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Understanding death before organ donation

**An ESSAY SUBMITTED FOR
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INTENSIVE CARE**

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|--------------------------|--|
| ^{99m}Tc- | Technetium-99m hexamethylpropyl- |
| HMPAO | eneamineoxme |
| ACTH | Adrenocorticotrophic hormone |
| ADH | Anti-diuretic hormone |
| AL | Adherent leukocytes |
| anti-HBc | Antibody against hepatitis B core antigen |
| antiHBs | Antibodies against hepatitis B surface antigen |
| ARDS | Acute respiratory distress syndrome |
| ATP | Adenosine triphosphate |
| AtT | Atropine test |
| AVP | Arginine vasopressin |
| BAL | Bronchoalveolar lavage |
| BD | Brain death |
| BSD | Brain stem death |
| CABG | Coronary artery bypass graft |
| CAD | Coronary artery disease |
| CBF | Cerebral blood flow |
| CIT | Cold ischemic time |
| CMV | Cytomegalovirus |
| CNS | Central nervous system |
| CPP | Cerebral perfusion pressure |
| CPR | Cardio-pulmonary resuscitation |
| CsA | Cyclosporine |
| CT | Computed tomography |
| CTA | Computed tomography angiography |
| CVP | Central venous pressure |
| DATPA | Dialysis and Transplant Patient Association |
| DBD | Donation after brain death |
| DCD | Donation after cardiac death |
| DDAVP | L-desamino-8D-arginine vasopressin |
| DI | Diabetes insipidus |

| | |
|------------------------|---|
| DNA | Deoxyribonucleic acid |
| DO₂ | Oxygen delivery |
| EEG | Electroencephalogram |
| ECG | Electro-cardiogram |
| ERG | Electroretinography |
| FCD | Functional capillary density |
| FiO₂ | Fraction of inspired oxygen |
| FT₃ | Free triiodothyronine |
| FT₄ | Free thyroxine |
| HBc | Hepatitis B core antigen |
| HBV | Hepatitis B virus |
| HBIG | Hepatitis B immune globulin |
| HBsAg | Hepatitis B surface antigen |
| HCV | Hepatitis C virus |
| HLA | Human leukocyte antigen |
| ICAM-1 | Intercellular adhesion molecule 1 |
| ICP | Intracranial pressure |
| ICU | Intensive care unit |
| IgM | Immunoglobulin M |
| IL-6 | Interlukin 6 |
| IPF | Initial poor function |
| IR | Ischemic-reperfusion |
| KFSH&RC | King faisal specialist hospital & research centre |
| Kim-1 | kidney injury molecule-1 |
| LRD | Living related donor |
| LURDs | Living un-related donors |
| LVH | Left ventricular hypertrophy |
| MAP | Mean arterial pressure |
| MAP-kinases | Mitogen-activated protein kinases |
| MCP-1 | Monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 |
| MEP | Multimodality evoked potentials |
| MHC | Major histocompatibility complex |
| MRI | Magnetic resonance imaging |

| | |
|-------------------------|---|
| NF-κB | Nuclear factor-kappa B |
| NHBD | Non-heart-beating donor |
| OLT | Orthotopic liver transplant |
| OPO | Organ procurement organization |
| OPTN | Organ procurement and transplantation network |
| PaO₂ | Partial Pressure of Oxygen in Arterial Blood |
| PBUH | Peace be upon him |
| PDF | Primary dysfunction |
| PEEP | Positive end expiratory pressure |
| PMN | Polymorphonuclear cells |
| PNF | Primary non-function |
| PSGL-1 | P-selectin glycoprotein ligand-1 |
| PVO₂ | Pulmonary vein oxygen level |
| ROSC | Resumption of spontaneous circulation |
| rPSGL-Ig | Recombinant P-selectin glycoprotein ligand |
| rT3 | Reverse triiodothyronine levels |
| SBP | Systolic blood pressure |
| SCOT | Saudi Center for Organ Transplantation |
| ScvO₂ | Central or mixed venous oxygen saturation |
| SIUT | Sind Institute of Urology and Transplantation |
| SLC | Sinusoidal lining cells |
| SPK | Simultaneous pancreas-kidney transplants |
| SRL | Sirolimus |
| SVR | Systemic vascular resistance |
| T3 | Triiodothyronine |
| T4 | Thyroxine |
| TAC | Tacrolimus |
| TCD | Transcranial dopple |
| TSH | Thyroid-stimulating hormone |
| U.K | United Kingdom |
| UNOS | United network for organ sharing |
| UW | University of Wisconsin |
| VCAM-1 | Vascular cell adhesion molecule 1 |

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INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Death is the one great certainty. The subject of powerful social and religious rituals and moving literature, it is contemplated by philosophers, probed by biologists, and combated by physicians. Death, taboo in some cultures, preoccupies others. (*Morris et al., 1981*).

Dying is a process rather than an event. The determination and certification of death indicate that an irrevocable point in the dying process has been reached, not that the process has ended. Determination of death by any means does not guarantee that all bodily functions and cellular activity, including that of brain cells, have ceased. Several tissues can be retrieved for transplantation long after death has been determined by cessation of circulation. Similarly, after death has been determined by loss of whole brain function, the circulation can be maintained for hours or days to enable organs to be retrieved. Maintaining the circulation can continue even longer: for example, in the case of a pregnant woman, so that the foetus can reach viable independent existence (*Dobb et al., 2008*).

Understanding death at a biological level was only possible after William Harvey in the 17th century described the circulation of blood and the function of the heart as a pump. Harvey stated that ‘...the heart is the principle of life...from which heat and life are dispersed to all parts...’. Under this concept, death was when the heart and circulation stopped (*Harvey, 1628*).

By the end of the 19th century it was known that, during an increase in intracranial pressure (ICP), respirations suddenly stopped whereas the heart continued to beat for some time. It was also recognized that the heart could continue to beat if artificial respiration was performed (*Cushing, 1902*).

In 1995 Jones stated that, until 30 years ago it was breathing and heartbeat which were taken to signify the continued life of a human being, and it was the permanent cessation of these activities which were taken to constitute human death. However various medical advances throughout the 1950s and 1960s altered the perceived significance of these signs. Recovery from cardiac arrest became more common; mechanical ventilation assisted those not able to breathe spontaneously. Then on December 3rd 1967, the first successful heart transplant was carried out on a human being. The

heart seemed not to be irreplaceable after all. Further, if machines could substitute for the function of the heart or the lungs then these organs could not themselves constitute human life. Only the brain seemed irreplaceable in this way; so criteria for death shifted from referring to heart and lungs to referring to the brain (*Jones, 1995*).

Physicians, health care workers, members of the clergy, and laypeople throughout the world have accepted fully that a person is dead when his or her brain is dead. In the United States, the principle that death can be diagnosed by neurologic criteria (designated as brain death (**BD**)) is the basis of the Uniform Determination of Death Act (*Eelco & Wijdicks, 2001*).

Although the law does not define any of the specifics of the clinical diagnosis. There is a clear difference between severe brain damage and BD. The physician must understand this difference, because BD means that life support is useless, and BD is the principal requisite for the donation of organs for transplantation. In adults, the chief causes of BD are traumatic brain injury and subarachnoid hemorrhage. In children, abuse is a more common cause than motor vehicle accidents or asphyxia. (*Wijdicks, 1995*).

Ulmann, in January 1902, reported the first renal autotransplantation in a dog: grafting a kidney into the neck (*Ulmann, 1902*).

In 1906, Jaboulay, connected sheep and pig kidneys to the brachial vessels of two patients who were dying of renal failure. Neither kidney worked, but these were the first transplants, albeit xenografts, that had been placed in humans (*Jaboulay, 1906*).

The techniques used to join the vessels together were those developed and described by Carrel, who is known as the founding father of experimental organ transplantation because of his pioneering work with vascular techniques (*Carrel, 1902*).

In 1936, the Soviet surgeon Voronoy reported the transplantation of a human kidney to a patient with acute renal failure. There was a major mismatch of blood groups and the kidney never functioned. Voronoy carried out six kidney transplants without success (*Voronoy, 1937*).

The modern era of clinical transplantation began in the early 1950s, highlighted by the contribution of Kuss et al, Dubost et al, Servelle et al and Michon et al in France, and by Hume et al in Boston. Hume made an early attempt at allografting the kidney from

Introduction

an unrelated donor and the kidney functioned well, but only for a short period (*Hume et al., 1955*).

In 1954, Murray and his team carried out the first successful human organ transplant, taking a kidney from an identical twin (*Merrill et al., 1956*).

This was a landmark event in the history of transplantation. In 1962, Murray performed the first successful cadaveric kidney transplant (*Merrill et al., 1983*).

In 1963, Starzl achieved the first human liver transplant and Hardy performed the first lung transplant (*Hardy et al., 1963*).

In 1966, Lillehei et al and Kelly et al carried out the first successful pancreas transplant (*Kelly et al., 1967*).

The development of immunosuppressive treatment played a crucial role in those early successful organ transplants attempts between unrelated recipients and donors (*Schwartz, 2000*).

Another milestone event in the history of transplantation occurred in South Africa, on the 3rd December 1967, when Barnard carried out the world's first successful human heart transplant (*Barnard, 1987*).

In those days, the surgical team brought a brain-dead donor into the operating room with the recipient for the removal; the respirator was then stopped, and everyone waited for the donor's heart to cease to beat. Technically, therefore, those donors were not "brain dead" at the time of organ retrieval. Rather, they had been declared dead by classical cardiorespiratory criteria (*Machado(a), 2005*).

Even when Barnard reported his first successful heart transplant, he stated, "As soon as the donor had been certified dead (when the electrocardiogram had not shown activity for 5 minutes and there was absence of any spontaneous respiratory movements and absent reflexes) The donor chest was then opened rapidly." (*Barnard, 1967*).

DIAGNOSIS OF BRAIN DEATH

Diagnosis of brain death

The clinical neurologic examination remains the standard for the determination of BD and has been adopted by most countries. The clinical examination of patients who are presumed to be brain dead must be performed with precision. The declaration of BD requires not only a series of careful neurologic tests but also the establishment of the cause of coma, the ascertainment of irreversibility, the resolution of any misleading clinical neurologic signs, the recognition of possible confounding factors, the interpretation of the findings on neuroimaging, and the performance of any confirmatory laboratory tests that are deemed necessary. (*Van Norman, 1999*).

A. Clinical examination:

♦ Preconditions or prerequisites:

1. Coma due to an irreversible acute brain damage of known etiology, affecting both hemispheres and brainstem.

It is demanded to have a clear and definite clinical and/or neuroimaging evidence of an acute central nervous system (CNS) insult which is consistent with the irreversible loss of neurological function (*Wijdicks, 2003*).

The loss of function of the brainstem is in a large majority of cases is the infratentorial consequence of extremely severe supratentorial damage, resulting in untreatable ICP. Nevertheless, in some cases, primary brainstem lesions may entirely damage this structure while functioning of the cerebral hemispheres is relatively spared. That can be shown in a number of cases by the presence of some normal activity of the electroencephalogram (EEG). Hence, in primary brainstem lesions we have proposed the use of confirmatory tests (*Machado, 2007*).

2. Confounding factors should be excluded:

It is essential to exclude the confounding factors that mimic BD (*Ashwal, 2001*).

a) Un resuscitated shock

It indispensable to apply BD criteria only when MAP is