

HEMATOLOGICAL ABNORMALITIES IN RHEUMATOID ARTHRITIS: PREVALENCE, MECHANISMS, AND CLINICAL IMPLICATIONS

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ABSTRACT

Rheumatoid Arthritis (RA) is a chronic systemic autoimmune disease that is not only marked by persistent synovial inflammation and consequent joint destruction but is also accompanied by a variety of extra-articular manifestations. Amongst the hematologic manifestations of RA, which are highly prevalent and significant in nature, the present article attempts to provide an overview of the hematologic abnormalities in the condition of RA. Chronic systemic inflammation is known to play a pivotal role in the derangement of normal hematopoiesis, through the mechanism of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as interleukin-6 (IL-6), tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF-alpha), and interleukin-1 (IL-1). Amongst the hematologic abnormalities, anemia, especially anemia of chronic disease, is the most common manifestation of RA and is observed in 30-60% of RA patients. Iron deficiency anemia and hemolytic anemia are other hematologic abnormalities that are observed in RA. In addition, abnormal leukocyte count is also observed in RA. These abnormal leukocyte counts are in the form of leukocytosis, neutropenia, and abnormal functioning of lymphocytes. In addition, abnormal platelet count in the form of reactive thrombocytosis and thrombocytopenia is also observed. An important complication of Felty's Syndrome, which is a rare but severe complication that involves the combination of RA, neutropenia, and splenomegaly, thereby increasing susceptibility to infections. Moreover, there is an increased risk of lymphoproliferative syndromes in RA patients. In addition, the pharmacological interventions in RA have been reviewed in the article. These interventions include conventional and biologic disease-modifying antirheumatic drugs (DMARDs), which may have both ameliorative and causative effects on hematologic disorders. In the evaluation of RA, laboratory investigations are essential. These include complete blood count, peripheral smear, iron profile, and inflammatory markers. In certain cases, bone marrow examination is also carried out. It is essential to understand the relationship between inflammation, immune system dysfunction, and hematopoiesis in RA. New biomarkers and targeted therapies are important in the management of hematologic manifestations in RA.

Keywords:

1. INTRODUCTION

Rheumatoid Arthritis is defined as a chronic systemic autoimmune disease, which involves the inflammation of the synovial joints and results in the destruction of the cartilage and the deformation of the joint (Smolen et al., 2016). The pathophysiology of the disease occurs when the immune system attacks the self-antigens present in the synovial membrane, which results in the continuous activation of the immune system and the infiltration of inflammatory cells such as T and B-lymphocytes, macrophages, and neutrophils (McInnes & Schett, 2017). The continuous inflammation results in the formation of pannus tissue, which destroys the cartilage and the bone, thereby causing joint dysfunction and disability (Smolen et al., 2016). Although the disease primarily affects the joint, the disease has been recognized as a systemic inflammatory disease, which has many extra-articular manifestations, including the cardiovascular, pulmonary, neurological, and hematological systems (McInnes & Schett, 2017). The hematological abnormalities are one of the most common systemic manifestations of the disease, which affects the prognosis of the patient (Klein & Molad, 2021). Rheumatoid Arthritis is defined as a chronic systemic autoimmune disease that is characterized by persistent inflammation of the synovial joints, leading to destruction of the cartilage and deformation of the joints (Smolen et al., 2016).

Rheumatoid Arthritis is caused by the abnormal response of the immune system, which mistakenly identifies the presence of auto antigens in the synovial membrane, leading to continuous inflammation and the presence of inflammatory cells such as T and B-lymphocytes, macrophages, and neutrophils (McInnes & Schett, 2017). This continuous inflammation results in the formation of pannus tissue, which consequently results in the destruction of the cartilage and deformation of the joints (Smolen et al., 2016).

Rheumatoid Arthritis is primarily characterized by inflammation of the joints; however, it is also considered a systemic disease that has many manifestations outside the joints, such as the cardiovascular, pulmonary, neurological, and hematological systems (McInnes & Schett, 2017).

Among the manifestations outside the joints, hematological disorders are considered one of the most common complications and may greatly influence the progression and prognosis of the disease (Klein & Molad, 2021). The pathogenesis of RA is multifactorial and involves both genetic and environmental factors, as well as dysregulation of the immune system (McInnes & Schett, 2017). Genetic factors such as HLA-DRB1 are known to play an important role in the pathogenesis of RA (Smolen et al., 2016). Environmental factors such as smoking, infections, and an imbalance of microbes in the human body trigger the disease process in susceptible individuals (McInnes & Schett, 2017).

Immunocytes present in the synovial membrane are activated, leading to the production of several pro-inflammatory cytokines such as tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF-alpha), interleukin-1 (IL-1), and interleukin-6 (IL-6), which play an important role in the pathogenesis of the disease (Smolen et al., 2016). The pro-inflammatory cytokines trigger cell proliferation, osteoclast activity, and cartilage damage by the release of enzymes such as matrix metalloproteinases (McInnes & Schett, 2017). In addition to the damage to the joints, systemic release of pro-inflammatory cytokines causes several metabolic, cardiovascular, and hematologic disorders, commonly seen in patients suffering from RA (Klein & Molad, 2021). Among the most common manifestations is hematological abnormality, which is often correlated with the severity and activity of systemic inflammation (Klein & Molad, 2021). The most frequent abnormality is Anemia of Chronic Disease, which occurs in 30-60% of patients with RA and results from abnormalities in iron metabolism and the inhibition of erythropoiesis (Wilson et al., 2004). Other abnormalities include thrombocytosis, leukopenia, neutropenia, lymphopenia, and even Felty's syndrome, which is defined by the combination of RA, neutropenia, and splenomegaly (Balint & Balint, 2004). Such abnormalities are usually caused by inflammation, autoimmune destruction of blood cells, and drug toxicities, which are usually the side effects of pharmacological interventions used in the control of the disease (Klein & Molad, 2021). In this

regard, it is important to assess and monitor abnormalities such as the levels of hemoglobin, leukocytes, and platelets in the proper management and control of the disease among patients with RA (Wilson et al., 2004).

2. Pathophysiology of Hematological Changes in RA

Systemic inflammatory persistence is the major mechanism underlying hematological abnormalities in RA patients (McInnes & Schett, 2017). The immune cells, upon activation, release inflammatory cytokines, leading to alterations in the process of hematopoiesis, which takes place in the bone marrow, thereby leading to an imbalance in the production of blood cells (Jongen-Lavrencic et al., 1997). Persistent systemic inflammation has also been shown to affect iron metabolism, causing the accumulation of iron in macrophages and the reduction of iron uptake in the intestine, thereby causing anemia of chronic disease (Weiss & Goodnough, 2005). In addition, it could result in the destruction of blood cells, leading to cytopenias in RA patients (Klein & Molad, 2021). The pro-inflammatory cytokines are at the center of mediating the hematological abnormalities in RA patients (Smolen et al., 2016). The pro-inflammatory cytokine, interleukin-6, has been found to be critical in mediating the hematological abnormalities in RA patients, since it stimulates the liver to produce hepcidin, which is responsible for regulating iron metabolism by blocking iron release from macrophages, leading to a reduction in iron levels for erythropoiesis (Weiss & Goodnough, 2005).

The production of TNF-alpha and IL-1 has been found to inhibit the proliferation and differentiation of erythroid progenitor cells in the bone marrow, leading to a reduction in red blood cell production (Jongen-Lavrencic et al., 1997). The pro-inflammatory cytokines are responsible for thrombopoiesis, leading to reactive thrombocytosis, which is common in RA patients, especially in the active inflammatory stage of the disease (Wilson et al., 2004). The hematological abnormalities in RA patients are therefore largely mediated by the inflammatory pathways of these cytokines. Inflammatory cytokines have been shown to affect the bone marrow

microenvironment and disrupt normal hematopoiesis (Papadaki et al., 2002).

Research has shown that there is increased apoptosis of erythroid precursor cells in the bone marrow of patients with RA and anemia of chronic disease (Papadaki et al., 2002). Inflammation has also been associated with suppression of production of erythropoietin and decreased sensitivity of erythroid progenitors to stimulation by erythropoietin (Weiss & Goodnough, 2005).

Furthermore, there is a possibility of stimulation of megakaryocyte proliferation by chronic immune stimulation, leading to thrombocytosis in patients with active disease (Wilson et al., 2004). It is noteworthy that pharmacological treatment of RA is an integral part of its management but may influence various hematological parameters (Klein & Molad, 2021). For instance, conventional DMARDs like methotrexate, leflunomide, and sulfasalazine may cause bone marrow suppression and consequently manifest with various blood disorders like anemia, leukopenia, and thrombocytopenia in affected persons (Smolen et al., 2016).

Contrariwise, biologic DMARDs targeting various cytokines like TNF-alpha inhibitors and IL-6 receptor antagonists may help in alleviating various hematologic disorders by suppressing systemic inflammatory responses and consequently normalizing bone marrow function (McInnes & Schett, 2017). However, it is noteworthy that prolonged immunosuppressive therapy may manifest with infections and may even manifest with various hematologic disorders and hence necessitate regular monitoring of blood counts in persons with RA (Klein & Molad, 2021).

3. Anemia in Rheumatoid Arthritis

Anemia of Rheumatoid Arthritis (RA) is one of the most common blood disorders presenting with decreased red blood cell count, hemoglobin, or hematocrit level in patients with Rheumatoid Arthritis (RA) (McInnes & Schett, 2011). It is caused by alterations related to inflammation, immunology, iron metabolism, or drug use associated with patients with Rheumatoid Arthritis (Weiss & Goodnough, 2005). It affects the quality of life and physical capabilities of

patients with anemia of Rheumatoid Arthritis. It is commonly associated with Anemia of Chronic Disease (ACD) with normocytic and normochromic anemia. Iron-deficiency anemia and rarely hemolytic anemia may also be associated with anemia of Rheumatoid Arthritis (Means, 2009).

Most common among patients with RA; normocytic and normochromic anemia is common, although microcytic anemia may also be present (Weiss & Goodnough, 2005). Its mechanism involves chronic inflammation that results in an increase of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-6, TNF-alpha, and IFN-gamma. Hcpidin increases as a result of chronic inflammation, thereby sequestering iron within macrophages and reducing iron absorption from the intestine (Weiss & Goodnough, 2005). Erythropoiesis is impaired as a result of a decrease in response to erythropoietin (Means, 2009).

Iron Deficiency Anemia: Those that occur in patients who have chronic blood loss, e.g. NSAIDs-induced GI bleeding or nutritional deficiencies (Sokol et al., 2012). Iron deficiency anemia is indicated by low serum iron and ferritin levels, an increased total iron-binding capacity, and hypochromic microcytic anemia (Sokol et al. 2012). **Anemia due to Hemolysis:** It is uncommon in patients with RA and is usually associated with AIHA (Crowther, 2000). RBC destruction occurs due to autoantibodies against RBCs (Crowther, 2000). **Characteristics of Hemolytic Anemia:** Increased levels of lactate dehydrogenase, indirect bilirubin, and reticulocyte count.

The etiology of anemia in patients with RA is multifactorial, mainly related to inflammation, immune system dysregulation, and effects of treatment. The main mechanisms of anemia in patients with RA are:

Chronic inflammation in patients with RA increases levels of a hormone called hepcidin, which is secreted by the liver and is responsible for the blockage of iron uptake in the intestine and sequestration of iron in macrophages (Weiss & Goodnough, 2005). Insufficient iron levels are a barrier to hemoglobin production, resulting in ACD (Weiss & Goodnough, 2005). Inhibition of Red Blood Cell Production According to Means (2009), inflammatory cytokines affect the bone

marrow erythroid progenitor cells and decrease the production of erythropoietin (EPO) which is critical for RBC production. TNF- α and IFN- γ inhibit the process of differentiation of erythroids directly (Means, 2009). The causes of iron deficiency are blood loss (for example, due to NSAID-induced GI blood loss) and decreased iron absorption (Sokol et al., 2012). Autoimmune-mediated destruction of red cells is uncommon in RA (Crowther, 2000). Diseases can cause anemia as methotrexate and DMARDs can suppress bone marrow and interfere with folate metabolism (McInnes & Schett, 2011).

4. Leukocyte Abnormalities

Leukocyte changes in rheumatoid arthritis (RA) indicate a chronic inflammatory condition. According to Firestein (2003), mild to moderate leukocytosis often occurs during flares of the disease. Interleukin-1 and tumor necrosis factor-alpha, which are responsible for the pro-inflammatory response, likely, play a role. Neutrophils, of course, will predominate. Conversely, some patients develop neutropenia, especially with splenomegaly, known as Felty's syndrome. Neutrophils are destroyed by the autoimmune process and sequestered in the spleen causing infections. According to Wahren-Herlenius and Dörner (2013), an ANC less than 1500/ μ L is clinically defined as neutropenia. Moreover, there are abnormalities of T cells in RA, also referred to as the "Th17 disease," which comprise fewer Tregs and excess Th17 responses. The impaired functionality of B-cells also manifests in the production of autoantibodies rheumatoid factor (RF) and anti-cyclic citrullinated peptide or anti-CCP antibodies (Smolen et al., 2016).

5. Platelet Disorders

Frequently observed in active RA because of systemic inflammation. Increased platelet count is caused by the action of IL-6 on megakaryocytes (McInnes & Schett, 2011). High platelet counts are associated with disease activity, and spontaneous thrombosis is rare (Firestein, 2003). Less common and observed in Felty's syndrome, which is characterized by splenomegaly, neutropenia, and thrombocytopenia (Wahren-

Herlenius & Dörner, 2013). The exact mechanism is autoimmune thrombocytopenia or drug-induced marrow suppression (McInnes & Schett, 2011). Severe thrombocytopenia is associated with increased risk of bleeding (Firestein, 2003). Platelet dysfunction is observed even with normal platelet counts, leading to abnormal clotting and inflammation (McInnes & Schett, 2011). Activated platelets release inflammatory mediators, leading to inflammation and vascular disease (Firestein, 2003).

Platelet counts are used as markers for disease activity and inflammation (Firestein, 2003; McInnes & Schett, 2011). Platelet counts should be monitored during treatment for RA, especially for immunosuppressive therapies, to prevent thrombotic and bleeding complications (McInnes & Schett, 2011).

6. Felty's Syndrome

An uncommon but clinically important extra-articular manifestation of rheumatoid arthritis (RA) is Felty's syndrome (FS). Chronic inflammatory joint disease accompanied by neutropenia and splenomegaly is the hallmark of the sickness. Felty's syndrome is common among the middle-aged and occurs after several years of RA. Diagnosis is based primarily on laboratory results and clinical evidence, such as a neutrophil count below 2000 cells per microliter and the presence of splenic enlargement confirmed using imaging procedures such as a CT scan or ultrasound. Felty's syndrome is rarely present (below 1% of rheumatoid arthritis patients), yet, this case is clinically relevant owing to a significantly increased risk of infection and hematological complications (Owlia et al., 2014). In addition to neutropenia and splenomegaly, patients with Felty's syndrome also present other systemic features such as fever, weight loss, lymphadenopathy, skin ulcers and hyperpigmentation. Laboratory abnormalities include chronic disease-related anemia, thrombocytopenia, and elevated inflammatory markers, including C-reactive protein (CRP) and the erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR). Serological results often show increased levels of circulating immune complexes and rheumatoid factor. Felty's syndrome is a severe systemic form

of rheumatoid arthritis with many immunological and hematological abnormalities (Diaz et al., 2023).

Rheumatoid arthritis, splenomegaly, and neutropenia constitute the diagnostic criteria for Felty's syndrome. Patients with rheumatoid arthritis have aggressive, chronic conditions, often involving joint abnormalities and extra-articular symptoms like vasculitis and inflammatory nodules. As a result of perpetual inflammation, the immune systems are constantly activated, worsening the systemic effects beyond the joints. Felty's syndrome has strong correlations with the severity and length of rheumatoid arthritis (Balint & Balint, 2004; Smolen et al., 2016).

The pathogenesis of Felty's syndrome is greatly under the influence of splenomegaly. In this way, the development of neutropenia (a diagnostic characteristic of the condition) is also facilitated. Recurrent infections of the skin, respiratory system, and mucosal surfaces are a consequence of neutropenia, which inhibits bacterial infections by utilizing the body's defense mechanism. Extreme neutropenia makes a patient prone to infections in the mouth and chronic leg ulcers (Owlia & Newman, 2014).

Although the exact cause of Felty's syndrome remains unknown, autoimmune systems, hereditary vulnerabilities, and chronic inflammatory actions are considered to be responsible through a complex interplay. One of the theories is that neutrophils are destroyed in the peripheral circulation due to development of antibodies against the neutrophil cells. These antibodies can speed up the reticuloendothelial system from removing neutrophils and stimulate immune-mediated cytotoxicity. Although the exact cause of Felty's syndrome remains unknown, autoimmune systems, hereditary vulnerabilities, and chronic inflammatory actions are considered to be responsible through a complex interplay. One of the theories is that neutrophils are destroyed in the peripheral circulation due to development of antibodies against the neutrophil cells. These antibodies can speed up the reticuloendothelial system from removing neutrophils and stimulate immune-mediated cytotoxicity (Owlia & Newman, 2014).

Splenic sequestration and enhanced neutrophil destruction in the larger spleen represent another significant mechanism. Also, inadequate neutrophil production is linked to anomalies associated with bone marrow functions. T-cell-mediated granulopoiesis inhibition and presence of antibodies to granulocyte-colony stimulating factor (G-CSF) may inhibit neutrophil production. Genetic predisposition is also believed to be important with regards to the HLA-DR4 genotype that is common in people with Felty's syndrome and severe rheumatoid arthritis (Firestein & McInnes, 2017; Balint & Balint, 2004).

The most dangerous complication of Felty's syndrome is recurrent and severe infections caused by persistent neutropenia. Patients are especially predisposed to bacterial infections of septicemia, cellulitis, pneumonia, and urinary tract infections. Sores on the legs and skin ulcers are also permanent in the affected individuals. Other than infections, hematological complications that occur include anemia, thrombocytopenia, and lymphadenopathy. Morbidity is high among patients of Felty's syndrome due to these complications. (Balint & Balint, 2004; Owlia & Newman, 2014).

The primary objectives of treating Felty's syndrome is to regulate neutrophil numbers and treat the underlying rheumatoid arthritis. First-line treatment often includes the use of disease-modifying antirheumatic medications (DMARDs), particularly methotrexate, which may help to lower inflammation and raise neutrophil counts. Granulocyte colony-stimulating factor (G-CSF) may be used to increase neutrophils' production in the bone marrow in case of severe neutropenia. However, splenectomy, although reserved only for severe/refractory cases, can also be considered for individuals who are unresponsive to medicinal therapy. Infection control techniques and routine monitoring are vital components of medical practice (Owlia & Newman, 2014; Smolen et al., 2016).

7. Other Hematological Manifestations

Eosinophilia

Eosinophilia, characterized by an increased eosinophil count in the peripheral blood, has occasionally been noted in individuals with

rheumatoid arthritis. As a result, immunological dysregulation linked to autoimmune disorders or persistent inflammatory activity can lead to this hematological anomaly, which is not typically observed in RA patients. Eosinophilia is also associated with allergies or hypersensitivity reactions to drugs that are used to manage rheumatoid arthritis (Smolen et al., 2016).

The systemic character of rheumatoid arthritis and the involvement of several immunological pathways in the disease's etiology may be peculiar in eosinophilia as well. Some pharmaceuticals, sulfasalazine and other disease-modifying antirheumatic pharmaceuticals, cause eosinophilia as a part of drug-induced hypersensitivity reactions. Under mild eosinophilia does not cause significant complications, clinical intervention is required in case of persistent or high eosinophilia to correctly identify the source and prevent possible complications (Firestein & McInnes, 2017).

A decrease in platelet count below the normal values is referred to as thrombocytopenia and may occur in rheumatoid arthritis patients for a number of reasons. Platelet destruction via immune mediation is one such cause and involves platelet-targeted autoantibodies leading to premature platelet clearance from circulation. By increasing platelet sequestration in the spleen, hypersplenism linked to splenomegaly can also cause thrombocytopenia (Bloxham et al., 2011). First, thrombocytopenia is the name given to a drop in platelet count below the normal level, and it can occur to rheumatoid arthritis patients for several reasons. One of the potential causes is immune-mediated platelet destruction, where autoantibodies attack platelets and trigger their premature clearing from circulation. By increasing platelet sequestration in the spleen, hypersplenism associated with splenomegaly can also cause thrombocytopenia (Smolen et al., 2016).

Abnormalities of bone marrow are common in long-term inflammatory conditions such as rheumatoid arthritis. Chronic systemic inflammation changes bone marrow structure and functions and influences hematopoietic dysfunction. This may be accompanied by inefficient erythropoiesis, hypercellularity of bone marrow, and dysregulated production of

leukocytes and platelets. (Weiss & Goodnough, 2005). Inflammatory cytokines that decrease erythropoiesis and change bone marrow activity include tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α), interleukin-1 (IL-1), and interleukin-6 (IL-6). These cytokines interfere with iron metabolism and reduce the sensitivity of erythroid progenitor cells to erythropoietin, hence cause chronic illness anemia. Thus, the hematological symptoms that rheumatoid arthritis patients incur majorly are bone marrow abnormalities (Fire stein & McInnes, 2017).

Patients with chronic rheumatoid arthritis suffer lymphoma more than the general population. The sentence should include 'leading to' to prepare the reader for the result of the preceding phrase: Lymphoma in chronic rheumatoid arthritis patients compared to the general population is linked to persistent systemic inflammation and chronic immunological activation occurring throughout the illness duration. This could culminate in genetic aberrations and subsequent malignancy (referring to the malignant transformation (Baecklund et al., 2006).

Rather than drugs used to treat rheumatoid arthritis, there have been demonstrated by studies a clear correlation between the risk of lymphoma and inflammatory activity and severity of the case. Rather than the drugs used to treat rheumatoid arthritis, there has been a demonstrated correlation between the risk of lymphoma and inflammatory activity and severity of the condition. These findings advocate for effective disease control and warrant routine clinical monitoring of patients with persistent rheumatoid arthritis, despite the low absolute risk (Smolen et al., 2016).

8. Effects of Rheumatoid Arthritis Treatments

Hematological Effects of Methotrexate

Methotrexate is the first-line disease-modifying antirheumatic medication (DMARD) for treating rheumatoid arthritis. It works by stopping the enzyme dihydrofolate reductase, which stops folate from being broken down and slows the growth of cells that are growing quickly, especially immune cells that cause inflammation. But methotrexate can affect hematopoiesis and cause blood disorders because cells in the bone marrow

also divide quickly. Anemia, leukopenia, and thrombocytopenia are common side effects of blood disorders. These problems happen because the bone marrow isn't working right, which means it makes fewer blood cells. During methotrexate therapy, it is a good idea to have a routine complete blood count (CBC) to look for early signs of bone marrow toxicity (Visser & van der Heijde, 2009; Smolen et al., 2016).

Methotrexate may also induce macrocytosis, an increase in red blood cell size due to inadequate DNA synthesis. Methotrexate has a side effect of bone marrow suppression. Methotrexate works by inducing a lack of folate. To decrease blood damage from methotrexate, folic acid is usually given to patients taking methotrexate. If patients with rheumatoid arthritis are on methotrexate therapy, adjustments to the drug and monitoring of lab results on a regular basis can greatly reduce the risk of severe cytopenias (Visser & van der Heijde, 2009).

Sulfasalazine is another DMARD commonly used to treat rheumatoid arthritis. The immune modulatory and anti-inflammatory effects of sulfasalazine have shown efficacy in reducing symptoms of rheumatoid arthritis. Although sulfasalazine has shown therapeutic efficacy, it has the rare ability to cause hematological side effects. The hematological side effects of sulfasalazine include leukopenia, hemolytic anemia, and occasionally agranulocytosis. The cause of these abnormalities can be related to the suppression of bone marrow function and hypersensitivity reactions, especially during the initial phase of treatment (Plosker & Croom, 2005).

Biologic agents such as etanercept and infliximab, which target and inhibit TNF, have greatly facilitated the control of moderate to severe rheumatoid arthritis. This is because these medications target TNF- α , which is crucial in the pathogenesis of rheumatoid arthritis. This therapy has been effective in the control of the disease, as it prevents the joints from being damaged and promotes clinical outcomes. However, these medications may influence hematological markers in certain patientstreatment with sulfasalazine. Routine blood counts, such as full blood counts, are recommended during treatment to check for any abnormalities. Doctors can then adjust the

dose or stop the medicine if hematological side effects are identified early enough. Despite this, sulfasalazine remains a safe and effective treatment option for many people suffering from rheumatoid arthritis (Smolen et al., 2016).

Biologic agents such as etanercept and infliximab, which are anti-TNF agents, have greatly facilitated the management of moderate to severe rheumatoid arthritis. This is because these agents act by inhibiting the production of TNF- α , which is essential for the onset of rheumatoid arthritis. This form of treatment helps to prevent the injury of the joints and enhances the outcome of the treatment by reducing the inflammatory and immune responses. However, this treatment may affect hematological markers in some patients (Tracey et al., 2008). Individuals who are undergoing biologic drug therapy tend to do well with these drugs; however, they may experience mild blood disorders like neutropenia or leukopenia during treatment. There have also been reports of rare but life-threatening diseases like aplastic anemia and pancytopenia that may occur as a consequence of altered cytokine networks or suppression of bone marrow activity through immune mechanisms. Therefore, it is essential for healthcare providers to monitor blood tests of individuals undergoing biologic drug therapy (Smolen et al., 2016).

Drug-induced cytopenias are a significant clinical problem in the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis. Many of the drugs that are being used to treat rheumatoid arthritis, such as biologic drugs and traditional DMARDs, can impair the function of the bone marrow and lead to a decreased ability to produce enough blood cells. (Singh et al., 2016).

According to clinical guidelines, patients suffering from RA, who are undergoing treatment, should be monitored for their blood parameters to reduce the risk of these problems. This is done by conducting full blood counts, liver function tests, and clinical examinations for bleeding or infections. When these cytopenias are identified early, healthcare professionals can adjust the doses of drugs, stop them temporarily, or use alternative drugs. Therefore, to effectively manage rheumatoid arthritis, it is important to use the appropriate methods (Singh et al., 2016; Smolen et al., 2016).

9. Diagnostic Assessment

Lab tests and medical connections are used in the diagnostic assessment of hematological irregularities in rheumatoid arthritis (a long term joint disease). These tests aim in figuring out basic causes, such as drug have harmful effects, nutritional deficiencies or long term irritation.

Anemia is the chronic disease, which is brought on by iron dysregulation mediated by cytokines, is one of the most commonly finding. RBC indicators, such as the MCV and RDW, support in differentiating between much more types of anemia. WBC abnormalities include neutropenia in Felty's syndrome and leukocytosis (inflammation or infection). Reactive thrombocytosis is often linked with current swellings and can increase the hazard of cardiovascular disease. Derived measures such as the neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratio (NLR) are highlighted in recent studies as indicators of disease activity (Cheng et al., 2024).

Microscopic blood smear study provides structural data that supplement CBC observations. RBC irregularities such as variations in RBC diameter, variations in configuration and reduced hemoglobin concentration help distinguish between iron deficiency anemia and anemia of chronic disease. Appearance of white cells may donate infection, swellings or hematologic disorders. Thrombocyte characteristics may show bone marrow dysfunction or platelet disorders. These microscopic findings are valuable in detecting barely perceptible irregularities not detected by automated analyzers (Cheng et al., 2024).

Iron studies are necessary in distinguishing anemia types in RA patients. The metrics include some Serum iron (decreased in both anemia types), Ferritin (increased in chronic disease, reduced in iron deficiency), Total Iron Binding Capacity (TIBC) (increased in iron deficiency anemia). Inflammatory markers such as C-reactive protein (CRP), Erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR) are commonly increased and align with disorder activity. Combine hematologic and tingle signspots enhances diagnostic precision that helps to predict disease exacerbations (Masoumi et al., 2024).

Bone marrow examination is specified in preferred cases where routine tests are not clear. Indications include: Persistent triple cytopenia. Severe unexplained anemia Suspected drug-induced marrow slow down (e.g. methotrexate). Suspicion of dangerous tumor such as lymphoma. Bone marrow examine helps diagnose conditions like aplastic anemia (where the blood stop producing enough new blood cells), myelodysplastic syndromes, and marrow spreads into an area. It is specifically vital due to the increased possibility of lymphoproliferative disorders (where the blood produces too many lymphocytes), in long-standing RA (Smolen et al., 2020).

10. Clinical Significance and Patient Management

Impact on Disease Prognosis

Hematological irregularities significantly influence disease outcomes in RA. Anemia of Chronic Disease (ACD) is linked with increased disease harshness and reduced quality of life. Reactive Thrombocytosis and Systemic Inflammatory Markers correlate with higher disease activity and cardiovascular risk. Cytopenias (Low blood cell counts), may suggest severe disorders, drug poison or extra problems such as Felty's syndrome. Thus, hematologic parameters serve as essential hematological parameters (Smolen et al., 2020).

Regular monitoring is very necessary for finding a problem of difficulties and bad side effect from medicine. Routine CBC (regular blood test), to keep an eye on anemia, leukocyte white blood cells (cells that fight germs), and stop bleeding. Periodic liver and bone marrow function assessment in patients on DMARDs (A specific type of strong medicine often used for swelling), Monitoring inflammatory markers (CRP tests that show there is swelling or redness inside the body), for disease activity. Frequent check-up helps guide treatment decisions and prevents severe complications.

Management depends on the underlying cause which have Anemia (lower red blood cells), Treat root of the cause of tenderness using DMARDs (used to stop swelling), or bio-medicine. Iron nutritional support for iron insufficiency. Erythropoiesis-stimulating agents (medications that tell your body to make more red blood cells), in severe cases. Leukopenia / Neutropenia (Adjust

or discontinue causative drugs), Use granulocyte colony-stimulating factor (G-CSF) in severe cases. Thrombocytosis (Control tenderness, Address cardiovascular hazard factors). Drug-Induced Cytopenias (Dose adjustments or stopping of medications like methotrexate), a group approach better patient outcomes (McInnes & Schett, 2017).

11. Future Perspectives

Modern improvements in immune system have better understanding of RA pathogenesis (how a disease develops), specifically the role of cytokines (cell signaling proteins), such as IL-6 and TNF- α in hematologic irregularities. Focusing on the process led to the production of biologic therapies (targeted medicines made from living organisms), that not only control joint swelling but also enhance hematologic parameters (McInnes & Schett, 2017).

Developing biological sign that improving early diagnosis and disease observance. Hematologic ratios (NLR, PLR). Cytokine patterns (focuses on how the levels of different cytokines relate to each other), Genetic (DNA traits) and biological molecules. These biological signs may help to predict disease activity, therapeutic efficacy and problems (Cheng et al., 2024).

Advance treatment focus on specific immune associations. An Anti-IL-6 agent better pallidness by decreasing hepcidin hormone level. Jaknibs (targeted synthetic medicine that work inside cells to block specific signaling pathways), and hematopoietic stem cells (continuous, highly regulated process by which the body produces new blood cells). Individualized medicine approaches try to adjust treatment based on patient-specific biomarkers. These advances offer promising methods for handling both RA and its hematologic problems (Smolen et al., 2020).

12. Conclusion

Rheumatoid Arthritis is considered a complex systemic autoimmune condition wherein hematologic abnormalities form an important and clinically significant part of the clinical manifestations of RA. The hematologic abnormalities occur mainly due to chronic inflammatory changes, immunologic

disturbances, and the effects of chronic drug therapy. Among these abnormalities, anemia of chronic disease is considered the most common form of anemia, and abnormalities of leukocytes and platelet counts reflect inflammatory and immunologic disturbances. The pathophysiology of these abnormalities is related mainly to pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-6, TNF-alpha, and IL-1, affecting normal hematopoiesis, iron metabolism, and bone marrow function. In addition, complications such as Felty's Syndrome also highlight the severe and systemic manifestations of RA, resulting in increased morbidity and susceptibility to infections.

Parameters related to blood might be useful for diagnosis and used as biomarkers to evaluate activity, prognosis, and response. Routine tests like complete blood count, iron studies, inflammatory markers are essential for early recognition and ongoing monitoring. Furthermore, while disease-modifying antirheumatic drugs (DMARDs) and biological therapy has resulted in a notable improvement in the clinical outcome, they also contribute to hematological toxicity. In summary, an in-depth understanding of hematological abnormalities in Rheumatoid Arthritis (RA) is crucial for better management of the patient. Effective diagnosis, vigilance, and specific therapeutic modalities can have a great impact on the patient's outcome. Future research on new biomarkers and precision medicine approaches may be effective for the hematological complications of RA.

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