



Ain Shams University
Faculty of Medicine
Department of Anesthesia,
Intensive Care and Pain management

Coagulation Disturbances In Liver Transplant Patients

Essay

Submitted for Partial Fulfilment of Master Degree in
General Intensive Care

By

Shimaa Mostafa Ismael Mostafa Alsharef
(M.B.,B.Ch.)

Supervised By

Dr.Gamal Eldin Mohammad Ahmad Elewa

Professor of Anesthesia, Intensive Care and Pain Management
Faculty of Medicine - Ain shams University

Dr.Waleed Ahmad Abd Elrahman Mansour

Lecturer of Anesthesia, Intensive Care and Pain Management
Faculty of Medicine - Ain shams University

Dr.Hanaa Mohamed Abd Allah El Gendy

Lecturer of Anesthesia, Intensive Care and Pain Management
Faculty of Medicine - Ain shams University

Faculty of Medicine
Ain Shams University
2013



Acknowledgement

*First, I thank **God** for helping and guiding me in accomplishing this work,*

*I would like to express my sincere gratitude to **Prof. Dr. Gamal Eldin Mohammad Ahmad Elewa**, Professor of Anesthesia, Intensive Care and Pain Management, Faculty of Medicine, Ain shams University, for his great support and stimulating views. His active, persistent guidance and overwhelming kindness have been of great help throughout this work,*

*A special tribute to **Dr. Waleed Ahmad Abd Elrahman Mansour**, Lecturer of Anesthesia, Intensive Care and Pain Management, Faculty of Medicine, Ain shams University, for his supervision and advice.*





*I must extend my warmest gratitude to **Dr. Hanaa Mohamed Abd Allah El Gendy**, Lecturer of Anesthesia, Intensive Care and Pain Management, Faculty of Medicine, Ain shams University, for her great help and faithful advice. Her continuous encouragement was of great value and support to me.*

Last but definitely not least, I would like to thank my husband, mother and my father for always being there for me throughout this work. I owe them a lot.



Shimaa Mostafa Ismael Mostafa Alsharef

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List of Abbreviations

µg.....	Microgram.
ADP	Adenosine diphosphate.
APC	Activated protein C.
aPTT	Activated partial thromboplastin time.
AT	Antithrombin.
CFT	Clot formation time.
CI	Cardiac index.
CLI.....	Reduced clot lysis index .
CT	Clotting time.
DCD.....	Expanded criteria donors.
DDAVP ...	Deamino-8-d-arginine vasopressin.
DIC	Disseminated intravascular coagulation.
DO2.....	Oxygen Delivery.
DTI.....	Direct thrombin inhibitors.
DVT	Deep venous thrombosis.
EACA	Epsilon aminocaproic acid.
EBL.....	Estimated blood loss.
ECPR	Endothelial cell protein C receptor.
ELT	Euglobulin lysis time
ESLD	End stage liver disease.
factor VIIa	Activated factor VII
FDPs	Fibrin degradation products.
FFP	Fresh frozen plasma.
HAT	Hepatic artery thrombosis.
HIT.....	Heparin induced thrombocytopenia.
HLA	Human leukocyte antigen.
HLE.....	Heparin-like effect .
i.v	Intravenously.
ICT	Intracardiac thrombosis.
IL-6	Interleukin 6.
INR	International Normalized Ratio.
IPF	initial poor function.
ISI	International sensitivity index.

List of Abbreviations (Cont.)

ITP	Idiopathic immune thrombocytopenia.
Kg	Kilogram.
KIU	Kallikrein inhibitory units.
LDLT	Living donor liver transplantation.
LMWH	Low molecular weight heparin.
LOT.....	Lysis onset time.
LT	Liver transplatation.
MCF.....	Maximum Clot firmness.
MCFext ...	Extrinsic Maximum Clot firmness.
MELD	Model of End-Stage Liver Disease.
mg/dL.....	Milligram per deciliter.
ML	Maximum Lysis.
NHBD	Non-heart-beating donors.
OLT.....	Orthotopic liver transplantation.
PAI-1.....	Plasminogen activator inhibitor-1.
PAI-2.....	Plasminogen activator inhibitor-2.
PAIgG	Platelet-associated immunoglobulins.
PARs	Protease activated receptors.
PCC.....	Prothrombin complex concentrate.
PE	Pulmonary embolism.
PF4.....	Platelet factor 4.
PNF.....	Primary nonfunction.
PT	Prothrombin time.
PZ	Protein Z.
RB	Reticulate body.
RBC	Red Blood Cell
rFVIIa	Recombinant activated factor VII.
RT	Reptilase time.
SD	Solvent/Detergent process.
SVRI	Systemic vascular resistance index.
TA	Tranexamic acid.
TAFI	Thrombin activatable fibrinolysis inhibitor.
TAT	Thrombin–antithrombin.

List of Abbreviations (Cont.)

TEG.....	Thromboelastography.
TF	Tissue factor.
TFPI	Tissue factor pathway inhibitor.
TIPS	Transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunt.
TNF α	Tumour necrosis factor-alpha.
tPA	Tissue-type plasminogen activator.
TPO	Thrombopoietin.
TRALI	Transfusion-related acute lung injury.
TT	Thrombin time.
UFH	Unfractionated heparin.
UNOS	United Network For Organ Sharing.
uPA	Urokinase-type plasminogen activator.
VTE.....	Venous thromboembolism.
vWF	von Willebrand factor.
WBCLT ...	Whole blood clot lysis time.
ZPI	PZ-dependent protease inhibitor.
α 2-PI	Alpha2-antiplasmin

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Introduction

The liver is the second most commonly transplanted major organ, after the kidney, so it is clear that liver disease is a common and serious problem (*Guillen et al., 2005*).

In Egypt, the number of adult living donor liver transplantation (LDLT) performed annually has increased rapidly in the past few years (**Khalaf et al., 2005**).

Liver problems include a wide range of diseases, which may be inherited as Alpha-1-antitrypsin deficiency, Gilbert's syndrome Wilson's disease; or can occur in response to viruses as Hepatitis B and Hepatitis C or liver adenoma and cancer. Some liver problems are temporary and go away on their own, while others can lead to end stage liver disease and mandate liver transplantation (*Michael et al., 2011*).

The liver plays several key roles in blood coagulation being involved in both primary and secondary hemostasis (*Lisman et al., 2002*). Liver is the site of synthesis of all coagulation factors and their inhibitors except for von willebrand factor (vWF) (*Rapaport, 2000*).

Liver damage is commonly associated with impairment of coagulation, when liver reserve is poor. The hemostatic system is in a delicate balance between prothrombotic and antithrombotic processes, aiming to prevent excessive blood loss from injured vessels and to prevent spontaneous thrombosis. Liver failure is accompanied by multiple changes the hemostatic system, because of reduced plasma levels of procoagulative and anticoagulative factors synthesised by hepatocytes and sinusoidal cells (*Tripodi et al., 2005*).

Moreover, during liver failure, there is a reduced capacity to clear activated hemostatic proteins and protein inhibitor complexes from the circulation. Thus, the global

effect of liver disease with regard to hemostasis is complex, so that proteins with advanced liver disease can experience severe bleeding or even thrombotic complications (*Senzolo et al., 2006*).

When end stage liver disease occurs, liver transplantation is the only way available to save such patients and correct genetic clotting defects, such as hemophilia or factor V leiden mutation. Although it is the only way to restore normal hemostasis, coagulation disturbances in liver transplantation are still the major perioperative problem in those patients (*Arai et al., 1996*).

During liver transplantation, hemorrhage may occur due to the preexisting hypocoagulable state, the collateral circulation caused by portal hypertension and increased fibrinolysis that occurs during this surgery (*Senzolo et al., 2006*). A patient in the postoperative period following liver transplantation undergoes drastic changes in the ability to synthesize proteins such as albumin and coagulation factors, transitioning from a state devoid of synthetic ability to a fully functioning graft (*Anderegge et al., 2008*).

Aim Of The Work

This essay aims at reviewing the coagulation disturbances that may occur in liver transplant patients, underlying mechanisms and assessing how to diagnose, prevent and treat such coagulation problems in those patients.

COAGULATION DISTURBANCES IN HEPATIC PATIENTS

Liver plays a major role in hemostasis, as most of the coagulation factors, anticoagulant proteins and components of fibrinolytic system are synthesized by hepatic parenchymal cells. Additionally, the reticuloendothelial system of the liver helps to regulate coagulation and fibrinolysis by clearing these coagulation factors from the circulation. Liver is the primary site of synthesis of most of the clotting factors and the proteins involved in the fibrinolytic system including all vitamin K-dependent coagulation proteins (factors II, VII, IX, X, protein C, protein S and protein Z) as well as factor V, XIII, fibrinogen, antithrombin, α 2-p1 and plasminogen (*Desancho and Pastores, 2007*).

A. Physiology of hemostasis

Normal hemostatic balance is dependent on a complex interplay between procoagulant, anticoagulant and fibrinolytic proteins. Initiation of coagulation begins when tissue factor (TF) exposed after an injury to the vessel wall (**Fig. 1-1**). Tissue factor forms complex with activated factor VII (factor VIIa) present in the plasma. The TF/factor VIIa complex converts factor X to factor Xa, which, in turn, along with a cofactor, factor Va, converts prothrombin (factor II) to thrombin (factor IIa) (*Rosenberg and Aird, 1999*).

Although this process generates a small amount of thrombin, this thrombin serves to prime the coagulation cascade by increasing the enzymatic activity of factor VIIa, making it 100-fold more active. In addition, thrombin activates factor V, VIII, XI and platelets, which form the infrastructure to amplify the enzymatic reactions of the coagulation cascade. Ultimately, thrombin is formed directly by the TF/VIIa complex activating factor X to Xa or indirectly by converting

Fig.1-1: Tissue factor is the major initiator of coagulation (*De sancho and Pastores, 2007*).

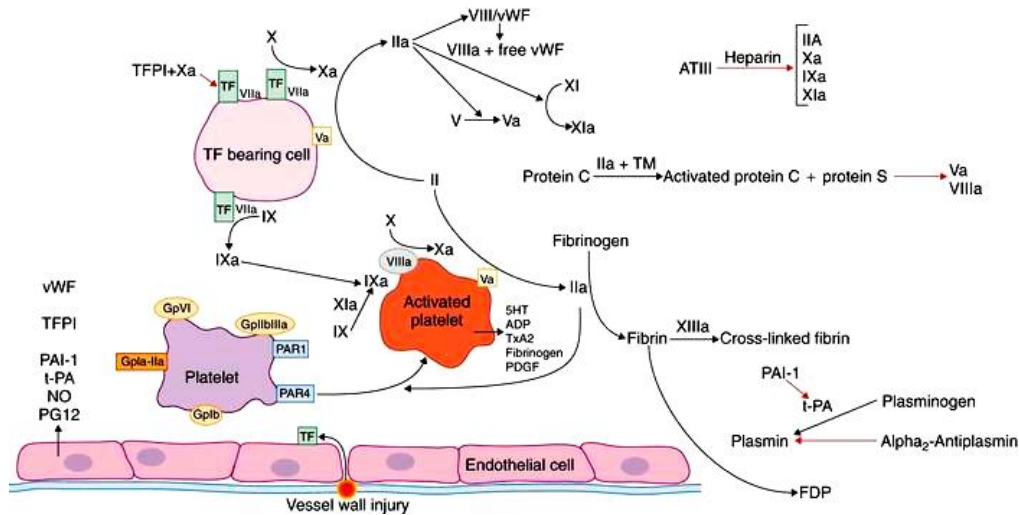


Fig.1-2: The fibrinolytic and natural anticoagulant (*Baz and Mekhail, 2011*).

The main endogenous anticoagulant system is the protein C-dependent system. Protein C and its cofactor protein S are both vitamin K-dependent factors synthesized by the liver. Protein C binds to an endothelial cell protein C receptor (ECPR) and is activated by thrombin bound to thrombomodulin, another endothelial cell membrane-based protein (*Esmon, 2003*). The activated protein C complex inactivates factors VIIIa and Va (*Sofi et al., 2004*) (**Fig. 1-2**).

Another important endogenous anticoagulant system involves antithrombin (AT), also primarily produced in the liver, which inactivates thrombin (IIa), factors Xa, IXa, XIa and XIIa. The anticoagulant activity of AT can be increased by up to 1000-fold in the presence of heparin (*Sofi et al., 2004*).

Another vitamin K-dependent anticoagulant is protein Z. Protein Z (PZ) is a vitamin K-dependent plasma glycoprotein whose structure is similar to that of factors VII, IX, X, and proTein C (*Ichinose et al., 1990; Sejima et al., 1990*). In

contrast to these serine protease zymogens, however, PZ lacks the histidine and serine residues of the canonical catalytic site and does not serve a proteolytic function. Instead, PZ functions as a cofactor to enhance the inhibition of factor Xa by a serpin termed PZ-dependent protease inhibitor (ZPI) (*Han et al., 1998; Han et al., 2000*).

In addition to inhibiting factor Xa in a PZ- dependent fashion, ZPI also inhibits factor XIa in the absence of PZ (*Han et al., 2000*). Finally, to prevent excess clotting, fibrin is digested by the fibrinolytic system, the major components of which are plasminogen and tissue-type plasminogen activator (tPA) (**Fig. 1-2**). Both these proteins are incorporated into polymerizing fibrin, where they interact to generate plasmin, which in turn acts on fibrin to dissolve the preformed clot. Plasminogen binds to fibrin at specific lysine binding sites and to tPA. The binding of plasminogen to tPA converts the proenzyme plasminogen to active proteolytic plasmin. Plasmin cleaves polymerized fibrin strands at multiple sites and releases fibrin degradation products (FDPs) (*Sofi et al., 2004*).

The fibrinolytic system is regulated by three serine proteinase inhibitors: alpha2-antiplasmin (α 2-PI), plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 (PAI-1) and plasminogen activator inhibitor-2 (PAI-2) (**Fig. 1-2**). α 2-PI is secreted by the liver, is present within platelets and serves to immediately inactivate free plasmin, whereas PAI-1 is the most important and most rapidly acting physiological inhibitor of both tPA and urokinase-type plasminogen activator (uPA). Plasminogen activator inhibitor-2 (PAI-2), originally purified from human placenta, inhibits both two-chain tPA and two-chain uPA with comparable efficiency, but it is less effective towards single-chain tPA (*Cesarman-Maus and Hajjar, 2005*).
