Behçet's disease: clinical features and treatment

Osman ORAM*, M.D., Yasemin ORAM**, M.D., Eftal YÜCEL***, M.D.

Behçet's disease which is characterized by a relapsing inflammatory process of unknown etiology presents several clinical manifestations involving many organ systems. Because of the multisystem nature of the disease different treatment modalities have been advocated and many others are still under investigation. In this article, the clinical manifestations, diagnostic criteria and recent advances in the treatment of Behçet's disease are reviewed. [Journal of Turgut Özal Medical Center 2(1):78-85,1995]

Key Words: Behçet's disease, clinical features, treatment.

Behçet hastalığı: klinik bulgular ve tedavi

Etiolojisi bilinmeyen ve tekrarlayıcı inflamatuar olaylarla karakterize olan Behçet hastalığı, birçok organ sistemini tutan çeşitli klinik belirtilerle seyreder. Hastalığın multisistemik özelliği nedeniyle değişik tedavi yöntemleri önerilmekte, diğer birçok tedavi yönteminin de etkinliği halen araştırılmaktadır. Bu yazıda, Behçet hastalığının klinik bulguları, tanı kriterleri ve tedavisindeki son gelişmeler gözden geçirilmektedir. [Turgut Özal Tıp Merkezi Dergisi 2(1):78-85,1995]

Anahtar Kelimeler: Behçet hastalığı, klinik bulgular, tedavi.

Although Behçet's disease (BD) was first recognized by a clinical triad of uveitis, oral ulceration and genital ulceration, it is now well known that many other systems might be involved in the disease. While inflammatory episodes are usually intermittent in the clinical manifestations, the disease can become stable and chronic in a given organ system.

CLINICAL MANIFESTATIONS

Oral ulcerations: Aphthous ulcerations of the oral mucosa develop in 75% to 99% of patients^{1,2}. Although figures as high as 75% have been reported², approximately in 25% to 30% of patients it occurs as the first manifestation of BD³. Oral ulcers are classified as minor (most common, small, painful ulcers heal without scarring), major (larger, deeper, very painful) and herpetiform (small, numerous, grouped, shallow) aphthous ulcerations¹. The lesion may start as an erythematous, circular area evolving

into a small, shallow, oval or round ulcer usually to 2 days. A white or yellow pseudomembrane often covers the surface of the ulcer and it has a sharply demarcated erythematous border. The painful ulcers appear singly or in crops. The lips, gingiva, buccal mucosa and tongue are the preferential sites but on rare occasions the palate, tonsils, pharynx and larynx are involved. Most oral aphthous ulcers heal without scarring within 7 to 10 days, although major ulcers may produce scarring. They tend to recur at irregular intervals, commonly stimulated by certain foods such as black walnuts, chocolate and tomatoes 1.2.5.6. Oral ulcerations in BD are described as being indistinguishable from recurrent oral ulceration, however, Main and Chamberlain observed some differences in oral ulcerations of BD when compared with conventional recurrent oral ulcerations, such as increased number of ulcers, variation in size, ill-defined erythematous halo and more frequent involvement of soft palate and oropharynx.

İnönü University Faculty of Medicine, Department of Ophthalmology - Malatya, Turkey.

^{**} Inonu University Faculty of Medicine, Department of Dermatology - Malatya, Turkey.

^{***:} İnönü University Faculty of Medicine, Department of Internal Medicine - Malatya, Turkey.

Genital ulcerations: Genital ulcerations similar to the oral lesions in morphology occur in 75% of patients. The vulva and scrotum are the most frequent sites, but penile shaft, glans penis, vagina and perianal area may also be affected. They are usually deeper than the oral ones, hence they leave scars after healing and residual scarring from previous ulcerations are often present in the examination, even if there are no signs of active genital ulcers. The lesions in men seem to be more painful then those in women. In females the ulcers usually appear premenstrually. The genital lesions recur less frequently than oral ulcerations.

Skin involvement Erythema nodosum-like subcutaneous nodules occur in about one third of patients' Bluish to erythematous, painful, recurrent subcutaneous nodules of erythema nodosum appear in crops on the legs but also can be seen on the buttocks, arms, neck and face. The lesions tend to disappear in 10 to 14 days 5.6. Clinically, erythema nodosum due to BD had been suggested to differ from the classical erythema nodosum, with the occurrence of less redness, pain and swelling⁸. In addition, histologically these lesions do not exhibit the granuloma formation associated with the classical erythema nodosum, but they are characterized by a perivascular mononuclear infiltrate involving the interlobular septae of the subcutaneous fat". Due to these clinical and histologic characteristics, erythema nodosum lesions in BD have been referred to as "erythema nodosum-like lesions"8. The dark cell degeneration of the damaged endothelial cells that lead to obliteration in the cutaneous microvasculature in the erythema nodosum-like lesions of BD has also been described in classical erythema nodosum unassociated with BD10.

Superficial migratory thrombophlebitis is another common characteristic skin lesion described in BD. The endothelial cell dysfunction caused by primary immunologic mechanisms or direct tissue injury lead to the development of this vascular complication¹¹. It is not associated with embolism and occurs both in the lower extremities and in unusual locations, such as the abdominal or chest wall or the upper extremities¹

Folliculitis and acneiform eruptions have been associated with BD. The pustular lesions in BD are in fact neutrophilic perivascular infiltrates¹. They appear as numerous papules and sterile pustules on the face, neck, chest and extremities⁵. However pruritus and comedone formation are not found

More important is the increased reactivity of the

skin to needle pricks or intradermal injection of saline (Behçetine test) 6. This phenomenon is called "pathergy" and occurs in 40% to 88% of patients, especially during the exacerbation of the disease¹². However, the higher prevalence of pathergy positivity is observed in patients with BD from the Mediterranean countries and Japan but it is rarely present in patients originating from Britain and the United States 13.11. Twenty-four to 48 hours after a needle stick or intradermal injection of an inert substance such as sterile saline, pathergy is manifested clinically by erythematous induration, a papule or an aseptic pustule which may evolve into a sterile ulcer3. The intradermal saline method is found to be less sensitive than needle prick and the "simultaneous three needle pricks" gives the most sensitive pathergy reaction. The intensity of this reaction appears to be more prominent with thicker needles and when the disease persists for more than 5 years pathergy positivity seems to decrease¹³. The histopathologic picture of pathergy lesions is a polymorphonuclear leukocyte infiltration followed by the influx of large numbers of mast cells.

Eye involvement: Ocular involvement is one of the most serious manifestations of BD and occurs in 70% to 85% of patients¹⁵. The most distinctive features of ocular involvement in BD are the spontaneous remissions and exacerbations of the intraocular inflammatory signs that cause irreversible changes. Loss of vision is a common complication, especially in posterior segment involvement. Chajek and Fainaru¹⁶ showed that blindness occurred in 44% of their patients with posterior segment involvement after 4-8 years. Mamo¹ reported loss of vision in an average of 3.36 years after onset of eye symptoms. Early in the disease, the ocular involvement may be unilateral but eventually both eyes are involved. however intensity of symptoms in both eyes are not the same. The disease can affect both the anterior and posterior segments of the globe. The initial symptom of the most common ocular symptom, anterior uveitis, is generally hazy vision due to inflammatory exudation in the anterior chamber which may lead to hypopyon formation. Posterior uveitis is manifest by vitreal inflammatory response with macular and disc edema and results in blindness if not treated aggressively^{1,2}. The presence of retinal vasculitis and necrotizing retinal inflammation is well known but often obscured by the severity of the anterior reaction". Sanders and Graham¹⁸ have shown diffuse capillary leakage in all of their cases and also reported that the retinal infiltrations and branch vein

occlusions are pathognomonic features of the retinopathy of BD. Secondary fibrous reaction overlying the perivasculitis in the retina may eventually lead to retinal detachment, intraocular disorganization and phtisis bulbae. In the later stages of the ocular disease, the permanent visual loss may be due to retinal atrophy or atrophy of the optic nerve secondary to inflammatory glaucoma⁶. External eye diseases including conjunctivitis, episcleritis and keratitis may also occur¹.

Central nervous system involvement Neurologic symptoms occur in 10% to 45% of patients in and carry a poor prognosis. Central nervous system involvement usually begins within 5 the onset of the disease 1.16. after Meningoencephalitis is thought to be typical, but brain-stem syndrome and organic-confusion syndrome occur as well¹⁹. The vascular lesions of BD brain-stem are arterial and venous occlusions and aneurysms which may cause intracerebral hemorrhage. Symptoms and signs related to neurologic involvement include headache, pyramidal signs, cerebellar signs, sensory symptoms, pseudobulbar signs, intracranial hypertension, meningeal irritation signs, hemianopia, dementia, personality changes, tremor and myoclonic jerks²⁰. Papilledema due to intracranial hypertension can be an initial manifestation. Spinal fluid examination reveals a marked pleocytosis with a predominance of neutrophils and lymphocytes and in some, an increase in total protein without elevation in gamma globulin. Increased levels of IL-621, C3, C4, IgM and to a lesser degree IgG, IgA and Ig M may also be detected in the spinal fluid²². Lymphocyte subset have shown an increased analysis (cytotoxic/suppressor) T-cell percentage, which is likely to participate in the development of encephalitis²². CT abnormalities commonly occur in these patients with focal deficits and correlate with the activity of parenchymal disease. However, when CT scan is normal despite neurologic symptoms, MRI (magnetic resonance imaging) can reveal abnormal signals which are usually more extensive than clinically expected²⁸.

Arthritis: A recurrent, seronegative arthritis occurs in approximately 40% of patients with BD. It is usually subacute, self-limiting and nondeforming. Most commonly a monoarthritis or oligoarthritis, symmetrically involving the knees, ankles, elbows and wrists are diagnosed²¹. Occasionally the arthritis may be erosive²⁵ and sacroilitis may be associated. The arthritic symptoms are related to the activity of

the disease¹.

Vascular involvement: Vascular involvement of BD affects both arteries and veins of all sizes²⁶. Koc et al.27 has reported the prevalence of vascular disease as 27.7% in 137 Turkish patients with BD. The authors have also noted a higher prevalence of pathergy positivity, erythema nodosum lesions and eye involvement in patients with vascular lesions². Venous system is the major affected site among the vascular lesions and the most common type of venous been involvement has subcutaneous thrombophlebitis^{6,2*}. However, deep vein thrombosis of the extremities and trunk and intracranial venous sinus thrombosis, often accompanied by superficial thrombophlebitis are detected²⁶⁻²⁸. Complications may occur in the more proximal veins such as the femoral and axillary veins, or inferior or superior vena cava, in which the venular obstruction may be so serious that death may ensue⁶. Venoocclusive disease in BD may involve hepatic vein and cause Budd-Chiari syndrome^{27,28} Arterial involvement comprises aneurysm formation, thrombosis and angiitis of systemic and pulmonary arteries. The artery most often affected is the aorta, followed by the pulmonary, femoral, popliteal, subclavian and common carotid arteries 26.28. Rupture of the large artery aneurysms is the leading cause of death in patients with BD.

Other systems involved in BD: Gastrointestinal system involvement in BD occurs in 5% to 50% of patients with a higher incidence in Scotland and USA²⁹. Erosions and ulcers are found usually in the ileocecal region which may give perforation 16.29, but also in esophagus, stomach, duodenum, rectal, perianal or colonic regions²⁹. Pancreatitis has also been reported as an unusual gastrointestinal complication of the Gastrointestinal symptoms such as abdominal pain, vomiting, diarrhea, constipation, malabsorption and abnormal digestion are present¹⁵. gastrointestinal involvement in BD results in a poor prognosis. Jankowski et al.29 have reported that in their study all patients of BD with gastrointestinal involvement have either HLA-DR4 or -DR7 phenotype, suggesting that the expression of DRrelated antigens in the gastrointestinal mucosa may modulate the inflammatory response. Intestinal BD may mimic inflammatory bowel diseases particularly Crohn's disease and may cause considerable diagnostic confusion¹⁵

Pulmonary involvement occurs in about 5% of patients in BD. Pulmonary artery aneurysms.

pulmonary embolism, recurrent pneumonia, pleural effusion, pulmonary fibrosis, obstructive lung disease and pulmonary hypertension may occur³⁰. The major pulmonary manifestation is hemoptysis which may be so severe that requires blood transfusions or cause fatal pulmonary hemorrhage. Other symptoms are dyspnea, pleuratic chest pain, cough and fever³¹. However, asymptomatic pulmonary infiltrates have been reported in BD³².

Cardiac and pericardial involvement are rare and may be due to coincidence¹⁶. Cardiac findings in BD include congestive cardiomyopathy, myocardial infarction, left ventricular diastolic dysfunction, endocarditis and pericarditis⁴.

Kidneys may be involved rarely by asymptomatic, focal glomerulonephritis. Infrequently diffuse proliferative glomerulonephritis³³ or secondary amyloidosis³⁴ has been described in BD. Urological manifestations consist mainly of epididymitis and less commonly sterile urethritis³⁵.

LABORATORY FINDINGS

During relapses, a high erythrocyte sedimentation rate, acute-phase proteins, particularly alpha2 globulins, mild leukocytosis, high levels of circulating immune complexes and alterations in serum complement levels are detected. Serum concentrations of C9 and complement-reactive protein are increased in all forms of the disease. Serum lysozyme and alpha1-acid glycoprotein levels are increased in the ocular disease.

DIAGNOSIS

Because of variable involvement of many organ systems and the lack of pathognomonic laboratory tests, the diagnosis of BD has relied on the identification of the more typical clinical findings. Several authors have proposed different criteria, however, none have been universally accepted. The Behcet's Disease Research Committee of Japan. established by the Ministry of Health and Welfare in 1972, developed a diagnostic criteria which was revised twice, in 1982 and 1987 with the addition of few minor findings. In Table I the diagnostic criteria of BD described by the Behçet's Disease Research Committee of Japan in 1987 are shown. In this diagnostic criteria major and minor symptoms are classified according to the frequency of occurrence, not to the severity, and only the typical findings of minor symptoms are used³⁶. More

International Study Group for Behçet's Disease (ISG) has proposed a single set of diagnostic criteria, which exclude rarer manifestations and are simpler to use³⁷. The ISG criteria are shown in Table II.

Table I. Revised Japanese criteria for Behçet's disease (1987)

Major criteria

- (i) Recurrent aphthous ulcerations of the oral mucous membrane
- (ii) Skin lesions (any of the four)
 - (a) Erythema nodosum
 - (b) Subcutaneous thrombophlebitis
 - (c) Folliculitis, acne-like lesions
 - (d) Cutaneous hypersensitivity
- (iii) Ocular symptoms (any of the three)
 - (a) Iridocyclitis
 - (b) Chorioretinitis, retino-uveitis
 - (c) Definite history of (a) and/or (b)
- (iv) Genital ulcers

2. Minor criteria

- (i) Arthritis without deformity and ankylosis
- (ii) Epididymitis
- (iii) Gastro-intestinal lesions characterized by ileocaecal ulcers
- (iv) Vascular lesions compatible with Behçet's disease
- (v) CNS symptoms compatible with Behçet's disease

3. Diagnosis

- (i) Complete type
 - Four major symptoms apparent during the clinical course
- (ii) Incomplete type
 - (a) Three major symptoms or two major and two minor symptoms apparent during the clinical course
 - (b) Typical ocular symptoms and another major symptom or two minor symptoms apparent during the clinical course
- (iii) Suspected type
 - Some major symptoms apparent but not fulfilling the above two, or typical minor symptoms recurred
- (iv) Subtypes
 - (a) Intestmal Behçet's disease
 - (b) Vascular Behçet's disease
 - (c) Neuro-Behçet's disease

4. Findings helpful in diagnosis

- (i) Cutaneous needle reaction
- (ii) Inflammatory reactions: rise in ESR, positive CPR, and increase in number of peripheral WBC
- (iii) HLA B51 (B5)

Differential diagnosis of BD includes Reiter's syndrome, Stevens-Johnson syndrome, systemic lupus erythematosus, Crohn's disease, ulcerative colitis, ankylosing spondylitis and herpes simplex infection with aseptic meningitis⁴.

COURSE AND PROGNOSIS

BD presents a highly variable clinical course, with recurrences and remissions. The initial manifestations are usually oral or genital ulcers and ocular lesions. As the disease progresses, diffuse vascular and neurologic findings occur. The relapsing attacks are more frequent early in the

Behçet's disease: clinical features and treatment

course of the disease and may be fatal. Death can also result from treatment of the disease⁶. Eye involvement, in the last stage may cause blindness and comprises one of the major causes of morbidity. The involvement of neurologic, gastrointestinal and vascular system appear to have poor prognosis^{3,4}. The worst prognosis is seen in young adult males³⁸.

Table II. International criteria for classification of Behçet's disease (1992)

Recurrent oral ulceration

Minor aphthous, major aphthous or herpetiform ulceration observed by a physician or reported reliably by patient Recurrent at least three times in one 12-month period

Plus 2 of

Recurrent genital ulceration

Recurrent genital aphthous ulceration or scarring, especially males, observed by physician or reliably reported by patient

Eye lesions

Anterior uveitis

Posterior uveitis

Cells in vitreous on slit lamp examination

or Retinal vasculitis observed by qualified physician (ophthalmologist)

Skin lesions

Erythema nodosum-like lesions observed by physician or reliably reported by patient

Pseudo folliculitis

Papulopustular lesions

or Acneiform nodules consistent with Behoet's disease observed by a physician and in post-adolescent patients not receiving corticosteroids

Positive pathergy test

To be read by a physician at 24-48 h, performed with oblique insertion of a 20-gauge or smaller needle under sterile conditions

Note: findings are applicable if no other clinical explanation is present

TREATMENT

Topical therapy: Topical therapy is mainly used for the treatment of oral, genital and eye lesions. Besides general measures of oral hygiene by using standard mouthwashes or chlorhexidine, topical preparations of local anesthetics (2% lidocaine gel) and topical potent steroid preparations (0.1% triamcinolone acetonide in Orabase) applied three or four times daily provide symptomatic relief^{3,4,38}. The topical use of tetracyclines which has antiviral, antibacterial and antichemotactic activities has been recommended for oral ulcers. The content of a 250 mg capsule is dissolved in 5 ml of water and the solution is kept in the mouth for 2 minutes before swallowing³. In an open, preliminary report, recombinant interferon - alpha has been found to

reduce the number of oral ulcers when applied topically³⁹, but later with a lower dose, its moderately beneficial effect was not confirmed in a double blind placebo controlled study⁴⁰.

Local application of corticosteroids in genital ulcerations and the use of mydriatics and corticosteroids in the ocular inflammation have therapeutic effects^{31,38}. Topical agents that coat oral ulcers, like sucralfate and tannic acid in alcohol have limited effects.

Systemic therapy: Although colchicine is still the first-choice drug in Japan³⁶, Aktulga et al. 11 in a controlled study have shown colchicine to be ineffective in most manifestations of BD. It exerts its therapeutic effect by inhibiting polymorphonuclear chemotaxis and has been found beneficial in cutaneous and ocular manifestations with 1mg daily dose for 2 months to 2 years. Raynor and Askari¹² have reported that they have achieved remarkable of improvement cutaneous. ocular gastrointestinal manifestations in a patient with 0.6 mg oral colchicine twice daily for 5 weeks. The purpose of its use, however, is to prevent recurrences rather than to treat the active disease.

Corticosteroids (prednisone or prednisolone) have advocated in the treatment of acute inflammatory manifestations of BD and especially indicated in patients with severe central nervous system and eve involvement. It is more effective in early active disease than the chronic stage and generally the meningoencephalitis has a better response to steroid treatment than other types of neurologic involvement^{4,6}. The recommended dose of oral prednisone is 60 to 100 mg daily for ocular and neurologic manifestations, whereas 4 to 6 mg/day is usually enough to control mucocutaneous and articular symptoms 4,6,38. However, there is debate as to whether corticosteroids improve or may even aggravate isolated macular edema³⁸ and particularly during tapering the steroid, in order to avoid the exacerbations, effect additive of another immunosuppressive agent such as cyclophosphamide. chlorambucil or azathioprine is usually required "

Cyclophosphamide, chlorambucil, azathioprine and cyclosporine are the cytotoxic agents that are used in BD. Cyclophosphamide, at a dose of 2 to 3 mg/kg/day orally or preferably as intravenous bolus treatment has beneficial effect in mucocutaneous, articular and ocular manifestations. The daily dose should be reduced when leukopenia occurs^{6,38}.

Although the administration of cyclophosphamide in a dose of 1 to 1.5 g intravenously per month is also

recommended, there is a recent suggestion that it should be given in lower doses more frequently, such as 500 mg per week¹³. Chlorambucil is a low-toxicity drug and is relatively well tolerated. It is administered in doses of 6 to 8 mg daily and useful especially for ocular lesions as well as for mucocutaneous, arthritic, vascular and neurologic manifestations 14.18. Prolonged treatment, with doses of 2 to 4 mg daily may be necessary to maintain remission However, the risks of long-term chlorambucil therapy including myelotoxicity and irreversible azoospermia, outweight its benefits in BD. Azathioprine, in a 2.5 mg/kg daily dose has been useful in controlling the evolution of the disease, particularly the progression of ocular disease may be prevented if initiated early 16. It is not effective as a single agent and its serious side effects include myelotoxicity, sterility, opportunistic infections and hepatotoxicity 1

Cyclosporin, an immunomodulating agent, has been demonstrated to be effective in acute inflammatory eye disease as well as mucocutaneous and arthritic symptoms 1. It appears to be superior to colchicine in the ocular involvement. recommended dose of cyclosporin in BD is 5 to 10 mg/kg/day. Ben Ezra et al.48 compared 5 to 10 mg/kg/day of cyclosporin with either corticosteroid or chlorambucil They found that although cyclosporin was superior in its ability to alleviate ocular disease, conventional therapy permitted better control of the extraocular manifestations. Özyazgan et al. 48 have reported that low dose cyclosporin (5 mg/kg/day) is significantly more effective in the ocular involvement than monthly intravenous bolus injections of 1000 mg of cyclophosphamide for the initial 6 months of treatment. However exacerbations of the symptoms are common after withdrawal of the drug³⁸. Side effects such as gingivitis, renal toxicity, hypertension, hirsutism, nausea have been known and may limit its use 1.38. Cyclosporin induced renal toxicity can be reduced with the use of bromocriptine (2.5 mg 3 to 4 times daily) in combination¹⁹.

FK506 is a novel immunosuppressive agent which has a similar action to that of cyclosporin, has been reported to be effective in severe and refractory ocular involvement in BD as well as pulmonary infiltrates and skin lesions of a patient with BD showed improvement 32.50.

Other therapeutic approaches: Levamisole, an anthelmintic, in doses of 50 mg three times daily for 2 days each week, has been found to be useful especially in oral and genital ulcerations, possibly

due to its immunomodulatory effect 51.52. Transfer factor prepared from leukocytes of healthy persons and injected subcutaneously, may be used in reducing cutaneous and articular manifestations Plasmapheresis which remove immune complexes from circulation, can be useful adjunct in emergency situations but is not practical for chronic use 4.6. Dapsone, a drug of similar action to colchicine has been found effective at a dose of 100 mg daily in patients with skin and genital lesions^{5,4}. Aspirin and nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory agents have been helpful in arthritic symptoms and pericardial effusion 38.55. Simsek et al. 56 have reported that 88% of skin lesions and 80% of joint manifestations of BD responded to indomethacin treatment in an open study. Sulphasalazine, 2 to 4 g daily, is reported to be beneficial in gastrointestinal involvement. Thalidomide, in a dose of 200 to 400 mg/day has been used in mucocutaneous lesions of BD, however, it is highly teratogenic and not available in most countries³⁸. The efficacy of the antiviral agent acyclovir in BD is controversial; although it has been found promising in BD5, Davies et al. have reported negative results with acyclovir in a doubleblind trial. For inflammatory ocular disease methotrexate seems to be a possibility. Durand et al. have suggested that interferon-alpha2b may be a beneficial alternative in BD with severe ocular involvement resistant to standard treatment.

Anticoagulants appear to have no place in the treatment of the vascular complications of BD. Ethylestrenol and phenformin, streptokinase and stanozolol and low-dose aspirin have been recommended to treat thrombophlebitis 11.38.51.

REFERENCES

- Callen JP, Mahl CF. Oculocutaneous manifestations observed in multisystem disorders. Dermatol Clin 1992; 10:709-16.
- Synderman R. Behçet's disease-Provocative clues. West J Med 1988; 148:438-9.
- 3. Arbesfeld SJ, Kurban AK. Behçet's disease. J Am Acad Dermatol 1988; 19:767-79.
- 4. Stratigos AJ, Laskaris G, Stratigos JD. Behçet's disease. Semin Neurol 1992; 12:346-57.
- 5. Shimizu T, Ehrlich GE, Inaba G, Hayashi K. Behçet's disease (Behçet's syndrome). Semin Arthritis Rheum 1979; 8:223-60.
- 6. Michelson JB, Friedlaender MH. Behçet's disease. Int Ophthalmol Clin 1990; 30:271-8.
- 7. Main DMG, Chamberlain MA. Clinical

- differentiation of oral ulceration in Behçet's disease. Br J Rheumatol 1992; 31:767-70.
- Nazzaro P. Cutaneous manifestations of Behçet's disease. In:Monacelli M, Nazzaro P editors. Behçet disease. Basel, Switzerland, S. Karger. 1966:15-41.
- Honma T, Bang D, Saito T, Nakagawa S, Ueki H, Lee S. Ultrastructure of lymphocyte-mediated fatcell lysis in erythema nodosum-like lesions of Behçet's syndrome. Arch Dermatol 1987; 123:1650-4.
- 10. Honma T, Bang D, Lee S, Saito T. Ultrastructure of endothelial cell necrosis in classical erythema nodosum. Hum Pathol 1993; 24:384-90.
- 11 Samlaska CP, James WD. Superficial thrombophlebitis II. Secondary hypercoagulable states. J Am Acad Dermatol 1990; 23:1-18.
- 12. Tüzün Y, Altaç M, Yazıcı H. Non-specific skin hyperactivity in Behçet's disease. Haemotologica 65:395-398, 1980.
- Özarmağan C, Saylan T, Azizlerli G, Övül C, Aksungur VL. Re-evaluation of the pathergy test in Behçet's disease. Acta Derm Venereol (Stockh) 1991: 71:75-6.
- 14. Yazıcı H, Chamberlain MA, Tüzün Y, Yurdakul S, Müftüoğlu A. A comparative study of the pathergy reaction among Turkish and British patients with Behçet's disease. Ann Rheum Dis 1984; 43:74-5.
- 15. Michelson JB, Chisari FV. Behçet's disease. Surv Ophthalmol 1982; 26:190-203.
- Chajek T, Fainaru M. Behçet's disease. Report of 41 cases and a review of the literature. Medicine 1975; 54:179-96.
- 17. Mamo GJ. The rate of visual loss in Behçet's disease. Arch Ophthalmol 1970; 84:451-2.
- 18. Sanders MD, Graham EM. Retinal vasculitis. Postgrad Med J 1988; 64:488-96.
- Allen NB. Miscellaneous vasculitic syndromes including Behçet's disease and central nervous system vasculitis. Curr Opin Rheumatol 1993; 5:51-6.
- Serdaroğlu P, Yazıcı H, Özdemir C, Yurdakul S, Bahar S, Aktin E. Neurologic involvement in Behçet's syndrome. Arch Neurol 1989; 46:265-269.
- 21. Hirohata S, Tanimoto K, Ito K. Elevation of cerebrospinal fluid interleukin-6 activity in patients with vasculitides and central nervous system involvement. Clin Immunol Immunopathol 1993; 66:225-9.
- 22. Sharief MK, Hentges R, Thomas E. Significance

- of CSF immunoglobulins in monitoring neurologic disease activity in Behçet's disease. Neurology 1991; 41:1398-1401.
- 23. Wechsler B, Dell'Isola B, Vidailhet M, Dormont D, Piette JC, Bletry O, Godeau P. MRI in 31 patients with Behçet's disease and neurological involvement: prospective study with clinical correlation. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 1993, 56:793-8.
- 24. Yurdakul S, Yazıcı H, Tüzün Y, Pazarlı H, Yalçın B, Altaç M, Özyazgan Y, Tüzüner N, Müftüoğlu A. The arthritis of Behçet's disease: a prospective study. Ann Rheum Dis 1983; 42:505-15.
- 25. Jawad ASM, Goodwill CJ. Behçet's disease with erosive arthritis. Ann Rheum Dis 1986; 45:961-2.
- 26. Sherif A, Stewart P, Mendes DM. The repetitive vascular catastrophes of Behçet's disease: A case report with review of the literature. Ann Vasc Surg 1992; 6:85-9.
- 27. Koç Y, Güllü I, Akpek G, Akpolat T, Kansu E, Kiraz S, Batman F, Kansu T, Balkancı F, Akkaya S, Telatar H, Zileli T. Vascular involvement in Behçet's disease. J Rheumatol 1992; 19:402-10.
- 28. Lie JT. Vascular involvement in Behçet's disease: Arterial and venous and vessels of all sizes. J Rheumatol 1992; 19:341-3.
- Jankowski J, Crombie I, Jankowski R. Behçet's syndrome in Scotland. Postgrad Med J 1992; 68:566-70.
- 30. James DG. 'Silk Route Disease' (Behçet's disease). West J Med 1988; 148:433-7.
- Raz I, Okon E, Chajek-Shaul T. Pulmonary manifestations in Behçet's syndrome. Chest 1989; 95:585-9.
- 32. Koga T, Yano T, Ichikawa Y, Oizumi K, Mochizuki M. Pulmonary infiltrates recovered by FK506 in a patient with Behçet's disease. Chest 1993; 104:309-11.
- 33. Hamuryudan V, Yurdakul S, Kural AR, Ince U, Yazıcı H. Diffuse proliferative glomerulonephritis in Behçet's syndrome. Br J Rheumatol 1991; 30:63-4.
- 34. Dilşen N, Koniçe M, Aral O, Erbengi T, Uysal V, Koçak N, Özdoğan E. Behçet's disease associated with amyloidosis in Turkey and in the world. Ann Rheum Dis 1988; 47:157-63.
- 35. Kırkalı Z. Yiğitbaşı O. Şaşmaz R. Urological aspects of Behçet's disease. Br J Urol 1991; 67:638-9.
- 36. Mizushima Y. Recent research into Behçet's disease in Japan. Int J Tiss React X 1988; 59-65.

- 37 The International Study Group For Behçet's Disease. Evaluation of diagnostic ('classification') criteria in Behçet's disease 'towards internationally agreed criteria. Br J Rheumatol 1992; 31:299-308.
- 38. Yazıcı H, Barnes CG. Practical treatment recommendations for pharmacotherapy of Behçet's syndrome. Drugs 1991; 42:796-804.
- 39 Hamuryudan V, Yurdakul S, Serdaroğlu S, Tüzün Y, Rosenkaimer F, Yazıcı H. Topical alpha interferon in the treatment of oral ulcers in Beliçet's syndrome: a preliminary report. Clin Exp Rheumatol 1990; 8:51-4.
- 40. Hamuryudan V, Yurdakul S, Rosenkaimer F, Yazıcı H. Inefficacy of topical alpha interferon in the treatment of oral ulcers of Behçet's syndrome: a randomized, double blind trial. Br J Rheumatol 1991, 30:395-6.
- 41. Aktulga A, Altaç M, Müftüoğlu AU, Özyazgan Y, Pazarlı H. A double blind study of colchicine in Behçet's disease. Haematologica 1980; 65:399-402.
- 42. Raynor A. Askari AD. Behçet's disease and treatment with colchicine. J Am Acad Dermatol 1980; 2:396-400.
- 43 Ozyazgan Y, Yurdakul S, Yazıcı H, Tüzün B, İşçimen A, Tüzün Y, Aktunç T, Pazarlı H, Hamuryudan V, Müftüoğlu A. Low dose cyclosporin A versus pulsed cyclophosphamide in Behçet's syndrome: a single masked trial. Br J Ophthalmol 1992; 241-3.
- 44 O'Duffy JD. Behçet's syndrome. N Eng J Med 1990; 322:326-8.
- 45. Mamo JG, Azzam SA. Treatment of Behçet's disease with chlorambucil. Arch Ophthalmol 1970; 84:446-50.
- 46. Yazıcı H, Pazarlı H, Barnes CG, Tüzün Y, Özyazgan Y, Silman A, Serdaroğlu S, Oğuz V, Yurdakul S, Lovatt GE, Yazıcı B, Somani S, Müftüoğlu A. A controlled trial of azathioprine in Behçet's syndrome. N Eng J Med 1990; 322:281-5.
- 47. Nussenblatt RB, Palestine AG, Chan C, Mochizuki M, Yancey K. Effectiveness of cyclosporin therapy for Behçet's disease. Arthritis Rheum 1985; 28:671-9.
- 48. BenEzra D, Cohen E, Chajek T,...Evaluation of conventional therapy versus cyclosporin A in Behçet's syndrome. Transplant Proc 1988; 3:136-43

- 49. Faris BM, Foster CS. Behçet's disease. In: Albert DM, Jakobiec FA editors. Principles and Practice of Ophthalmology. Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders, 1994:1018-27.
- 50. Mochizuki M, Masuda K, Sakane T, Inaba G, Ito K, Kogure M, Sugino N, Usui M, Mizushima Y, Ohno S, Miyanaga Y, Hayasaka S, Ohizumi K. A multicenter clinical open trial of FK 506 in refractory uveitis, including Behçet's disease. Transplant Proc 1991; 23:3343-6.
- 51. James DG. Behçet's syndrome. N Eng J Med 1979; 301:431-2.
- 52. Lavery HA, Pinkerton JHM. Successful treatment of Behçet's syndrome with levamisole. Br J Dermatol 1985; 113:372-3.
- 53. Wolf RE, Fudenberg HH, Welch TM, Spitler LE, Ziff M. Treatment of Behçet's syndrome with transfer factor. JAMA 1977; 238:869-71.
- 54. Sharquie KE. Suppression of Behçet's disease with dapsone. Br J Dermatol 1984; 110:493-4.
- 55. Scarlett JA, Kistner ML, Yang LC. Behçet's syndrome- report of a case associated with pericardial effusion and cryoglobulinemia treated with indomethacin. Am J Med 1979; 66:146-8.
- 56. Şimşek H, Dündar S, Telatar H. Treatment of Behçet's disease with indomethacin. Int J Dermatol 1991, 30:54-7.
- 57. Resegotti L, Pistone M. Acyclovir and Behçet's syndrome. Ann Intern Med 1984; 100:319.
- 58. Davies UM, Palmer RG, Denman AM. Treatment with acyclovir does not affect orogenital ulcers in Behçet's syndrome: A randomized double-blind trial. Br J Rheumatol 1988; 27:300-2.
- Durand JM, Kaplanski G, Telle H, Soubeyrand J, Paulo F. Beneficial effects of interferon-2b in Behçet's disease. Arthritis Rheum 1993; 36:1025-1026.

Corresponding address: Osman ORAM, M.D. Assistant Professor, Department of Ophthalmology Faculty of Medicine, University of İnönü MALATYA, Turkey 44100 Phone No: (422) 326 15 98 Fax No: (422) 324 99 63