

# Extrapulmonary Sarcoidosis

Marc A. Judson, M.D.<sup>1</sup>

## ABSTRACT

Sarcoidosis can affect any organ in the body. Frequently extrapulmonary manifestations of the disease are the major cause of morbidity. Treatment of extrapulmonary sarcoidosis often requires consideration of alternative immunosuppressive agents, topical therapy, or therapy that is not specifically directed against the granulomatous inflammation of the disease. This article reviews the clinical presentation and therapy of extrapulmonary sarcoidosis.

**KEYWORDS:** Sarcoidosis, extrapulmonary, diagnosis, therapy

Sarcoidosis is a multisystem idiopathic granulomatous disease. Although the lung is most commonly involved, the granulomatous inflammation of sarcoidosis can involve any organ. Extrapulmonary sarcoidosis may be the major manifestation of the disease and on occasion may be life threatening. It may also affect the therapeutic approach. This article reviews the clinical presentation, sequelae, and treatment of extrapulmonary manifestations of sarcoidosis.

## DEMOGRAPHICS

Extrapulmonary sarcoidosis is common, although it is almost always found with concomitant thoracic involvement. This was confirmed in A Case Control Etiologic Study of Sarcoidosis (ACCESS) where 736 sarcoidosis patients were evaluated.<sup>1</sup> Six-hundred and ninety-nine (95%) of 736 had thoracic involvement, and exactly half (368/736) had concomitant extrathoracic disease.<sup>2</sup> Isolated extrathoracic sarcoidosis was observed in only 2% (14/736) of subjects.<sup>2</sup>

The prevalence of extrapulmonary sarcoidosis varies among populations. ACCESS demonstrated that there was more extrathoracic sarcoidosis in African-Americans than in Caucasians.<sup>2</sup> In addition, a univariate analysis comparing sarcoidosis organ involvement versus

race, sex, and age found that there was more frequent involvement of the eye, liver, bone marrow, extrathoracic lymph nodes, and skin in African-Americans than in Caucasians.<sup>2</sup> Caucasians more frequently had a disorder of calcium metabolism related to sarcoidosis.<sup>2</sup> A study comparing the phenotypic expression of sarcoidosis in Finnish and Japanese patients found much higher rates of cardiac and eye involvement in the Japanese [cardiac: Japanese—31/686 (5%), Finnish—2/600 (0.3%); eye: Japanese—344/686 (50%), Finnish—27/600 (4.5%)].<sup>3</sup> Lupus pernio skin lesions of sarcoidosis (vide infra) are common in Puerto Ricans, whereas erythema nodosum lesions are most frequent in Europeans.<sup>4</sup>

Extrapulmonary sarcoidosis may be more frequent in females. Although not subjected to a statistical analysis, a study of sarcoidosis prevalence in a health maintenance organization database found that extrathoracic sarcoidosis was more common in females than in males (36.7% vs 31.7% in Caucasian sarcoidosis cases and 50.5% vs 28.6% in African American sarcoidosis cases).<sup>5</sup> ACCESS found that females had a higher prevalence of eye (13.9% vs 8.2%,  $p < .05$ ), erythema nodosum (10.5% vs 4.5%,  $p < .01$ ), and neurological sarcoidosis (6.0% vs 2.2%,  $p < .05$ ) than males.<sup>2</sup> Males had a higher rate of disordered calcium metabolism than females (6.3% vs 2.1%,  $p < .01$ ).<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Division of Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine, Medical University of South Carolina, Charleston, South Carolina.

Address for correspondence and reprint requests: Marc A. Judson, M.D., Division of Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine, Medical University of South Carolina, CSB-812, 96 Jonathan Lucas St., Charleston, SC 29466. E-mail: judsonma@musc.edu.

Sarcoidosis: Evolving Concepts and Controversies; Guest Editors, Marc A. Judson, M.D., Michael C. Iannuzzi, M.D.

Semin Respir Crit Care Med 2007;28:83–101. Copyright © 2007 by Thieme Medical Publishers, Inc., 333 Seventh Avenue, New York, NY 10001, USA. Tel: +1(212) 584-4662.

DOI 10.1055/s-2007-970335. ISSN 1069-3424.

There is a paucity of data concerning the prevalence of extrathoracic sarcoidosis in relation to age. In ACCESS, organ involvement was similar between those less than 40 years of age and those aged 40 years or greater with two exceptions. Peripheral lymph node involvement was more common in those less than 40 (20.0% vs 11.2%,  $p < .005$ ), and disordered calcium metabolism was more common in those greater than or equal to 40 (5.5% vs 1.5%).<sup>2</sup>

Families with two or more first-degree relatives affected with sarcoidosis are a common occurrence.<sup>6</sup> Very few studies have analyzed whether extrapulmonary sarcoidosis is more common in affected family members than in a general sarcoidosis population. In one study of 340 affected sibling pairs, extrathoracic involvement was not found in both siblings more often than expected by chance alone.<sup>7</sup> A significant but weak concordance among siblings was found for ocular ( $\kappa = .16$ ;  $p < .05$ ) and liver involvement ( $\kappa = .16$ ;  $p < .05$ ).<sup>7</sup> No other concordance was demonstrated for five other extrathoracic organ systems evaluated.<sup>7</sup> Modeling phenotypic expression in sibling pairs using logistic regression did show that the presence of ocular and liver sarcoidosis in the sibling diagnosed first conferred a statistically significant increased risk to the second affected sibling for having those organs involved [odds ratio (OR) = 3; 95% confidence interval (CI) = 1.7 to 5.4 for ocular; OR = 3.3; 95% CI = 1.5 to 7.4 for liver].<sup>7</sup>

## SPECIFIC ORGAN INVOLVEMENT

### Skin

Skin lesions are divided into two categories: specific and nonspecific.<sup>8</sup> Specific lesions demonstrate granulomatous inflammation on biopsy. Nonspecific lesions are reactive inflammatory skin responses that show no granulomatous inflammation. Erythema nodosum is the predominant nonspecific cutaneous manifestation of sarcoidosis. It presents as tender nodules on the extremities. Erythema nodosum is not specific for sarcoidosis because it is associated with several other medical conditions, including infections, malignancies, and drugs.<sup>9</sup> However, the clinical findings of Löfgren's syndrome, including erythema nodosum coupled with bilateral hilar adenopathy on chest radiograph and often fever and ankle arthritis, strongly suggest the diagnosis of sarcoidosis.<sup>4,10</sup> This presentation is thought to be specific for the diagnosis unless an alternative explanation for these findings is clinically apparent; the diagnosis can then be made clinically without the need for histologic confirmation.<sup>4,11</sup> Erythema nodosum and other types of nonspecific skin lesions tend to be associated with an acute form of sarcoidosis with eventual resolution of the disease.<sup>10</sup>

Specific skin lesions are usually asymptomatic. Cosmetic disfigurement is the most common complaint.<sup>8</sup> Pruritus and pain are rare. Cutaneous lesions may occur before, coincident with, or after systemic involvement. Almost all morphologies have been reported, including macules, papules, plaques, hypopigmented patches, subcutaneous nodules, ichthyosis, ulcers, pustules, erythroderma, and localized alopecia.<sup>8</sup>

The most common presentation is the papular form. These lesions are usually firm 2 to 5 mm papules that often have a translucent red-brown or yellow-brown appearance.<sup>8</sup> These lesions occur most commonly on the face and neck, with a predilection for the periorbital skin.

Lupus pernio refers to indolent, red-purple or violaceous sarcoidosis skin lesions that may affect the cheeks, nose, lips, and ears (Fig. 1).<sup>10</sup> These lesions are often disfiguring and can erode into cartilage and bone, especially around the nose. The lesions are more common in African-Americans than Caucasians.<sup>12</sup> Lupus pernio portends a poor prognosis of sarcoidosis and is associated with more severe pulmonary disease.<sup>13</sup>

Treatment of sarcoidosis skin lesions is not required if they are stable and not of cosmetic import. Localized lesions may be treated with topical corticosteroids in the form of creams or corticosteroid injections. Care must be taken when these agents are used on the face because they may cause skin atrophy. Topical tacrolimus has also been effective in some cases.<sup>14</sup>

If the skin lesions are diffuse or not responsive to topical agents, systemic therapy is required. In general, corticosteroids are the drug of choice for the treatment of skin sarcoidosis. The recommended initial dose is similar to that for pulmonary sarcoidosis: 20 to 40 mg of prednisone equivalent/day.<sup>4,10</sup> Corticosteroids should be weaned to the lowest effective dose over 3 to 9 months. Consideration should be given to alternative agents if corticosteroids cannot be weaned off or reduced to a low dose (<10 mg daily prednisone equivalent). Effective alternative agents for skin sarcoidosis include methotrexate,<sup>15</sup> hydroxychloroquine,<sup>16</sup> chloroquine,<sup>17</sup> thalidomide,<sup>18</sup> tetracycline derivatives



**Figure 1** Characteristic lupus pernio lesions of sarcoidosis on the nose (the patient has given permission for use of this picture).

(minocycline, doxycycline),<sup>19</sup> monoclonal antibodies versus tumor necrosis factor  $\alpha$  (TNF- $\alpha$ ), such as infliximab,<sup>20</sup> leflunomide,<sup>21</sup> allopurinol,<sup>22</sup> isotretinoin,<sup>23</sup> and fumaric acid esters<sup>24</sup> Resolution of sarcoidal skin manifestations after phototherapy has also been described.<sup>25</sup>

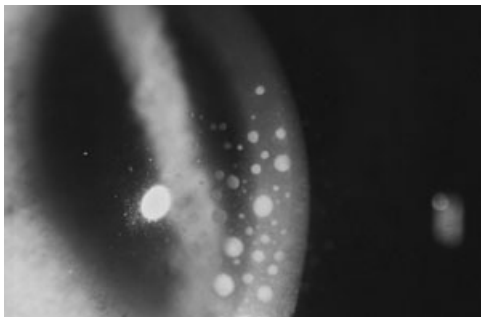
## Eye

Sarcoidosis can affect any part of the eye and may be the major manifestation of the disease.<sup>26</sup> It can occur at any time during the course of sarcoidosis and even "predate" the disease because some patients initially diagnosed with idiopathic uveitis will eventually develop systemic signs of sarcoidosis.<sup>27</sup> Therefore, it is important that all sarcoidosis patients are evaluated for eye involvement and that sarcoidosis considered as the cause of abnormal eye findings.<sup>26</sup>

Ocular involvement occurs in 10 and 50% of American and European sarcoidosis patients and in 50 to 90% of Japanese patients with the disease.<sup>26</sup> It is more common in African-Americans than in Caucasians.<sup>2,28</sup> Sarcoidosis eye involvement is associated with the DRB1\* 0401 human leukocyte antigen (HLA) polymorphism, which suggests that there is a genetic basis for this disease phenotype.<sup>29</sup>

Uveitis is the most common ocular manifestation of sarcoidosis.<sup>27</sup> Anterior uveitis occurs in the anterior chamber and may cause symptoms of blurred vision, red eye, painful eye, or photophobia.<sup>27</sup> However, up to one third of patients with anterior uveitis from sarcoidosis will have no symptoms (a "quiet eye").<sup>30</sup> The ocular examination via a slit lamp often reveals iris nodules at the papillary surface (Koepe nodules), the iris surface (Busacca nodules), and "mutton fat" keratic precipitates, which represent globules composed of inflammatory cells at the posterior corneal surface (Fig. 2).<sup>27</sup> None of these findings is specific for sarcoidosis, although they are highly suggestive.<sup>27</sup>

Intermediate uveitis results in inflammation of the vitreous, pars plana (the anterior border of the retina), and the peripheral retina. Granulomatous inflammation in this area results in floaters, blurred vision,



**Figure 2** Keratic precipitates in a patient with anterior sarcoid uveitis.

pain, photophobia, and red eye.<sup>27</sup> The fundoscopic examination may reveal vitreous cell infiltrates and accumulation of inflammatory cells along the pars plana known as "snow banking."<sup>26,27</sup>

Posterior uveitis results in a retinal perivasculitis.<sup>26</sup> This may result in a periphlebitis that often does not induce retinal exudation.<sup>26</sup> However, if the periphlebitis occludes the venous circulation, retinal hemorrhage develops.<sup>31</sup> This may result in neovascularization, vitreous hemorrhage, and proliferative retinopathy.<sup>26</sup> The patient may experience vision loss and blurred vision. Fundoscopic examination may show patchy exudates. When the exudates appear along the vein and if the periphlebitis is extensive, their appearance resembles candle wax.<sup>26,32</sup>

There are many infectious and noninfectious causes of uveitis. Sarcoidosis is not the most common cause of uveitis in unselected patients. In two series, sarcoidosis was the cause of uveitis in 2.5 and 12% of cases, respectively.<sup>33,34</sup> In a third study, where all the subjects were from the southeastern United States, sarcoidosis was the cause of uveitis in 11%, and still only 25% in the African American subgroup.<sup>35</sup>

Sarcoidosis of the conjunctiva occurs in 6 to 40% of cases.<sup>26</sup> In three quarters of cases, conjunctival involvement is present at diagnosis.<sup>36</sup> Patients with sarcoid conjunctivitis are usually asymptomatic but may have red eyes or dry eyes.<sup>27</sup> The yield of conjunctival biopsy for the diagnosis of sarcoidosis is ~33% in unselected sarcoidosis patients.<sup>37,38</sup> The diagnostic yield of biopsy may be as high as 67% if conjunctival nodules are present.<sup>37</sup> It is controversial whether blind biopsy of normal-appearing conjunctival tissue is of value, with one study reporting a yield of 30%, whereas others have found such biopsies to be fruitless.<sup>39,40</sup> Recently, *in vivo* confocal microscopy has been advocated for the diagnosis of conjunctival sarcoidosis based on a typical appearance.<sup>41</sup> This technique may also be useful to determine when a conjunctival biopsy will confirm the diagnosis of sarcoidosis.<sup>41</sup>

Lacrimal gland enlargement is clinically apparent in 15 to 28% of sarcoidosis patients,<sup>36,42</sup> but up to 88% of sarcoidosis patients may have lacrimal involvement detected on gallium-67 scanning.<sup>43</sup> Lacrimal gland involvement usually causes no symptoms.<sup>26</sup> On occasion, affected patients will develop a keratoconjunctivitis sicca syndrome.<sup>44</sup> Enlargement of the lacrimal gland may be palpable on physical examination and rarely so massive that it causes proptosis.<sup>45</sup>

Although optic neuropathy is a rare manifestation of sarcoidosis, it is a feared complication because it can result in rapid, permanent vision loss.<sup>27,46</sup> Patients usually present with rapid loss of vision or color vision in one eye.<sup>26</sup> Fundoscopic exam shows papillitis, papilloedema, and neovascularization with ultimate optic atrophy. This condition is an

ophthalmologic emergency and requires immediate systemic therapy.<sup>26</sup>

Miscellaneous manifestations of ocular sarcoidosis include scleritis,<sup>47</sup> orbital mass lesions,<sup>48</sup> extraocular muscle involvement,<sup>49</sup> and involvement of the cornea.<sup>26,46</sup> Furthermore, glaucoma may occur from granulomatous inflammation of Schlemm's Canal.<sup>50</sup> Cataracts may occur from chronic inflammation of the eye.<sup>42</sup> It is often problematic to distinguish the development of glaucoma and cataracts from sarcoidosis as opposed to corticosteroid therapy used to treat the disease.<sup>42</sup>

Any degree of eye inflammation requires treatment. Corticosteroids are the mainstay of treatment.<sup>26</sup> Anterior uveitis can be treated with topical corticosteroid eye drops. When iritis is severe and does not respond to eyedrops, subconjunctival injections of corticosteroids may be efficacious.<sup>26</sup> Mydriatics should always be instilled to suppress inflammation and prevent the development of posterior synechia (adhesion of the iris to the lens).<sup>26</sup> Intraocular pressure should be closely monitored because both sarcoidosis and corticosteroids can induce a rise in intraocular pressure.

Systemic corticosteroids are indicated for anterior uveitis that fails to respond to topical steroids and for intermediate and posterior uveitis that is too deep to be reached with topical therapy.<sup>26</sup> The initial dose is usually 40 mg/day of prednisone or prednisolone that is tapered over 6 to 12 months.<sup>26</sup>

If sarcoid uveitis fails to respond to systemic corticosteroids or requires high doses, alternative medications should be considered. In these instances, corticosteroids are usually required but often the corticosteroid dose can be successfully reduced (the alternative medications act as "steroid sparing agents"). Alternative agents that have been reported to be of benefit for ocular sarcoidosis include methotrexate,<sup>51</sup> azathioprine,<sup>52</sup> leflunomide,<sup>53</sup> and infliximab.<sup>54</sup>

## Liver

The reported frequency of hepatic sarcoidosis ranges widely depending on the method of detection. Fifty to 65% of sarcoidosis patients demonstrate granulomas on liver biopsy.<sup>55</sup> The frequency of liver function test abnormalities in sarcoidosis is as high as 35%,<sup>56</sup> which is lower than the frequency of histological hepatic involvement. The frequency of signs or symptoms of hepatic involvement is lower still at ~5 to 15%.<sup>57-61</sup> Therefore, sarcoidosis of the liver is often present histologically but usually does not cause liver blood test abnormalities or significant symptoms.

Hepatic sarcoidosis is at least twice as common in African Americans compared with Caucasians.<sup>2,56,61</sup> There is no increased prevalence based on age or gender.<sup>2,61</sup> No geographic area of high prevalence has been identified.<sup>62</sup>

Most patients with hepatic sarcoidosis are asymptomatic.<sup>56,63</sup> The disease is often discovered on liver biopsy as part of a workup for abnormal serum liver function tests or abnormalities on an abdominal chest computed tomographic (CT) scan. Abdominal pain and pruritus are two of the more common symptoms, with the former present in 15% (15/100) of cases.<sup>61</sup> Fever, weight loss, and jaundice are present in less than 5% of cases.<sup>60,61</sup> Hepatomegaly is found in 5 to 15% of patients with sarcoidosis.<sup>57,59</sup>

The most common liver function test abnormality in hepatic sarcoidosis is an elevated serum alkaline phosphatase, which is found in more than 90% of patients with signs or symptoms of hepatic sarcoidosis<sup>56,64,65</sup> but is present in as few as 15% (32/217) of patients with histological evidence of disease.<sup>60</sup> Occasionally, this elevation is five to 10 times the upper limits of normal or greater.<sup>64,65</sup> Fifty to 70% of patients with clinical evidence of hepatic sarcoidosis have elevations in serum transaminases,<sup>61,64</sup> which are usually less elevated than the serum alkaline phosphatase. Hyperbilirubinemia, hypoalbuminemia, and hepatic encephalopathy may rarely occur with chronic progressive disease.<sup>65,66</sup>

Although the abdominal CT radiographic features of hepatic sarcoidosis have been well described, the exact frequency of hepatic abnormalities is unknown because all series have involved a selection bias and/or have been retrospective. Hepatomegaly is the most common liver abnormality detected on CT<sup>67-70</sup> and is often associated with splenomegaly.<sup>67</sup> Hepatomegaly from sarcoidosis may occur in patients with normal (Scadding stage 0) radiographs.<sup>67</sup>

Hepatic nodules are found in less than 5% of patients in most series,<sup>67,70</sup> although frequencies as high as 53% (17/32) have been reported.<sup>68</sup> The nodules are usually discrete and of low attenuation, requiring intravenous contrast to be visualized.<sup>67,68,71,72</sup> They are always multiple and usually innumerable, with an average size of 0.6 to 0.75 cm in diameter but may be as large 2.0 cm and tend to become confluent as they enlarge.<sup>67,68</sup> Hepatic nodules are seen less frequently than splenic nodules.<sup>67,68,73</sup> The differential diagnosis of low-attenuation hepatic nodules includes various infections, metastatic disease, and lymphoma.<sup>68</sup>

Rarely, hepatic sarcoidosis will cause a chronic cholestasis syndrome featuring pruritus, jaundice, hepatomegaly, and marked elevations in serum alkaline phosphatase and cholesterol.<sup>66,74-76</sup> This syndrome is more common in African Americans.<sup>75,77</sup> The histological evolution of the disease suggests a slow, progressive destruction of the bile ducts by granulomas.<sup>74</sup> The histology may mimic primary biliary cirrhosis.<sup>62</sup> This granulomatous cholangitis leading to ductopenia seems to be the underlying mechanism causing chronic cholestasis.<sup>66</sup> Occlusion of intrahepatic portal vein branches by granulomatous inflammation may cause portal hypertension.<sup>66</sup>

An extremely rare cause of jaundice from sarcoidosis may occur from extrinsic compression of the biliary duct from porta hepaticus adenopathy.<sup>78,79</sup> In this situation, the jaundice usually responds to corticosteroid therapy with shrinkage of the lymph nodes.<sup>78,79</sup>

Cirrhosis has been reported in 6% (6/100) of patients with hepatic sarcoidosis.<sup>61</sup> Some of these patients also have cholestatic features, with loss of bile ducts indicating a pattern of primary biliary cirrhosis as previously described.<sup>61</sup> However, cirrhosis without a cholestatic pattern may also be seen.<sup>61,66,80,81</sup>

Portal hypertension has been estimated to occur in 3% of patients with hepatic sarcoidosis.<sup>61</sup> Although portal hypertension may occur via several mechanisms, the most common is from granulomas in the portal areas that restrict portal flow, causing a presinusoidal block.<sup>80-82</sup> Portal hypertension can lead to esophageal and gastric variceal bleeding and death.<sup>83,84</sup> Although all patients with portal hypertension from sarcoidosis have significant hepatocellular disease, portal hypertension is the primary clinical abnormality.<sup>65</sup>

Rarely, a patient with hepatic sarcoidosis may develop the Budd-Chiari syndrome.<sup>85,86</sup> Hepatic veins are narrowed by sarcoid granulomas, resulting in venous stasis and occlusion.

Most patients with hepatic sarcoidosis do not require treatment.<sup>62</sup> Although treatment with corticosteroids can improve liver function tests in approximately half of asymptomatic patients, three fourths of such patients who are not treated undergo spontaneous improvement in liver function tests and the remainder remain stable.<sup>56</sup> Furthermore there is evidence that corticosteroid treatment of hepatic sarcoidosis promotes relapse.<sup>87</sup> On the basis of these data, therapy for hepatic sarcoidosis is not indicated in asymptomatic patients with liver function test elevations. Such patients should be followed with serial liver function tests, although it is rare for liver failure to develop.<sup>56</sup>

Diffuse granulomatous hepatitis from sarcoidosis may require treatment when patients develop fever, nausea, vomiting, weight loss, or right upper quadrant abdominal pain.<sup>88</sup> Corticosteroids are usually effective in alleviating these symptoms and reducing liver function test elevations.<sup>88,89</sup> Many patients require a daily dose of prednisone in the 10 to 15 mg range. Therapy is often required for 1 to several years.<sup>88</sup> Despite the potential risk of hepatic toxicity from methotrexate, it has been shown to be effective and to reduce liver function test abnormalities and to be corticosteroid sparing.<sup>88,90</sup>

As mentioned previously, patients with hepatic sarcoidosis may develop a chronic cholestatic syndrome with jaundice, fever, malaise, weight loss, anorexia, pruritus, and a cholestatic pattern of abnormal liver function tests.<sup>74-76</sup> These symptoms are often severe and require treatment. Corticosteroids in doses of 30 to 60 mg/day of prednisone equivalent may improve

symptoms, lower serum alkaline phosphatase levels, and improve hepatomegaly.<sup>74,91</sup> Often the cholestatic syndrome does not resolve and eventually progresses.<sup>74,91</sup> Ursodeoxycholic acid, which inhibits intestinal absorption and increases biliary secretion of cholic and chenodeoxycholic acids,<sup>92</sup> has been successfully used for the cholestatic syndrome of hepatic sarcoidosis.<sup>93,94</sup> A dose of 10 mg/kg/day has been shown to be effective in resolving symptoms and serum liver function test abnormalities.<sup>93,94</sup>

Portal hypertension often develops with hepatic sarcoidosis as a result of biliary fibrosis or cirrhosis.<sup>80</sup> Because these fibrotic changes are permanent, sarcoidosis-induced portal hypertension is usually unresponsive to corticosteroids or other therapy for sarcoid granulomas,<sup>80,82,95</sup> although hepatomegaly and serum liver function test abnormalities may improve.<sup>81,82</sup> Because on occasion portal hypertension is the result of granulomas in the portal areas that produce pressure that restricts portal flow, a therapeutic trial of corticosteroids is probably warranted. Otherwise, therapy for portal hypertension from sarcoidosis is treated in a similar fashion as portal hypertension from other causes, with intravenous octreotide or vasopressin and a Sengstaken-Blakemore tube for acute esophageal or gastric variceal bleeding, sclerotherapy of varices,  $\beta$  blockers, portocaval, splenorenal or transjugular intrahepatic portal-systemic shunt (TIPS), splenectomy, and liver transplantation as a last resort for refractory cases.<sup>80-82,84,96,97</sup>

Liver transplantation has been successfully performed for end-stage liver disease from sarcoidosis.<sup>98</sup> Survival is comparable to liver transplant recipients with other end-stage liver diseases.<sup>98</sup> It is prudent to give patients with end-stage liver disease from sarcoidosis a corticosteroid trial prior to considering liver transplantation, even though they are unlikely to respond to therapy.<sup>62</sup> Ideal candidates for liver transplantation should have minimal disease in extrahepatic organs. Even in these instances, worsening extrahepatic sarcoidosis may develop after liver transplantation.<sup>99</sup> In addition, sarcoidosis may recur in the allograft<sup>100-102</sup> similar to other organ transplants in sarcoidosis patients.<sup>103</sup>

## Heart

Cardiac sarcoidosis is a potentially life-threatening complication of the disease. Although cardiac sarcoidosis is responsible for less than 10% of deaths from sarcoidosis in the United States,<sup>104</sup> death may occur suddenly, and failure to treat this condition may result in permanent injury.<sup>105</sup> Cardiac sarcoidosis is much more common in Japan than in Europe or North America.<sup>4</sup>

Only 5% of patients with sarcoidosis have signs or symptoms of cardiac involvement,<sup>106</sup> although 25% of patients show evidence of granulomatous inflammation of the heart on autopsy.<sup>107</sup> Cardiac sarcoidosis may

become manifest several years after the initial diagnosis of sarcoidosis is established.<sup>108</sup> Sarcoidosis can affect any portion of the heart and produce a myriad of clinical problems that may simulate other more common disorders. Granulomas may massively infiltrate the myocardium and cause congestive heart failure<sup>106,109,110</sup> or deposit in papillary muscles resulting in mitral regurgitation.<sup>111</sup> Sarcoidosis may cause granulomatous pericarditis with or without pericardial effusion.<sup>112,113</sup> Long-term granulomatous inflammation may generate myocardial scarring with the formation of ventricular aneurysms.<sup>114</sup>

The myocardial conducting system is especially vulnerable to sarcoid granulomas, which may result in serious consequences that include complete atrioventricular block, premature ventricular contractions, ventricular arrhythmias, and sudden death.<sup>106,109,112,113,115-117</sup> The risks of sudden death and progressive congestive heart failure are the most feared complications of cardiac sarcoidosis and underscore why these patients must be diagnosed early and followed with extreme vigilance. It is for these reasons that all patients diagnosed with sarcoidosis are recommended to have a baseline electrocardiogram, and all unexplained electrocardiographic abnormalities should be investigated.<sup>4</sup>

Although a section of this manuscript concerning the diagnosis of extrapulmonary sarcoidosis is forthcoming, the diagnosis of cardiac sarcoidosis deserves special mention. Although an endomyocardial biopsy that reveals noncaseating granulomas is the gold standard for the diagnosis, it is positive in less than one quarter of cases because of the patchy distribution of the disease.<sup>118</sup> When cardiac sarcoidosis causes conduction disturbances, the diagnostic yield of endomyocardial biopsy is particularly low at less than 10%.<sup>118</sup> Even when sarcoidosis causes a cardiomyopathy, the yield from endomyocardial biopsy is approximately one third.<sup>118</sup>

Consequently, noninvasive tests are usually relied upon to establish the diagnosis of cardiac involvement with sarcoidosis. Available tests include the electrocardiogram (ECG),<sup>108,113,115</sup> echocardiogram,<sup>108,113</sup> thallium-201 perfusion scan,<sup>119,120</sup> gallium-67 scan,<sup>119,121,122</sup> gadolinium-enhanced magnetic resonance (MR) scan,<sup>123-125</sup> and positron emission tomography (PET).<sup>126</sup> The accuracy of thallium and gallium scans is enhanced by using a single-photon-emission CT (SPECT) technique.<sup>121,122</sup> Thallium defects from ischemic heart disease can often be differentiated from sarcoid heart disease in that the latter may decrease in size with exercise (reverse distribution).<sup>106</sup>

Each of these noninvasive tests has a different sensitivity and specificity. Unfortunately, an algorithm for the diagnosis of cardiac sarcoidosis has not been established because of the diagnostic shortcomings of the only available "gold standard," which is endomyocardial biopsy. Moreover, existing noninvasive tests have

rarely been compared within the same clinical trials. When such comparisons are made, there is poor concordance, such that a negative result on any one test does not ensure the possibility of another test being positive.<sup>108,113,125</sup>

Nevertheless, guidelines for the application of noninvasive tests to the diagnosis of cardiac sarcoidosis have been developed by the Japanese Ministry of Health and Welfare<sup>127</sup> and the research group conducting ACCESS (Table 1).<sup>128</sup> Both of these guidelines combine the results of noninvasive tests with histological confirmation of noncaseating granulomatous inflammation in an extracardiac organ and evidence of unexplained arrhythmias, conduction system abnormalities, or ventricular dysfunction.

Because of the lack of controlled studies, the approach to the treatment of cardiac sarcoidosis remains unclear. Therapy often involves a combination of approaches, including antiscarcoidosis medications, antiarrhythmic drugs, ionotropes, and pacemaker/defibrillator implantation. Early and long-term corticosteroid therapy has been shown to improve the prognosis of cardiac sarcoidosis.<sup>109</sup> In one of the largest studies of 95 Japanese patients with cardiac sarcoidosis,<sup>109</sup> survival rates were 85% at 1 year, 72% at 3 years, 60% at 5 years, and 44% at 10 years. Thirty percent died of congestive heart failure and 12% experienced sudden death. A multivariate analysis identified New York Heart Association (NYHA) function class (hazard ratio = 7.7 per NYHA class,  $p = .0008$ ), sustained ventricular tachycardia (hazard ratio = 7.2,  $p = .03$ ), and left ventricular end-diastolic diameter (hazard ratio = 2.6 per 10 mm increase,  $p = .02$ ) as independent predictors of mortality.<sup>109</sup> Prognosis was excellent in those treated early with corticosteroids before the development of left ventricular dysfunction. Although some have recommended that high-dose corticosteroids be used for cardiac sarcoidosis, this study failed to reveal a difference in outcome between those receiving  $\geq 40$  mg of prednisone/day and those receiving  $< 30$  mg/day. Some have advocated that lifelong low-dose (5 to 10 mg of prednisone equivalent/day) is beneficial for the long-term prognosis.<sup>112</sup>

These data suggest that symptomatic cardiac sarcoidosis be treated early and aggressively. Subjects should be monitored closely for the development of left ventricular dysfunction, which should suggest that the corticosteroid dose be increased, an alternate agent be added, or cardiac transplantation be considered if the patient fails to respond. There is minimal data concerning alternative medications to corticosteroids for the treatment of cardiac sarcoidosis. These medications have included methotrexate,<sup>113</sup> cyclophosphamide,<sup>113</sup> cyclosporine,<sup>113</sup> and infliximab.<sup>129</sup> The latter drug is problematic because infliximab has a black box warning for use in patients with congestive

**Table 1 Clinical Criteria for Extrapulmonary Sarcoidosis Organ Involvement in Patients with Biopsy-Confirmed Sarcoidosis in Another Organ\***

Organ	Definite	Probable	Possible
SKIN	1. Lupus pernio 2. Annular lesion 3. Erythema nodosum	1. Macular/papular 2. New nodules	1. Keloids 2. Hypopigmentation
EYES	1. Lacrimal gland swelling 2. Uveitis 3. Optic neuritis	1. Blindness	1. Glaucoma 2. Cataract
LIVER	1. Liver function tests > three times normal	1. Compatible computed tomography (CT) scan 2. Elevated alkaline phosphatase	
HYPERCALCEMIA/ HYPERCALCIURIA/ NEPHROLITHIASIS	1. Increased serum calcium with no other cause	1. Increased urine calcium 2. Nephrolithiasis analysis showing calcium	1. Nephrolithiasis-no stone analysis 2. Nephrolithiasis with negative family history for stones
NEUROLOGICAL	1. Positive magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)with uptake in meninges or brainstem 2. Cerebrospinal fluid with increased lymphocytes and/or protein 3. Diabetes insipidus 4. Bell's palsy 5. Cranial nerve dysfunction 6. Peripheral nerve biopsy	1. Other abnormalities on magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) 2. Unexplained neuropathy 3. Positive electromyogram	1. Unexplained headaches 2. Peripheral nerve radiculopathy
RENAL	1. Treatment responsive renal failure	1. Steroid responsive renal failure in patient with diabetes and/or hypertension	1. Renal failure in absence of other disease
CARDIAC	1. Treatment responsive cardiomyopathy 2. Electrocardiogram showing intraventricular conduction defect or nodal block 3. Positive gallium scan of heart	1. No other cardiac problem and either: - Ventricular arrhythmias - Cardiomyopathy 2. Positive thallium scan	1. In patient with diabetes and/or hypertension: - Cardiomyopathy - Ventricular arrhythmias
NON-THORACIC LYMPH NODE		1. New palpable node above waist 2. Lymph node > 2 cm by computed tomography (CT) scan	1. New palpable femoral lymph node
BONE MARROW	1. Unexplained anemia 2. Leukopenia 3. Thrombocytopenia		1. Anemia with low mean corpuscular volume (MCV)
SPLEEN		1. Enlargement by: - Exam - Computed tomography (CT) scan - Radioisotope scan	
BONE/JOINTS	1. Cystic changes on hand or feet phalanges	1. Asymmetric, painful clubbing	1. Arthritis with no other cause
EAR/NOSE/THROAT		1. Unexplained hoarseness with exam consistent with granulomatous involvement	1. New onset sinusitis 2. New onset dizziness

Table 1 (continued)

Organ	Definite	Probable	Possible
PAROTID/SALIVARY GLANDS	1. Symmetrical parotitis with syndrome of mumps 2. Positive gallium scan ("Panda sign")		1. Dry mouth
MUSCLES	1. Increased creatine phosphokinase (CK)/aldolase, which decreases with treatment	1. Increased creatine phosphokinase (CK)/aldolase	1. Myalgias responding to treatment

\*There can be no other explanation for the clinical finding in this Table for these criteria to be valid. In addition, biopsy of each of these organs would constitute "definite" involvement. Adapted from Judson et al.<sup>128</sup>

heart failure. Some have advocated adding additional immunosuppressives, such as azathioprine or hydroxychloroquine to methotrexate plus low-dose corticosteroids for cardiac sarcoidosis.<sup>130</sup>

Arrhythmias, especially ventricular arrhythmias, should also be aggressively treated. Antiarrhythmic drug therapy is empirical.<sup>105</sup> Amiodarone is the preferred drug but appears to be less effective than in other cardiomyopathies<sup>105</sup> and may cause pulmonary toxicity in patients with concomitant pulmonary sarcoidosis. The value of electrophysiological examinations for choosing antiarrhythmic therapy, estimating the probability of cardiac events, and determining the need for placement of an automatic implantable cardioverter defibrillator (AICD) is extremely limited.<sup>105,131</sup> Indeed, cardiac sarcoidosis patients found noninducible with electrophysiological testing have experienced sudden death,<sup>131</sup> probably because the granulomatous lesions are not static and can worsen over time.

The treatment of asymptomatic cardiac sarcoidosis is controversial. One study demonstrated that sarcoidosis patients with asymptomatic cardiac involvement had an excellent long-term prognosis without therapy.<sup>132</sup> However, there were only three asymptomatic patients out of 82 patients screened, making this conclusion suspect.

### Neurological

Clinically apparent involvement of the nervous system occurs in 5 to 15% of sarcoidosis patients.<sup>133,134</sup> However, as with other forms of sarcoidosis, subclinical neurological disease is much more frequent.<sup>135,136</sup> Neurosarcoidosis may appear as an acute explosive illness or as an indolent illness.<sup>136</sup> Neurosarcoidosis is responsible for ~15% of sarcoidosis deaths in the United States.<sup>104</sup> Any part of the nervous system may be affected, including the cranial nerves, hypothalamus, pituitary gland, meninges, parenchyma of the brain, brainstem, spinal cord, subependymal layer of the ventricular system, peripheral nerves, and blood vessels supplying the nervous structures.<sup>136</sup>

Cranial neuropathy is the most frequent neurological complication of sarcoidosis.<sup>133,136</sup> A peripheral seventh nerve palsy (Bell's palsy) is the single most common cranial nerve lesion and is the most common neurological manifestation of sarcoidosis overall.<sup>1,136</sup> It may be unilateral or bilateral and often predates the diagnosis of sarcoidosis.<sup>136</sup> The optic nerve is the second most likely cranial nerve involved.<sup>136</sup> Multiple sclerosis must also be considered when a young person presents with optic neuritis. In these cases, a chest radiograph showing typical features of sarcoidosis strongly suggests this diagnosis.<sup>137</sup> Any other cranial nerve may be affected, and in many series, the nerves supplying the extraocular muscles are commonly involved.<sup>138,139</sup>

Sarcoidosis may cause aseptic meningitis that may be acute or chronic.<sup>136</sup> Symptoms include stiff neck, fever, and headache. Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) findings typically shows a pleocytosis of lymphocytes,<sup>140</sup> with a low CSF glucose in 20% of cases.<sup>141</sup> The basal meninges may be affected, resulting in cranial neuropathies.<sup>136</sup> Chronic meningitis is often recurrent and requires long-term therapy, whereas acute meningitis responds favorably to corticosteroids.<sup>136</sup>

Cerebral sarcoidosis lesions may develop in any portion of the brain and tend to be more common in supratentorial locations than in the cerebellum.<sup>142</sup> These lesions may cause symptoms consistent with any space-occupying lesions of the brain and therefore may be life threatening. There is a predilection for the hypothalamus and pituitary gland<sup>133,138,139,142-144</sup> that may result in diabetes insipidus,<sup>145,146</sup> hypogonadism,<sup>146</sup> or adenopituitary failure.<sup>147</sup>

Spinal sarcoidosis is underappreciated. Patients may present with transverse myelopathy, paresis, autonomic dysfunction, radicular syndrome, and cauda equina syndrome.<sup>136,148,149</sup> Sarcoidosis may cause a peripheral neuropathy.<sup>133,139</sup> It may manifest as a mononeuropathy, polyneuropathy, Guillain-Barré syndrome and symmetric distal polyneuropathy that may be sensorimotor, mostly sensory, or mostly motor.<sup>136,139,150,151</sup> Seizures may be the first manifestation of neurosarcoidosis,<sup>139,152</sup> and the presence of seizures portends a poor



prognosis.<sup>136</sup> Granulomatous infiltration of the central nervous system from sarcoidosis can result in cognitive decline to frank psychosis.<sup>138,139,153</sup> Sarcoidosis may also cause a small-fiber neuropathy that usually cannot be detected on routine nerve conduction testing.<sup>154</sup> Special testing of cold and heat discrimination is often needed to secure this diagnosis.<sup>155</sup> Small-muscle neuropathy may be responsible for disabling neuropathic pain and paresthesias, especially during sleep.<sup>136</sup> It may cause restless leg syndrome and periodic limb movement disorder.<sup>156</sup>

The diagnosis of neurosarcoidosis is often problematic because biopsy of neural tissue is an invasive procedure. A tissue diagnosis of sarcoidosis can often be established in another location. In one series of neurosarcoidosis, other systemic manifestations were found in 97%, intrathoracic manifestations were found in 88%, and 82% had an abnormal chest radiograph.<sup>133</sup> Therefore, a search for extraneural locations should always be conducted, and this should involve a physical examination, chest radiograph, liver function tests, and complete blood count. An ophthalmic evaluation (searching for conjunctival or lacrimal gland involvement) should be performed. If the aforementioned tests are unrevealing, a whole-body gallium-67 or PET scan should be considered to identify a potential diagnostic biopsy site.<sup>136,157</sup> If a biopsy of an extraneural tissue demonstrates granulomatous inflammation of unknown cause, certain neurological findings have been established to make the diagnosis of neurosarcoidosis "definite" or "probable" (see Table 1).<sup>128</sup>

Corticosteroids are the cornerstone of treatment for neurosarcoidosis.<sup>158,159</sup> However, the response to corticosteroids is inconsistent, and high doses are often required.<sup>138,139,158-160</sup> Some have advocated a starting dose of 40 to 80 mg/day of prednisone equivalent.<sup>158</sup> Relapses are common when the prednisone dose is lowered to 20 to 25 mg/day.<sup>138</sup>

If the corticosteroid dose cannot be tapered to 10 mg/day of prednisone equivalent over the first several months, alternative agents should be considered. Most of these agents are not effective alone but may be corticosteroid-sparing. Such agents have included methotrexate,<sup>160</sup> chloroquine,<sup>158,161</sup> hydroxychloroquine,<sup>158,161</sup> azathioprine,<sup>162</sup> cyclophosphamide,<sup>160,163</sup> cyclosporine,<sup>162,164</sup> and infliximab.<sup>165</sup> Although reports of these drugs have been for the most part anecdotal and with a small number of patients, methotrexate and cyclophosphamide appear to be the most efficacious. Radiation therapy has been used in refractory cases.<sup>166</sup>

### Calcium Metabolism

Calcium metabolism is dysregulated in active sarcoidosis. This may result in hypercalciuria, hypercalcemia, and nephrolithiasis with possible renal insufficiency.<sup>167</sup> The primary abnormality in calcium metabolism stems from an increase in 1- $\alpha$  hydroxylase activity in sarcoid

alveolar macrophages that converts 25-hydroxyvitamin D to 1, 25-dihydroxyvitamin D, the active form of the vitamin.<sup>168-170</sup>

The reported incidence of hypercalcemia in sarcoidosis is variable, having been reported from 2 to 63% in various series.<sup>167</sup> These disparate findings may be attributable to differences in sunlight exposure, skin color, dietary calcium, and genetic factors of the populations studied. Hypercalciuria is three times more common than hypercalcemia in sarcoidosis.<sup>171</sup> Undetected, persistent hypercalcemia and hypercalciuria can result in nephrocalcinosis, renal stones, and renal failure.<sup>172</sup> Therefore, it has been recommended that all patients diagnosed with sarcoidosis have serum calcium and creatinine measured and a urinalysis performed.<sup>4</sup> It should be noted that these screening tests will not detect hypercalciuria; therefore, renal complications may develop if these screening tests are normal. However, obtaining a 24 hour urine for calcium and creatinine on every sarcoidosis patient is too cumbersome to recommend routinely.

The treatment of hypercalcemia includes: (1) reduction of oral calcium supplements, dietary calcium, and vitamin D; (2) maintenance of an expanded intravascular volume; (3) reduction of the inappropriate production of 1, 25-dihydroxyvitamin D by sarcoid macrophages and granulomas; and (4) reduction of 1, 25-dihydroxyvitamin D-induced intestinal calcium absorption and bone resorption.<sup>173</sup>

Mild hypercalcemia can be treated initially with the first two approaches: restriction of dietary calcium and increased fluid intake. The patient should be advised to avoid sunlight, curtail intake of major sources of dietary calcium and vitamin D, and drink a large amount of fluids.<sup>173</sup>

If the serum calcium is greater than 11 mg/dL, the serum creatinine is elevated, or the patient has nephrolithiasis, drug therapy is usually required. The drug of choice is prednisone at an initial daily dose of 20 to 40 mg/day.<sup>173</sup> Corticosteroids cause a rapid decline in serum calcium in 3 to 5 days and in urinary calcium excretion in 7 to 10 days.<sup>173</sup> Failure of the serum calcium to normalize on this regimen in 2 weeks should alert the clinician to an alternate or coexisting disorder such as hyperparathyroidism, lymphoma, carcinoma, and myeloma.<sup>173</sup> Once the calcium disorder is brought under control, the corticosteroid dose can be lowered over 4 to 6 weeks.<sup>173</sup> Serum calcium and urinary calcium excretion rate should be closely monitored. If the patient develops unbearable corticosteroid side-effects or fails to respond, chloroquine,<sup>174</sup> hydroxychloroquine,<sup>175</sup> and ketoconazole<sup>176</sup> have been used successfully.

### Sarcoidosis of the Upper Respiratory Tract

The incidence and prevalence of sarcoidosis of the upper respiratory tract (SURT) is unknown but probably

underrecognized.<sup>177</sup> The disease may affect any part of the upper airway, including the nose, sinuses, larynx, tonsils, and tongue.<sup>177</sup>

The nose is the most common upper airway structure to be affected by sarcoidosis.<sup>177</sup> The nasal mucous membrane is affected in a majority of cases. Common symptoms of sarcoidosis nasal involvement include crusting, dryness, nasal discharge, stuffiness, obstruction, and epistaxis. The diagnosis is often delayed because nasal symptoms are attributed to chronic sinusitis or allergies.<sup>178</sup> A confirmatory nasal biopsy should be done if this diagnosis is considered.<sup>177</sup> Sarcoidosis patients with disfiguring lupus pernio skin lesions of the nose often have nasal sarcoidosis, and such patients should always be asked about nasal symptoms.<sup>179</sup>

Sinus involvement, the second most common form of SURT,<sup>177</sup> is often associated with nasal disease.<sup>177</sup> Symptoms include periorbital pain, postnasal drip, nasal obstruction, and headache.<sup>177</sup> Laryngeal involvement usually occurs in patients with previously diagnosed disease.<sup>177</sup> The aryepiglottic folds, arytenoids, false cords, and subglottic areas are more commonly involved than the larynx.<sup>177,180</sup> Common symptoms include stridor, hoarseness, dysphonia, cough, dyspnea, and a sensation of a lump in the throat.<sup>181,182</sup> Hoarseness may also occur from cranial nerve involvement or from mediastinal adenopathy compressing the recurrent laryngeal nerve.<sup>183</sup> Tonsillar and tongue involvement with sarcoidosis is rare.

Corticosteroids are the drug of choice for SURT.<sup>177</sup> High doses are often required. It is recommended to start at 20 to 40 mg/day of prednisone equivalent with or without a concomitant immunosuppressive agent.<sup>177</sup> Intralesional injections can be useful if the lesions are localized. Nasal corticosteroid inhalation may diminish nasal inflammation and obstruction.<sup>184</sup> Methotrexate,<sup>90</sup> azathioprine,<sup>185</sup> chloroquine, hydroxychloroquine,<sup>161</sup> cyclophosphamide,<sup>186</sup> and infliximab<sup>187</sup> have all been reported to be useful in case reports and series.

Surgical resection should be avoided whenever possible because lesions may recur, and perforation of the nasal septum is a common complication after submucosal resection.<sup>188,189</sup> Chemotherapy should be tried first whenever possible. Surgery is indicated in cases of acute respiratory distress, expanding mass lesions, mass lesions causing airway obstruction, and mass lesions encroaching on the central nervous system that fail to respond to chemotherapy.<sup>177</sup>

### Bone/Joint

Arthritis is present in 14 to 38% of sarcoidosis patients.<sup>190</sup> Up to 70% of patients will complain of arthralgias.<sup>190,191</sup> Sarcoid rheumatic involvement can

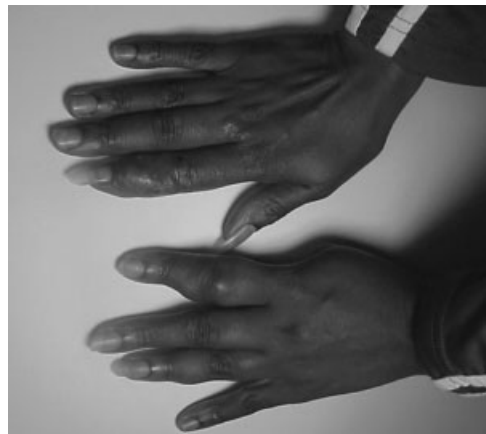
be divided into acute and chronic types, and their characteristics are so widely different that it has been questioned whether they are separate forms of the disease.<sup>190,192</sup>

Acute sarcoid arthritis may be migratory, intermittent, and can precede other manifestations of sarcoidosis by several months.<sup>190</sup> Fever and other constitutional symptoms often accompany acute sarcoid arthritis.<sup>190</sup> Acute sarcoid arthritis is very common with Lofgren's syndrome where a peri-arthritis of large joints, especially the ankles and knees, often occurs.<sup>193</sup> In fact, the primary symptom of Lofgren's syndrome is often difficulty walking related to joint pain. Lofgren's syndrome is not recurrent in the vast majority of cases, and the arthritis is usually self-limiting, averaging 11 weeks in duration.<sup>193</sup>

Chronic sarcoid arthritis is rare, affecting only 0.2% of sarcoidosis patients.<sup>194,195</sup> It is usually found in patients with cutaneous sarcoidosis and African American patients.<sup>192,196</sup> The arthropathy may be destructive.<sup>197</sup> Synovial biopsy shows noncaseating granulomas.<sup>190</sup>

Sarcoid bone involvement occurs in 1 to 13% of patients.<sup>190</sup> It is most common in patients between the ages of 30 to 50 and in African-Americans.<sup>190</sup> Bone lesions are most common in the bones of the hands and feet; however, the skull, nasal bones, and vertebrae may be affected (Fig. 3).<sup>190</sup> The lesions may be painful, especially if adjacent joints are involved.<sup>196</sup> The lesions are often asymptomatic and routinely found on radiographic or MR studies. Radiological findings usually show cystic or punched-out lesions (Fig. 4).<sup>198</sup>

Sarcoidal arthritis is usually treated with non-steroidal anti-inflammatory agents,<sup>192</sup> which is especially useful for acute sarcoid arthritis, typically a self-limiting disease. Chronic destructive synovitis may require intra-articular or systemic corticosteroids.<sup>190</sup> The addition of methotrexate or azathioprine may improve results and be corticosteroid sparing.<sup>190</sup>



**Figure 3** Deforming sarcoid arthritis of the fingers.



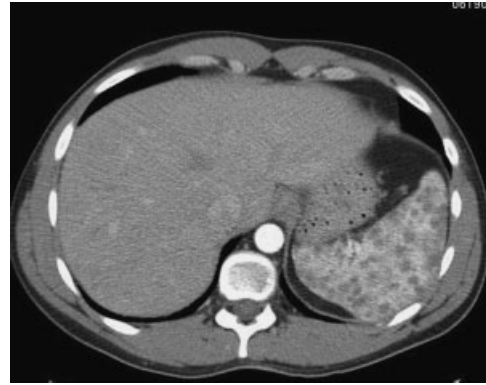
**Figure 4** Punched-out bone lesion of sarcoidosis at the proximal end of the left third metacarpal. Cystic bone lesions and erosive arthritis from sarcoidosis are also present at several middle interphalangeal joints of the left hand.

### Spleen

The frequency of splenic involvement in sarcoidosis has been reported to be 10 to 50%, depending on whether it is detected on physical examination (5 to 14%), a radiographic test (33 to 53%), or a tissue biopsy (24 to 59%).<sup>62,199–204</sup> Patients with splenic sarcoidosis are usually asymptomatic.<sup>205</sup> Left upper quadrant pain is occasionally present.<sup>199,205</sup> Constitutional symptoms such as night sweats, fever, and malaise may occur.<sup>199</sup> Massive splenomegaly is found in ~3% of patients with splenic involvement.<sup>62,206</sup> Splenic sarcoidosis may cause hypersplenism resulting in anemia, leukopenia, thrombocytopenia, or any combination including pancytopenia.<sup>62,206,207</sup>

The frequency of radiographic abnormalities of the spleen is unknown in sarcoidosis because all series reported have involved significant selection biases.<sup>62</sup> Splenomegaly is more common than hepatomegaly on abdominal CT.<sup>203,204,208</sup> Splenic nodules are usually multiple and of low attenuation and more common than hepatic nodules<sup>203,204,208,209</sup> (Fig. 5).

Most patients with splenic sarcoidosis do not require treatment. The natural course of splenic sarcoidosis is unknown, but splenomegaly, including giant splenomegaly, may resolve spontaneously.<sup>199,210</sup> Spontaneous resolution of splenomegaly may be more common when the spleen tip is less than 4 cm below the left costal margin.<sup>199</sup> Treatment is indicated for (1) symptomatic abdominal pain from splenomegaly, (2) hypersplenism, (3) functional asplenia, or (4) splenic rupture.<sup>62</sup> The effectiveness of corticosteroids in decreasing splenic size is unpredictable,<sup>211</sup> and the corticosteroid dose is not standardized.<sup>62</sup> Corticosteroids have also been effective for hypersplenism with normalization of leukopenia, thrombocytopenia, anemia, and pancytopenia.<sup>199,200</sup> Splenectomy is rarely performed for splenic sarcoidosis.<sup>212</sup> Indications include gross enlargement or discomfort, infarction, rupture, and hypersplenism, with reduction in one or several blood cell lines.<sup>211,212</sup> A



**Figure 5** Abdominal computed tomographic scan of a patient with splenic sarcoidosis. Splenomegaly and numerous low-attenuation nodules are seen. These findings are typical, although not pathognomonic, of splenic sarcoidosis because they may be seen with lymphoma and other granulomatous diseases.

corticosteroid trial is warranted prior to consideration of splenectomy.

### Miscellaneous

Sarcoidosis may cause peripheral lymphadenopathy.<sup>213,214</sup> Isolated granulomatous inflammation in a peripheral lymph node is not diagnostic of sarcoidosis because in ~8% of cases this may represent a “sarcoid-like reaction” from inflammatory disease or malignancy.<sup>213</sup>

Hematologic abnormalities are present in ~30% of sarcoidosis patients.<sup>215</sup> Patients with more active sarcoidosis often experience more problems with anemia and thrombocytopenia, whereas lymphopenia and leukopenia are more common in patients with chronic disease.<sup>216</sup> Four mechanisms exist by which sarcoidosis can affect the hematologic system: (1) direct involvement of the bone marrow by granulomas, (2) sequestration of cells into areas of inflammation, (3) splenic sequestration, and (4) immunologic destruction.<sup>217</sup>

Sarcoidosis muscle involvement is usually asymptomatic and resolves spontaneously.<sup>190</sup> Skeletal muscle weakness occasionally occurs.<sup>218</sup> Rarely, an acute myopathy resembling polymyositis, palpable intramuscular nodules, and progressive myopathy may occur.<sup>219,220</sup>

Sarcoidosis of the breast may occur, presenting as a palpable breast mass or a lesion seen on mammography.<sup>221,222</sup> It is important that a breast mass in a sarcoidosis patient not be assumed to be related to the disease because the patient may have concomitant breast carcinoma. This is particularly pertinent given that patients with breast carcinoma may have related sarcoid-like reactions in extramammary sites.<sup>223</sup>

Sarcoidosis may rarely involve the male and female reproductive tracts.<sup>217</sup> Cases of sarcoidosis of the male testis are particularly problematic because of the concern for possible testicular carcinoma. Elevated  $\alpha$ -fetoprotein (AFP) and  $\beta$ -human chorionic gonadotrophic ( $\beta$ -HCG)

levels are elevated in approximately half of patients with nonseminomatous testicular carcinoma.<sup>224</sup> However, normal levels of these proteins do not exclude the diagnosis of malignancy. In an effort to avoid unnecessary orchiectomy, young males with known sarcoidosis or a clinical situation compatible with sarcoidosis and normal AFP and  $\beta$ -HCG levels could be considered for close observation and repeated ultrasound, a brief empirical trial of corticosteroids, or possibly an excisional biopsy.<sup>217</sup> Sarcoidosis may affect any portion of the female genitourinary tract, including the ovary,<sup>225</sup> fallopian tube,<sup>226</sup> uterus,<sup>227</sup> and vulva.<sup>228</sup>

Although 20% of patients with sarcoidosis may demonstrate granulomas in the kidneys, the clinical syndrome of granulomatous interstitial nephritis is rare.<sup>173</sup> Membranous glomerulonephritis, mesangioproliferative glomerulonephritis, immunoglobulin A (IgA) nephropathy, and crescentic glomerulonephritis have been reported sporadically.<sup>173</sup>

Peritoneal sarcoidosis is rare and can present with ascites.<sup>229</sup> The CA-125 serum level may be elevated; therefore, this entity may be confused with ovarian carcinoma.<sup>230</sup>

Rarely sarcoidosis can affect the thyroid gland, presenting as a nodule, mass, or thyroiditis.<sup>231,232</sup>

**DIAGNOSIS**

The diagnosis of sarcoidosis requires a compatible clinical picture, histological demonstration of noncaseating

granulomata, and exclusion of other diseases capable of producing similar histological or clinical findings.<sup>4</sup> Table 2 displays the differential diagnosis of noncaseating granulomatous inflammation in extrapulmonary organs. All of these diagnoses need to be excluded for the diagnosis of sarcoidosis to be established. Cultures and stains of biopsy material should be routinely stained and cultured for mycobacteria and fungi to exclude these pathogens. Because sarcoidosis is a diagnosis of exclusion, the diagnosis can never be confirmed with 100% certainty.

The presence of noncaseating granulomata in a single organ does not establish the diagnosis of sarcoidosis because, by definition, sarcoidosis is a systemic disease that should involve multiple organs. There are idiopathic granulomatous diseases of individual organs that are distinguished from sarcoidosis. For example, idiopathic granulomatous hepatitis, where noncaseating granulomas of unknown cause are only found in the liver, is rarely found to be sarcoidosis (extrahepatic granulomas usually do not develop over time).<sup>233</sup> Another example is idiopathic panuveitis, a granulomatous uveitis without any other organ involvement, which is very common in the southeastern United States.<sup>234</sup>

One exception to the requirement of multiple organ involvement to establish the diagnosis of sarcoidosis is lung involvement. Most clinicians will accept the diagnosis of sarcoidosis if a lung biopsy shows noncaseating granulomatous inflammation of unknown cause and if the chest radiograph shows bilateral hilar

**Table 2 Major Pathological Differential Diagnosis of Sarcoidosis at Biopsy and Surgical Pathology**

Lymph Node	Skin	Liver	Bone Marrow	Other Biopsy Sites
Tuberculosis	Tuberculosis	Tuberculosis	Tuberculosis	Tuberculosis
Atypical mycobacteriosis	Atypical mycobacteriosis	Brucellosis	Histoplasmosis	Brucellosis
Brucellosis	Fungal infection	Schistosomiasis	Infectious mononucleosis	Other infections
Toxoplasmosis	Reaction to foreign bodies: beryllium, zirconium, tattooing, paraffin, etc.	Primary biliary cirrhosis	Cytomegalovirus	Crohn's disease
Granulomatous histiocytic necrotizing lymphadenitis (Kikuchi's disease)	Rheumatoid nodules	Crohn's disease	Hodgkin's disease	Giant cell myocarditis
Cat-scratch disease		Hodgkin's disease	Non-Hodgkin's lymphomas	GLUS syndrome
Sacroid reaction in regional lymph nodes to carcinoma		Non-Hodgkin's lymphomas	Drugs	
Hodgkin's disease		GLUS syndrome	GLUS syndrome	
Non-Hodgkin's lymphomas				
Granulomatous lesions of unknown significance (the GLUS syndrome)				

Adapted from Reference 4.

adenopathy or a gallium 67 scan shows positive hilar lymph nodes. Without thoracic adenopathy, the diagnosis of sarcoidosis must be made cautiously. A diligent search for an occupational exposure, bioaerosol exposure causing a hypersensitivity pneumonitis, and other causes of granulomatous lung disease, such as a vasculitis, should be made before the diagnosis of sarcoidosis is accepted. In these cases, it is prudent to bear a healthy degree of skepticism for the diagnosis and follow the patient closely for additional clues supporting an alternate diagnosis.

The requirement of two organs being involved with sarcoidosis to establish the diagnosis does not require that two organs be biopsied. A consensus of sarcoidosis experts has developed clinical criteria for when a second organ can be considered involved with sarcoidosis without biopsy (this presumes that noncaseating granulomas have been detected in the "first" organ) (Table 1).<sup>128</sup>

### SCREENING FOR ORGAN INVOLVEMENT

Table 3 lists the recommended initial evaluation of patients diagnosed with sarcoidosis.<sup>4</sup> All sarcoidosis patients should have a physical examination to detect extrapulmonary organ involvement. Careful attention should be paid to the skin, neurological examination, cardiac auscultation, and abdominal organs. Patients should undergo an eye examination (slit lamp and funduscopic), an electrocardiogram, and the laboratory tests listed in Table 3 to detect extrapulmonary manifestations of the disease.

### TREATMENT

The treatment of extrapulmonary sarcoidosis has already been discussed as it pertains to specific organs. In

**Table 3 Recommended Initial Evaluation of Patients with Sarcoidosis**

1. History (occupational and environmental exposure, symptoms)
2. Physical examination
3. Posteroanterior chest x-ray
4. Pulmonary function tests: spirometry, DL<sub>CO</sub> and K<sub>CO</sub>
5. Peripheral blood counts: white blood cells, red blood cells, platelets
6. Serum chemistries: calcium, liver enzymes (alanine aminotransferase, aspartate aminotransferase, alkaline phosphatase); creatinine, blood urea nitrogen
7. Urine analysis
8. Electrocardiogram
9. Routine ophthalmologic examination
10. Tuberculin skin test

Adapted from Reference 4.

DL<sub>CO</sub>, diffusing capacity for carbon monoxide.

general, corticosteroids are the drug of choice at an initial dose of 20 to 40 mg/day of prednisone equivalent.<sup>4</sup> Higher doses are often required for cardiac and neurological involvement. The corticosteroid dose should be tapered to the lowest effective dose. If corticosteroids cannot be tapered to less than 10 mg/day of prednisone equivalent within 3 to 6 months, consideration should be given to alternative agents. These agents are often steroid sparing, although it is problematic to completely wean off corticosteroids. Table 4 lists drugs for which there are some data to support effectiveness for the various forms of extrapulmonary sarcoidosis.

**Table 4 Indications for Treatment by Organ**

	No Treatment	Treatment <sup>a,b</sup>
Skin		
Localized		Topical (creams/injections)
Generalized		X
Eye		
Anterior uveitis		Topical (eyedrops)
Other manifestations		X
Liver		
Asymptomatic, elevated alkaline phosphate	X	
Synthetic dysfunction (INR ↑, ALB ↓)		X
Cholestatic symptoms		X
Neurological		
Other than facial (seventh Nerve (Bell's palsy)		X
Cardiac		
Symptomatic		X
Hypercalcemia/nephrolithiasis		
Serum calcium < 11 mg/dL		Low calcium diet, hydration
Serum calcium ≥ 11 mg/dL, elevated serum creatinine		X
Sarcoidosis of the upper respiratory tract		
Localized		injection
Generalized		X
Bone/Joint		
Arthritis		NSAIDs
Joint destruction		X
Spleen		
Hypersplenism		X

<sup>a</sup>Systemic corticosteroids are the drug of choice.

<sup>b</sup>Asymptomatic patients generally not treated except for eye, neurological, and possibly cardiac.

ALB, serum albumin; INR, international normalized ratio; NSAIDs, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs.

## SUMMARY

Sarcoidosis is not a pulmonary disease but a systemic disease that can affect any organ in the body. The most common extrapulmonary organs affected are the eye and skin. Other than the lungs, mortality from sarcoidosis is related to neurological and cardiac involvement. Treatment may vary depending on the organ that is involved, although corticosteroids are usually the drug of choice when treatment is required.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The author would like to acknowledge Dr. Steven A. Sahn for his thoughtful review and suggestions concerning this manuscript.

## REFERENCES

- ACCESS Research Group. Design of A Case Control Etiology Study of Sarcoidosis (ACCESS). *J Clin Epidemiol* 1999;52:1173-1186
- Baughman RP, Teirstein AS, Judson MA, et al. Clinical characteristics of patients in a case control study of sarcoidosis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2001;164:1885-1889
- Pietinalho A, Ohmichi M, Hirasawa M, et al. Familial sarcoidosis in Finland and Hokkaido, Japan: a comparative study. *Respir Med* 1999;93:408-412
- American Thoracic Society/European Respiratory Society. Statement on sarcoidosis. Joint Statement of the American Thoracic Society (ATS), the European Respiratory Society (RS) and the World Association of Sarcoidosis and Other Granulomatous Diseases (WASOG) adopted by the ATS Board of Directors and the ERS Executive Committee, February 1999. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 1999;160:736-755
- Rybicki BA, Major M, Popovich J, et al. Racial differences in sarcoidosis incidence: a 5-year study in a health maintenance organization. *Am J Epidemiol* 1997;145:234-241
- Rybicki BA, Iannuzzi MC, Frederick MM, et al. Familial aggregation of sarcoidosis: A Case-Control Etiologic Study of Sarcoidosis (ACCESS). *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2001;164:2085-2091
- Judson MA, Hirst K, Iyengar SK, et al. Comparison of sarcoidosis phenotypes among affected African-American siblings. *Chest* 2006;130:855-862
- Marshall R, Theirs B, Judson MA. Sarcoidosis. In: Freedberg IM, Eisen AZ, Wolff K, et al, eds. *Fitzpatrick's Dermatology in General Medicine*. 7th edition. New York, NY: Mc Graw Hill
- O'Neill JH. The differential diagnosis of erythema nodosum. *Del Med J* 1991;63:683-689
- Eklund A, Rizzato G. Skin manifestations in sarcoidosis. *European Respiratory Journal Monograph* 2005;10:150-163
- Judson MA, Baughman RP. Sarcoidosis. In: Baughman RP, Du Bois RM, Lynch JP, eds. *Diffuse Lung Disease: A Practical Approach*. London: Arnold; 2004:109-129
- Spiteri MA, Matthey F, Gordon T, et al. Lupus pernio: a clinico-radiological study of thirty-five cases. *Br J Dermatol* 1985;112:315-322
- Yanardag H, Pamuk ON, Karayel T. Cutaneous involvement in sarcoidosis: analysis of the features in 170 patients. *Respir Med* 2003;97:978-982
- Katoh N, Mihara H, Yasuno H. Cutaneous sarcoidosis successfully treated with topical tacrolimus. *Br J Dermatol* 2002;147:154-156
- Lower EE, Baughman RP. Prolonged use of methotrexate for sarcoidosis. *Arch Intern Med* 1995;155:846-851
- Siltzbach LE, Teirstein AS. Chloroquine therapy in 43 patients with intrathoracic and cutaneous sarcoidosis. *Acta Med Scand Suppl* 1964;425:302-308
- Zic JA, Horowitz DH, Arzubiaga C, King TE. Treatment of cutaneous sarcoidosis with chloroquine: review of the literature. *Arch Dermatol* 1991;127:1034-1040
- Baughman RP, Judson MA, Teirstein AS, Moller DR, Lower EE. Thalidomide for chronic sarcoidosis. *Chest* 2002;122:227-232
- Bachelez H, Senet P, Cadranet J, et al. The use of tetracyclines for the treatment of sarcoidosis. *Arch Dermatol* 2001;137:69-73
- Doty JD, Mazur JE, Judson MA. Treatment of sarcoidosis with infliximab. *Chest* 2005;127:1064-1071
- Baughman RP, Lower EE. Leflunomide for chronic sarcoidosis. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis* 2004;21:43-48
- Benez A, Metzger S, Fierbeck G. Treatment of subcutaneous sarcoidosis with allopurinol. *Arch Dermatol* 1999;135:1560-1561
- Georgiou S, Monastirli A, Pasmatzis E, Tsambaos D. Cutaneous sarcoidosis: complete remission after oral isotretinoin therapy. *Acta Derm Venereol* 1998;78:457-459
- Breuer K, Gutzmer R, Volker B, et al. Therapy of noninfectious granulomatous skin diseases with fumaric acid esters. *Br J Dermatol* 2005;152:1290-1295
- Karrer S, Abels C, Wimmershoff MB, et al. Successful treatment of cutaneous sarcoidosis using topical photodynamic therapy. *Arch Dermatol* 2002;138:581-584
- Ohara K, Judson MA, Baughman RP. Clinical aspects of ocular sarcoidosis. *European Respiratory Journal Monograph* 2005;10:188-209
- Bradley DA, Baughman RP, Raymond L, Kaufman AH. Ocular manifestations of sarcoidosis. *Semin Respir Crit Care Med* 2002;23:543-548
- Sartwell PE, Edwards LB. Epidemiology of sarcoidosis in the US Navy. *Am J Epidemiol* 1974;99:250-257
- Rossmann MD, Thompson B, Frederick M, et al. HLA-DRB1\*1101: a significant risk factor for sarcoidosis in blacks and whites. *Am J Hum Genet* 2003;73:720-735
- Rothova A, Alberts C, Glasius E, Kulstra A, Buitenhuis HJ, Breebaart AC. Risk factors for ocular sarcoidosis. *Doc Ophthalmol* 1989;72:287-296
- Ohara K, Okubo A, Sasaki H, Kamata K. Branch retinal vein occlusion in a child with ocular sarcoidosis. *Am J Ophthalmol* 1995;119:806-807
- Rothova A. Ocular involvement in sarcoidosis. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2000;84:110-116
- Islam SM, Tabbara KF. Causes of uveitis at the Eye Center in Saudi Arabia: a retrospective review. *Ophthalmic Epidemiol* 2002;9:239-249
- Merayo-Iloves J, Power WJ, Rodriguez A, et al. Secondary glaucoma in patients with uveitis. *Ophthalmologica* 1999;213:300-304

35. Merrill PT, Kim J, Cox TA, et al. Uveitis in the southeastern United States. *Curr Eye Res* 1997;16:865–874
36. Jabs DA, Johns CA. Ocular involvement in chronic sarcoidosis. *Am J Ophthalmol* 1986;102:297–301
37. Spaide RF, Ward DI. Conjunctival biopsy in the diagnosis of sarcoidosis. *Br J Ophthalmol* 1990;74:469–471
38. Khan F, Wessley Z, Chazin SR, Seriff NS. Conjunctival biopsy in sarcoidosis: a simple, safe, and specific diagnostic procedure. *Ann Ophthalmol* 1977;9:671–676
39. Crick R, Hoyle C, Mather G. Conjunctival biopsy in sarcoidosis. *BMJ* 1955;ii:1180–1181
40. James DG. Ocular sarcoidosis. *Am J Med* 1959;26:331–339
41. Wertheim MS, Mathers WD, Suhler EB, et al. Histopathological features of conjunctival sarcoid nodules using noninvasive in vivo confocal microscopy. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2005;123:274–276
42. Obenauf CD, Shaw HE, Syndor CF, Klintworth GK. Sarcoidosis and its ophthalmic manifestations. *Am J Ophthalmol* 1978;86:648–655
43. Sulavik SB, Palestro CJ, Spencer RP, et al. Extrapulmonary sites of radiogallium accumulation in sarcoidosis. *Clin Nucl Med* 1990;15:876–878
44. Rothova A. Posterior segment involvement in sarcoidosis. In: Ohno S, Aoki K, Usui M, Uchio E, eds. *Uveitis Today*. Amsterdam: Elsevier; 1998:207–210
45. Sacher M, Lanzieri CF, Sobel LI, Som PM. Computed tomography of bilateral lacrimal gland sarcoidosis. *J Comput Assist Tomogr* 1984;8:213–215
46. Mayers M. Ocular sarcoidosis. *Int Ophthalmol Clin* 1990;30:257–263
47. Qazi FA, Thorne JE, Jabs DA. Scleral nodule associated with sarcoidosis. *Am J Ophthalmol* 2003;136:752–754
48. Silver MR, Messner LV. Sarcoidosis and its ocular manifestations. *J Am Optom Assoc* 1994;65:321–327
49. Constantino T, Digre K, Zimmerman P. Neuro-ophthalmic complications of sarcoidosis. *Semin Neurol* 2000;20:123–137
50. Hamanaka T, Takei A, Takemura T, Oritsu M. Pathological study of cases with secondary open-angle glaucoma due to sarcoidosis. *Am J Ophthalmol* 2002;134:17–26
51. Samson CM, Waheed N, Baltatzis S, Foster CS. Methotrexate therapy for chronic noninfectious uveitis: analysis of a case series of 160 patients. *Ophthalmology* 2001;108:1134–1139
52. Baughman RP, Lower EE, Bradley DA, Kaufman AH. Use of cytotoxic therapy for chronic ophthalmic sarcoidosis. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis* 1999;16(Suppl):17
53. Baughman RP, Lower EE. Leflunomide for chronic sarcoidosis. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis* 2004;21:43–48
54. Joseph A, Raj D, Dua HS, et al. Infliximab in the treatment of refractory posterior uveitis. *Ophthalmology* 2003;110:1449–1453
55. Irani SK, Dobbins WO. Hepatic granulomas: a review of 73 patients from one hospital and survey of the literature. *J Clin Gastroenterol* 1979;1:131–143
56. Vatti R, Sharma OP. Course of asymptomatic liver involvement in sarcoidosis: the role of therapy in selected cases. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis* 1997;14:73–76
57. Lehmuskallio E, Hannuksela M, Halme H. The liver in sarcoidosis. *Acta Med Scand* 1977;202:293–298
58. Hercules HD, Bethlem NM. Value of liver biopsy in sarcoidosis. *Arch Pathol Lab Med* 1984;108:831–834
59. Chamuleau RA, Sprangers RL, Alberts C, Schipper ME. Sarcoidosis and chronic intrahepatic cholestasis. *Neth J Med* 1985;28:470–476
60. Klatskin G. Hepatic granulomas: problems in interpretation. *Ann NY Acad Sci* 1976;278:427–432
61. Devaney K, Goodman ZD, Epstein MS, Zimmerman HJ, Ishak KG. Hepatic sarcoidosis: clinicopathologic features in 100 patients. *Am J Surg Pathol* 1993;17:1272–1280
62. Judson MA. Hepatic and splenic sarcoidosis. In: Baughman RP, ed. *Sarcoidosis: Lung Biology in Health and Disease*. New York: Marcel Dekker; 2006;210:571–592
63. James DG, Sherlock S. Sarcoidosis of the liver. *Sarcoidosis* 1994;11:2–6
64. Israel HL, Margolis ML, Rose LJ. Hepatic granulomatosis and sarcoidosis. *Dig Dis Sci* 1984;29:353–356
65. Maddrey WC, Johns CJ, Boitnott JK, Iber FL. Sarcoidosis and chronic hepatic disease: a clinical and pathologic study of 20 patients. *Medicine* 1970;49:375–395
66. Ishak KG. Sarcoidosis of the liver and bile ducts. *Mayo Clin Proc* 1998;73:467–472
67. Warshauer DM, Dumbleton SA, Molina PL, et al. Abdominal CT findings in sarcoidosis: radiologic and clinical correlation. *Radiology* 1994;192:93–98
68. Warshauer DM, Molina PL, Hamman SM, et al. Nodular sarcoidosis of the liver and spleen: analysis of 32 cases. *Radiology* 1995;195:757–762
69. Britt AR, Francis IR, Glazer GM, Ellis JH. Sarcoidosis: abdominal manifestations at CT. *Radiology* 1991;178:91–94
70. Folz SJ, Johnson D, Swensen SJ. Abdominal manifestations of sarcoidosis in CT studies. *J Comput Assist Tomogr* 1995;19:573–579
71. Farman J, Ramirez G, Brunetti J, et al. Abdominal manifestations of sarcoidosis: CT appearances. *Clin Imaging* 1995;19:30–33
72. Nakata K, Iwata K, Kojima K, Kanai K. Computed tomography of liver sarcoidosis. *J Comput Assist Tomogr* 1989;13:707–708
73. Scott GC, Berman JM, Higgins JL. CT patterns of nodular hepatic and splenic sarcoidosis: a review of the literature. *J Assist Comput Tomogr* 1997;21:369–372
74. Rudzki C, Ishak KG, Zimmerman HJ. Chronic intrahepatic cholestasis of sarcoidosis. *Am J Med* 1975;59:373–387
75. Bass NM, Burroughs AK, Scheuer PJ, James DG, Sherlock S. Chronic intrahepatic cholestasis due to sarcoidosis. *Gut* 1982;23:417–421
76. Pereira-Lima J, Schaffner F. Chronic cholestasis in hepatic sarcoidosis with clinical features resembling primary biliary cirrhosis: report of two cases. *Am J Med* 1987;83:144–148
77. Thomas E, Micci D. Chronic intrahepatic cholestasis with granulomas and biliary cirrhosis. *JAMA* 1977;238:337–338
78. Baughman RP. Sarcoidosis: usual and unusual manifestations. *Chest* 1988;94:165–170
79. Bloom R, Sybert A, Mascetello VJ. Granulomatous biliary tract obstruction due to sarcoidosis. *Am Rev Respir Dis* 1978;117:783–787
80. Valla D, Pessegueiro-Miranda H, Degott C, et al. Hepatic sarcoidosis with portal hypertension: a report of seven

- cases with a review of the literature. *QJ Med* 1987;63:531-544
81. Tekeste H, Latour F, Levitt RE. Portal hypertension complicating sarcoid liver disease: case report and review of the literature. *Am J Gastroenterol* 1984;79:389-396
  82. Vilinskas J, Joyeuse R, Serlin O. Hepatic sarcoidosis with portal hypertension. *Am J Surg* 1970;120:393-396
  83. Melissant CF, Smith SJ, Kazzaz BA, Demedts M. Bleeding varices due to portal hypertension in sarcoidosis. *Chest* 1993;103:628-629
  84. Lu CL, Chen CY, Hou MC, Chang FY, Lee SD. The experience of endoscopic tissue glue injection in the treatment of hepatic sarcoidosis related gastric variceal bleeding: report of a case. *Hepatogastroenterology* 1999;46:2293-2295
  85. Russi EW, Bansky G, Pfaltz M, et al. Budd-Chiari Syndrome in sarcoidosis. *Am J Gastroenterol* 1986;81:71-75
  86. Nataline MR, Goyette RE, Owensby LC, Rubin RN. The Budd-Chiari syndrome in sarcoidosis. *JAMA* 1978;239:2657-2658
  87. Gottlieb JE, Israel HL, Steiner RM, Triolo J, Patrick H. Outcome in sarcoidosis: the relationship of relapse to corticosteroid therapy. *Chest* 1997;111:623-631
  88. Israel HL, Margolis ML, Rose LJ. Hepatic granulomatosis and sarcoidosis. *Dig Dis Sci* 1984;29:353-356
  89. Israel HL, Goldstein RA. Hepatic granulomatosis and sarcoidosis. *Ann Intern Med* 1973;79:669-678
  90. Baughman RP. Methotrexate for sarcoidosis. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis* 1998;15:147-149
  91. Murphy JR, Sjorgen MH, Kikendall JW, Peura DA, Goodman Z. Small duct abnormalities in sarcoidosis. *J Clin Gastroenterol* 1990;12:555-561
  92. Poupon RE, Chretien Y, Poupon R, Paumgartner G. Serum bile acids in primary biliary cirrhosis: effect of ursodeoxycholic acid therapy. *Hepatology* 1993;17:599-603
  93. Becheur H, Dall'osto H, Chatellier G, et al. Effect of ursodeoxycholic acid on chronic intrahepatic cholestasis due to sarcoidosis. *Dig Dis Sci* 1997;42:789-791
  94. Baratta L, Cascino A, Delfino M, et al. Ursodeoxycholic acid treatment in abdominal sarcoidosis. *Dig Dis Sci* 2000;45:1559-1562
  95. Sherlock S, Dooley J. Hepatic sarcoidosis. In: *Diseases of the Liver and Biliary System*. 10th ed. Oxford: Blackwell Science; 1997:163-173
  96. James DG. Life-threatening situations in sarcoidosis. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis* 1998;15:134-139
  97. Mullins PD, Youngs GR. Favorable prognosis following variceal haemorrhage complicating hepatic sarcoidosis. *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 1995;7:185-186
  98. Casavilla FA, Gordon R, Wright HI, et al. Clinical course after liver transplantation in patients with sarcoidosis. *Ann Intern Med* 1993;118:865-866
  99. Bain VG, Kneteman N, Brown NE. Sarcoidosis, liver transplantation, and cyclosporine [letter]. *Ann Intern Med* 1993;119:1148
  100. Fidler HM, Hadziyannis SJ, Dhillon AP, Sherlock S, Burroughs AK. Recurrent hepatic sarcoidosis following liver transplantation. *Transplant Proc* 1997;29:2509-2510
  101. Hunt J, Gordon FD, Jenkins RL, Lewis WD, Khettry U. Sarcoidosis with selective involvement of a second allograft: report of a case and review of the literature. *Mod Pathol* 1999;12:325-328
  102. Muller C, Briegel J, Haller Met al. Munich Lung Transplant Group.. Sarcoidosis recurrence following lung transplantation. *Transplantation* 1996;61:1117-1119
  103. Barbers RG. Role of transplantation (lung, liver, and heart) in sarcoidosis. *Clin Chest Med* 1997;18:865-874
  104. Huang CT, Heurich AE, Sutton AL, Lyons HA. Mortality in sarcoidosis: a changing pattern of the causes of death. *Eur J Respir Dis* 1981;62:231-238
  105. Schulte W, Kirstien D, Drent M, Costabel U. Cardiac involvement in sarcoidosis. *European Respiratory Journal Monograph* 2005;10:130-149
  106. Sharma OP, Maheshwari A, Thaker K. Myocardial sarcoidosis. *Chest* 1993;103:253-288
  107. Silverman KJ, Hutchins GM, Bulkley BH. Cardiac sarcoid: a clinicopathological study of 84 unselected patients with systemic sarcoidosis. *Circulation* 1978;58:1204-1211
  108. Bagg SA, Gordon LL, Judson MA. Diagnostic yield of non invasive tests for cardiac sarcoidosis [abstract]. *Proc Am Thorac Soc* 2005;2:A864
  109. Yazaki Y, Osobe M, Hiroe M, et al. Prognostic determinants of long-term survival in Japanese patients with cardiac sarcoidosis treated with prednisone. *Am J Cardiol* 2001;88:1006-1010
  110. Fasano R, Rimmerman CM, Jaber WA. Cardiac sarcoidosis: a cause of infiltrative cardiomyopathy. *Cleve Clin J Med* 2004;71:483-488
  111. Desai MY, Fallert MA. Rapidly progressing congestive heart failure due to cardiac sarcoidosis involving papillary muscles: a case report and brief review of the literature. *Cardiol Rev* 2003;11:163-168
  112. Sekiguchi M, Yazaki Y, Isobe M, Hiroe M. Cardiac sarcoidosis: diagnostic, prognostic, and therapeutic considerations. *Cardiovasc Drugs Ther* 1996;10:495-510
  113. Chapelon-Abric C, de Zuttere D, DuHaut P, et al. Cardiac sarcoidosis: a retrospective study of 41 cases. *Medicine* 2004;83:315-334
  114. Haraki T, Ueda K, Shintani H, et al. Spontaneous development of left ventricular aneurysm in a patient with untreated sarcoidosis. *Circ J* 2002;66:519-521
  115. Kato Y, Morimoto S, Uemura A, et al. Efficacy of corticosteroids in sarcoidosis presenting with atrioventricular block. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis* 2003;20:133-137
  116. Larsen F, Pehrsson SK, Hammar N, et al. ECG-abnormalities in Japanese and Swedish patients with sarcoidosis: a comparison. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis* 2001;18:284-288
  117. Boglioli LR, Taff ML, Funke S, Mihalakis I. Sudden death due to sarcoid heart disease. *J Forensic Sci* 1998;43:1072-1073
  118. Uemura A, Morimoto S, Hiramitsu S, et al. Histologic diagnostic rate of cardiac sarcoidosis: evaluation of endomyocardial biopsies. *Am Heart J* 1999;138:299-302
  119. Umetani K, Ishihara T, Sawanobori T, et al. Successfully treated complete atrioventricular block with corticosteroid in a patient with cardiac sarcoidosis: usefulness of Gallium-67 and thallium-201 scintigraphy. *Intern Med* 2000;39:245-248
  120. Chin BB, Civilek AC, Mudun A. Resting Tl-201 scintigraphy in the evaluation of myocardial sarcoidosis. *Clin Nucl Med* 1997;22:475-478
  121. Barneveld PC, van Leeuwen C, van Isselt JW. Scintigraphic demonstration of myocardial sarcoidosis: the added value of



- single photon emission computed tomography. *J Nucl Cardiol* 1997;4:256–257
122. Nakazawa A, Ikeda K, Ito Y, et al. Usefulness of dual <sup>67</sup>Ga and <sup>99m</sup>Tc-sestamibi single-photon-emission scanning in the diagnosis of cardiac sarcoidosis. *Chest* 2004;126:1372–1376
  123. Doherty MJ, Kumar K, Nicholson AA, McGivern DV. Cardiac sarcoidosis: the value of magnetic resonance imaging in diagnosis and assessment of response to treatment. *Respir Med* 1998;92:697–699
  124. Shimada T, Shimada K, Sakane T, et al. Diagnosis of cardiac sarcoidosis and evaluation of the effects of steroid therapy by gadolinium-DPTA-enhanced magnetic resonance imaging. *Am J Med* 2001;110:520–527
  125. Vignaux O, Dhote R, Duboe D, et al. Clinical significance of myocardial magnetic resonance abnormalities in patients with sarcoidosis. *Chest* 2002;122:1895–1901
  126. Okumura W, Iwasaki T, Toyama T, et al. Usefulness of fasting 18F-FDG PET in identification of cardiac sarcoidosis. *J Nucl Med* 2004;45:1989–1998
  127. Hiraga H, Yuwai K, Hiroe M, et al. Guideline for the Diagnosis of Cardiac Sarcoidosis: Study Report on Diffuse Pulmonary Diseases [Japanese]. Tokyo: Ministry of Health and Welfare; 1993:23–24
  128. Judson MA, Baughman RP, Teirstein AS, Terrin ML, Yeager H, Jr, ACCESS Research Group. Defining organ involvement in sarcoidosis: the ACCESS proposed instrument. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis* 1999;16:75–86
  129. Roberts SD, Wilkes DS, Burgett RA, Knox KS. Refractory sarcoidosis responding to infliximab. *Chest* 2003;124:2028–2031
  130. Deng JC, Baughman RP, Lynch JP III. Cardiac involvement in sarcoidosis. *Semin Respir Crit Care Med* 2002;23:513–527
  131. Mezaki T, Chinushi M, Washizuka T, et al. Discrepancy between inducibility of ventricular tachycardia and activity of cardiac sarcoidosis: requirement of defibrillator implantation for the inactive stage of cardiac sarcoidosis. *Intern Med* 2001;40:731–735
  132. Smedema JP, Snoep G, van Kroonenburgh MPG, et al. Cardiac involvement in patients with pulmonary sarcoidosis assessed at two university medical centers in the Netherlands. *Chest* 2005;128:30–35
  133. Stern BJ, Krimholz A, Johns C, et al. Sarcoidosis and its neurologic manifestations. *Arch Neurol* 1985;42:909–917
  134. James DG, Sharma OP. Neurosarcoidosis. *Proc R Soc Med* 1967;60:1169–1170
  135. Sharma OP, Sharma AM. Sarcoidosis of the nervous system: a clinical approach. *Arch Intern Med* 1991;151:1317–1321
  136. Hoitsma E, Sharma OP. Neurosarcoidosis. *European Respiratory Journal Monograph* 2005;10:164–187
  137. Kumar N, Frohmam EM. Spinal neurosarcoidosis mimicking an idiopathic inflammatory demyelinating syndrome. *Arch Neurol* 2004;61:586–589
  138. Zajick JP, Scolding NJ, Foster O, et al. Central nervous system sarcoidosis: diagnosis and management. *Q J Med* 1999;92:103–117
  139. Oksanen V. Neurosarcoidosis: clinical presentations and course in 50 patients. *Acta Neurol Scand* 1896;73:283–290
  140. Plotkin GR, Patel BR. Neurosarcoidosis presenting as chronic lymphocytic meningitis. *Pa Med* 1986;89:36–37
  141. Powers WJ, Miller FM. Sarcoidosis mimicking glioma: case report and review of intercranial sarcoidosis like mass lesions. *Neurology* 1981;31:907–910
  142. Christoforidis GA, Spickler EM, Recio MV, Mehta BM. MR and CNS sarcoidosis: correlation of imaging features to clinical symptoms and response to treatment. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol* 1999;20:655–669
  143. Dumas JL, Valeyre D, Chapelon-Abrie C, et al. Central nervous system sarcoidosis: follow-up at MR imaging during steroid therapy. *Radiology* 2000;214:411–420
  144. Guoth MS, Kim J, de Lotbiniere ACJ, Brines ML. Neurosarcoidosis presenting as hypopituitarism and a cystic pituitary mass. *Am J Med Sci* 1998;315:220–224
  145. Konrad D, Gartenmann M, Martin E, Schoenle EJ. Central diabetes insipidus as the first manifestation of neurosarcoidosis in a 10-year-old girl. *Horm Res* 2000;54:98–100
  146. Bullmann C, Faust M, Hoffmann A, et al. Five cases with central diabetes insipidus and hypogonadism as first presentation or neurosarcoidosis. *Eur J Endocrinol* 2000;142:365–372
  147. Fery F, Plat L, van de Borne P, et al. Impaired counter-regulation of glucose in a patient with hypothalamic sarcoidosis. *N Engl J Med* 1999;340:852–856
  148. Sculley RE, Mark EJ, McNeely WF, et al. Case records of the Massachusetts General Hospital, Case 8–1998. *N Engl J Med* 1998;338:747–754
  149. Hashmi M, Kyritsis AP. Diagnosis and treatment of intramedullary spinal cord sarcoidosis. *J Neurol* 1998;245:178–185
  150. Miller R, Sheron N, Semple S. Sarcoidosis presenting with acute Guillain-Barré syndrome. *Postgrad Med J* 1989;65:765–767
  151. Nemni R, Galassi G, Cohen M, et al. Symmetric sarcoid polyneuropathy: analysis of sural nerve biopsy. *Neurology* 1981;31:1217–1223
  152. Delaney P. Neurologic manifestations in sarcoidosis: review of the literature, with a report of 23 cases. *Ann Intern Med* 1977;87:336–345
  153. Bona JR, Facker SM, Fendley MJ, Nemeroff CB. Neurosarcoidosis as a cause of refractory psychosis: a complicated case report. *Am J Psychiatry* 1998;155:1106–1108
  154. Hoitsma E, Marziniak M, Faber CG, et al. Small fiber neuropathy in sarcoidosis. *Lancet* 2002;359:2085–2086
  155. Hoitsma E, Drent M, Venstraete E, et al. Abnormal warm and cold sensation thresholds suggestive of small-fiber neuropathy in sarcoidosis. *Clin Neurophysiol* 2003;114:2326–2333
  156. Verbraecken J, Hoitsma E, van der Grinten CP, et al. Sleep disturbances associated with periodic leg movements in chronic sarcoidosis. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis* 2004;21:137–146
  157. Israel HL, Albertine KH, Park CH, Patrick H. Whole-body gallium 67 scans: role in diagnosis of sarcoidosis. *Am Rev Respir Dis* 1991;144:1182–1186
  158. Sharma OP. Neurosarcoidosis: a personal perspective based on the study of 37 patients. *Chest* 1997;112:220–228
  159. Ferriby D, de Seze J, Stojkovic T, et al. Long-term follow-up of neurosarcoidosis. *Neurology* 2001;57:927–929
  160. Lower EE, Broderick JP, Brott TG, Baughman RP. Diagnosis and management of neurological sarcoidosis. *Arch Intern Med* 1997;157:1864–1868
  161. Sharma OP. Effectiveness of chloroquine and hydroxychloroquine in treating selected patients with sarcoidosis

- with neurological involvement. *Arch Neurol* 1998;55:1248–1254
162. Agbogu BN, Stern BJ, Sewell C, Yang G. Therapeutic considerations in patients with refractory neurosarcoidosis. *Arch Neurol* 1995;52:875–879
163. Doty JD, Mazur JE, Judson MA. Treatment of corticosteroid-resistant neurosarcoidosis with a short-course cyclophosphamide regimen. *Chest* 2003;124:2023–2026
164. Stern BJ, Schonfeld SA, Sewell C, et al. The treatment of neurosarcoidosis with cyclosporine. *Arch Neurol* 1992;49:1065–1072
165. Doty JD, Mazur JE, Judson MA. Treatment of sarcoidosis with infliximab. *Chest* 2005;127:1064–1071
166. Kang S, Suh JH. Radiation therapy for neurosarcoidosis: report of three cases from a single institution. *Radiat Oncol Investig* 1999;7:309–312
167. Sharma OP. Vitamin D, calcium, and sarcoidosis. *Chest* 1996;109:535–539
168. Bell NH, Stern PH, Pantzer E, et al. Evidence that increased circulating 1- $\alpha$ ,25-dihydroxyvitamin D is the probable cause for abnormal calcium metabolism in sarcoidosis. *J Clin Invest* 1979;64:218–225
169. Adams JS, Sharma OP, Gacad MA, Singer FR. Metabolism of 25-hydroxyvitamin D<sub>3</sub> by cultured pulmonary alveolar macrophages in sarcoidosis. *J Clin Invest* 1983;72:1856–1860
170. Adams JS, Gacad MA. Characterization of 1 $\alpha$ -hydroxylation of vitamin D<sub>3</sub> sterols by cultured alveolar macrophages from patients with sarcoidosis. *J Exp Med* 1985;161:755–765
171. Sharma OP, Trowell J, Cohen N, et al. Abnormal calcium metabolism in sarcoidosis. In: Turiaf J, Chabot J, eds. *La sarcoidose: Rapp IV Conf Intern*. Paris: Maison de Cie; 1967:627–632
172. Rizzato G, Columbo P. Nephrocalcinosis as a presenting feature of chronic sarcoidosis: a prospective study. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis* 1996;13:167–172
173. Sharma OP. Renal sarcoidosis and hypercalcemia. *European Respiratory Journal Monograph* 2005;10:220–232
174. Adams JS, Diz MM, Sharma OP. Effective reduction in the serum 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D and calcium concentration in sarcoidosis-associated hypercalcemia with short-course of chloroquine therapy. *Ann Intern Med* 1989;111:437–438
175. Barre PE, Gascon-Barre M, Meekins JL, et al. Hydroxychloroquine treatment of hypercalcemia in a patient with sarcoidosis undergoing hemodialysis. *Am J Med* 1987;82:1259–1262
176. Conron M, Beynon HLC. Ketoconazole for the treatment of refractory hypercalcemic sarcoidosis. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis* 2000;17:277–280
177. Sharma OP. Sarcoidosis of the upper respiratory tract: selected cases emphasizing diagnostic and therapeutic difficulties. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis* 2002;19:227–233
178. Milton CM. Sarcoidosis in ENT practice. *Clin Otolaryngol Allied Sci* 1976;278:416
179. James DG, Barter S, Jash D, et al. Sarcoidosis of the upper respiratory tract (SURT). *J Laryngol Otol* 1982;96:711–718
180. Bower JS, Belen JE, Weg JG, Dantzker DR. Manifestations and treatment of laryngeal sarcoidosis. *Am Rev Respir Dis* 1980;122:325–332
181. Krespi YP, Mitrani M, Hussain S, Meltzer CJ. Treatment of laryngeal sarcoidosis with intralesional steroid injection. *Ann Otol Rhinol Laryngol* 1987;96:713–715
182. Jakse R, Fleischmann G. Diagnosis and therapy of laryngeal sarcoidosis. *HNO* 1985;33:118–123
183. Tobias JK, Santiago SM, Williams AJ. Sarcoidosis as a cause of left recurrent laryngeal nerve palsy. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* 1990;116:971–972
184. Sebastian B, Kleinsasser O. Sarcoidosis of the larynx. *Laryngol Rhinol Otol* 1985;64:622–626
185. Lewis SJ, Ainslie GM, Bateman ED. Efficacy of azathioprine as second-line treatment in pulmonary sarcoidosis. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis* 1999;16:87–92
186. Costabel U, Guzman J. Bronchoalveolar lavage in interstitial lung disease. *Curr Opin Pulm Med* 2001;7:255–261
187. Baughman RP, Lower EE. Infliximab for refractory sarcoidosis. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis* 2001;18:70–74
188. Hammond BL, Kataria YP. Nasal sarcoidosis with septal perforation. *J Otolaryngol* 1980;9:31–34
189. Pila Perez R, Sanchez Baez A, Madriano Lopez L. Nasal sarcoidosis: report of the first case in Cuba. *Acta Otorrinolaringol Esp* 1990;4:243–244
190. Jansen TLTA, Geusens PPM. Sarcoidosis: joint, muscle, and bone involvement. *European Respiratory Journal Monograph* 2005;10:210–219
191. West SG, Kotzin BL. Sarcoidosis. In: Hochberg MC, Silman AJ, Smolen JS, Weinblatt ME, Weisman MH, eds. *Rheumatology*. 3rd ed. Edinburgh: Mosby, Elsevier; 2003:1735–1752
192. Awada H, Abi-Karam G, Fayad F. Musculoskeletal and other extrapulmonary disorders in sarcoidosis. *Best Pract Res Clin Rheumatol* 2003;17:971–987
193. Glennas A, Kvein TK, Melby K, et al. Acute sarcoid arthritis: occurrence, seasonal onset, clinical features, and outcome. *Br J Rheumatol* 1995;34:45–50
194. Torralba KD, Quismorio FR. Sarcoid arthritis: a review of clinical features, pathology, and therapy. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis* 2003;20:95–103
195. James DG, Neville E, Carsstairs LS. Bone and joint sarcoidosis. *Semin Arthritis Rheum* 1976;6:53–81
196. Pettersson T. Rheumatic features of sarcoidosis. *Curr Opin Rheumatol* 1998;10:73–78
197. Sokoloff L, Bunim JJ. Clinical and pathological studies of joint involvement in sarcoidosis. *N Engl J Med* 1959;260:841–847
198. Wilcox A, Bharadwaj P, Sharma OP. Bone sarcoidosis. *Curr Opin Rheumatol* 2000;12:321–329
199. Kataria YP, Whitcomb ME. Splenomegaly in sarcoidosis. *Arch Intern Med* 1980;140:35–37
200. Salazar A, Mana J, Corbella X, Albareda JM, Pujol R. Splenomegaly in sarcoidosis: report of 16 cases. *Sarcoidosis* 1995;12:131–134
201. Selroos O, Koivunen E. Usefulness of fine-needle aspiration biopsy of the spleen in diagnosis of sarcoidosis. *Chest* 1983;83:193–195
202. Taavitsainen M, Koivuniemi A, Helminen J, et al. Aspiration biopsy of the spleen in patients with sarcoidosis. *Acta Radiol* 1987;28:723–725
203. Warshauer DM, Dumbleton SA, Molina PL, et al. Abdominal CT findings in sarcoidosis: radiologic and clinical correlation. *Radiology* 1994;192:93–98

204. Folz SJ, Johnson D, Swenson SJ. Abdominal manifestations of sarcoidosis in CT studies. *J Comput Assist Tomogr* 1995;19:573–579
205. Selroos O. Sarcoidosis of the spleen. *Acta Med Scand* 1976;200:337–340
206. Thadani U, Aber CP, Taylor JJ. Massive splenomegaly, pancytopenia and haemolytic anemia in sarcoidosis. *Acta Haematol* 1975;53:230–240
207. Haran MZ, Feldberg E, Miller G, Berrebi A. Sarcoidosis presenting as massive splenomegaly and bicytopenia. *Am J Hematol* 2000;63:232–233
208. Britt AR, Francis IR, Glazer GM, Ellis JH. Sarcoidosis: abdominal manifestations at CT. *Radiology* 1991;178:91–94
209. Warshauer DM, Molina PL, Hamman SM, et al. Nodular sarcoidosis of the liver and spleen: analysis of 32 cases. *Radiology* 1995;195:757–762
210. Ali Y, Popescu A, Woodlock TJ. Extrapulmonary sarcoidosis: rapid spontaneous remission of marked splenomegaly. *J Natl Med Assoc* 1996;88:714–716
211. Webb AK, Mitchell DN, Bradstreet CMP, Salsbury AJ. Splenomegaly and splenectomy in sarcoidosis. *J Clin Pathol* 1979;32:1050–1053
212. Coon WW. Splenectomy for splenomegaly and secondary hypersplenism. *World J Surg* 1985;9:437–443
213. Rizzato G, Montemurro L. The clinical spectrum of the sarcoid peripheral lymph node. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis* 2000;17:71–80
214. Pietinalho A, Ohmichi M, Hiraga Y, et al. The mode of presentation of sarcoidosis in Finland and Hokkaido, Japan: a comparative analysis of 571 Finnish and 686 Japanese patients. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis* 1996;13:159–166
215. Lower EE, Smith JT, Martelo OJ, Baughman RP. The anemia of sarcoidosis. *Sarcoidosis* 1988;5:51–55
216. Baughman RP, Hurtubise P. Systemic immune response of patients with active pulmonary sarcoidosis. *Clin Exp Immunol* 1985;61:535–541
217. Lower EE. Rare forms of sarcoidosis. In: Baughman RP, ed. *Sarcoidosis: Lung Biology in Health and Disease*. New York: Marcel Dekker; 2006;210:651–670
218. Spruit MA, Thomeer MJ, Gosselink R, et al. Skeletal muscle weakness in patients with sarcoidosis and its relationship with exercise intolerance and reduced health status. *Thorax* 2005;60:32–38
219. Silverstein A, Siltzbach LE. Muscle involvement in sarcoidosis. *Arch Neurol* 1969;21:235–241
220. Kidd D, Benyon HLC. The neurological complications of systemic sarcoidosis. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis* 2003;20:85–94
221. Gansler TS, Wheeler JE. Mammary sarcoidosis: two cases and literature review. *Arch Pathol Lab Med* 1984;108:673–675
222. Gisvold JJ, Crotty TB, Johnson RE. Sarcoidosis presenting as speculated breast mass. *Mayo Clin Proc* 2000;75:293–295
223. Hunsaker AR, Munden RF, Pugatch RD, Mentzer SJ. Sarcoidlike reaction in patients with malignancy. *Radiology* 1996;200:255–261
224. Kramar A, Droz JP, Rey A, et al. Prognostic factors in non-seminomatous germ cell tumours of the testis: experience at the Institute Gustave-Roussy. *Eur Urol* 1993;23:188–195
225. Parveen AS, Elliott H, Howell R. Sarcoidosis of the ovary. *J Obstet Gynaecol* 2004;24:465
226. Boake K, Omalu B, Thomas L. Fallopian tube and pulmonary sarcoidosis: a case report. *J Reprod Med* 1997;42:533–535
227. DiCarlo FJ Jr, DiCarlo JP, Robboy SJ, Lyons MM. Sarcoidosis of the uterus. *South Med J* 2002;95:884–888
228. Klein PA, Appel J, Callen JP. Sarcoidosis of the vulva: a rare cutaneous manifestation. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1998;39:281–283
229. Uthman IW, Bizri AR, Shabb NS, et al. Peritoneal sarcoidosis: case report and review of the literature. *Semin Arthritis Rheum* 1999;28:351–354
230. Bernaciak J, Spina JC, Curros ML, et al. Case report: peritoneal sarcoidosis in an unusual location. *Semin Respir Crit Care Med* 2002;23:597–600
231. Lemerre D, Caron F, Delval O, et al. Thyroid manifestations of sarcoidosis: a case report. *Rev Pneumol Clin* 1999;53:393–396
232. Nakamura H, Genma R, Mikami T, et al. High incidence of positive autoantibodies against thyroid peroxidase and thyroglobulin in patients with sarcoidosis. *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf)* 1997;46:467–472
233. Sartin JS, Walker RC. Granulomatous hepatitis: a retrospective review of 88 cases at the Mayo Clinic. *Mayo Clin Proc* 1991;66:914–918
234. Merrill PT, Kim J, Cox TA, et al. Uveitis in the southeastern United States. *Curr Eye Res* 1997;16:865–874

