

# ANAESTHETIC MANAGEMENT FOR PATIENTS WITH LIVER DISEASE IN NON HEPATIC SURGERY

*Submitted for Partial Fulfillment of  
Master Degree in Anaesthesia*

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

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<b>ALT</b>	Alanine aminotransferase.
<b>AST</b>	Aspartate aminotransferase.
<b>ASA</b>	American society of anesthesia.
<b>CO</b>	Cardiac output.
<b>COPD</b>	Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease.
<b>CT</b>	Computed tomography.
<b>CTP score</b>	Child-Turcott- Pugh score.
<b>DIC</b>	Disseminated intravascular coagulopathy.
<b>ECG</b>	Electrocardiogram.
<b>FRC</b>	Functional residual capacity.
<b>FHF</b>	Fulminant hepatic failure.
<b>GABA</b>	Gamma amino butyric acid.
<b>GFR</b>	Glomerular filtration rate.
<b>G6PD</b>	Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase.
<b>HO-1 enzyme</b>	Haemoxygenase-1 enzyme.
<b>HPS</b>	Hepatopulmonary syndrome.
<b>HRS</b>	Hepatorenal syndrome.
<b>ICU</b>	Intensive care unit.
<b>ICP</b>	Intracranial pressure.
<b>INR</b>	International normalized ratio.
<b>LFTs</b>	Liver function tests
<b>MELD</b>	Model for end stage liver disease.
<b>MMCC</b>	Moemen modified Child classification.
<b>MPAP</b>	Mean pulmonary artery pressure.
<b>NAFLD</b>	Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease.
<b>OLT</b>	Orthotopic liver transplantation.
<b>P(a/A)O<sub>2</sub></b>	arterial/alveolar oxygen tension ratio.

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (Cont...)**

<b>PCWP</b>	Pulmonary capillary wedge pressure.
<b>PEEP</b>	Positive end expiratory pressure
<b>PPHTN</b>	Portopulmonary hypertension.
<b>PT</b>	Prothrombin time.
<b>PTT</b>	partial thromboplastin time.
<b>PVR</b>	Pulmonary vascular resistance.
<b>TAFI</b>	Thrombin activatable fibrinolysis inhibitor.
<b>TEG</b>	Thromboelastograph.
<b>TIPS</b>	Transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunting.
<b>TRALI</b>	Transfusion – related acute lung injury
<b>UNOS</b>	United network for organ transplantation.
<b>VATS</b>	Video-assisted thoracoscopic.
<b>Vd</b>	Volume of distribution.
<b>V/Q</b>	Ventilation – perfusion ratio.
<b>VTE</b>	Venous thromboembolism.
<b>WBC</b>	White blood count.

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## INTRODUCTION

The prevalence of chronic liver disease is increasing all over the world because of viral hepatitis, alcohol and non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) (*Noble et al.,1993*).

It has been estimated that about 10% of patients with cirrhosis will undergo surgery in the last 2 years of their life (*Farnsworth et al., 2004*).

General anesthesia and surgery may lead to complications in a significant proportion of patients with well-compensated or occult cirrhosis, and these complications may result in considerable morbidity and mortality. The reported mortality rates in patients with cirrhosis undergoing various surgical procedures range from 8.3% to 25% in comparison to 1.1% in non-cirrhotic patients (*Del Olmo et al.,2003*).

This wide range of mortality rates is related to severity of liver disease, type of surgery, demographics of patient population, expertise of the surgical, anesthesia and intensive care unit (ICU) team and finally, reporting bias. It is therefore, important to assess the risk in relation to the type of surgery that is performed; arbitrarily, the type of surgery could be categorized into high, moderate or low risk surgery (*Ziser et al., 1999*).



End-stage liver disease is usually manifested as cirrhosis. Cirrhosis is a combination of fibronodular hyperplasia and bridging fibrosis. Functionally, there are hepatocellular synthetic dysfunction, cholestasis and portal hypertension (*Vaja et al., 2010*).

## **Preoperative Preparation**

In patients with compromised liver function, preservation of the remaining function is essential, otherwise, peri-operative complications are high. Cirrhosis is a final common pathway for chronic liver diseases of different etiologies. In Egypt, cirrhosis is mostly due to bilharzialperi-portal hepatic fibrosis or repeated viral attacks leading to chronic hepatitis. The death rate due to liver cirrhosis in Egypt is not exactly known due to deficient statistical evaluation. In United States of America, cirrhosis is the 9th leading cause of death, known as Laennec's cirrhosis due to alcohol consumption (*Merrit and Gelman, 1998*).

It has been estimated that 10% of all patients with liver disease undergo operative procedures during the final two years of their lives (*Farnsworth et al., 2004*).

### ***Liver diseases:***

Liver diseases include hepatitis, liver cirrhosis and hepatobiliary disease. **Hepatitis may be acute or chronic.**

***Acute hepatitis:*** results from viral infection, a drug reaction or exposure to a hepatotoxin. Hepatocellular injury with cell necrosis may present either as a mild inflammatory reaction or acute hepatic failure. Viral hepatitis is mostly due to

hepatitis A, B or C viruses. Hepatitis B and hepatitis C (previously known as non A, non B) viruses are transmitted percutaneously and / or by contact with body fluids. Patients have mild prodromal illness that may be followed by jaundice lasting for 2-12 weeks with complete recovery within 16-20 weeks. The disease may turn chronic and infectious carriers pose a major health hazard to operating room personnel. Drug induced hepatitis can result from direct toxicity of drugs as acetaminophen, salicylates and tetracyclins; from idiosyncrasy to volatile anaesthetics, phenytoins and sulfonamides or from primary cholestasis by chlorpromazine, cyclosporins and oral contraceptives (*Morgan et al., 2006*).

Fulminant hepatic failure (FHF) is so acute that the physical findings of chronic liver disease, except for jaundice, are often absent. Unfortunately, cerebral oedema occurs and is a striking finding (*Ware et al., 1971*).

Signs of increased intracranial pressure (ICP) may be present in as many as 80% of patients with FHF (*Gimson et al., 1982*).

Increased ICP is considered a specific neurological complication that is quite distinct from the hepatic

encephalopathy seen in chronic liver disease(**Berkand Popper,1978**).

An increase in the plasma concentration of serum alanine aminotransferase (ALT) and serum aspartate aminotransferase (AST) is often accepted as an index of liver cell damage. However, these enzymes may not reflect the extent of hepatic damage accurately, being not very specific to the liver (**Cerwenka et al., 1998**).

Some investigators tried to link the ratio of AST/ALT to diagnose the etiology of liver disease, but this approach has been plagued by inconsistency (**Toblas,1998**).

**Chronic hepatitis:** represents persistent hepatic inflammation for longer than six months evidenced by elevated aminotransferases. Chronic persistent hepatitis and chronic lobular hepatitis do not usually progress to cirrhosis, but chronic active hepatitis due to hepatitis B or C viruses progress to cirrhosis and are usually managed with long-term steroids (**Zuckerman, 1990**).

**Liver cirrhosis:** when described as post-necrotic is due to chronic active hepatitis; when described as biliary is due to chronic inflammation or obstruction;and when described as cardiac is due to congestive heart failure. In all these types,however, hepatocyte necrosis takes place with different

severities, followed by fibrosis and nodular regeneration. Bilharziasis produces periportal hepatic fibrosis without hepatocellular necrosis or nodular regeneration and the hepatocellular function is often preserved regardless the etiology of cirrhosis. Distortion of the normal vascular architecture obstructs the portal venous flow and leads to portal hypertension (*Morgan et al., 2006*).

***Systemic manifestations of liver disease:***

**\* Cardiovascular system:**

Most patients with advanced liver disease have a normal or even supernormal ejection fraction judged by echocardiography. Thus, physicians previously assumed that cardiac function was normal in most patients with liver disease. However, further investigation had uncovered multiple problems in cardiac performance that place patients at risk of heart failure (*Mandell and Tsou, 2008*).

Patients with liver cirrhosis have a hyperdynamic syndrome. The components of this syndrome include an increased cardiac output, increased heart rate, vascular volume, reduced arterial pressure, reduced systemic vascular resistance and impaired renal perfusion. The hyperdynamic circulatory consequences of this syndrome can lead to morphologic alterations in the heart

to include right atrial and right ventricular dilatation (*Karasu et al., 2004*).

Patients may appear to have adequate cardiac reserve at rest, but they decompensate under physiological or pharmacological stress. Cirrhotic cardiomyopathy is defined by the presence of one or more of the following:

- Increased cardiac output, but blunted inotropic response to stress.
- Diastolic dysfunction.
- No overt left ventricular failure at rest
- Electrophysiological abnormalities (chronotropic incompetence and prolonged QT interval) (*Biancofiore et al., 2010*).

Rhythm disturbances in patients with cirrhosis have also been described. These include atrial flutter/fibrillation, as well as ectopic beats (*Zambruni et al., 2006*).

Early histological changes in cirrhotic hearts include myocardial hypertrophy, interstitial and cellular edema, and signs of cellular injury (*Milani et al., 2007*).

This causes global thickening of the left ventricle with the septum affected more than the free wall (*Ma and Lee, 1996*).

The fluid retention that occurs in cirrhotic patients can lead to the development of ascites, hydrothorax, anasarca and pericardial effusion (*Karasu et al., 2004*).

**\* Respiratory:**

Several unique respiratory pathologies may be associated with cirrhosis and portal hypertension. These include the hepatopulmonary syndrome, portopulmonary hypertension and hepatic hydrothorax. In addition, other factors contributing to respiratory compromise may include pre-existing chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), tense ascites and muscle wasting (*Karasu et al., 2004*).

Diaphragmatic splinting from ascites or the presence of pleural effusions restricts alveolar ventilation, reduces functional residual capacity (FRC), and predisposes to atelectasis and hypoxia. Associated gastro-esophageal reflux disease, acute alcohol ingestion, and massive ascites may increase the risk of aspiration of gastric contents. Intrapulmonary arterio-venous shunting may also occur. Patients may experience dyspnea and hypoxemia when sitting upright, which improves on lying flat (orthodeoxia) (*Wiklund, 2004*).

The presence of pulmonary vascular shunting is best detected on echocardiography (this incorporates the ‘saline