Coagulation Disorders in Critically III Patient

Thesis

Submitted for partial fulfillment of the master degree of Intensive care medicine

By:

Mohamad Mostafa Abo-Zeid Abdel-Aleem (M.B.B.Ch., Al-Minia University)

Supervised by

Prof. Dr. Nahed Salah-Edin Abdel-Rhman

Professor of Anaesthesiology and Intensive Care Medicine Faculty of Medicine-Ain Shams University

Dr. Fahmi Saad Latif

Assistant professor of Anaesthesiology and Intensive Care Medicine Faculty of Medicine-Ain Shams University

Dr. Waled Abdella Ibrahim

Lecturer of Anaesthesiology and Intensive Care Medicine Faculty of Medicine-Ain Shams University

> Faculty of Medicine Ain Shams University 2012





First and foremost, thanks to **Allah** for giving me the will and the patience to finish this work.

In a few grateful words, I would like to express my deepest gratitude and appreciation to **Prof. Dr.Nahed**Salah-Edin Abdel-Rhman Professor of Anaesthesiology and Intensive Care Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, for her great concern and generous help. Without her generous help, this work would not have been accomplished in its present picture.

I am sincerely grateful to **Dr. Fahmi Saad Latif** Assistant professor of Anaesthesiology and Intensive care Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, Ain Shams University, for his kind help and constructive suggestions to achieve this work.

I would also like to express my deep appreciation to **Dr.**Waled Abdella Ibrahim, Lecturer of Anaesthesiology and Intensive care Medicine, Ain Shams University, for his great kindness, constant assistance and guidance.

Lastly, there are no words to express my gratitude to my family who charged me with love and encouragement for their participation in this study.



Contents

List of Abbreviations	i
List of Tables	iv
List of Figures	V
Introduction and Aim of the Work	1
Physiology of coagulation.	5
Bleeding disorders in critically ill-patient	12
Thrombotic disorders in critically ii-patient	35
Acquired Coagulation factor deficiencies in critically ill-patient.	67
Summary	76
References	79
Arabic Summary	

List of Abbreviations

ACCP : American College Of Chest Physicians

ACT : Activated Clotting Time
ADP : Adenosine Diphosphate
ADPase : Adenosine Diphosphatase
AHA : Acquired Hemophilia A
anti-TNF : Anti-Tumor Necrosis Factor

APC : Activated Protein C

aPCR : Activated Protein C Resistance

aPTT : Activated Partial Thromboplastin Time

ARB : Angiotensin Receptor Blocker

AT : Antithrombin

BNP : Brain Natriuretic Peptide

BU : Bethesda units

cAMP : Cyclic Adenosine MonophosphateCTPA : Computed Tomographic Pulmonary

Angiography

DDAVP : Desamino-8-D-arginine vasopressin

DIC : Disseminated Intravascular Coagulation.

DTIS : Direct Thrombin InhibitorsDVT : Deep Vein Thrombosis

DWI : Diffusion-Weighted Imaging

ECG : Electrocardiography
Ecs : Endothelial Cells

EDRF : Endothelium-Derived Relaxing Factor

FDA : Food And Drug Association FDP : Fibrin Degradation Products

GI : Gastrointestinal

FEIBA : Factor Eight Inhibitor By-Passing Activity

FFP : Fresh Frozen Plasma

HELLP: Hemolysis, Elevated Liver Enzymes, Low

Platelets

HIT : Heparin-Induced Thrombocytopenia

List of Abbreviations (Cont.)

13-HODE : 13-Hydroxy Octadecadienoic Acid

ICH : Intracerebral HemorrhageINR : International Normalized Ratio

ISTH : International Society Of Thrombosis And

Haemostasis

IVC : Inferior Vena Cava

Ivig : Intravenous Immunoglobulin

JAAM : The Japanese Association For Acute Medicine

LA : Lupus Anticoagulant

LMWH : Low-Molecular Weight Heparin LVEF : Left Ventricular Ejection Fraction

MCA : Middle Cerebral Artery

MERCI: Mechanical Embolus Removal in Cerebral

Embolism

MI : Myocardial Infarction

MRV : Magnetic Resonance Venography

NPV : Negative Predictive Value PAF : Platelet Activating Factor;

PAI : Plasminogen Activator Inhibitor PAI-3 : Plasminogen Activator Inhibitor-3

PTS : Post-Thrombotic Syndrome

PCC : Prothrombin Complex Concentrate PCI : Percutaneous Coronary Intervention

PE : Pulmonary Embolism

PFA : Platelet Function Analyzer

PGE2 : Prostaglandin PGI2 : Prostacyclin;

PRBC : Packed Red Blood Cells

PT : Prothrombin Time

PTT : Partial Thromboplastin Time

List of Abbreviations (Cont.)

rFVIIa : recombinant active Factor VII rTM : Recombinant thrombomodulin

RV : Right Ventricular

SIRS : Systemic Inflammatory Response Syndrome TAFI : Thrombin-Activatable Fibrinolysis Inhibitor

TEE : Transesophageal Echocardiography

TF : Tissue Factor

TFPI : Tissue Factor Pathway Inhibitor t-PA : Tissue Plasminogen Activator

TRALI : Transfusion-Related Acute Lung Injury.

TTE : Transthoracic Echocardiography

UFH : Unfractionated Heparin
 VKA : Vitamin K Antagonist
 VTE : Venous Thromboembolism
 vWD : Von Willebrand Disease
 vWF : Von Willebrand Factor

List of tables

Table	Title	Page	
1	Antithrombogenic and prothrombogenic	5	
	potential of the endothelial cell lining		
2	Conditions associated with DIC		
3	Consequences of Excessive Thrombin	14	
	Generation		
4	ISTH Diagnostic Scoring System for DIC	18	
5	Japanese Association for Acute Medicine	19	
	Scoring System DIC		
6	Blood Component Replacement Therapy	21	
7	Factors Contained in Fresh Frozen Plasma	21	
8	Six major mechanisms of	24	
	thrombocytopenia in the ICU patient		
9	Strategies to Reduce the Complications	31	
	Associated With Massive Transfusion		
10	Risk factors and conditions for	36	
	hypercoagulable state		
11	Pretest probability of Deep Venous	40	
	Thrombosis (Wells score)		
12	Clinical prediction rules for PE (Wells	46	
	score)		
13	Universal criteria for acute myocardial	54	
	infarction		
14	Immediate Diagnostic Studies: Evaluation	62	
	of a Patient With Suspected Acute		
	Ischemic Stroke		
15	Summary review of results Platelet	66	
	antiaggregants and anticoagulants within		
	48 hours of acute ischemic stroke		
16	How we treat acquired hemophilia. These	73	
	recommendations are based on clinical		
	experience, rather than on randomized		
	clinical trials		

List of Figures

Fig.	Title	Page	
1	The three stages of coagulation	9	
2	The balance between the formation and	11	
	degradation of fibrin network (FN)		
3	Mechanisms of the development of DIC.		
4	Processes in DIC	17	
5	Algorithm for diagnosing DVT using clinical		
	assessment, venous ultrasonography, and D-		
	dimer testing		
6	Diagnostic algorithm for patients with	47	
	suggested pulmonary embolism (PE)		

Introduction

Haemostasis is the system that enable the body to act in response to a haemostatic challenge. Not only does this system prevent blood loss from injured vessels, it also prevents the inappropriate cessation of flow (*Rick et al.*, 2003).

Haemostasis is regulated by 3 basic components, namely, the vascular wall, platelets, and the coagulation cascade. Normal hemostasis occurs as the result of a set of regulated processes to accomplish 2 functions; first, it maintains blood in a fluid, clot-free state, and second, it induces a rapid and localized hemostatic plug at the site of vascular injury (*Riddel et al.*, 2007).

Coagulation involves the regulated sequence of proteolytic activation of a series of zymogens to achieve appropriate and timely haemostasis in an injured vessel, in an environment that favours an anticoagulant state. In the nonpathological state, the inciting event involves exposure of circulating factor VII/VIIa to extravascularly expressed tissue factor, which brings into motion the series of steps which results in amplification of the initial stimulus, culminating in the conversion of fibrinogen to fibrin and clot formation. The precisely synchronized cascade of events is counter-balanced by a system of anticoagulant mechanisms, which serve to ensure that the haemostatic effect is regulated and does not extend inappropriately. Conversely, in pathological states, these events can escape normal control mechanisms, due to either inherited or acquired defects, which lead to thrombosis (Adams and Bird, 2009).

Normal hemostasis requires an intact interrelating mechanism composed of vascular and tissue components, platelets, and coagulation proteins. Deficiency or disease of any of these components may cause either spontaneous or trauma-related hemorrhage. The intensive care setting, by definition, involves a population that is characterized by multiorgan failure, polypharmacy, and multiple wounds of both accidental and iatrogenic variety. Such pathophysiology significantly stresses even an initially normal hemostatic mechanism (*Rubin and Narra*, 2010)

critically ill patients develop hemostatic abnormalities, ranging from isolated thrombocytopenia or prolonged global clotting tests to complex defects, such as disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC). There are many causes for a deranged coagulation in critically ill patients and each of these underlying disorders may require specific therapeutic or supportive management .A myriad of altered coagulation parameters are readily measurable, such as thrombocytopenia, prolonged global coagulation times, reduced levels of coagulation inhibitors, or high levels of fibrin split products. Prompt and proper identification of the underlying cause of these coagulation abnormalities is required, since each coagulation disorder necessitates very different therapeutic management strategies (Levi and Opal, 2006).

Disorders of blood coagulation commonly occur in critically ill patients and become problematic in a variety of ways. Hemorrhage or thrombosis may be the dominant concern or may seriously complicate the management of other pathologic processes. Many of these disorders are complex and may quickly become life-threatening (*Lachant*, 2007).

An adequate explanation for the cause of the coagulation abnormality is important, since many underlying disorders may require specific treatment. Treatment of coagulation abnormalities in critically ill patients should be directed at the underlying condition, but supportive therapy may be required. Deficiencies in platelets and coagulation factors in bleeding patients or patients at risk for bleeding can be achieved by transfusion of platelet concentrate or plasma products,

Introduction and Aim of The Work

respectively. In addition, prohemostatic treatment may be beneficial in case of severe bleeding, whereas restoring physiological anticoagulant pathways may be helpful in patients with sepsis and DIC. A variety of altered coagulation parameters may be detectable, such as thrombocytopenia, prolonged global coagulation times, reduced levels of coagulation inhibitors, or high levels of fibrin split products (*Levi et al.*,2011).

The coagulopathic conditions frequently encountered in the intensive care unit (ICU) can be arbitrarily divided into three categories: (i) those associated with serious bleeding or a high probability of bleeding, (ii) thrombotic syndromes or conditions associated with a higher probability of thrombosis, and (iii) systemic diseases associated with acquired selective coagulation factor deficiencies (*Parker*, 2009).

Management of hemorrhage or thrombosis in critically ill patients requires weighing the answers to two questions: How threatening is the problem? and How dangerous is the treatment? (*Parrillo and Dellinger*, 2007).

Introduction and Aim of The Work

Aim of the Work

It discuss the incidence, types, etiology, clinical presentation, diagnosis and management of coagulation disorders that could occur or associate critically ill patient.

Physiology of Coagulation

The endothelial cell lining consists of the basement membrane and matrices of collagen and muscle fibres. This lining, in normal function, can be described as anti-thrombogenic, that is, it does not promote blood clotting. However, when damaged, it has the potential to release a number of substances that can be considered as pro-thrombogenic, that is, aimed at promoting blood clotting (table 1). The combination of these two potentials means that the endothelial cell lining can prevent thrombus formation during normal function but actively promote thrombus formation at times of insult and injury (*Ranson*, 2010).

Table (1): Antithrombogenic and prothrombogenic potential of the endothelial cell lining

Antithrombogenic	Prothrombogenic
Protein S	Tissue factor
Thrombomodulin	Von Willebrand factor
Heparan	PAI: 1 and-2
Heparan sulphate-proteoglycans	PAF
Antithrombin and t-PA	Endothelins, Adhesion molecules
U-plasminogen activator	Fibronectin
Urokinase EDRF (NO), 13-HODE	Collagens
	Clotting factors V and VIII
PGI2- PGE2	Factor IX receptor; factor X receptor

(Ranson, 2010).

PAI, plasminogen activator inhibitor; PAF, platelet activating factor; t-PA, tissue plasminogen activator; EDRF, endothelium-derived relaxing factor; 13-HODE, 13-hydroxy octadecadienoic acid; PGI2, prostacyclin; PGE2, prostaglandin.

A. Hemostasis:

Whenever a vessel is severed or ruptured, hemostasis is achieved by several mechanisms: (1) vascular constriction, (2) formation of a platelet plug, (3) formation of a blood clot as a

result of blood coagulation, and (4) eventual growth of fibrous tissue into the blood clot to close the hole in the vessel permanently (*Guyton and Hall*, 2006).

1) Vascular Constriction:

Immediately after a blood vessel has been cut or ruptured, the trauma to the vessel wall itself causes the smooth muscle in the wall to contract; this instantaneously reduces the flow of blood from the ruptured blood vessel. The spasm can last for many minutes or even hours, during which time the processes of platelet plugging and blood coagulation can take place (*Guyton and Hall, 2006*).

2) Platelet Plug:

Following endothelial injury, platelets adhere to the exposed subendothelial surface through platelet adhesion receptors, these platelet receptors bind von Willebrand factor and collagen, expressed on the subendothelial matrix. Adhesion triggers transmembrane signalling events that lead to platelet activation, and to activation of the platelet integrin (GP IIb-IIIa), which mediates platelet adhesion and aggregation at the injury site to form a platelet plug (*Peck*, 2007).

When platelets come in contact with a damaged vascular surface, They begin to swell and become sticky so that they adhere to collagen in the tissues and to von Willebrand factor that leaks into the traumatized tissue from the plasma; they secrete large quantities of ADP; and their enzymes form thromboxane A2. The ADP and thromboxane in turn act on nearby platelets to activate them as well, and the stickiness of these additional platelets causes them to adhere to the original activated platelets. thus forming a platelet plug (Guyton and Hall, 2006).