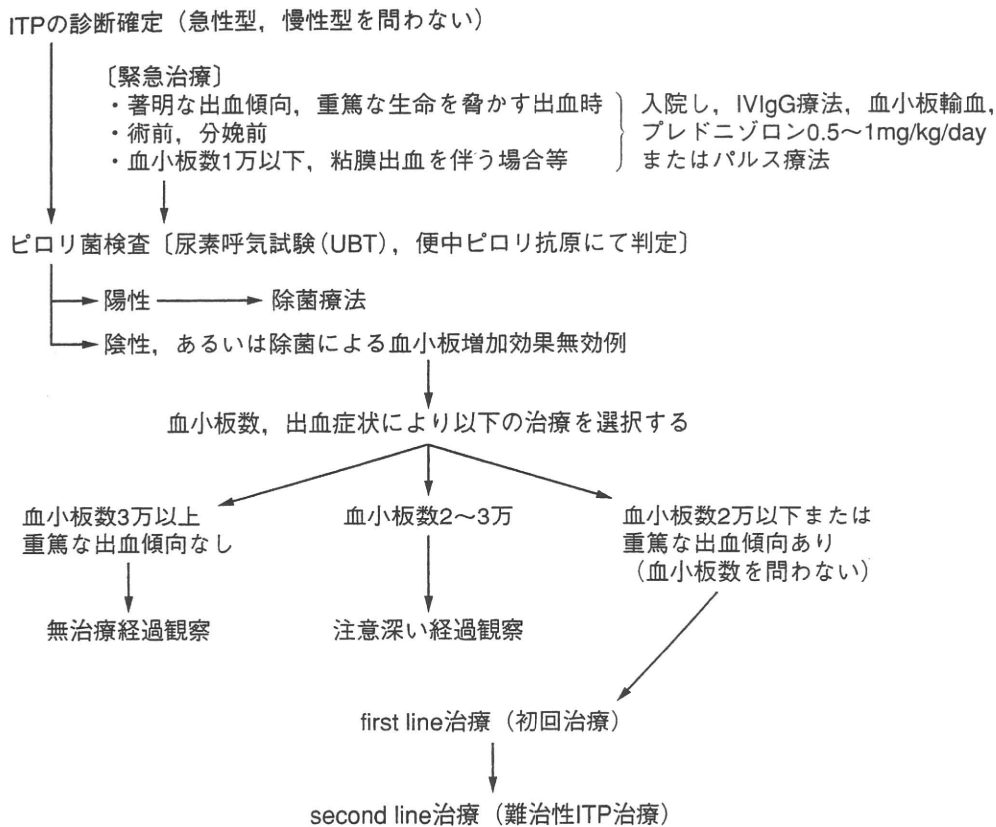


図1 ITP治療の流れ（2004年ガイドライン試案より）⁵⁾

注：ガイドライン案にある付記はすべて除いてある。

の副腎皮質ステロイド療法を開始し，それ以外であれば無治療で経過観察する。本邦では慢性ITPは中高年齢者が最も多くを占め，また約7～8割がピロリ菌陽性であることから除菌対象症例が多い点，除菌療法成功後の血小板増加頻度が格段に高い点，再発がごく少数例である点，除菌療法が簡単に行えること，またその副作用が副腎皮質ステロイドに比し圧倒的に少なく，治療期間も短く，総合的に見れば治療費が安価である，など本邦のITP症例にとって除菌療法は画期的な治療法である。

3 エビデンス

1) Fujimura K, et al (Int J Hematol. 2005; 81: 162-8) (retrospective study)⁶⁾

目的：本邦ITPにおけるHP感染の頻度，除菌療法の血小板増加効果と増加に関する予知因子について検討した。

方法：日本の主要11施設に対し2002年7月から2003年12月の間に受診した成人ITP症例についてアンケート調査を行い解析した。

結果：435症例を検索対象として選択した。このうちHP陽性ITP症例は300例（69%）で陰性例に比し中高年齢者に頻度が高かった。HP陽性率には性差はなく，また日本の一般人口における陽性率と差はなかった。228例に除菌が行われ，除菌結果の明らかな207例中161例（78%）が除菌成功，46例が除菌不成