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AIM AND SCOPE

World Journal of Hepatology (*World J Hepatol*, *WJH*, online ISSN 1948-5182, DOI: 10.4254), is a peer-reviewed open access (OA) academic journal that aims to guide clinical practice and improve diagnostic and therapeutic skills of clinicians.

WJH covers topics concerning liver biology/pathology, cirrhosis and its complications, liver fibrosis, liver failure, portal hypertension, hepatitis B and C and inflammatory disorders, steatohepatitis and metabolic liver disease, hepatocellular carcinoma, biliary tract disease, autoimmune disease, cholestatic and biliary disease, transplantation, genetics, epidemiology, microbiology, molecular and cell biology, nutrition, geriatric and pediatric hepatology, diagnosis and screening, endoscopy, imaging, and advanced technology. Priority publication will be given to articles concerning diagnosis and treatment of hepatology diseases. The following aspects are covered: Clinical diagnosis, laboratory diagnosis, differential diagnosis, imaging tests, pathological diagnosis, molecular biological diagnosis, immunological diagnosis, genetic diagnosis, functional diagnostics, and physical diagnosis; and comprehensive therapy, drug therapy, surgical therapy, interventional treatment, minimally invasive therapy, and robot-assisted therapy.

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Blood loss, predictors of bleeding, transfusion practice and strategies of blood cell salvaging during liver transplantation

Feltracco Paolo, Brezzi Marialuisa, Barbieri Stefania, Galligioni Helmut, Milevoj Moira, Carollo Cristiana, Ori Carlo

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Abstract

Blood loss during liver transplantation (OLTx) is a common consequence of pre-existing abnormalities of the hemostatic system, portal hypertension with multiple collateral vessels, portal vein thrombosis, previous abdominal surgery, splenomegaly, and poor "functional" recovery of the new liver. The intrinsic coagulopathic features of end stage cirrhosis along with surgical technical difficulties make transfusion-free liver transplantation a major challenge, and, despite the improvements in understanding of intraoperative coagulation profiles and strategies to control blood loss, the requirements for blood or blood products remains high. The impact of blood transfusion has been shown to be significant and independent of other well-known predictors of posttransplant-outcome. Negative effects on immunomodulation and an increased risk of postoperative complications and mortality have been repeatedly demonstrated. Isovolemic hemodilution, the extensive utilization of thromboelastogram and the use of auto-

transfusion devices are among the commonly adopted procedures to limit the amount of blood transfusion. The use of intraoperative blood salvage and autologous blood transfusion should still be considered an important method to reduce the need for allogenic blood and the associated complications. In this article we report on the common preoperative and intraoperative factors contributing to blood loss, intraoperative transfusion practices, anesthesiologic and surgical strategies to prevent blood loss, and on intraoperative blood salvaging techniques and autologous blood transfusion. Even though the advances in surgical technique and anesthetic management, as well as a better understanding of the risk factors, have resulted in a steady decrease in intraoperative bleeding, most patients still bleed extensively. Blood transfusion therapy is still a critical feature during OLTx and various studies have shown a large variability in the use of blood products among different centers and even among individual anesthesiologists within the same center. Unfortunately, despite the large number of OLTx performed each year, there is still paucity of large randomized, multicentre, and controlled studies which indicate how to prevent bleeding, the transfusion needs and thresholds, and the "evidence based" perioperative strategies to reduce the amount of transfusion.

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Key words: Transplantation surgery; Liver dysfunction; Liver transplant; Intraoperative bleeding; Intraoperative transfusion; Autotransfusion; Autologous transfusions; Transfusion requirements; Blood salvage; Cell salvage

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INTRODUCTION

Bleeding in major surgical procedures involving the liver, such as partial liver resection and liver transplantation (OLTx), occurs almost inevitably and still represents a daunting problem when massive. Although the origin of bleeding during OLTx is multifactorial, technical difficulties and pre-existing abnormalities of the hemostatic system represent the principal causes of significant perioperative hemorrhages. Since there is minimal consensus on transfusion guidelines during OLTx, massive volume empirical transfusion was the standard practice until a few years ago, and blood products accounted for approximately 10% of the total cost of transplantation^[1,2].

As anesthesiologic and surgical teams have gained experience blood loss in patients undergoing liver transplantation has decreased substantially and in recent years the procedure is occasionally performed without intraoperative blood transfusion.

A variety of strategies, including acute isovolemic hemodilution, appropriate surgical and anesthesiologic management, and the use of autotransfusion devices have been adopted during the last decade to limit the amount of allogenic blood transfusion. In addition, the extensive utilization of thromboelastogram (TEG) has improved the understanding of intraoperative coagulation profiles of these patients and led to a reduction in blood requirements^[3].

However, the intrinsic coagulopathic features of end stage cirrhosis make transfusion-free liver transplantation a major challenge, and despite the improvement in strategies to control blood loss, most patients still bleed extensively. This requires the transfusion of variable amount of blood or blood products and may be associated with increased rates of morbidity and mortality.

Blood bank demands in complicated liver transplant surgery are still high and even though the quality and safety of blood products continue to improve they remain costly and increase the risks encountered by the patient.

The relationship between intraoperative blood use, the effects on immunomodulation and an increased risk of postoperative complications, such as infections, gastrointestinal, intra-abdominal, and/or pulmonary complications, prolonged recovery, and a higher rate of reoperation has been repeatedly demonstrated^[4,5].

Among the various strategies to substantially reduce the amount of blood product transfusions and the associated side effects, intraoperative blood salvage has been considered and still is an important method of blood conservation. However, controversy still surrounds its usefulness during OLTx, with studies demonstrating either an increase or a decrease in blood transfusion.

Since the clinical conditions of the candidates who undergo liver transplant surgery are increasingly critical and therefore we cannot predict with accuracy which patients will bleed, in our personal view a cell saver machine should be instituted in all OLTx.

BLOOD LOSS DURING LIVER TRANSPLANTATION

The liver is a highly vascular organ and the transplant procedure usually involves a recipient with severe coagulopathy, portal hypertension, and sometimes previous abdominal surgery. Blood losses and transfusion requirements remain difficult to predict in the intraoperative course of OLTx and many studies have shown discordant results and no uniform conclusions^[6]. In general the predictions are based on the severity of liver disease, preoperative coagulation function, recipient's clinical status, quality of the donor liver, and experience of the transplantation team. Blood losses are frequently difficult to measure during OLTx, and quite often they are quantified indirectly by calculating the amount of blood necessary to maintain or reach a predetermined hematocrit (Ht) or hemoglobin (Hb) value. As previously stated, advances in surgical technique and anesthetic management, as well as a better understanding of the risk factors, have resulted in a steady decrease in intraoperative bleeding and transfusion requirements^[7]. However, the risk of bleeding still seems to vary from centre to centre depending on various factors such as the severity of recipient's clinical conditions, surgeon's preferred technique, the duration of surgery, the duration of the anhepatic phase, and the time to graft function. Many preoperative conditions and unforeseen intraoperative events impart complex changes to the recipient's spontaneous hemostasis; the potential occurrence of technical difficulties which require massive fluid resuscitation may alter the substantial intraoperative coagulopathy and predispose to further extensive bleeding. Contributing factors to blood loss during OLTx can be categorized as preoperative and intraoperative.

PREOPERATIVE HEMATOLOGIC AND COAGULATION DEFECTS

Hemostatic function is determined by the interaction of the vascular wall, platelets, coagulation factors, and fibrinolytic function. All these components may be abnormal in patients who have a compromised liver function. Anemia is common in these patients as a result of chronic disease, malnutrition, or occult bleeding. Bleeding complications may not be primarily related to impaired coagulation; alterations in haemodynamics and vessel wall function may play a more important role. The hyperdynamic circulation and the presence of portal hypertension are among the most important causes of perioperative bleeding tendency^[8]. The aetiology of impaired haemostasis in the advanced liver failure is often multifactorial and may include impaired coagulation factor synthesis, synthesis of dysfunctional coagulation factors, their increased consumption, altered clearance of activated factors, hyperfibrinolysis, disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC), and platelet disorders.

The reduced hepatic synthesis of clotting factors is also associated with a significant deficit of natural anticoagulants, particularly protein C and antithrombin.

Commonly, the vitamin K-dependent factors decrease first, starting with factor VII and protein C owing to their short half-life (6 h), followed by reductions in factor V, II and X levels^[9].

Impaired synthesis and altered clearance of the fibrinolytic factors cause complex abnormalities in the fibrinolytic system. One of the most striking mechanisms is an imbalance between tissue plasminogen activator (t-PA) and its specific inhibitor plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 (PAI-1)^[10]. Quantitative (thrombocytopenia) and/or qualitative platelet abnormalities (thrombocytopathies) such as impaired platelet adhesion and aggregation are often attributed to splenic sequestration (hypersplenism), but may also occur as a result of platelet destruction mediated by platelet-associated immunoglobulins, impaired hepatic synthesis and/or increased degradation of thrombopoietin by platelets sequestered in the congested spleen^[11].

Additional risk factors for extensive bleeding include the injury of collateral vessels developing as a result of portal hypertension, some from the raw surface of the liver, inflammatory adhesions, as well as previous abdominal surgery.

INTRAOPERATIVE FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO BLOOD LOSS

Complex coagulation disorders may occur during liver transplantation due to the underlying liver disease and haemostatic changes associated with the transplantation. The latter may result from hemodilution, platelet consumption, disordered thrombin regulation, and fibrinolysis. Haemodilution secondary to fluid replacement and the preservation solution from the donor liver can additionally reduce plasma levels of coagulation factors. Variable intraoperative blood loss may ensue in the form of brisk bleeding through a vascular injury and/or appear as diffuse continuous microvascular bleeding mixed with the peritoneal ascites. Technical difficulties predisposing to bleeding include portal vein thrombosis, post-surgical adhesions, and, in children with biliary atresia, previous portoenterostomy. Bleeding is greatly potentiated by the activation of the fibrinolytic system, which occurs both during the anhepatic and reperfusion phases. During the anhepatic phase, circulating levels of PAI-1 are reduced leading to an increase in t-PA. Some patients develop severe coagulopathy early after the reperfusion phase due to an accelerated release of t-PA from the graft endothelium which causes generalized fibrinolysis and significant bleeding^[12]. Release of exogenous heparin from the harvested graft after donor heparinization or endogenous heparin-like substances from the damaged ischaemic graft endothelium may also play a role in the coagulopathy at reperfusion^[13]. Other intraoperative factors contributing to prolonged hemorrhage include hypothermia, hypocale-

mia and citrate toxicity. Bleeding during the postanhepatic phase may also be related to disseminated intravascular coagulation and platelet trapping. Platelet trapping has been documented by simultaneous measurement of arterial and venous platelet counts. DIC has been correlated with ischemic damage of the graft liver^[14]. Transplantation of an optimal graft restores the patient's clotting function. A dysfunctional graft may not immediately produce clotting factors, thereby leading to prolonged coagulopathy mandating massive transfusions^[15].

PREDICTORS OF TRANSFUSION REQUIREMENTS

The most important variables affecting transfusion requirements include the severity of disease [Child-Turcotte-Pugh Score, United Network for Organ Sharing priority for transplantation or in recent years model for end-stage liver disease (MELD) classification], preoperative prothrombin time (PT), history of abdominal operations, and Factor V levels. The Child classification is a measure of disease severity that includes assessments of ascites, encephalopathy and measurements of serum bilirubin and albumin. MELD gives a score based on how urgently the patient needs a liver transplant within the next three months. Its impact on transfusion requirements at the time of transplantation may be difficult to predict. The length of cold ischemia time has also been associated with short-term graft dysfunction and negative effects on perioperative red blood cell (RBC) transfusion requirements. Other variables include cholestasis, splenomegaly, the preoperative haematocrit value, use of the piggyback transplantation method, and operative time^[16]. Patients with chronic active hepatitis have more advanced disease and require more blood products than patients with primary biliary cirrhosis^[17]. Previous upper abdominal surgery tends to have vascularised adhesions which may render liver dissection hemorrhagic. Portal vein hypoplasia and decreased donor liver size, presenting a technical challenge for the surgeons, were predictive of blood loss^[16]. Use of a partial liver graft, as in living-donor liver transplantation, creates a graft with a raw surface that can bleed after reperfusion^[14]. The risk of primary nonfunction after transplantation of poor quality cadaveric graft increases proportionately with the degree of steatosis. Graft dysfunction further necessitates massive transfusions^[18]. Inadequate graft-recipient body weight ratio, poor graft preservation and prolonged cold ischemia time have also been associated with increased intraoperative bleeding tendency^[14]. Massicotte *et al*^[6] in a retrospective study of 206 successive liver transplants found that the three most important variables related to the number of RBC units transfused were: the starting international normalized ratio (INR) value, the starting platelet count, and the duration of surgery. Plasma transfusion did not decrease the amount of RBC transfusions.

Deakin *et al.*^[19] showed that in their population of 300 adult liver transplantations, blood urea nitrogen level and platelet count had an independent correlation with transfusion necessity. Ramos *et al.*^[20] looking for useful variables for the preoperative identification of patients likely to require transfusion of RBCs could not show a statistically significant relationship between preoperative coagulation parameters and need for intraoperative blood products. However, age, Child class, diagnosis, INR, Hb level and the effect of intraoperative portacaval shunt placement were close to significance on the amount of blood transfusion. They concluded that preoperative normalization of Hb level and placement of intraoperative portacaval shunt could diminish the need for RBC transfusion during OLTx. In a multivariate linear regression analysis of 526 liver transplants Mangus *et al.*^[21] demonstrated that predictors of estimated blood loss were age, MELD score, preoperative hemoglobin, initial fibrinogen, initial central venous pressure, and total anesthesia time. Specific predictors of RBCs usage were age, MELD score, preoperative hemoglobin, initial fibrinogen, and anesthesia time. On the contrary, Massicotte *et al.*^[22] found that only two variables were linked to RBC transfusion: starting hemoglobin value and phlebotomy. In their study the MELD score did not predict blood losses and blood product requirement during OLTx.

Steib *et al.*^[23] looking at the preoperative factors associated with high blood loss in 510 consecutive patients undergoing OLTx, were unable to correctly identify patients at risk for intraoperative hemorrhage. In the recent study by Rouillet *et al.*^[24], MELD score did not appear as a risk factor for bleeding or transfusion requirements during OLTx, nor did previous upper abdominal surgery, preoperative coagulation defects, or Hb level. They concluded that the preoperative risk factors for bleeding and transfusion during OLTx were of little clinical usefulness and therefore blood products should always be available during the procedure. Given the poor predictive value of the single preoperative variable even in a homogeneous population some authors recommend that centres evaluate their practice individually in order to identify the centre-specific risk factors and high risk patients for perioperative transfusion^[25].

TRANSFUSION PRACTICE DURING OLTx

Blood transfusion therapy has remained a critical feature in OLTx and various studies have shown a large variability in the use of blood products among different centers and even among individual anesthesiologists within the same center^[2]. The decision of when a patient should be transfused with RBCs still remains a greatly discussed issue, in part because there is scant evidence supporting one practice over another. For example, conflicting results derive from the adoption of different triggers for blood transfusion or different inter-centre protocols or protocols not driven by coagulation monitoring or with or without the use of antifibrinolytics. Evidence

that liberal RBCs transfusion thresholds are associated with better outcomes than a more restrictive approach is still lacking, and a remarkable variability in this practice continues to be observed. In particular, there is little published data in support of RBCs transfusion when the Hb level is above 7 g/dL, even if the patient has cardiac comorbidities^[15,26]. Some authors recommend to keep the hematocrit between 30% and 35%; others think it advisable and acceptable to maintain it between 26% and 28%^[27,28]. In the study by Steib *et al.*^[23] RBCs were administered to maintain Ht levels at 30%. Even though OLTx surgery is widely seen as a highly specialized procedure, strict guidelines for optimal use of packed red blood cells have not been developed. The influence of the amount of transfusion of various blood components on clinical outcome after liver transplantation has not been studied in detail. Blood transfusion is generally considered a surrogate marker for sicker patients and complex surgery, and its role on outcome has not been precisely defined in large trials^[7].

Fresh frozen plasma transfusion

The standard indication for fresh frozen plasma (FFP) infusion is clotting improvement; in some centres FFP is still administered for volume replacement in case of hemodynamic derangement. Many consider transfusing FFP while waiting for laboratory results reasonable and preferable to not giving coagulation factors in time^[29]. Freeman *et al.*^[30] support the view that FFP administration is not essential during OLTx and that platelets and fibrinogen concentrates may be given when platelet count and fibrinogen level fall to below 50.000 mm³ and 1 g/L, and human serum albumin can be used as a volume expander. Liver removal during surgery leaves the patient anhepatic for a period of time, which further complicates the coagulation. This phase is associated with a decrease in Factors VIII and V, a decrease in fibrinogen, and an increase in fibrinolysis. FFP is expected to improve complex coagulation disorders in case of severe bleeding as it contains all coagulation factors and inhibitors. FFP should be treated with solvent-detergent to inactivate viral particles and decrease the risk of viral infection. Treated plasma has lower factor VIII and alpha-2 antiplasmin activity, but patients who receive treated FFP demonstrate a similar correction of the INR and activated partial thromboplastin time (aPTT), and they have transfusion requirements similar to those of patients who receive untreated FFP^[30]. Whether FFP should always be used for treating a patient with major blood loss during OLTx is still not completely defined. In addition there is currently no consensus on the volume of FFP or rate of infusion required to prevent or treat intraoperative persistent bleeding; in the common practice 10-15 mL/kg are usually administered. Because of the lack of universally shared guidelines, beside some centre-specific indications^[28], both the amount and timing of FFP administration during OLTx still seem guided by experienced clinical judgment, local practices

and the assistance of timely coagulation tests (including near-patient tests).

Platelets transfusion during OLTx

Although there is no consensus regarding the appropriate threshold, platelet concentrates are frequently administered during OLTx for the prevention or treatment of bleeding. However, intraoperative platelet transfusions have been identified as a strong independent risk factor for patient survival after OLTx, in addition to RBCs^[31]. The negative impact of platelet transfusions is independent from other well known risk factors, in accordance with the adverse effects of platelets discovered in experimental studies. In animal models of liver transplantation, studies have demonstrated that platelets are involved in the pathogenesis of reperfusion injury of the liver graft by inducing endothelial cell apoptosis. This effect is independent of ischemia-related endothelial cell injury and cannot simply be explained by activation of the coagulation system and aggregation of platelets at the site of endothelial cell injury^[32]. In addition, platelets contain many cytokines and vasoactive and inflammatory mediators which are rapidly released on activation by various stimuli after reperfusion. The specific causes that lead to a worse outcome following platelet transfusion have not been examined, however, several factors have been considered such as the risk of viral transmission, the potential for bacterial contamination especially for platelets stored at room temperature^[33], the risk of alloimmunization, graft *vs* host disease, nonspecific immunosuppressive effects, and acute lung injury (ALI) or adult distress respiratory syndrome (ARDS). Recent studies show that it is not RBC, but, in fact, plasma-rich blood products, such as FFP and platelet transfusions, that are linked to the development of ALI/ARDS^[34]. Pereboom *et al*^[35] demonstrated that platelet transfusion during OLTx is associated with increased postoperative mortality due to heavy lungs because of severe lung edema in accordance with the clinical diagnosis of transfusion-related acute lung injury (TRALI)/ARDS. The increased rate of graft loss after platelet transfusion did not result from the specific adverse effects of transfused platelets such as an increased occurrence of graft-related thrombotic complications, but it was caused by higher rate of patients' death with a well functioning graft. Due to the difficulty in discerning whether a bleeding complication during OLTx is a result of the lack of platelets or defects in other hemostatic systems it seems reasonable not to transfuse patients based on a low platelet count alone. Given the reported detrimental effects of platelet transfusion, it is advisable to transfuse them only if significant bleeding complications do occur which are mostly attributable to low platelet count or dysfunctional platelets as demonstrated by on-site coagulation monitoring. Considering that the appropriateness of different blood components administration schemes has not been evaluated in randomised studies, a specific approach targeted to the individual needs may be reasonable. In addition

to surgical and anesthetic measures to minimize intraoperative blood loss, a conservative and more targeted use of blood products, weighing the short-term benefits *vs* increased postoperative risk for adverse events in each individual patient, should be considered.

OLTx WITHOUT BLOOD/BLOOD PRODUCTS

For many uncomplicated recipients OLTx has been safely performed without transfusion of any blood products, especially when maximum blood loss was limited to 2500-3500 mL^[36]. Even though, as aforementioned, the reports from various centres attest to the high variability of transfusion requirements, a confirmed trend toward a significant reduction in the use of blood products is being observed nowadays^[2]. Massicotte *et al*^[6] reported that up to 79% of their patient population did not need any red cell transfusion during surgery. Transfusion-free OLTx in Jehovah's witnesses, in combination with preoperative stimulation of red cell production using recombinant human erythropoietin and iron, cell salvage, volemic replacement and tolerance of moderate anemia, have been associated with favourable results^[37]. Limiting transfusions to situations where clinical bleeding and/or severe anemia are present has been shown to reduce many perioperative complications. Bloodless strategies also include meticulous surgical technique and the intraoperative hemodilution procedure, where the patient's blood is removed and replaced with non-blood products (5% albumin and crystalloid solution) whenever feasible. The patient's blood is later reinfused during the operation as needed or routinely after liver implantation. Acute normovolemic hemodilution preserves the integrity of the red blood cells and clotting factors, ensuring the availability of safe, fresh autologous blood. Contraindications to the hemodilution procedure include coronary heart disease, significant anemia, and severe pulmonary hypertension. Both prophylactic (prior to incision) and intraoperative administration of recombinant activated Factor VIIa has been considered by some authors to prevent intraoperative blood transfusion in Jehovah's witnesses or markedly reduce it in non-Jehovah's witnesses^[36,37].

INTRAOPERATIVE BLOOD TRANSFUSION, COMPLICATIONS AND OUTCOME

The impact of blood transfusion has been shown to be important and independent of other well-known predictors of posttransplant outcome, such as recovery of graft function, infectious disease, renal failure, and other comorbidities. Older studies have observed that an increased blood requirement was associated with many adverse events in the postoperative period, including higher rates of graft failure and patient mortality^[18]. Cacciarelli

et al.^[38] reviewed 225 adult OLTx recipients and showed a significant improvement in both patient and graft survival when less than 5 U of RBCs were transfused intraoperatively. Ramos *et al.*^[20] showed that even a moderate number of blood transfusions was associated with a longer hospital stay and that transfusion of more than 6 U of PRBCs was associated with diminished survival. In pediatric patients, increased blood product administration appeared as a significant independent negative predictor of long-term patient survival^[39]. As Hendriks *et al.*^[39] stated intraoperative transfusion of RBCs was the sole predictor of surgical reintervention after OLTx. Patients with reinterventions had a three-fold higher mortality during the observation period and had significantly longer hospital stay compared with patients without reinterventions. Whether the difference in outcome is related to the transfusion as an independent risk factor or whether the transfusion is a marker for a technically more difficult surgery remains unclear^[14]. However, multiple observations underline that every attempt to control blood loss and reduce transfusion requirements should be practiced in order to lessen the probability of surgical reintervention and improve in-hospital morbidity and overall outcome. The immunosuppressive effect and the induction of several complications may account for the negative correlation between the intraoperative blood transfusion and postoperative outcome. Common complications of massive transfusions are immunologic adverse effects, metabolic derangement, infectious exposure with increased septic episodes, and acute lung injury. Transfusion-related immunological adverse effects include anaphylactic reactions, hemolysis, graft *vs* host disease, and nonspecific immunosuppressive effects. Large volumes of allogenic blood result in the infusion of large amounts of foreign antigens in both soluble and cell-associated forms. The persistence of these antigens in the circulation of the recipient is considered to result in impaired cell-mediated and natural killer cell activity, and deterioration in liver regeneration^[40,41]. Severe metabolic derangement from massive transfusion may occur as a consequence of dilutional coagulopathy, dilutional thrombocytopenia, DIC, citrate toxicity, metabolic alkalosis, hypocalcemia, hypomagnesemia, hyperkalemia, acid/base disturbances and hypothermia^[42]. Blood products transfusions have been identified as a risk factor for TRALI, ALI and ARDS^[43].

ARDS is a serious multifactorial complication after OLTx most likely caused by fluid overload from crystalloid liquid infusion or massive transfusion and reperfusion syndrome^[44]. The risk of developing ALI/ARDS seems to be higher after transfusion of FFP or platelets than after RBC^[34]. Other postoperative complications associated with blood transfusion include perioperative myocardial infarction, postoperative low-output cardiac failure, and increased tumor recurrence^[45-47]. In addition, exposure to multiple units of allogenic blood increases the risk of developing abnormal antibodies which makes future cross-matching more difficult and time-consuming^[48].

INTRAOPERATIVE STRATEGIES TO REDUCE BLOOD LOSS

Anesthesiologic management

Properly balanced intraoperative fluids, use of pre-defined or “individualized” transfusion triggers, and prophylactically administered pharmacologic agents capable of reducing blood loss may have a positive impact on amount of bleeding and transfusion requirements. Avoiding excessive fluid administration and maintaining relative hypovolemia have been firmly advocated. As demonstrated during hepatic resections, maintaining a low central venous pressure (CVP) *via* volume restriction, phlebotomy, or both, has been shown to decrease surgical blood loss and promote graft decongestion. A low CVP has been recommended to minimize blood loss during explantation of the liver. With the “classical” cava-cava technique severe hemodynamic instability may ensue when inferior vena cava is clamped in the presence of hypovolemia; on the other hand with the wider application of the “piggy-back” technique measures to maintain CVP below 5 cm H₂O have become possible. Massicotte *et al.*^[49,50] reported that maintaining a low CVP before the anhepatic phase was of utmost importance to decrease blood loss and transfusion rate. However, the debate on an optimal CVP value to prevent major bleeding during OLTx is still not solved; in fact, although a low CVP is associated with reduced blood loss, it also carries a higher risk of complications such as air embolism, systemic tissue hypoperfusion, and renal failure. Schroeder *et al.*^[51] demonstrated that intentionally lowering the CVP to decrease blood loss during OLTx was associated with significant morbidity and mortality; the postoperative peak serum creatinine level, the need for dialysis, and 30-d mortality were higher in patients who had low CVP. Many transplant surgeons prefer that the CVP be kept “low” after reperfusion of the graft to avoid venous congestion of the new graft, but any quantification of this “low” number is futile. During liver transplantation there is no evidence to support decreasing CVP and effective circulating blood volume to levels currently practiced during hepatic resections surgery; this practice might compromise vital organ perfusion^[52]. Diuretics also often play a role in achieving euvolemia and can help in reducing transfusion requirements. The osmotic activity of mannitol can aid in removing free water within abdominal organs, particularly in the setting of hepatorenal syndrome, thus preventing hepatic distension once the graft is reperfused. Due to the lack of adequately powered, randomized, prospective controlled trials further investigations are needed to determine which patients would benefit from restrictive volume management in the intraoperative period of OLTx. Intraoperative coagulation abnormalities have long been thought of as major culprits for blood loss and transfusion requirements. They may be aggravated by unrecognized hypothermia and acidosis. Hypothermia likely occurs when large volumes of unheated fluids are admin-

istered; acidosis affects hemostasis as well, probably by inhibition of platelet function^[53]. Among the strategies to attenuate surgical bleeding by reducing both graft and portal vein pressure the use of lower tidal volumes (6–8 mL/kg) and very low positive end-expiratory pressure, have also been advocated^[5].

Thromboelastography

Besides standard coagulation tests (i.e., PT, aPTT, fibrinogen levels), TEG allows a rapid on-site assessment of the functional clotting status. Its use permits the assessment of both cellular and humoral components of whole blood coagulation and fibrinolysis, instead of a single procoagulation or anticoagulation parameter. Results can be obtained fairly quickly, the onset of clot formation within a few min and platelet function within 45 min. The prognostic value of intraoperative standard tests on bleeding or blood component requirements is poorly documented and controversial.

TEG, on the other hand, can assist anesthesiologists in treating intraoperative bleeding by identifying the cause and facilitate selective use of blood components and specific drug treatments^[54]. In various studies the amount of blood usage was significantly reduced when TEG monitoring was compared to the conventional “clinician-directed” transfusion management. Wang *et al.*^[55] demonstrated that the same was true for FFP administration during OLTx as well. Fewer units of FFP were required to keep the TEG reaction time within an accepted transfusion threshold compared with the PT/INR. TEG may also diagnose a heparin-like effect after reperfusion and determine the lowest efficient dose of protamine to correct the prolongation of the reaction time representing the rate of initial fibrin formation^[28].

In addition, TEG may help document the prothrombotic state that sometimes occurs in post liver transplant patients because of deficiencies in antithrombin III and protein C causing potentially disastrous hepatic artery thrombosis^[56].

Even though the usefulness of TEG in complex coagulation defects has been questioned^[57], recent literature does reaffirm that the use of TEG and rotation thromboelastometry in more rational transfusion algorithms can reduce the number of blood products transfused^[58].

Surgical techniques to reduce blood loss

The importance of surgical experience and skill during hepatic dissection and meticulous hemostasis has long been recognized as important in determining the amount of intraoperative blood loss. One of the first techniques introduced to reduce intraoperative bleeding was the application of the venovenous bypass (VVB) during the anhepatic phase of “classic” OLTx. By decompressing the splanchnic and retroperitoneal circulations, venovenous bypass contributes to reduce blood loss and avoids important hemodynamic changes caused by a variable reduction in venous return to the heart. Another extensively adopted method is the piggy-back technique,

which consists of performing the anastomosis of the retrohepatic inferior vena cava of the donor liver directly to the recipient inferior vena cava, thus avoiding extensive dissection of the retroperitoneum in this area. In recipients with portal hypertension and multiple venous collaterals this technique may reduce the anhepatic time and the amount of bleeding. Another advantage of the piggy back technique is the shorter warm ischemia time during implantation of the graft as only one cavo-caval anastomosis has to be performed, compared to the two end-to-end anastomoses of the inferior vena cava in the “classic” technique. While the proponents of the extensive use of venovenous bypass claim that it improves hemodynamic stability, reduces blood loss, and reduces the incidence of postoperative acute renal failure^[59], many authors have shown an association between VVB and an increased transfusion of blood products. This increase in the amount of intraoperative bleeding during VVB has been attributed to fibrinolysis, hemolysis, and platelet activation by bypass tubing^[60–62]. Miyamoto *et al.*^[63] demonstrated significantly lower blood transfusion requirements in patients in whom the “piggyback” technique was used, compared with patients transplanted using the “classic” technique. According to the recent statements from the Cochrane database^[64] no superiority of one over another technique seems to emerge from the examined trials. Based on the available studies there is currently no evidence to recommend or refute the use of piggy-back method during OLTx as far as the amount of bleeding and blood product consumption is concerned.

PHARMACOLOGICAL STRATEGIES TO REDUCE BLOOD LOSS

Antifibrinolytic drugs

Hyper-fibrinolysis plays a significant role in non-surgical blood loss requiring massive transfusion. Antifibrinolytics will decrease bleeding only in cases where it is caused by enhanced fibrinolysis but they are potentially harmful in patients with prothrombotic states like Budd-Chiari syndrome, retransplantation, fulminant liver disease, primary biliary cirrhosis, primary sclerosing cholangitis, transplant for malignant disease, portal vein thrombosis^[65]. Of the two groups of antifibrinolytics available, lysine analogues [epsilon aminocaproic acid (EACA) and tranexamic acid] and serine protease inhibitors (aprotinin), tranexamic acid (TA) is more commonly used. EACA is a synthetic lysine analogue that competitively inhibits the binding of plasminogen to lysine residue on the surface of fibrin and prevents conversion of plasminogen to plasmin. It may also prevent plasmin degradation of platelet glycoprotein Ib receptors, thus preserving platelet function^[66]. EACA has demonstrated less antifibrinolytic potency than tranexamic acid. In a prospective, double-blinded, placebo-controlled, randomized study by Dalmau *et al.*^[67], prophylactic EACA did not reduce intraoperative total red blood cell transfusion during OLT. In addition its use may be associated

with renal complications such as acute tubular necrosis, renal infarction, myopathy, pigment-induced renal complications, glomerular capillary thrombosis and elevated excretion of beta-2 microglobulin. Tranexamic acid prevents plasmin-mediated conversion of fibrinogen to fibrinogen split products by competitively binding to the lysine binding sites on the plasminogen molecule. As compared to EACA, its antifibrinolytic activity is 6-10 times more potent, and higher in peripheral compartments like kidney, intestines, and prostatic tissues. Strong evidence that TA reduces blood transfusion in various types of surgery has been provided in a recent review, even though its effects on thromboembolic events and mortality remains uncertain^[68]. In liver transplant surgery the effectiveness of TA in reducing blood transfusion is still under critical evaluation. Years ago, Boylan *et al*^[69] demonstrated that administration of tranexamic acid (20 mg/kg) was associated with significantly less intraoperative blood loss and reduced transfusion requirements. No patient had hepatic artery or portal vein thrombosis. More recently, Dalmau *et al*^[70] did not find any significant difference in blood loss and transfusion requirements with TA (10 mg/kg per hour) or aprotinin. Thromboembolic events, reoperations and mortality were similar in both groups. Massicotte *et al*^[71] compared the efficacy of TA *vs* aprotinin during OLTx. They found no inter-group difference in intraoperative RBC transfusion per patient, final Hb concentration, and the percentage of OLTx cases requiring no blood product administration. In their experience, administration of aprotinin was not superior to TA with regards to blood loss and blood product transfusion requirement.

A study published in 2011 by the Cochrane Hepato-Biliary Group^[72], which included all randomised clinical trials that compared various methods of decreasing blood loss and blood transfusion during OLTx, reported that there were no significant differences in the allogenic blood transfusion requirements, amount of platelets, FFP, or cryoprecipitate transfused between the tranexamic acid and control groups.

Aprotinin

Even though a reduction in intraoperative bleeding and transfusion requirement with aprotinin has very frequently been reported, aprotinin use has recently been reduced and criticized as it was related to an increased mortality in cardiac surgery^[73].

Antifibrinolytic effect of aprotinin is complex and includes inhibition of plasmin, contact activation system (*via* kallikrein inhibition) and inhibition of tissue-plasminogen activator production. In addition to antifibrinolysis, aprotinin also has antithrombotic effects, which may be due to selective blockade of proteolytically activated thrombin receptors on platelets^[74]. The European Multicentre Study of Aprotinin in Liver transplant showed that both high dose and regular dose of aprotinin attenuated fibrinolytic activity, and decreased blood loss and red blood cell transfusion requirements during OLTx^[75]. The

blood-saving effect of aprotinin was particularly evident when surgery was complicated with significant blood loss. Subsequently, several other reports supported these findings^[76,77]. However, parallel to its widespread utilization, concerns arose about the safety of aprotinin and an increased risk of thrombotic complications has been reported^[78]. Thromboembolic phenomena are among the most undesirable complications during liver transplantation manifesting as hepatic artery thrombosis, venous thromboembolism, and pulmonary thromboembolism. Lentschener *et al*^[78] reported that prophylactic use of large dose aprotinin decreased blood loss and transfusion requirement only when OLTx was associated with significant blood loss, but it did not alter the postoperative outcome. Because of its potential side effects, they recommend that aprotinin should not be systematically administered to patients undergoing OLTx.

It should be noted that most of the data contributing to the increased thromboembolic risk with aprotinin came from a single study - the BART trial^[74], whereas in the recent years its negative side effects have been consistently reconsidered.

Molenaar *et al*^[79] demonstrated that both aprotinin and TA significantly reduce RBC transfusion requirements; intraoperative use of FFP was significantly reduced with aprotinin but not with TA. No increased risk of hepatic artery thrombosis, venous thromboembolic events or mortality was detected in patients who received antifibrinolytics. No significant difference in the proportion of thromboembolic episodes or other serious adverse events between the aprotinin-treated groups and controls was also reported in the recent review by Gurusamy *et al*^[72] and Liu *et al*^[80] performed a meta analysis to study the effect of aprotinin on the intraoperative requirement for blood products and the postoperative outcomes. They observed that aprotinin can reduce the intraoperative requirement of blood product, and has no significant effect on the incidence of laparotomy for bleeding, thrombotic events and mortality. A Cochrane Intervention Review (2011)^[81] on anti-fibrinolytic use for minimising perioperative allogenic blood transfusion concluded that anti-fibrinolytic drugs provide worthwhile reductions in blood loss and the receipt of allogenic red cell transfusion. Aprotinin appears to be slightly more effective than the lysine analogues in reducing blood loss. The lysine analogues are effective in reducing blood loss during and after surgery, and appear to be free of serious adverse effects.

However, given the high risk of type I and type II statistical errors because of few trials and the small sample size in some trials, the authors stated that further large clinical randomized multicentre controlled trials are likely needed to confirm the specific advantages of aprotinin in liver transplantation surgery.

Recombinant factor VIIa

Recombinant activated Factor VIIa (rFVIIa) complexes directly with tissue factor (TF) released from the subendothelium at sites of vascular disruption. The TF-rFVII

a complex then activates the remainder of the common coagulation cascade *via* activated factor X. Additionally, rFVIIa may bind to activated platelets, which also concentrates factor X activation to sites of tissue injury. The factor Xa generated by these two mechanisms ultimately drives the thrombin burst, which cleaves fibrinogen to fibrin, thus initiating the formation of the fibrin meshwork critical to secondary coagulation and clot stabilization^[82].

Nieman *et al.*^[83] demonstrated that in a selected group of patients with prolonged PT and high MELD score, the prophylactic application of rFVIIa at the start of the OLTx may reduce perioperative transfusion requirements. However, the prophylactic administration of rFVIIa during orthotopic liver transplantation has led to inconclusive results; there was a trend across studies toward reduced red blood cell transfusion requirements with prophylaxis, but neither operating room time nor length of stay in the intensive care unit was reduced^[84-86]. Nowadays the strength of evidence is low or moderate for intraoperative blood saving capability when given as prophylaxis; furthermore use of rFVIIa has been associated with an increased rate of thromboembolic events in intracerebral hemorrhage and cardiac surgery^[87]. Therefore the prophylactic administration may not be the most efficient use of this drug; it should instead be seen more as a “rescue therapy” to control bleeding in situations of major perioperative bleeding where other therapies have failed^[88]. Case reports and studies with small number of patients found this drug beneficial in correcting clotting alterations, reducing frank surgical bleeding, controlling clotting failure due to graft reperfusion, or stabilizing clotting functions before the closure of the abdomen^[89,90].

Recombinant activated factor VIIa is not a substitute of clotting factors; in addition, it can also induce other negative pharmacological effects. It seems to be useful in improving coagulation in transplant recipients with refractory hemorrhagic complications serving as a bridge to definitive treatment. Safety of rFVIIa in OLTx has been demonstrated in many reports; no effects on thromboembolism or mortality have been found in various trials^[87]. However, the experience with this drug is still too limited and the benefit/risk ratio not completely evaluated. The role of recombinant factor VIIa during OLTx still remains to be completely defined. Its administration provides a novel way to increase the thrombin burst and acutely improve coagulation in the presence of rapid factor consumption. It is advisable that TEG monitoring be performed before rFVIIa administration^[91].

BLOOD SALVAGE DURING OLTx

The use of intraoperative blood salvage and autologous blood transfusion has been for a long time an important method to reduce the need for allogeneic blood and the associated complications^[92].

By reducing the demand for heterologous transfusion this strategy can prevent or diminish the exposure to

transmissible infectious diseases. The use of cell salvage has become an important part of intraoperative management of Jehovah's Witnesses who refuse allogeneic blood or blood products transfusion on religious grounds^[93].

The principle of cell salvage consists of collecting RBCs from the operative fields, storing the blood in a reservoir, separating the components, and transfusing. Blood collection is carried out with a dedicated double-lumen device, one for suction and the other for adding a predetermined volume of anticoagulant to the aspirated blood. After storage the blood is centrifuged and the RBCs are washed and filtered across a semi-permeable membrane which removes free haemoglobin, plasma, white blood cells, platelets and heparin. The process of concentration by centrifugation enables the plasma, platelets, and irrigating solutions to be removed, as well as 70%-90% of the soluble contaminants and the so called “biochemical debris” present in the salvaged blood. The salvaged blood may then be transfused after being re-suspended in normal saline. The resultant hematocrit ranges between 50%-80%^[15]. Although the safety of cell-salvaging procedure has been widely demonstrated^[94] intraoperative red blood cell salvage and autologous transfusion is not routinely used in major liver surgery as cost-effectiveness is still an unsolved concern^[95].

Blood salvaging techniques are controversial during OLTx as well, since some studies demonstrated their effectiveness in reducing allogeneic RBCs requirements and safety, while others reported higher blood loss, mainly through fibrinolysis, and increased costs^[7,96,97]. Hendriks *et al.*^[98] reported a remarkable increase in transfusion requirements in liver transplant recipients where cell saver blood was returned. They hypothesised that excessive blood loss was a consequence rather than a cause of transfusion of cell saver blood. The need for an increased amount of RBCs, FFP, cryoprecipitate, and platelets in autotransfused patients was also demonstrated by other studies^[99,100]. The increased blood loss in recipients receiving cell saver blood has been attributed to the release of fibrinolytic compounds from blood cells in the collected blood and/or from the transplanted liver, that are not washed out by the cell saver^[99]. As opposed to the above-mentioned reports many other studies underline that cell salvage is efficacious in reducing the need for allogeneic blood transfusion in adult elective surgery, as evidenced by a recent Cochrane Collaboration meta-analysis of various studies^[101]. Waters *et al.*^[102] in a review of the cell salvage data from 2328 surgical patients suggested that cell salvage can be significantly less expensive than allogeneic blood. Older experiences in patients undergoing liver transplantation with large volumes of blood loss, demonstrated that besides its medical benefits intraoperative autologous transfusion was also cost-effective. Use of intraoperative autologous transfusion resulted in conservation of erythrocytes and reduction in exposure to homologous blood and blood components^[103]. Similar observations were also reported in a prospective study on 660 adult liver transplant pa-

tients published more recently^[104].

Sankarankutty *et al*^[105] demonstrated that when cell saver was used during OLTx more than half of the blood lost was recovered and was almost entirely available for reinfusion after processing. Substantial reduction in FFP and a lesser reduction in platelet requirement was also seen.

Nowadays the use of cell salvage to collect and reinfuse shed, autologous blood during OLTx is a common practice when high blood loss is anticipated. It is, in fact, a complementary method that can replace blood in proportion to the volume lost. However, when compared with the cost of providing allogenic blood, it becomes cost effective when at least two or more units of blood can be salvaged and reinfused. Massicotte *et al*^[95] demonstrated that when cell salvage autotransfusion was used systematically for every patient (75 OLTx) there was enough blood salvage to retransfuse 65% of the cases; in their centre with a low transfusion rate, it saved a mean of 21 g/L of Hb per patient or two RBC unit transfusions.

Even though the collection of a recipient own blood from surgical sites may result an effective, safe and cost-effective procedure, there are some relative contraindications due to the presence of certain materials incorporated into the salvaged blood that could potentially harm the patient upon readministration^[106]. These include contaminants such as stool, urine, or blood aspirated from contaminated or septic wounds, intestinal leaks, intra-abdominal infections, and malignant cells.

Bacterial contamination

Bacterial contamination of intraoperatively cell salvaged and processed blood is a known phenomenon even if the technique is applied to so-called “sterile” operations^[107,108].

Contamination may occur during blood sampling and washing. It may originate from intestinal flora or it may be blood-borne in the recipient. Retrograde contamination of the shed blood from the bile duct has been demonstrated as well^[101]. The most common source of contamination is thought to be the skin and the environment. The use of cell salvage has been contraindicated in cases where there is potential contamination with enteric contents, however, the relationship between the transfusion of contaminated cell-salvaged blood and an increased risk of systemic infection is not clear. Feltracco *et al*^[109] in a prospective observational study of 38 patients undergoing OLTx found samples of processed salvaged blood positive for microorganisms in 68.4% cases. A variety of microorganisms were cultured, i.e., *Staphylococcus* (73%), *Escherichia coli* (4%), *Propionibacter* (4%) and *Candida* (8%). All the patients in this study had blood cultures obtained on postoperative days 1 and 3, and none was positive for the organisms previously cultured from the salvaged blood. Studies on transfusion of microbiologically contaminated salvaged blood have demonstrated no adverse outcomes nor an increase in postoperative infectious complications^[109,110]. Therefore, potential contamination should no longer be considered

an absolute contraindication to the use of intraoperative cell salvage during OLTx.

Blood salvaged from patients with liver tumor

The presence of hepatocellular carcinoma has been considered a contraindication for the use of blood salvaging techniques due to the theoretical risk of reintroducing neoplastic cells into the circulation and disseminating the tumor. In 1986 the American Medical Councils stated that cell salvage was contraindicated in cases of malignancy^[111].

However, in clinical practice the use of autologous transfusion from salvaged blood of patient with malignant disease has been diffusely reported in different surgical settings, such as urological cancer and gynaecology surgery^[112,113]. In various studies on surgical patients with malignant disease autologous transfusion with cell salvaged blood did not increase recurrence rates and was effective at reducing allogenic blood requirements. The use of leucocyte depletion filters (LDFs) has been proposed to improve cell salvage safety, to reduce the number of malignant cells in the blood recovered during cancer surgery, and to attenuate the side-effects^[114]. In a prospective observational study on 32 patients undergoing OLTx for hepatocellular carcinoma, Liang *et al*^[115] investigated the presence of tumour cells in shed blood and the efficiency of cell salvage in combination with a LDF at removing them. Tumour cells were present in the cell saver reservoir in 62.5% of patients and after processing tumour cells were still detected in 75% of those. After passing through an LDF, tumour cells were only detected in 10% of samples where the tumour had ruptured intraoperatively. Because of the incomplete elimination of tumour cells in the autologous blood, in circumstances where the potential rupture of the tumor may occur intraoperatively the authors raise concerns on the opportunity of reinfusing the salvaged blood. In the report by Catling *et al*^[116], the cell saver used in combination with LDFs significantly reduced the number of tumour cells from salvaged blood. After collecting the blood from the field and processing it, viable cells were demonstrated in 62% of samples, but once the processed salvaged blood was passed through an LDF no tumor cells were found, only tumour cell fragments, which were unable to cause metastases. Muscari *et al*^[117] reported no difference in the incidence of neoplastic recurrence with the use of cell saver during liver transplantation for hepatocarcinoma. Various authors also confirm that the use of cell salvage is useful to reduce the exposure to allogenic blood during liver transplantation for hepatocellular carcinoma and is cost-effective as well^[95,115]. Filtration through leucodepletion filters in association with irradiation (25 Gy) prior to transfusion of recovered blood has also been proposed to increase the safety of blood salvaging procedure in cancer surgery^[118]. Other potential complications associated with cell salvage include non-immune haemolysis, air embolus, febrile non-haemolytic transfusion reactions, coagulopathy, contamination with cleansing solutions and incomplete

washing leading to contamination with activated leucocytes, cytokines, and other microaggregates^[92]. Abnormal suctioning of RBCs may cause sheer stress injury, which can result in haemolysis and therefore reduction in return of RBCs^[119]. Saline washing of red cells increases sodium levels and decreases potassium and calcium levels; potassium and calcium continuous monitoring and supplementation may be necessary during autologous transfusion of salvaged blood. An inadequate washing of administered blood could result in renal insufficiency and failure. As the washing process discards all platelets and clotting factors leaving only the red cells re-suspended in normal saline, the reinfusion of large amount of blood from the cell saver machine may determine coagulation disturbances. Large volume transfusion of salvaged blood can, in fact, cause postoperative hypofibrinogenemia, thrombocytopenia, prolonged prothrombin and partial thromboplastin time and elevated fibrin split products^[120]. FFP, platelet and cryoprecipitate administered in association with reinfusion of salvaged blood may prevent the cell saver induced coagulopathy.

CONCLUSION

Improvements in organ preservation, surgical technique, anesthesiologic care, as well as in postoperative intensive care management have contributed to a steady reduction of transfusion requirements in the perioperative period and have increased the number of patients undergoing OLTx without any need for blood products^[92,121].

Because of the progressive increased severity of end stage liver disease of candidates undergoing OLTx with the “MELD rules” for graft allocation, and the poor quality of many donor livers, the bleeding risk correlated with the surgical manoeuvres may be relevant with inevitable consequences on the amount of transfusions. Even though the transfusion practices still vary greatly from centre to centre, considerable progress has been made on properly balancing intraoperative fluid, preventing and treating clotting abnormalities as well as on “individualizing” the transfusion triggers. The understanding that perioperative blood loss and blood transfusions have a negative impact on postoperative outcome has led to emphasize the need for a critical reappraisal of the traditional heterologous transfusion policies and a re-evaluation of cell salvage as part of a blood conservation strategy in anaesthesia.

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Diagnosis and management of bacterial infections in decompensated cirrhosis

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protein level and prior episodes of spontaneous bacterial peritonitis (SBP). The prognosis of these patients is closely related to a prompt and accurate diagnosis. An appropriate treatment decreases the mortality rates. Preventive strategies are the mainstay of the management of these patients. Empirical antibiotics should be started immediately following the diagnosis of SBP and the first-line antibiotic treatment is third-generation cephalosporins. However, the efficacy of currently recommended empirical antibiotic therapy is very low in nosocomial infections including SBP, compared to community-acquired episodes. This may be associated with the emergence of infections caused by *Enterococcus faecium* and extended-spectrum β -lactamase-producing Enterobacteriaceae, which are resistant to the first line antimicrobial agents used for treatment. The emergence of resistant bacteria, underlines the need to restrict the use of prophylactic antibiotics to patients with the greatest risk of infections. Nosocomial infections should be treated with wide spectrum antibiotics. Further studies of early diagnosis, prevention and treatment are needed to improve the outcomes in patients with decompensated cirrhosis.

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Abstract

Bacterial infections are one of the most frequent complications in cirrhosis and result in high mortality rates. Patients with cirrhosis have altered and impaired immunity, which favours bacterial translocation. Episodes of infections are more frequent in patients with decompensated cirrhosis than those with compensated liver disease. The most common and life-threatening infection in cirrhosis is spontaneous bacterial peritonitis followed by urinary tract infections, pneumonia, endocarditis and skin and soft-tissue infections. Patients with decompensated cirrhosis have increased risk of developing sepsis, multiple organ failure and death. Risk factors associated with the development of infections are severe liver failure, variceal bleeding, low ascitic

Key words: Cirrhosis; Infections; Spontaneous bacterial peritonitis; Ascites; Antibiotics

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INTRODUCTION

Bacterial infections are one of the most frequent complications in cirrhosis, particularly in decompensated

patients, and account for significant mortality. The current prevalence of this complication ranges between 25% and 30%^[1,2] and is responsible for 30%-50% of deaths in these patients^[3]. The cumulative mortality after any infection in patients with cirrhosis is 43.5%. It has been suggested that the occurrence of bacterial infection could be considered a further prognosis stage, defining the critically ill cirrhotic^[4]. Risk factors associated with the development of infections are high Child-Pugh score, variceal bleeding, low ascitic protein level and prior episodes of spontaneous bacterial peritonitis (SBP).

The most common infections in cirrhosis are SBP^[5], followed by urinary tract infections, pneumonia and cellulitis^[6]. Sixty percent of bacterial infections are community-acquired and 40% are nosocomial. In hospitalized cirrhotic patients, the most frequent infections are healthcare-associated or hospital-acquired and these infections are frequently resistant to antibiotics. The most frequent causative organisms in community-acquired infections are gram-negative bacilli, mainly *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) (60%). The emergence of extended-spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL)-producing enterobacteria in nosocomial infections has meant that gram-positive cocci are no longer the main bacteria isolated in hospital-acquired infections. Moreover, nosocomial SBP are mainly caused by gram-negative bacteria. However, cultures are positive only in 40%-70% of infections. The treatment of choice for the most common infections occurring in cirrhosis is third-generation cephalosporins since they are active against Enterobacteriaceae and non-enterococcal streptococci as well as being well tolerated^[7-9]. However, recent studies have shown that the prevalence of infections caused by multiresistant bacteria is increasing in cirrhosis^[10].

Immune defects, mainly acquired but also genetic, and bacterial translocation are the principal mechanism involved in the pathogenesis of infection in cirrhosis^[11]. Liver dysfunction is associated with an impaired defense against bacteria, which worsens over time and with disease progression. Both humoral and cell-mediated immunity are depressed. In cirrhosis, decreased bacterial clearance as well as structural and functional alterations in the intestinal mucosa lead to an increase in permeability to bacteria and derived products. This favours bacterial translocation, which increases the susceptibility to infection, particularly SBP. Deficiencies in C3 and C4, impairment of macrophage Fcγ-receptor mediated clearance of antibody-coated bacteria and down-regulation of monocyte human leukocyte antigen-DR expression, may also contribute to this altered defense^[12]. In some cases a deregulated immune response produces an important production of inflammatory mediators, which leads to an excessive pro-inflammatory response. This process may contribute to renal impairment, multiple organ failure and high mortality rate^[13].

Bacterial infections, regardless of the aetiology, are a severe complication of decompensated cirrhosis, and result in increased mortality and longer hospital stay.

The most important predictive factor for mortality after infection is renal failure. The release of inflammatory mediators during infection leads to systemic, renal, and hepatic hemodynamic impairment, which dramatically affects the prognosis even after resolution of infection. The mortality rate after infection in patients with cirrhosis remains high and has not significantly changed over recent decades^[14]. The widespread use of quinolones and other antibiotics in cirrhosis has favoured changes in bacterial flora and the development of antibiotic resistance. To improve outcomes, new studies of early diagnosis, prevention and treatment are needed.

DIAGNOSIS OF BACTERIAL INFECTIONS

Early diagnosis and treatment of infections are of paramount importance for the management of patients with decompensated cirrhosis, since bacterial infections are important causes of mortality and morbidity in these patients. Patients with decompensated cirrhosis have increased risk of developing sepsis, multiple organ failure and death^[14]. Mortality associated to infections is twenty times higher in patients with cirrhosis than in the general population.

Bacterial infections in patients with cirrhosis can be asymptomatic or pauci-symptomatic, and have to be suspected in any cirrhotic patient with a sudden impairment of liver function^[15]. The prognosis of these patients is mainly dependent on a prompt and accurate diagnosis^[2]. Identification of the source of infection is the primary concern when deciding on the appropriate antibiotic therapy. The first evaluation must include a detailed physical examination including vital signs (temperature, respiratory and heart rates, mean arterial pressure), abdominal and chest examination, and evaluation of the presence of skin lesions. A complete work-up must include a range of diagnostic tests such as blood cell count and culture, urinary sediment and culture, chest X-ray, sputum culture, ascitic/pleural fluid cultures and abdominal ultrasonography^[11].

Diagnosis of spontaneous bacterial peritonitis

SBP is defined as an infection of the ascitic fluid in the absence of a contagious cause of infection (e.g., intestinal perforation or abscess)^[7]. SBP is a frequent and severe complication of cirrhosis, with an incidence in hospitalized patients with cirrhosis of 7%-25%. Prospective studies have shown that one-year mortality rates following an episode of SBP, range from 65% to 93%^[16]. Risk factors for SBP include impaired liver function, gastrointestinal bleeding, high bilirubin levels, low ascitic fluid protein (< 10-15 g/L), and a prior episode of SBP.

Abdominal pain and fever are the most common symptoms, followed by vomiting, hepatic encephalopathy, gastrointestinal bleeding and renal dysfunction. However, symptoms and signs are sometimes absent^[17]. In 40%-60% of cases, the organism responsible for SBP is isolated in ascitic fluid or blood cultures^[1-4,6]. Diagnostic paracentesis

should be carried out in all patients with ascites who are admitted to hospital, regardless of symptoms^[18].

Diagnosis of SBP is based on the demonstration of an absolute number of polymorphonuclear cells in ascitic fluid equal to or greater than 250/mm³. Diagnosis of SBP constitutes an indication to initiate an empirical antibiotic therapy and must not be delayed until the ascites bacteriological culture results are available^[7,8]. The best specificity for diagnosis has been reported^[19-22] with a cut-off of 500 PMN/mm³. It is unclear whether a positive culture in the absence of elevated ascitic fluid PMN count (bacteriascites), requires antibiotic therapy. In these cases, some guidelines recommend antibiotic treatment only if the patient shows signs of infection^[8]. Leukocyte reagent strips have been suggested as a rapid screening test for the diagnosis of SBP at the bedside^[23-26]. However, sensitivity varying between 45% and 100%, makes this method suboptimal for the diagnosis of SBP. In patients with hemorrhagic ascites (red blood cell count > 10 000/mm³), subtraction of one PMN per 250 red blood cells should be made. When there is a predominant lymphocytosis in the ascitic fluid, the differential diagnosis must include tuberculous peritonitis, neoplasms, congestive heart failure, pancreatitis and myxedema, but usually not SBP^[18]. Other markers that have been suggested for the diagnosis of SBP are lactoferrin, an iron-binding protein contained in PMN, which has a sensitivity of 96% and a specificity of 97% with cut-off value of ≥ 242 ng/mL in ascitic fluid^[27].

The most frequently identified organisms in patients with SBP are gram-negative bacteria (*E. coli*) and gram-positive cocci (streptococcus and enterococcus). Approximately, 30% of isolated gram-negative bacteria are resistant to quinolones and this resistance is higher in patients undergoing norfloxacin therapy^[9]. The most frequent causative organisms in community-acquired SBP are gram-negative bacteria, while in nosocomial infections gram-positive organisms are responsible for most infections.

Secondary peritonitis constitutes the main differential diagnosis of SBP, accounting for 5%-10% of all peritonitis in patients with cirrhosis and ascites. This is due to perforation or inflammation of an intra-abdominal organ, and its mortality is much higher than that of SBP (66% *vs* 10%)^[28]. Secondary peritonitis must be suspected in patients with inadequate response to therapy or when multiple organisms are identified in the ascitic fluid^[29]. A diagnosis of secondary peritonitis is probable when at least two of the Runyon's criteria are present: glucose level < 50 mg/dL; protein concentration > 10 g/L; or lactate dehydrogenase > 225 mU/mL^[8]. When secondary peritonitis is suspected, an abdominal computerized tomography should be performed as soon as possible^[30].

Other infections in patients with cirrhosis

Urinary tract infections: Urinary tract infections (UTI) in cirrhosis can be asymptomatic or oligosymptomatic, and asymptomatic bacteriuria is frequent^[31,32]. The inci-

dence of UTI is higher in cirrhotic patients with indwelling catheters and in women. The most frequent bacteria causing UTI are *E. coli* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (*K. pneumoniae*). Quinolones are not recommended for the treatment of UTI in areas with a high prevalence of quinolone-resistant enterobacteria, such as Southern Europe. Amoxicillin-clavulanic acid or an oral cephalosporin should be considered in these high-risk patients^[33-35].

Pneumonia: Pneumonia is the third most common infection in liver cirrhosis, after SBP and UTI. Community-acquired pneumonia is most frequent, especially in subjects with active alcoholism^[36]. Streptococcus pneumonia is the most common causative organism, followed by anaerobic bacteria or *Haemophilus influenza*, *K. pneumonia*, *Mycoplasma pneumonia* or *Legionella*^[37,38]. The initial treatment of choice should include macrolides combined with one of the following: cefotaxime, ceftriaxone, amoxicillin-clavulanic acid, imipenem or piperacillin-tazobactam. Factors such as tracheal intubation and hepatic encephalopathy may predispose for hospital-acquired pneumonia, mainly caused by gram-negative bacilli and staphylococci. In these cases, the treatment should be adapted to the local epidemiological pattern of resistant bacteria; meropenem or ceftazidime plus ciprofloxacin may be an adequate option. Vancomycin or linezolid should be added in patients with risk factors for methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) (Ventilator-associated pneumonia, previous antibiotic therapy, nasal MRSA carriage).

Endocarditis: Streptococcus and Staphylococcus aureus are the most common causative organisms.

Skin and soft-tissue infections: Lymphangitis of the lower extremities and abdominal wall are frequent in cirrhotic patients with edema or ascites. The most common etiologic organisms are *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Streptococcus pyogenes*, followed by Enterobacteriaceae and anaerobes^[39]. Empirical therapy with cloxacillin has been considered the first-choice. Amoxicillin-clavulanic acid or quinolones (i.e., ofloxacin) may be an adequate alternative. Cellulitis is usually treated with a combination of cloxacillin and a third-generation cephalosporin.

TREATMENT OF SBP IN PATIENTS WITH DECOMPENSATED CIRRHOSIS

In practice, third generation cephalosporins have already been established as the standard treatment of SBP^[40-42]. However, the efficacy of currently recommended empirical antibiotic therapy is very low in nosocomial infections, including SBP, when compared to community-acquired episodes. Infections caused by multiresistant bacteria have increased nearly 100%, and are associated to a higher incidence of treatment failure, rapid deterioration of liver function and mortality. This change may be associated with the emergence of infections caused by *Enterococcus*

faecium and extended-spectrum β -lactamase-producing Enterobacteriaceae, which are resistant to the current recommended empirical antibiotic therapy. This findings led to the suggestion that nosocomial SBP should be treated with carbapenems or with tigecycline^[43].

Appropriate empirical antibiotic therapy is associated with improved survival. In the absence of ascitic fluid cultures, it is important to use broad-spectrum antibiotics, selected according to the type and severity of infection. Epidemiological factors, such as site of acquisition of the infection (nosocomial *vs* community-acquired infections), and previous history of multiresistant infection, must be taken into account^[11]. Prevention and treatment of renal failure, sometimes triggered by infection, is of pivotal importance in the treatment of these patients. Therefore, some antibiotics, such as aminoglycosides, should not be used in cirrhosis because of the high risk of renal failure^[44].

Treatment of community-acquired SBP

The organisms traditionally associated with community-acquired SBP are gram-negative bacteria, mainly Enterobacteriaceae. This family of bacteria usually shows optimal response to third-generation cephalosporins (e.g. cefotaxime). Amoxicillin-clavulanic acid and ciprofloxacin have shown similar results. Intravenous cefotaxime 2 g/12 h is considered the first-line antibiotic for the empirical treatment of SBP. A 5-d therapy is as effective as a 10 day treatment. Other effective and safe options are *iv* ceftriaxone 1 g/(12-24) h or *iv* amoxicillin-clavulanic acid (1-2) g/(6-8) h^[45]. The use of fluoroquinolones (e.g., ciprofloxacin 200 mg/12 h, *iv*) has demonstrated similar efficacy. In patients with uncomplicated SBP (absence of gastrointestinal hemorrhage, severe encephalopathy, septic shock or creatinine > 3 mg/dL), oral ofloxacin (400 mg/12 h) may be an effective alternative. In patients who develop SBP while receiving norfloxacin prophylaxis, quinolones are not recommended and the best alternative is cefotaxime or amoxicillin/clavulanic acid. In SBP it is of crucial importance to assess the response to treatment by performing a follow-up paracentesis two days after initiation of the antibiotic therapy. A reduction in the ascitic fluid PMN count (< 25%), compared with the pretreatment value, is considered treatment failure and indicates the need for modification of the antibiotic treatment according to *in vitro* sensitivity.

Administration of albumin as adjuvant treatment to antibiotics is considered essential in patients with SBP and impaired renal or liver function, in order to prevent worsening of renal function^[46-48]. The recommended dose is 1.5 g/kg on day 1 and 1 g/kg on day 3. The concomitant use of albumin decreases the incidence of type 1 hepatorenal syndrome (from 30% to 10%) and reduces mortality (from 29% to 10%), compared with cefotaxime alone. Treatment with albumin is particularly effective in patients with serum bilirubin \geq 4 mg/dL or serum creatinine \geq 1 mg/dL, while its use in patients without these criteria remains controversial^[49]. However, in unselected

patients with SBP, even low-dose albumin (10 g/d on day 1 and 3) reduces tumour necrosis factor and interleukin 6 levels in serum and ascites as well as preventing increases in serum nitric oxide induced by SBP^[50].

Treatment of nosocomial SBP

Unfortunately, antibiotic therapy fails in 26%-41% of patients with SBP^[51]. One of the explanations may be that current guidelines for the treatment of SBP do not distinguish between community-acquired and nosocomial episodes. Recent studies have reported an increasing prevalence of extended-spectrum β -lactamase-producing bacteria and multiresistant gram-positive bacteria such as *Enterococcus faecium* or MRSA^[52]. In fact, bacteria isolated in nosocomial SBP are frequently resistant to β -lactams (33%-78%), and this is associated with a low success rate in a significant proportion of nosocomial SBP^[53-56], which are being treated with third generation cephalosporins, amoxicillin/clavulanic acid or quinolones.

Clinical and research efforts are focused on decreasing rates of mortality, morbidity and healthcare associated costs. The development of bacterial resistance in community-acquired SBP increases the risk of mortality four-fold, since it is usually associated with empirical treatment failure. Therefore, for an optimal treatment of nosocomial infections in patients with cirrhosis, epidemiological factors and patterns of resistance should be considered. Hospitalisation within the previous 3 mo, intensive care treatment, and prior antibiotic treatment, are independent risk factors for the development bacterial multi-resistance^[57].

Carbapenems are the most effective option for nosocomial infections in areas with a high prevalence of extended-spectrum β -lactamase-producing Enterobacteriaceae. Tigecycline may be a potential alternative, although recent studies have showed increased mortality related to its low clinical efficacy and it should not, therefore, be recommended as first-line therapy in the general population^[58]. Penicillin used in combination with β -lactamase inhibitors (e.g., piperacilin-tazobactam) may be an adequate alternative. However, the most appropriate antibiotic treatment in any particular case should be selected according to the results of the relevant microbiological studies.

PROPHYLAXIS OF SBP IN PATIENTS WITH DECOMPENSATED CIRRHOSIS

In patients with cirrhosis at high risk of SBP (low protein ascites and advanced liver dysfunction or impaired renal function), norfloxacin administration decreases the 1-year probability of developing this infection and hepatorenal syndrome, and moreover increases 3-mo and 1-year survival^[29]. However, recent studies suggest that norfloxacin is not now as effective as it was in the past, possibly due to the development of quinolone-resistant bacteria in the fecal flora of patients receiving long-term prophylaxis. Thus, to prevent antibiotic resistance and to make these strategies cost-effective, antibiotic prophylaxis

laxis must be restricted to those patients at a very high risk of bacterial infections. Since the gut appears to be the main source of bacteria in SBP, a selective intestinal decontamination by elimination of gram-negative bacilli (mostly responsible for infections in cirrhosis) should be performed.

Primary prophylaxis in patients with gastro-intestinal bleeding

Cirrhotic patients with upper gastrointestinal bleeding are at high risk (25%-65%) of bacterial infections, particularly SBP, during the first 7 d after the bleeding episode. Moreover, bacterial infections increase the risk of early re-bleeding^[59]. An increase in portal pressure and changes in hemostasis induced by infection have been suggested as possible mechanisms^[60,61]. A beneficial effect of antibiotic prophylaxis on control of bleeding and prevention of re-bleeding has been reported^[62]. Current guidelines recommend antibiotic prophylaxis in patients with cirrhosis and gastrointestinal bleeding regardless of the presence of ascites^[9]. A meta-analysis of five trials comprising 534 cirrhotic patients with variceal haemorrhage, demonstrated that antibiotic prophylaxis for 4 to 10 d significantly reduced the occurrence of SBP and septicemia, and improved short-term survival^[63]. Similar results were seen in a more recent meta-analysis of twelve trials comprising a total of 1241 patients with cirrhosis and gastrointestinal bleeding, in which antibiotic prophylaxis significantly decreased the incidence of bacterial infections, re-bleeding, length of hospitalisation and mortality. Prophylaxis benefits were observed irrespective of the antibiotic used, although they were stronger with cephalosporins, quinolones and quinolones plus beta-lactams^[64]. The use of antibiotic prophylaxis as secondary prevention of variceal bleeding may reduce the incidence of early re-bleeding, mainly in the first seven days after the first haemorrhage^[65].

Currently, the recommended antibiotics are mainly oral quinolones (norfloxacin 400 mg *bid* for 7 d) or intravenous cephalosporins (ceftriaxone 1 g/d for 7 d). Norfloxacin is a poorly absorbed quinolone with antibacterial activity against gram-negative bacteria, which is simple to administer and has low cost. The main complication of long-term norfloxacin prophylaxis is the occurrence of infections by quinolone-resistant organism, which are usually susceptible to third-generation cephalosporins. This fact and the lack of efficacy of norfloxacin against gram-positive or anaerobic organisms, may explain the superiority shown by intravenous ceftriaxone over oral norfloxacin in a randomized controlled trial on patients with variceal bleeding and advanced cirrhosis (characterized by at least 2 of the following: ascites, severe malnutrition, encephalopathy, or bilirubin > 3 mg/dL)^[66]. Invasive procedures used in patients with cirrhosis and haemorrhage are a risk factor for infections caused by gram-positive bacteria. Intravenous administration seems to be more appropriate than oral intake in patients with active upper bleeding who have vomits and very rapid

intestinal transit. Intravenous ceftriaxone should, therefore, be used in the prophylaxis of bacterial infections in patients with advanced cirrhosis and upper gastrointestinal bleeding, whereas patients with less severe liver disease may be given oral norfloxacin or an alternative oral quinolone.

Therefore, in patients with upper gastrointestinal bleeding, antibiotic prophylaxis is considered essential. In patients with less severe liver disease norfloxacin may be given, whereas in those with severe liver disease ceftriaxone is the prophylactic antibiotic of choice. Timing of antibiotic administration is also important and prophylaxis should be started from admission, ideally before or immediately after endoscopy^[67]. Local bacterial resistance profile and treatment costs, are other factors to consider in the selection of antibiotics.

Primary prophylaxis in patients with ascites

Primary prophylaxis in cirrhotic patients with ascites, but without gastrointestinal bleeding, is controversial. A recent meta-analysis including seven trials comparing antibiotic prophylaxis to no intervention or placebo, showed that the relative risk of SBP and mortality was lower in patients treated with antibiotics (RR 0.2; 0.11 to 0.37) than with no treatment or placebo (RR 0.6; 0.43 to 0.87)^[16]. However, these findings must be taken with caution because of the low methodology quality of most of the trials and the likely existence of systematic bias in the trials included. Given the increasing emergence of resistant bacteria and the limited validity of these results, antibiotic prophylaxis in all patients with ascites without bleeding should not be recommended until we have more conclusive evidence.

However, it is well known that the risk of SBP in patients with ascites depends on ascitic fluid protein concentration, since it has been shown that low protein concentration (< 10-15 g/L) is a risk factor, and the incidence is greater in those with advanced liver disease. Several independent studies and meta-analysis have assessed this issue^[68-71]. In a placebo-controlled trial on patients with protein ascitic levels < 15 g/L and advanced liver failure or impaired renal function, norfloxacin (400 mg/d) reduced the 1-year probability of developing SBP and improved the 3-mo survival, although at 1 year the difference in survival was not significant^[29]. Similarly, a placebo-controlled trial on patients with ascites protein < 15 g/L and moderate liver failure, showed that prophylaxis with ciprofloxacin for 12 mo improved the 1-year survival. However, there was no significant difference between groups in the occurrence of SBP or other infections^[72]. A recent meta-analysis of these three trials supports the efficacy of quinolones in these settings, since it demonstrates significant preventive power for SBP and mortality^[18]. A previous meta-analysis, which aimed to assess the effect of antibiotic prophylaxis in the prevention of SBP and survival, showed similar results. It included eight studies comprising 647 patients with cirrhosis at risk for developing SBP. In seven of the eight studies the

mean ascitic fluid protein level was < 15 g/L. Criteria for defining advanced liver disease included Child-Pugh scores > 9 , bilirubin levels > 2.5 mg/dL, and impaired renal function. The analysis showed that prophylaxis improved short-term survival and reduced the incidence of infections, including SBP^[73]. These results suggest that primary prophylaxis has a great impact in the clinical course of patients with low ascites protein content and advanced cirrhosis, and may reduce the incidence of SBP and improve survival. Nevertheless, studies in patients with low ascitic fluid protein but without severe liver disease, have failed to show significant effect of norfloxacin on survival or in the occurrence of SBP^[74].

To the light of these studies, patients with protein ascitic levels < 15 g/L and severe liver disease or renal impairment should be considered for long-term prophylaxis with norfloxacin (400 mg/d), particularly those patients awaiting liver transplantation, because antibiotic prophylaxis may increase the applicability of this procedure. The optimal duration of primary antibiotic prophylaxis has not been established. Oral ciprofloxacin is a valid alternative to norfloxacin. In patients with low protein concentration in ascitic fluid, but with mild or moderate liver disease, antibiotic prophylaxis is not currently recommended^[9].

Secondary prophylaxis in patients with prior SBP

The probability of survival at 1 year after an episode of SBP is about 30%-50%^[75], with a cumulative recurrence rate at 1 year of 70%. Therefore, after one episode of SBP, liver transplantation must be considered. In all patients with a prior episode of SBP it is essential to initiate long-term antibiotic prophylaxis. For secondary prophylaxis, the evidence is strongest for norfloxacin (400 mg/d), since its use after an episode of SBP has been shown to reduce the recurrence from 70% to 20%^[76]. This prophylactic strategy results in a substantial cost saving by avoiding resource utilization associated with treatment^[77]. Intermitting antibiotic therapy schedules have been suggested as secondary prophylaxis, however this strategy may select resistant flora more rapidly and should, therefore, be avoided.

In these settings prophylaxis should be instituted after the completion of treatment for acute SBP and continued until liver transplantation or disappearance of ascites. The development of bacterial resistance is a potentially harmful complication of long-term antibiotic therapy, and it is greater with longer duration of antibiotic administration. In patients who develop resistance to quinolones, trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole has been suggested as an alternative to norfloxacin^[78]. However, there is a high rate of SBP caused by trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole resistant Gram-negative bacteria (44%-72%), suggesting that this antibiotic is not a suitable alternative to norfloxacin^[79,80]. Data supporting the use of trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole are weak, while its side effects are potentially dangerous and probably under-reported^[81]. There are no data to support discontinuation of prophylaxis with quinolones in patients who develop infection due to quinolone-resistant bacteria. Antibiotic cycling or combined treatment regimes have been proposed to reduce the risk of emerging resistant bacteria, but there are no data supporting this strategy.

Antibiotic cycling or combined treatment regimes have been proposed to reduce the risk of emerging resistant bacteria, but there are no data supporting this strategy.

Probiotics, a non-antibiotic and safe therapy, may decrease bacterial translocation, since it has been reported that they can correct bacterial overgrowth, stabilize mucosal barrier function and decrease bacterial translocation in experimental conditions^[82-84]. However *Lactobacillus* failed to reduce bacterial translocation and ascitic fluid infection in an animal model^[85,86]. Further studies in patients with cirrhosis are needed to define the possible role of probiotics in SBP prophylaxis.

It has been suggested that acid-suppressive therapy with proton pump inhibitors (PPIs), which is widely used in patients with cirrhosis, may increase the risk of bacterial infections, since they cause bacterial overgrowth in the small intestine and increase intestinal permeability^[87-92]. Several studies, including a meta-analysis^[93] of four studies involving a total of 772 patients^[94-98], found significant association between PPI and the development of SBP in patients with cirrhosis (odds ratio 2.77, 95%CI: 1.82-4.23). However, a recent study suggests that even though PPIs may be a contributing factor, the predominant factor determining infection risk is the stage of the liver disease^[99]. Bajaj *et al.*^[100] identified PPI use as a risk factor for Clostridium Difficile Associated Disease (CDAD) in hospitalized patients with cirrhosis, which is associated with higher mortality, length of stay and costs. However, the relation between PPI use and CDAD has not been confirmed in other populations of patients with impaired immunity^[101]. Therefore, more studies are needed to verify this association.

CONCLUSION

Bacterial infections in cirrhosis are common, accounting for significant mortality. Patients with decompensated cirrhosis have more frequent episodes of infection than those with compensated liver disease. Spontaneous bacterial peritonitis is the most common infection in these patients. The development of cirrhosis is associated with impairment in the immune system, which worsens over time, and with disease progression. Risk factors associated with development of infections in cirrhosis are severe liver failure, variceal bleeding, low ascitic protein level and prior episodes of SBP.

Identification of risk factors for SBP is important to develop optimally targeted safe and cost-effective strategies for its prevention. Improvements in survival are achieved with early diagnosis and prompt antibiotic treatment. Empirical antibiotics should be started immediately following the diagnosis of SBP and the first line antibiotic treatment is third-generation cephalosporins. The concomitant administration of albumin decreases the frequency of hepatorenal syndrome and improves survival.

Antibiotic prophylaxis should be used in cirrhotic

patients hospitalized with an episode of gastrointestinal haemorrhage, ascites and a prior history of SBP. Patients with protein ascitic levels < 15 g/L and severe liver disease or renal impairment should be considered for long-term antibiotic prophylaxis. Patients who recover from SBP have to be considered for liver transplantation, since they have a poor long-term survival.

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Outcomes following liver transplantation in intensive care unit patients

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Abstract

AIM: To determine feasibility of liver transplantation in patients from the intensive care unit (ICU) by estimating graft and patient survival.

METHODS: This single center retrospective study included 39 patients who had their first liver transplant directly from the intensive care unit and 927 non-ICU

patients who were transplanted from hospital ward or home between January 2005 and December 2010.

RESULTS: In comparison to non-ICU patients, ICU patients had a higher model for end-stage liver disease (MELD) at transplant (median: 37 vs 20, $P < 0.001$). Fourteen out of 39 patients (36%) required vasopressor support immediately prior to liver transplantation (LT) with 6 patients (15%) requiring both vasopressin and norepinephrine. Sixteen ICU patients (41%) were ventilator dependent immediately prior to LT with 9 patients undergoing percutaneous tracheostomy prior to transplantation. Twenty-five ICU patients (64%) required dialysis preoperatively. At 1, 3 and 5 years after LT, graft survival was 76%, 68% and 62% in ICU patients vs 90%, 81% and 75% in non-ICU patients. Patient survival at 1, 3 and 5 years after LT was 78%, 70% and 65% in ICU patients vs 94%, 85% and 79% in non-ICU patients. When formally comparing graft survival and patient survival between ICU and non-ICU patients using Cox proportional hazards regression models, both graft survival [relative risk (RR): 1.94, 95%CI: 1.09-3.48, $P = 0.026$] and patient survival (RR: 2.32, 95%CI: 1.26-4.27, $P = 0.007$) were lower in ICU patients vs non-ICU patients in single variable analysis. These findings were consistent in multivariable analysis. Although not statistically significant, graft survival was worse in both patients with cryptogenic cirrhosis (RR: 3.29, $P = 0.056$) and patients who received donor after cardiac death (DCD) grafts (RR: 3.38, $P = 0.060$). These findings reached statistical significance when considering patient survival, which was worse for patients with cryptogenic cirrhosis (RR: 3.97, $P = 0.031$) and patients who were transplanted with DCD livers (RR: 4.19, $P = 0.033$). Graft survival and patient survival were not significantly worse for patients on mechanical ventilation (RR: 0.91, $P = 0.88$ in graft loss; RR: 0.69, $P = 0.56$ in death) or patients on vasopressors (RR: 1.06, $P = 0.93$ in graft loss; RR: 1.24, $P = 0.74$ in death) immediately prior to LT. Trends toward lower graft survival and patient survival were observed for patients on

dialysis immediately before LT, however these findings did not approach statistical significance (RR: 1.70, $P = 0.43$ in graft loss; RR: 1.46, $P = 0.58$ in death).

CONCLUSION: Although ICU patients when compared to non-ICU patients have lower survivals, outcomes are still acceptable. Pre-transplant ventilation, hemodialysis, and vasopressors were not associated with adverse outcomes.

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Key words: Donor pool; Donor outcomes; Onor after cardiac death grafts; Liver graft survival; Patient survival

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INTRODUCTION

Liver transplantation (LT) is a life-saving procedure for patients with a wide range of end-stage liver diseases (ESLD). Significant improvement in surgical technique, medical management, and advances in immunosuppression therapy have all contributed to the success of LT. Recent studies have demonstrated that the overall outcome of LT depends on a combination of factors including recipient condition, donor organ quality, as well as the transplant center volume^[1-4].

Liver disease is progressive in nature and the care for such patients is complex and challenging. As a result, transplant candidates may require intensive care unit admission while awaiting transplantation^[5,6]. It is not uncommon for some patients to have multiorgan system failure (MOSF) requiring ventilatory support, hemodynamic support, and renal replacement therapy (RRT) in the course of their disease. Transplantation of such patients could lead to poor post-transplant outcomes^[7,8]. Given the scarcity of organ donors, LT is currently offered to patients with the expected survival of at least 50% in 5 years after the transplantation^[9]. As a result, controversy arises: from an individual stand point there is always a benefit to LT because the outcome of deteriorating ESLD is uniformly fatal. From a societal perspective futile outcomes are not acceptable in the time of donor organ shortage.

The current established absolute contraindications for LT include advanced cardiopulmonary disease, extrahepatic malignancy with metastasis, active substance abuse, sepsis, and inability to comply with medical treatment^[10]. Despite multiple efforts, there is currently no agreed upon definition of "too sick to transplant", nor there are standardized guidelines for when a critically ill patient should be removed from a transplant waiting

list^[11,12]. Criteria that are used to delist a sick patient are transplant program dependent. Many regard ventilatory support and vasopressor therapy in a cirrhotic patient as contraindications to proceeding with transplantation^[6].

The aim of our study was to determine the feasibility of LT in patients from the ICU by estimating graft and patient survival in this patient group and also compare these outcomes with non-ICU patients. We also evaluated associations of pre-transplant donor and recipient characteristics with outcomes in ICU patients.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study patients and data collection

This single center retrospective study included 39 patients who underwent first LT directly from the ICU between January, 2005 and December, 2010 and 927 non-ICU patients, who underwent first LT over the same time period. Non-ICU patients were defined as patients transplanted from the hospital ward or home. This study was exempt from IRB review. Patients who underwent re-transplantation, multiple organ transplant, patients who underwent transplant for fulminant liver failure were excluded. For both ICU and non-ICU patients, information was collected regarding patient characteristics (age, gender, body mass index, etiology of ESLD, model for end-stage liver disease (MELD) score at transplant, previous abdominal operations), operative characteristics (operative time, blood transfusion), donor characteristics [age, gender, recipient-donor gender incompatibility, donation after cardiac death (DCD), donor risk index, cold ischemia time, warm ischemia time], and outcomes (date of graft loss, date of death, date of last follow-up). The following additional information was collected for ICU patients: pre-LT information (length of time from hospital admission to ICU admission, length of time from ICU admission to transplant, MELD at ICU admission, pre-transplant ambulatory status, mechanical ventilation, dialysis, vasopressor use and dose, tracheostomy, positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP), FiO_2 , mean airway pressure, PaO_2) at the time of transplant and post-LT information (tracheostomy, length of hospital stay, length of ICU stay, discharge status, readmission within 3 mo after LT).

Statistical analysis

Patient, operative, and donor characteristics were compared between ICU and non-ICU patients using a Wilcoxon rank sum test or Fisher's exact test. The Kaplan-Meier method was used to estimate graft survival and patient survival after LT, censoring on the date of last follow-up for patients who did not experience graft loss or death (graft survival) or death (patient survival). Cox proportional hazards regression models were used to compare graft survival and patient survival between ICU and non-ICU patients. Single variable models (i.e., models with no adjustment for other variables) were utilized, as well as multivariable models adjusted for variables that differed between ICU and non-ICU patients with a P value of 0.10 or less, excluding variables that are known

Table 1 Patient, operative and donor characteristics in intensive care unit and non-intensive care unit patients

Variable	ICU patients (<i>n</i> = 39)	Non-ICU patients (<i>n</i> = 927)	<i>P</i> value
Patient characteristics			
Age at transplant	57 (33-74)	57 (16-77)	0.91
Gender (male)	21 (54%)	653 (70%)	0.033
BMI	25.7 (18.0-38.0)	28.4 (16.4-61.1)	0.091
Diagnosis			
Hepatitis C	18 (46%)	364 (41%)	0.41
ETOH	10 (26%)	138 (15%)	0.11
Cryptogenic cirrhosis	8 (21%)	147 (16%)	0.5
NASH	0 (0%)	76 (8%)	0.066
PSC	0 (0%)	61 (7%)	0.17
Other	3 (8%)	141 (15%)	0.25
MELD at transplant	37 (24-50)	20 (6-45)	< 0.001
Previous operation	13 (34%)	402 (47%)	0.13
Operative characteristics			
Operative time (min)	230 (129-596)	231 (100-745)	0.69
Blood transfusion (mL)	3850 (1400-15 400)	2800 (0-44 100)	0.002
Cold ischemia time (h)	6.3 (3.4-10.4)	6.3 (2.0-14.0)	0.71
Warm ischemia time (min)	30 (18-84)	31 (10-141)	0.59
Donor characteristics			
Age	42 (8-78)	48 (7-88)	0.016
Gender (male)	17 (46%)	551 (59%)	0.12
Recipient-donor gender incompatibility	15 (41%)	348 (38%)	0.73
Donation after cardiac death	6 (16%)	146 (16%)	1.00
Donor risk index	1.53 (0.88-2.60)	1.66 (0.85-4.30)	0.085

The sample median (minimum-maximum) is given for numerical variables. *P* values result from Fisher's exact test or a Wilcoxon rank sum test. Information was unavailable regarding previous operations (ICU: *n* = 1; non-ICU: *n* = 80), operative time (ICU: *n* = 2; non-ICU: *n* = 1), blood transfusion (ICU: *n* = 3; non-ICU: *n* = 13), cold ischemia time (ICU: *n* = 2), warm ischemia time (ICU: *n* = 2), and all donor characteristics (ICU: *n* = 2). ICU: Intensive care unit; BMI: Body mass index; ETOH: Ethanol; NASH: Nonalcoholic steatohepatitis; PSC: Primary sclerosing cholangitis; MELD: Model for end-stage liver disease.

to differ between the two groups due to the nature of ICU patients (MELD at transplant), variables that are potentially on the causal pathway between ICU status and graft loss or death (operative time, blood transfusion), variables that did not occur in ICU patients (NASH diagnosis), or variables with any missing data in ICU patients. Relative risks (RRs) and 95% CIs were estimated. In ICU patients, associations of patient and donor characteristics with graft survival and patient survival were evaluated using Cox proportional hazards regression models. Only single variable analysis was performed; multivariable analysis was not attempted owing to the small number of ICU patients who experienced the endpoints of interest^[13]. *P* ≤ 0.05 was considered as statistically significant. All statistical analyses were performed using SAS (Version 9.2; SAS Institute, Inc., Cary, North Carolina) and R Statistical Software (Version 2.11.0; R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria).

RESULTS

A comparison of patient, operative, and donor characteristics

Table 2 Additional information for intensive care unit patients only

Variable	Summary (<i>n</i> = 39)
Patient characteristics	
Vasopressors	14 (36%)
Vasopressin	12 (31%)
Dose (units/min)	0.04 (0.01-0.04)
Norepinephrine	8 (21%)
Dose (mcg/kg per min)	0.07 (0.01-0.18)
Vasopressin and norepinephrine	6 (15%)
Length of time from hospital admission to ICU admission (d)	3 (1-32)
Length of time from ICU admission to liver transplant (d)	12 (1-65)
MELD at ICU admission	32 (15-52)
MELD at transplant	37 (24-50)
Pre-transplant ambulation	14 (42%)
Dialysis	25 (64%)
Tracheostomy	9 (23%)
Mechanical ventilation	16 (41%)
Positive end-expiratory pressure (cm H ₂ O)	7 (7-12)
FiO ₂ (%)	40 (28-60)
Mean airway pressure (cm H ₂ O)	12 (9-18)
PaO ₂ (mmHg)	103 (60-147)
Post-operative characteristics	
Post-operatively placed tracheostomy	4 (10%)
Length of hospital stay	42 (15-516)
Length of ICU stay	27 (7-327)
Discharged status	
Home	19 (49%)
Rehab	14 (36%)
Death	6 (15%)
3-mo readmission	16 (41%)

The sample median (minimum-maximum) is given for numerical variables. Information regarding positive end-expiratory pressure, FiO₂, mean airway pressure, and PaO₂ were only available for patients with mechanical ventilation. Information was unavailable regarding ambulation (*n* = 5), mean airway pressure (*n* = 2), and PaO₂ (*n* = 1). ICU: Intensive care unit; MELD: Model for end-stage liver disease.

between ICU patients and non-ICU patients is displayed in Table 1. In comparison to non-ICU patients, ICU patients were less often male (54% *vs* 70%, *P* = 0.033), had a lower body mass index (BMI) (median: 25.7 *vs* 28.4, *P* = 0.091), and had a higher MELD at transplant (median: 37 *vs* 20, *P* < 0.001). Intraoperatively, ICU patients had a greater packed red blood cell transfusion requirement (median: 3850 mL *vs* 2800 mL, *P* = 0.002). When compared to non-ICU patients, the ICU patients received liver grafts from the younger median: 1.53 *vs* 1.66, *P* = 0.085).

A summary of additional patient and post-operative characteristics for the 39 ICU patients is shown in Table 2. Fourteen out of 39 patients (36%) required vasopressor support immediately prior to LT with 6 patients (15%) requiring both vasopressin and norepinephrine. The range of the dose of vasopressin was 0.01 to 0.04 units/min, while norepinephrine dose ranged from 0.01 to 0.18 mcg/kg per minute. Sixteen ICU patients (41%) were ventilator dependent immediately prior to LT with 9 patients undergoing percutaneous tracheostomy prior to transplantation. The range of PEEP was 7 cm to 12

Table 3 Graft survival and patient survival in intensive care unit patients and non-intensive care unit patients

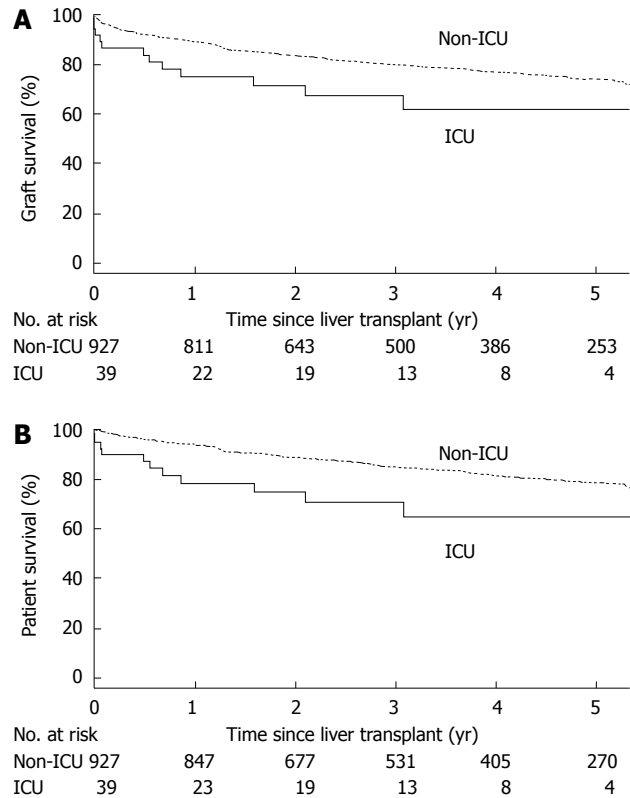
Outcome/time since transplant	Estimate (95%CI)	
	ICU patients (n = 39)	Non-ICU patients (n = 927)
Graft survival		
1 yr	76% (62%-91%)	90% (88%-92%)
2 yr	72% (58%-89%)	84% (82%-87%)
3 yr	68% (52%-86%)	81% (78%-83%)
4 yr	62% (44%-83%)	78% (75%-81%)
5 yr	62% (41%-83%)	75% (72%-78%)
Patient survival		
1 yr	78% (65%-93%)	94% (92%-95%)
2 yr	75% (61%-91%)	89% (87%-91%)
3 yr	70% (55%-88%)	85% (83%-87%)
4 yr	65% (47%-86%)	82% (79%-84%)
5 yr	65% (43%-86%)	79% (76%-82%)

ICU: Intensive care unit.

cm H₂O and FiO₂ ranged from 28% to 60%. Twenty-five ICU patients (64%) required dialysis preoperatively. 32 out of 39 patients (82%) required at least one out of three types of therapy. Median length of time from hospital admission to ICU admission was 3 d (range: 1-32 d). Median length of time from ICU admission to transplant was 12 d (range: 1-65 d). Median MELD at ICU admission was 32 (range: 15-52). Median length of hospital stay was 42 d (range: 15-516 d) and median length of ICU stay was 27 d (range: 7-327 d). Nineteen patients (49%) were discharged home, 14 patients (36%) were discharged to rehab. Six patients (15%) died on the same hospitalization, 2 of which died in the operating room.

The median length of follow up in the overall cohort of 966 patients was 3.5 years (range: 0 d-6.8 years). In the 39 ICU patients, median length of follow up was 1.8 years (range: 0 d-5.6 years). Graft survival and patient survival after LT in ICU patients and non-ICU patients are displayed (Figure 1 and Table 3). At 1, 3 and 5 years after LT, graft survival was 76%, 68% and 62% in ICU patients and 90%, 81% and 75% in non-ICU patients. Patient survival at 1, 3 and 5 years after LT was 78%, 70% and 65% in ICU patients compared to 94%, 85% and 79% in non-ICU patients. When formally comparing graft survival and patient survival between ICU and non-ICU patients using Cox proportional hazards regression models, both graft survival (RR: 1.94, 95%CI: 1.09-3.48, $P = 0.026$) and patient survival (RR: 2.32, 95%CI: 1.26-4.27, $P = 0.007$) were lower in ICU patients compared to non-ICU patients in single variable analysis. These findings were consistent in multivariable analysis, adjusting for the potentially confounding variables of patient gender and BMI, graft survival was significantly worse in ICU patients (RR: 2.03, 95%CI: 1.13-3.65, $P = 0.018$), as was patient survival (RR: 2.44, 95%CI: 1.32-4.50, $P = 0.004$).

An evaluation of associations of patient and donor characteristics with graft survival and patient survival in ICU patients is provided in Table 4; a total of 12 ICU patients experienced graft loss or death, while 11 patients died. Although not statistically significant, graft

**Figure 1** Graft survival (A) and patient survival (B) in intensive care unit patients and non-intensive care unit patients. ICU: Intensive care unit.

survival was worse in both patients with cryptogenic cirrhosis (RR: 3.29, $P = 0.056$) and patients who received DCD grafts (RR: 3.38, $P = 0.060$). These findings reached statistical significance when considering patient survival, which was worse for patients with cryptogenic cirrhosis (RR: 3.97, $P = 0.031$) and patients who were transplanted with DCD livers (RR: 4.19, $P = 0.033$). The findings regarding DCD liver grafts and the outcomes of their recipients are further illustrated in Figure 2.

Given the aforementioned finding regarding DCD grafts and the consistently documented poorer outcomes of DCD grafts in the literature, we re-calculated graft survival and patient survival excluding 6 ICU patients with DCD donors. When excluding these 6 DCD patients from the ICU group, graft survival in the remaining 31 ICU patients at 1, 3 and 5 years was 78%, 73% and 73%, while patient survival at these time points was 81%, 76% and 76%. When comparing outcomes between this ICU patient subgroup with the overall cohort of 927 non-ICU patients in multivariable analysis, graft survival (RR: 1.59, 95%CI: 0.78-3.23, $P = 0.20$) and patient survival (RR: 1.80, 95%CI: 0.84-3.85, $P = 0.13$) were still lower in ICU patients, but these findings are no longer statistically significant.

Graft survival and patient survival were not significantly worse for patients on mechanical ventilation (RR: 0.91, $P = 0.88$ in graft loss; RR: 0.69, $P = 0.56$ in death) or patients on vasopressors (RR: 1.06, $P = 0.93$ in graft loss; RR: 1.24, $P = 0.74$ in death) immediately prior to LT. Trends toward lower graft survival and patient survival were observed for patients on dialysis immediately

Table 4 Associations of patient and donor characteristics with graft survival (graft loss or death endpoint) and patient survival (death endpoint) in intensive care unit patients

Variable	Association with graft survival (graft loss or death endpoint)		Association with patient survival (death endpoint)	
	Relative risk (95%CI)	P value	Relative risk (95%CI)	P value
Patient characteristics				
Age at transplant (10 yr increase)	0.98 (0.49-1.99)	0.96	1.00 (0.47-2.11)	0.99
Gender (male)	1.33 (0.42-4.19)	0.63	1.10 (0.34-3.61)	0.88
BMI (10 unit increase)	0.63 (0.24-1.66)	0.35	0.57 (0.20-1.59)	0.28
Diagnosis				
Hepatitis C	0.99 (0.32-3.08)	0.99	0.79 (0.24-2.59)	0.69
ETOH	0.57 (0.12-2.59)	0.46	0.65 (0.14-3.02)	0.58
Cryptogenic cirrhosis	3.29 (0.97-11.15)	0.056	3.97 (1.14-13.87)	0.031
MELD at transplant (5 unit increase)	0.99 (0.63-1.57)	0.97	1.09 (0.68-1.75)	0.72
MELD at ICU admission (5 unit increase)	0.85 (0.56-1.30)	0.47	1.03 (0.66-1.61)	0.89
Previous operation	1.07 (0.31-3.67)	0.91	0.76 (0.20-2.95)	0.69
Vasopressors	1.06 (0.32-3.51)	0.93	1.24 (0.36-4.23)	0.74
Vasopressin	0.78 (0.23-2.59)	0.68	0.91 (0.27-3.11)	0.88
Norepinephrine	0.29 (0.04-2.22)	0.23	0.32 (0.04-2.51)	0.28
Vasopressin and norepinephrine	0.44 (0.06-3.44)	0.44	0.50 (0.06-3.90)	0.51
Length of time from hospital admission to ICU admission (doubling)	0.91 (0.64-1.28)	0.57	0.88 (0.61-1.27)	0.49
Ambulation	1.30 (0.36-4.72)	0.69	1.30 (0.36-4.72)	0.69
Dialysis	1.70 (0.46-6.32)	0.43	1.46 (0.38-5.54)	0.58
Tracheostomy	1.00 (0.27-3.71)	1.00	0.61 (0.13-2.83)	0.53
Mechanical ventilation	0.91 (0.29-2.88)	0.88	0.69 (0.20-2.37)	0.56
Donor characteristics				
Age (10 yr increase)	0.97 (0.67-1.41)	0.88	0.91 (0.61-1.36)	0.65
Gender (male)	0.74 (0.21-2.63)	0.64	0.52 (0.13-2.09)	0.36
Recipient-donor gender incompatibility	1.33 (0.36-4.91)	0.67	1.76 (0.45-6.87)	0.41
Donation after cardiac death	3.38 (0.95-12.05)	0.060	4.19 (1.12-15.70)	0.033
Donor risk index (1 unit increase)	2.15 (0.54-8.62)	0.28	1.61 (0.36-7.15)	0.53

Relative risks and *P* values result from single variables Cox proportional hazards regression models. Relative risks correspond to presence of the given characteristic (categorical variables) or the increase given in parenthesis (numerical variables). A higher relative risk indicates an increased likelihood of experiencing the given endpoint. ICU: Intensive care unit; BMI: Body mass index; ETOH: Ethanol; MELD: Model for end-stage liver disease..

before LT, however these findings did not approach statistical significance (RR: 1.70, *P* = 0.43 in graft loss; RR: 1.46, *P* = 0.58, in death).

DISCUSSION

LT has evolved from an experimental procedure to a life-saving therapy for patients with end-stage liver disease. The complicated pathophysiology of end-stage liver disease, sophisticated surgery and challenging post-operative care requires center expertise and collaborative team of skilled, innovative clinicians, including surgeons, hepatologists, anesthesiologists, and transplant intensivists in order to achieve the best possible outcome.

Advanced liver disease frequently mandates ICU admission. The admission to ICU is associated with high mortality and LT becomes the only definitive therapeutic option for a decompensated cirrhotic patient. At this time, one of the most complex decisions the clinicians face is when an extremely ill candidate no longer becomes suitable for this procedure. Currently, there are no specific recommendations to define the individuals who are too sick to transplant and thus avoid futile therapy. It is left up to the center's experience and subjective "eyeball test" to define criteria for delisting^[12].

In our study, over a period of 6 years, critically ill pa-

tients who underwent LT directly from the ICU had an average MELD score of 37 at the time of transplantation, which was significantly higher than the average MELD of 20 in non-ICU patients. Post LT overall patient and graft survival rates in patients transplanted directly from the ICU were lower than in patients transplanted either from home or from the hospital ward. However, despite these poorer outcomes in ICU patients compared to non-ICU patients, they are still higher than what is considered acceptable by the transplant community^[9].

One of the possible reasons for better outcomes in our patients is likely due to the high volume of LT operations at our center. Ozthathil *et al*^[3] reported decreased risk of allograft failure and recipient death after LT in high volume centers defined as centers performing 78-215 cases per year. This has been demonstrated in retransplantation as well by Reese *et al*^[14].

Further investigation of outcomes in ICU patients revealed that patients who received a DCD liver graft had more than 3-fold increased risk of losing a graft and more than a 4-fold increased risk of dying compared to the ICU patients who received a non-DCD graft. In fact, graft and patient survival between non-ICU patients and ICU patients excluding the patients who received DCD grafts were reasonably comparable, particularly at 5-year after LT where graft and patient survival were 73% and

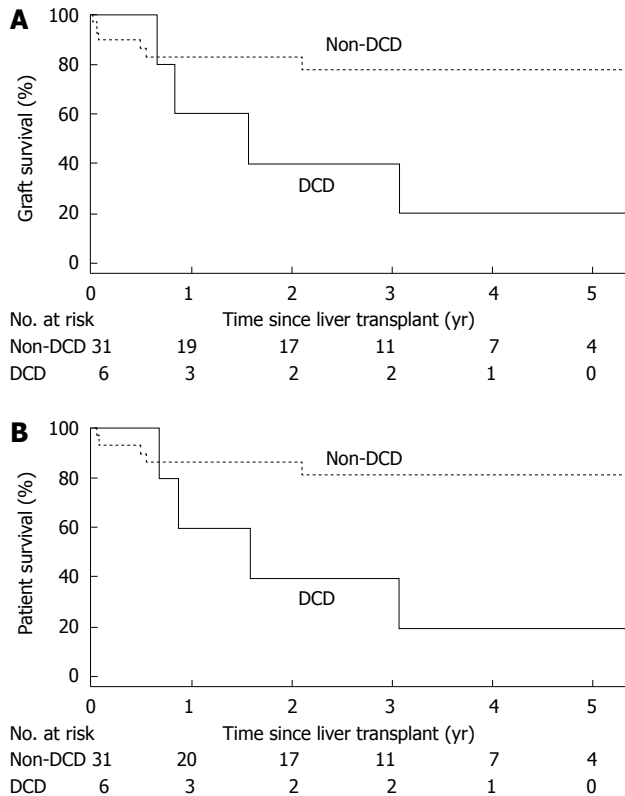


Figure 2 Graft survival (A) and patient survival (B) in intensive care unit patients according to donor after cardiac death. DCD: Donation after cardiac death.

76% in ICU patients and 75% and 79% in non-ICU patients. Our findings are consistent with the results reported previously in the literature^[15]. DCD donors have recently been used to increase the number of deceased donors and bridge the gap between the number of available organs and the number of candidates on the waiting list. These organs are considered marginal because this type of graft is thought to be of inferior quality when compared to the liver grafts from DBD donors^[16]. Analyzing the UNOS database, Mateo *et al.*^[15] have demonstrated that with DCD livers the graft survival at 1 year and 3 years was 71% and 60% respectively, which was significantly lower than 80% and 72% in patients who received DBD grafts. The graft survival significantly improved to 81% and 67% at 1 and 3 years respectively, if these organs were placed in low risk patients (i.e., patients without previous history of LT, non-ICU patients, patients not requiring life support, and patients not on dialysis), and became similar to that of DBD donors.

In our analysis of risk factors for graft loss and death in ICU patients, in addition to aforementioned DCD finding, we also observed that patients with cryptogenic cirrhosis had poorer patient and graft survival than patients with liver disease from other causes. However, this finding is of uncertain significance and should be further evaluated in larger series.

In the ICU, deteriorating patients with ESLD awaiting LT develop MOSF requiring mechanical ventilatory support, intermittent or continuous RRT, and pharmacologic hemo-

dynamic support. Vasopressor requirement and intubation have been considered to be contraindications to transplantation and regarded as criteria for delisting^[6]. We sought to investigate whether any of the above factors which have been traditionally linked to worse outcomes would be prognosticators of poor outcomes in our experience.

Mechanical ventilation is required for airway protection in a setting of hepatic encephalopathy, for respiratory failure due to ARDS, pulmonary edema, and infections. In previous reports it has been demonstrated that preoperative mechanical ventilation played a role in prolonged postoperative intubation^[17]. Preoperative mechanical intubation has been identified as one of the independent risk factors for decreased patient and graft survival^[4,18]. In our study 46% of patients transplanted from the ICU were on a ventilator at the time of LT. More than half of the intubated patients underwent percutaneous tracheostomy placement prior to LT. All the patients who were ventilator dependent prior to LT had PEEP of ≤ 12 mmHg and $\text{FiO}_2 \leq 60\%$. In contrast to previous publications, in our sample of 39 patients transplanted from the ICU, ventilatory support prior to LT did not have a negative effect on patient or graft survival.

Patients with ESLD are in hyperdynamic state with low systemic arterial pressure sometimes requiring vasopressor support^[6]. In our analysis, 36% of patients were on vasopressors with 15% of patients being on a combination of vasopressin and norepinephrine. The patients with active sepsis were not transplanted. Based on our analysis, the patients who required pharmacologic hemodynamic support at the time of LT did not experience inferior graft or patient survival as evidenced by RR of approximately one or less in magnitude.

Due to disturbances in renal function, renal failure develops in many patients with cirrhosis^[19]. In most instances continuous RRT is the modality of choice due to patient hemodynamic instability. Multiple investigations have linked preoperative hemodialysis to poorer outcomes after LT^[18,20-22]. In our cohort, 65% of patients were on dialysis, and while we did not observe a statistically significant association between dialysis and either graft or patient survival, the RR that we observed of 1.70 and 1.45, respectively, suggest a trend to lower outcomes. Our study has several limitations. It has a retrospective design and a relatively small number of ICU patients who underwent LT. Related to the limited number of ICU patients, power to detect associations of recipient and donor characteristics with outcomes in ICU patient is limited, and the possibility of Type II error (i.e., a false-negative association) is important to consider. In addition, our results reflect the experience of a single high-volume center and thus might not be applicable to other centers. The criteria for ICU admission might vary from center to center.

In conclusion, to our knowledge, this is the largest study that directly examined the outcomes of the patients who have undergone LT directly from the ICU. We have demonstrated that patients who require mechanical ventilatory support, pharmacologic hemodynamic support, and RRT can have acceptable patient and graft outcomes after

LT. A much larger group of ICU patients, likely from a multi-center study, is needed to better define criteria for a successful liver transplant.

COMMENTS

Background

Liver transplantation (LT) is a life-saving procedure for patients with end-stage liver diseases. Improvements in surgical technique, medical management, and advances in immunosuppression therapy have all contributed to the success of LT.

Research frontiers

It is not uncommon for patients with significantly decompensated liver disease to require intensive care unit (ICU) admission for multiorgan system failure requiring ventilatory support, hemodynamic support, and renal replacement therapy (RRT) in the course of their disease. Transplantation of such patients could lead to poor post-transplant outcomes. Given the scarcity of organ donors transplantation of such patients could be futile and thus acceptable in the time of donor organ shortage.

Innovations and breakthroughs

This is the largest study that investigated the feasibility of LT in patients from the ICU, patients who require mechanical ventilatory support, pharmacologic hemodynamic support, and RRT by estimating graft and patient survival in this patient population. The authors have demonstrated that this group of patients can have acceptable patient and graft outcomes after LT.

Applications

The data can contribute to the widening of recipient criteria in LT.

Peer review

The authors reported the outcomes following LT in ICU patients. The clinical result was very good for the new insight and encouragement of physicians dealing with this challenging filed.

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Pancreatic fistula: A proposed percutaneous procedure

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Abstract

AIM: To propose a percutaneous treatment for otherwise intractable pancreatic fistula (PF).

METHODS: From 2005 to 2011, 12 patients (9 men and 3 women, mean age 59 years, median 63 years, range 33-78 years) underwent radiological treatment for high-output PF associated with peripancreatic fluid collection. The percutaneous procedures were performed after at least 4 wk of unsuccessful conservative treatments. We chose either a one or two step procedure, depending on the size and characteristics of the fistula and the fluid collection (with an arbitrary cut-off of 2 cm). Initially, 2 to 6 pigtail drainages of variable size from 8.3 (8.3-Pig Duan Cook, Bloomington, Indiana, United States) to 14 Fr (Flexima, Boston Scientific, Natick, United States) were positioned inside the collection using a transgastric approach. In a second procedure, after 7-10 d, two or more endoprosthesis (cystogastrostomy 8 Fr double-pigtail, Cook, Bloomington, Indiana, United States in 10 patients; covered Niti-S stent, TaeWoong Medical Co, Seoul, South Korea in 2 patients) were placed between the collection and the gastric lumen. In all cases the metal or plastic pro-

theses were removed within one year after positioning.

RESULTS: Four out of 12 high-output fistulas were external while 8/12 were internal. The origin of the fistulous tract was visualised by computer tomography (CT) imaging studies: in 11 patients it was at the body, and in 1 patient at the tail of the pancreas. Single or multiple drainages were positioned under CT guidance. The catheters were left in place for a varying period (0 to 40 d - median 10 and 25th-75th percentile 0-14). In one case external transgastric drainages were left in place for a prolonged time (40 d) due to the presence of vancomycin-resistant bacteria (*Staphylococcus*) and fluconazole-resistant fungi (*Candida*) in the drained fluid. In this latter case systemic and local antibiotic therapy was administered. In both single and two-step techniques, when infection was present, we carried out additional washing with antibiotics to improve the likelihood of the procedure's success. In all cases the endoprosthesis were left *in situ* for a few weeks and endoscopically removed after remission of collections, as ascertained by CT scan. Procedural success rate was 100% as the resolution of external PF was achieved in all cases. There were no peri-procedural complications in any of the patients. The minimum follow-up was 18 mo. In two cases the procedure was repeated after 1 year, due to the onset of new fluid collections and the development of pseudocysts. Indeed, this type of endoprosthesis is routinely employed for the treatment of pseudocysts. Endoscopy was adopted both for control of the positioning of the endoprosthesis in the stomach, and for its removal after resolution of the fistula and fluid collection. The resolution of the external fistula was assessed clinically and CT scan was employed to demonstrate the resolution of peripancreatic collections for both the internal and external fistulae.

CONCLUSION: The percutaneous placement of cystogastrostomy endoprosthesis can be used for the treatment of PF that cannot be treated with other procedures.

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Key words: Pancreas; Pancreatic fistula; Interventional radiology; Pancreatic surgery; Complications

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INTRODUCTION

Postoperative pancreatic fistula (PF) is a possible complication of acute or chronic pancreatitis, partial pancreatectomy, or trauma to the pancreatic duct during upper abdominal surgery, pancreatic biopsy, or blunt abdominal trauma. PF may lead to prolonged hospitalization, increased costs, and mortality. PFs occur in about 10% to 28% of patients who undergo pancreatic resection^[1]. PFs may be internal or external, and therapeutic options for both can be conservative (medical), endoscopic, percutaneous (under radiological guidance), or surgical.

Closure of external PFs is mainly achieved by medical therapy. In selected patients who have failed with less invasive procedures, surgical treatment may be provided, with good results, but also with significant mortality rates^[1]. Improvements in both skill levels and in medical devices, have progressively increased the success rate of endoscopic methods^[2,3]. Nonetheless, some patients must be excluded from these procedures, mainly for technical reasons. In such rare cases, for example when the pancreatic duct cannulation is difficult for anatomical reasons or because of the patient's clinical condition, the percutaneous approach is possible and may be favored.

On the basis of twelve personal cases, we propose a percutaneous radiologically guided technique for treatment of PFs, which can be used when other procedures are not indicated or would be ineffective. This method seems to be extremely helpful in achieving a complete resolution.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients

From 2005 to 2011, 12 patients (9 men and 3 women, mean age 59 years, median 63 years, range 33-78 years) received radiological treatment for high-output PF associated with peripancreatic fluid collection. The percutaneous procedures were performed after at least 4 wk of inconclusive conservative treatments (total parenteral nutrition with nasojejunal tube and administration of somatostatin analogues). All patients underwent abdominal computed tomography scans in order to demonstrate the origin of the fistulous tract and to evaluate the fluid collection. In our series of patients the surgeon, in consultation with the endoscopist, considered cannulation of the pancreatic duct to be contraindicated and decided to try a percutaneous radiological approach.

Table 1 Pancreatic fistula: Characteristics of patients

No.	Sex	Age (yr)	Pathology	Drainage	Dimension (fr)	Time (d)	Endo.	Time (mo)	Proc.
1	M	61	Post-surgery PD	2	8.3	8	2	9	2
2	M	77	Post-surgery PD	2	8.3	10	2	5	2
3	M	66	Post-surgery PD	1	14	0	2	4	2
4	F	78	Post-surgery PD	2	8.3	12	2	5	2
5	M	65	Post-surgery PD	2	10	14	2	6	1
6	F	78	Post-surgery pancreatic tail resection	1	14	0	2	6	2
7	M	41	Post-traumatic	2	14	18	2	6	2
8	M	52	Post-traumatic	1	14	0	2	4	1
9	M	33	Post-traumatic	6	8.3	10	6	6	4
10	F	66	Post-pancreatitis	3	14	40	3	5	4
11	F	60	Post-pancreatitis	3	14	14	2	6	3
12	M	35	Post-pancreatitis	2	10	10	2	6	2

M: Male; F: Female; PD: Pancreatico-duodenectomy; Endo.: Endoprosthesis; Proc.: Procedure; Time (d): Period of left *in situ* of drainages; Time (mo): Period of left *in situ* of endoprosthesis.

Procedure technique

In all patients (Table 1) one or more drains (Flexima, Boston Scientific, Natick, United States) were placed under computer tomography (CT) guidance. Where necessary, the catheters were left in place for mean period of 10 d (range 0-40 d). A minimum of two prostheses (cystogastrostomic 8 Fr double-pigtail, Cook, Bloomington, Indiana, United States in 10 patients; covered Niti-S stent, TaeWoong Medical Co, Seoul, South Korea in 2 patients) were then placed under fluoroscopic guidance and endoscopic control.

All procedures were performed by an expert interventional radiologist. Depending on the dimensions of the fluid collection, we adopted two different possible procedures (Figure 1).

In cases of retrogastric pancreatic fluid collections larger than 2 cm (8 patients), a two-step procedure was adopted (Figure 2A). Initially, 2 to 6 pigtail drains of size from 8.3 (8.3-Pig Duan Cook, Bloomington, Indiana, United States) to 14 Fr (Flexima, Boston Scientific, Natick, United States) were positioned inside the collection using a transgastric approach (Figure 2B and C). In a second procedure, 7-10 d later, two or more endoprotheses (cystogastrostomic 8 Fr double-pigtail, Cook, Bloomington, Indiana, United States in 10 patients; covered Niti-S stent, TaeWoong Medical Co, Seoul, South Korea in 2 patients) were placed between the collection and the gastric lumen.

The first step of the procedure was a trans-gastric CT-guided puncture of the collection using a 18 G Chiba needle (Figure 2B). Through this needle a rigid guide (extra stiff Amplatz 0.035 inch Cook, Bloomington, Indiana, United States) was inserted, and a sufficient number of drains introduced. Correct positioning was verified by

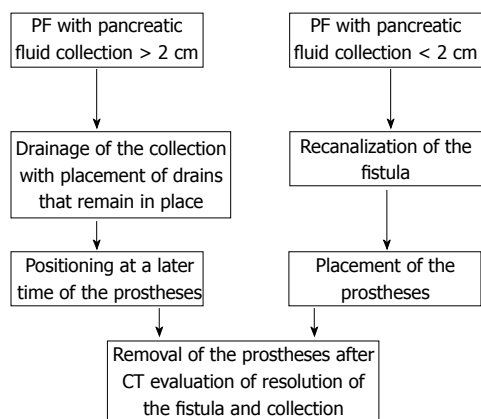


Figure 1 Flow chart of two-step (on the left) and one-step (on the right) procedures. PF: Pancreatic fistula; CT: Computer tomography.

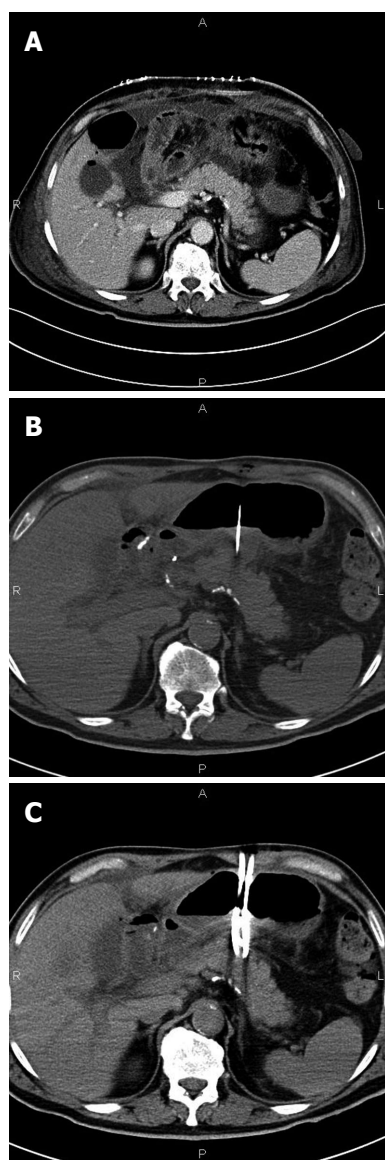


Figure 2 Diagnostic enhanced computer tomography scan (A), and un-enhanced computer tomography scan scans (B, C) performed during interventional procedure. A: Patient developed a pancreatic fistula and abdominal fluid collection after surgery for pancreatic neoplasm; B, C: Percutaneous approach, was then adopted: images show trans-gastric puncture (B) and the access and placement of 2 drains in the collection (C).

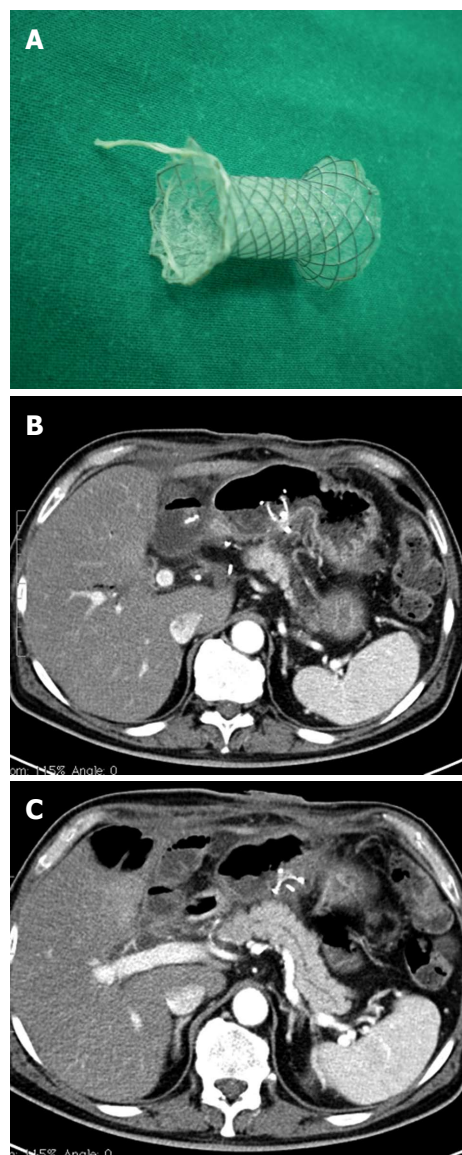


Figure 3 Prosthesis fully extended (Niti-S stent covered, TaeWoong Medical Co., Seoul, South Korea) (A) and enhanced computer tomography scans (B, C) performed after interventional procedure. Images demonstrate prosthesis *in situ* and resolution of peripancreatic collections.

CT scan. Then, the drainage was removed and the prostheses placed under fluoroscopic guidance (Figure 3).

In cases of retrogastric pancreatic fluid collections smaller than 2 cm (4 patients) with external fistulas caused by surgical or percutaneous drainage, a one step procedure was preferred (Figure 4). Through the fistula, an angiographic guide (hydrophilic-curved guidewire 0.035 inch Terumo, Tokyo, Japan) and then an extra-stiff guidewire (Amplatz extra stiff inch 0.035 Boston Scientific, Natick, United States) were inserted. Through this latter guide a TIPSS cannula (transjugular intrahepatic Access set Cook, Bloomington, Indiana, United States) was positioned, the guide removed, and a mandrel inserted.

Then, under fluoroscopic guidance, the cannula was pushed into the gastric lumen, the mandrel removed, and a new guide/s inserted, as described in the literature^[4]. Thus, using a prosthesis, a by-pass is created between the

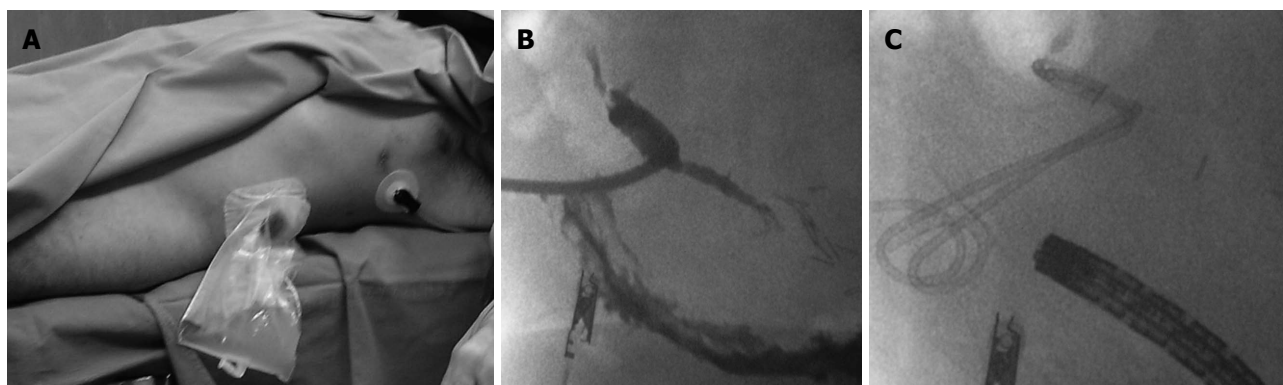


Figure 4 The external fistula opens on the skin surface (A), a catheter has been positioned through the fistula (B) and two prostheses have then been placed through these two guides (C).

origin of the fistula and the lumen of the stomach. The procedure (performed under local anesthesia associated with a mild analgo-sedation Remifentanyl and Midazolam based) was carried out under endoscopic surveillance. Prosthesis positioning follow-up was guided by CT (Figure 3B and C). In all cases, the metal or plastic prostheses were removed within one year after positioning. Recently a new device (Niti-S stent covered, TaeWoong Medical Co., Seoul, South Korea) has been introduced into clinical practice consisting of a self-expandable, coated, removable Nitinol metal stent, spool-shaped, 2 cm long, narrower in the central portion (12 mm) and wider at the ends (29 mm) (Figure 3A). This device, positioned between the collection and the gastric lumen, does not clog simply because it is large. We employed this tool in the last two patients. It will probably replace the plastic prostheses in the treatment of pancreatic fistulas.

RESULTS

The patients' characteristics are shown in Table 1. In all patients, one or more drains were positioned under CT guidance (Table 1). Four of the 12 fistulas were external while 8/12 were internal, all were high-output fistulas. External fistulas occurred in 2 patients with pancreatitis, and in 2 other patients post-surgical drainage. In all patients the CT examination showed a discontinuity of the main pancreatic duct, allowing us to localize the origin site of the fistula: this origin was at the body in 11 patients and at the tail of the pancreas in 1 patient. The catheters were left in place for 0 to 40 d (median 10 and 25th-75th percentile 0-14). The longest period was in a case showing the presence of vancomycin-resistant bacteria (*Staphylococcus*) and fluconazole-resistant fungi (*Candida*) in the drained fluid. In this case systemic and local (via catheter) antibiotic therapy was administered. The endoprosthesis were left *in situ* for few weeks and endoscopically removed after remission of collections, demonstrated by CT scan.

The resolution of external PF was achieved in all cases, and there were no peri-procedural complications. In two cases the procedure was repeated after 1 year us-

ing new external drains, following the onset of pseudocyst and new fluid collections.

DISCUSSION

The percutaneous method we have described, seems to be extremely promising for achieving a complete resolution of PF under radiologic guidance.

Even though PF is a frequent complication of pancreatic resection, its management is still not standardized^[3]. PFs may be internal or external and both result from leakage of pancreatic juice from a disrupted pancreatic duct. External PFs extend from the pancreas (or peripancreatic fluid collection) to the skin surface, and a pancreatic fluid collection is frequently associated with a fistula. On the basis of the amount of secretions, PFs are classified into high-output (> 200 mL per 24 h), and low-output (< 200 mL per 24 h) type^[1].

The choice of treatment depends on the characteristics the patient and the fistula. The overall success rate of the medical approach is high, 68%-100% of cases^[1], and in failed cases, endoscopic treatment has been suggested as a reasonable next step to achieve healing a PF within a few weeks^[4]. Surgical treatment is indicated only for patients who have failed the less invasive attempts and has a success rate of about 90%-92%, but with a significant mortality rate of 6%-9%^[1]. Endoscopic procedures include various drainage techniques, comprehensive cannulation of the injured pancreatic duct and stent positioning. The case studies reported in the literature, however, involve few patients, and success is dependent on the experience of physicians^[2,5].

Some patients are not eligible for the above mentioned treatments, mainly due to technical limitations of endoscopic retrograde cholangio pancreatography, related to duodenal and pancreatic duct stricture or post-surgical anatomy, that make duct cannulation complex or impossible^[6].

In these patients radiological treatment can be considered although not all cases are eligible, as with other minimally invasive methods. The interventional radiologist evaluates each case, and when the access is ad-

equate, may decide to use the method described above, a procedure already well established in cases of pancreatic pseudocyst and characterized by low complication and mortality rates. The prostheses are left in position for a few weeks to allow the normal flow or egress of pancreatic juices into the gut, facilitating the closure of the fistula. In our experience, this technique allows the resolution of the fistula without significant complications. Obviously, the cases treated were few because this procedure is rarely necessary. However, we have described this technique because we believe that it can be a feasible option or may be used in addition to other treatments.

COMMENTS

Background

The pancreatic fistula (PF) is a possible complication, especially in pancreatic surgery, still associated with a significant mortality. In almost all cases, medical therapy leads to healing but problems exist in a few cases. These patients have different treatment options. The procedure described here is an additional alternative that does not exclude other therapeutic options.

Research frontiers

Modern surgery of the pancreas is still burdened with complications, such as fistulas, and the challenge is to reduce resulting mortality. The minimally invasive procedures proposed in the literature are all based on only a few cases. The procedure described here fits into the puzzle of customized treatments.

Innovations and breakthroughs

In selected cases, described in the paper, the authors adopted a treatment previously used in pancreatic pseudocysts for the treatment of patients with PFs. They observed a remission of fistula associated with the drainage of pancreatic fluid within the stomach. So, the procedure described is not "new" but is an innovative employment of a method generally used for pancreatic pseudocyst treatment.

Applications

The technique represents a further option within the framework of minimally invasive procedures of intractable fistulas in selected patients. This procedure does not preclude surgery or other treatments.

Peer review

The manuscript proposes a new technique to solve persistent high-output PF.

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Treatment of Budd-Chiari syndrome with a focus on transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunt

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Author contributions: Neumann AB, Andersen SD and Grønbaek H designed the study; Andersen SD, Nielsen DT and Holland-Fischer P collected the data and later supplemented by Neumann AB; Neumann AB and Grønbaek H analysed the data; Neumann AB, Holland-Fischer P, Vilstrup H and Grønbaek H wrote the paper; and all authors have approved the final version of the manuscript.

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RESULTS: BCS was mainly caused by thrombophilic (33%) or myeloproliferative (19%) disorders. Forty-three percents had symptoms for less than one week with ascites as the most prevalent finding. Fourteen (67%) were treated with TIPS and 7 (33%) were manageable with treatment of the underlying condition and diuretics. The median follow-up time for the TIPS-treated patients was 50 mo (range 15-117 mo), and none required subsequent liver transplantation. Ascites control was achieved in all TIPS patients with a marked reduction in the dose of diuretics. A total of 14 TIPS revisions were needed, mostly of uncovered stents. Two died during follow-up: One non-TIPS patient worsened after 6 mo and died in relation to transplantation, and one TIPS patient died 4 years after the TIPS-procedure, unrelated to BCS.

CONCLUSION: In our BCS cohort TIPS-treated patients have near-complete survival, reduced need for diuretics and compared to historical data a reduced need for liver transplantation.

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Abstract

AIM: To evaluate long-term complications and survival in patients with Budd-Chiari syndrome (BCS) referred to a Danish transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunt (TIPS) centre.

METHODS: Twenty-one consecutive patients from 1997-2008 were retrospectively included [15 women and 6 men, median age 40 years (range 17-66 years)]. Eighteen Danish patients came from the 1.8 million catchment population of Aarhus University Hospital and three patients were referred from Scandinavian hospitals. Management consisted of tests for underlying haematological, endocrinological, or hypercoagulative disorders parallel to initiation of specific treatment of BCS.

Key words: Ascites; Budd-Chiari syndrome; Myeloproliferative disorder; Thrombophilia; Thrombosis; Transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunt

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INTRODUCTION

Budd-Chiari syndrome (BCS) is caused by an obstruction

of the hepatic venous outflow and presents with a variety of clinical patterns from sub-clinical disease to acute liver failure^[1]. The obstruction can occur anywhere from the small hepatic veins to the right atrium of the heart. In western countries, it is most often caused by thrombosis, whereas in Asia and Africa, a membranous obstruction accounts for the majority of cases^[1,2]. Register-based studies from Nordic countries report incidences of 0.5-0.8 per million per year^[3,4].

The hepatic outflow obstruction results in portal hypertension and sinusoidal congestion with ischaemic hepatocyte dysfunction. This causes the dominant clinical features of abdominal pain, hepato- and splenomegaly, ascites, and oesophageal varices and the development of fulminant hepatic failure. In half of BCS patients, symptom duration is less than one month^[5,6].

Due to the rarity of BCS, there are no randomised clinical treatment trials. The usual treatment is a stepwise strategy with anti-coagulants, correction of risk factors, use of diuretics and drugs aiming at the reduction of portal pressure, angioplasty for short-length venous stenoses, transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunt (TIPS), and ultimately liver transplantation^[7,8]. Rapid TIPS treatment with decompression of the portal hypertension and sinusoidal congestion is reported to dramatically change the overall transplant-free survival of BCS patients^[9-13].

The aim of the present study was to present a single-centre long-term clinical experience and outcome of BCS after the establishment of TIPS treatment.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Twenty-one patients with BCS (ICD-10: I82.0) were referred to our department from January 1997 to December 2008. Two patients came from Norway, one from Latvia, and the 18 Danish patients came from the 1.8 million catchment population of Aarhus University Hospital. All data were retrospectively collected from hospital records and laboratory databases.

The immediate clinical management consisted of anticoagulation, diuretics and treatment of any underlying haematological or endocrinological disease. The patients were tested for haematological and hypercoagulable disorders including the JAK2 tyrosine kinase mutation in the most recent cases.

As of January 1997, we implemented TIPS treatment and offered it to the patients who could not be managed by medical treatment. In the early years, bare stents were inserted [Smartstent ($n = 5$) (Cordis Corporation - Johnson and Johnson Medical N.V./S.A., Waterloo, Belgium), Luminexx ($n = 1$), or Memothermstent ($n = 1$) (Bard Denmark AB, Helsingør, Denmark)] and since 2002 the majority of the stents were covered [polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE)-covered Viatorr stents ($n = 8$) (W. L. Gore and Associates GmbH, Putzbrunn, Germany)].

Statistical analysis

Descriptive statistics are presented as median and range. The Kaplan-Meier algorithm was used to describe sur-

Table 1 Aetiology and clinical presentation of Budd-Chiari syndrome patients at baseline

	All patients	Subgroups	
	($n = 21$)	Medical therapy only ($n = 7$)	TIPS ($n = 14$)
Male/female	6/15	3/4	3/11
Age (yr) at first contact, median (range)	40 (17-66)	41 (17-64)	38 (20-66)
Aetiology, n (%)			
Thrombophilia ¹	7 (33)	2	5
Protein C deficiency	1 (5)	0	1
Protein S deficiency	1 (5)	1	0
Factor V Leiden mutation	1 (5)	1	0
Hyperhomocysteinemia	2 (10)	0	2
Paroxysmal nocturnal haemoglobinuria	2 (10)	0	2
Myeloproliferative disorder	4 (19)	2	2
Polycythemia vera	4 (19)	2	2
Other	4 (19)	4	0
Diabetic ketoacidosis	3 (14)	3	0
Angio leiomyosarcoma in caval vena	1 (5)	1	0
Unknown ²	7 (33)	0	7
More than one predisposing risk factors	1 (5) ³	1 ³	0
Clinical presentation, n (%)			
Ascites	15 (71)	3	12
Abdominal pain	14 (67)	6	8
Hepatomegaly	11 (52)	4	7
Jaundice	1 (5)	0	1
Hepatic encephalopathy	1 (5)	0	1
Variceal bleeding	0	0	0

¹13 patients were screened for thrombophilic disorders; ²6 of 7 with unknown risk factors were screened for thrombophilic disorders with negative result; ³This patient suffered from polycythemia vera and had a Factor V Leiden mutation. TIPS: Transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunt.

vival. $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

The diagnosis of BCS was based on imaging techniques supported by clinical, biochemical, and pathological findings. Ultrasound (US) was the primary imaging technique ($n = 18$), followed by computer tomography (CT) ($n = 11$) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) ($n = 1$). One patient had secondary BCS with an angioleiomyosarcoma in the inferior caval vein. Half (54%) of the patients tested had an identifiable hypercoagulable condition.

The dominant clinical presentation was ascites, abdominal pain, and hepatomegaly (Table 1). Seventeen patients (81%) had symptom duration of less than 1 mo, and 9 patients (43%) had symptoms that lasted less than 1 wk.

Fourteen patients (67%) were treated with TIPS and six patients (29%) were controlled with pharmacological therapy. Two patients died during follow-up: One patient was responding well to medical treatment for 6 mo but suddenly developed acute liver failure and died from liver transplantation related complications. The other patient died (71 years old) 4 years after TIPS, from causes unrelated to BCS (multi infarct dementia and lung embolus).

Table 2 Diuretics treatment before and after transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunt treatment

	Before TIPS	After TIPS
Any diuretics treatment (<i>n/n</i>)	13/14	10/14
Furosemide dose [<i>n/n</i> , median (range), mg/d]	12/14 80 (40-240)	3/14 200 (40-240)
Spironolactone dose [<i>n/n</i> , median (range), mg/d]	12/14 175 (25-200)	9/14 100 (25-200)

TIPS: Transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunt.

Twelve of the 14 TIPS patients received anticoagulation therapy, primarily warfarin. The remaining 2 TIPS patients with hyperhomocysteinemia were treated with folic acid supplements and aspirin. In the non-TIPS group, 4 patients with constitutional risk factors were treated with warfarin or aspirin, and the other 3 patients were given anticoagulants for a shorter period (months) or not at all.

TIPS procedure

The 14 patients treated with TIPS experienced no procedure-related complication, and their portocaval pressure gradient was lowered to less than 10 mmHg in all cases (Figure 1). The need for diuretics was substantially reduced or eliminated (*n* = 4) post-TIPS (Table 2).

The TIPS patients were followed up every 6-12 mo with blood tests and ultrasound-Doppler examination to secure TIPS patency. The median follow-up time was 50 mo (range 15-117 mo). The blood tests improved after TIPS and then remained stable (Table 3). The patients' estimated 5-year survival was 88%.

A total of 14 TIPS revisions were needed, 4 of covered stents and 10 of uncovered stents. The revisions were done median 15 mo post-TIPS (range 6-75 mo) and the majority (79%) within the first 24 mo. The patients with covered stents had 0.54 revisions per patient and those with uncovered stents 1.67 per patient. At 24 mo, the stent patency was 63% in the covered stents group *vs* 33% in the bare stents group (*P* = 0.47) (Figure 2).

DISCUSSION

We have reported results from a cohort of 21 BCS patients of which 14 were treated with TIPS and had a 5-year survival rate of 88%. No TIPS patient required liver transplantation. Seven patients were controlled with medical therapy alone and one of them developed liver failure and died in relation to transplantation. Eight TIPS-treated patients required 14 TIPS revisions, mainly during the first 2 years post-TIPS and primarily in bare stents. Our treatment results are comparable with those reported from other centres^[10,13,14].

We estimated an incidence of primary BCS of approximately 0.8 million/year in our region, similar to results noted in register-based Nordic studies^[3,4].

During the median 4 years' follow-up of the cohort of 14 TIPS patients, one patient died of causes unrelated to BCS or TIPS treatment. This survival rate is comparable

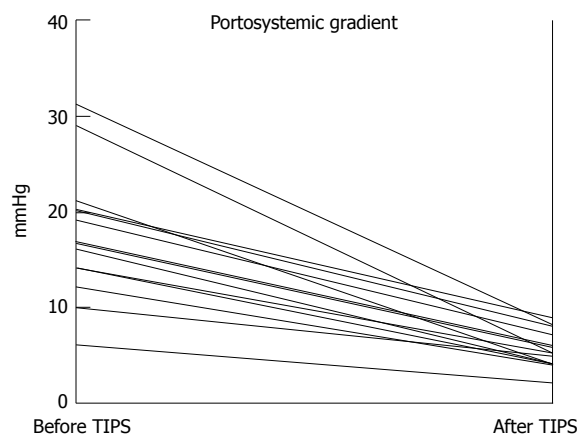


Figure 1 Reductions in portosystemic pressure gradient by transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunt insertion (14 patients). TIPS: Transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunt.

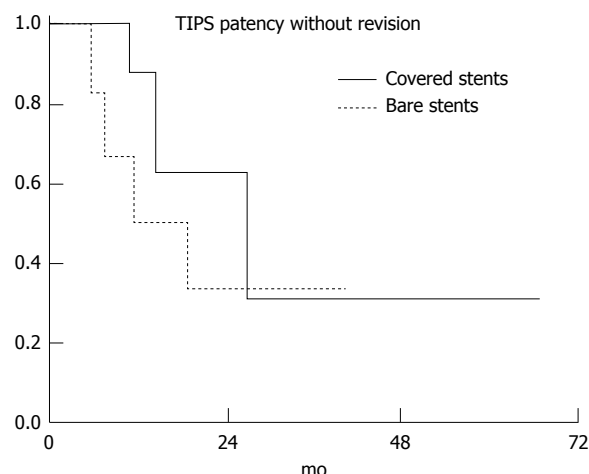


Figure 2 Transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunt patency without interventional revision (Kaplan-Meier method). In the bare stents group 3 patients needed 3 revisions each. More than one revision does not affect the calculation of this graph, thus the total need of revisions in the bare stents group is considerably underestimated in this graphic representation (*P* = 0.47). TIPS: Transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunt.

to other studies with 1-year survival rates within the range of 71%-93%^[9,13-15]. Two studies reported 4- and 5-year survival rates of 93% and 74%, respectively^[10,14], similar to our estimated 5-year survival rate of 88%. These high survival rates notably contrasts the poor historical untreated survival rate of only four years, 40 years ago^[16].

Stent patency is an important aspect of TIPS treatment, not at least in the BCS patients. We found that the introduction of the PTFE covered stents doubled the 2-year TIPS patency rate, from 33% to 63%. Another study reported an even larger increase, from 12% to 56%^[17]. With the covered stents, the long-term TIPS patency in BCS seems to be the same as in cirrhosis patients^[18]. Previous TIPS treatment does not influence patient or graft survival in BCS patients undergoing liver transplantation due to acute liver failure^[19]. The introduction of TIPS has markedly reduced the need for donor livers for BCS patients, thus saving these grafts for other patients^[11,20].

Table 3 Biochemical changes before transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunt and during follow up

	Reference interval	Before TIPS	6 mo	12 mo	24 mo	36 mo
<i>n</i>		14	11	11	11	10
Alanine aminotransaminase (U/L)	(10-70) (M)/(10-45) (F)	73 (15-533)	41 (23-66)	34 (22-62)	42 (19-58)	35 (11-77)
Bilirubin (μmol/L)	5-25	35 (10-86)	28 (10-50)	27 (4-94)	25 (12-152)	21 (14-85)
Alkaline phosphatase (U/L)	35-105	180 (22-1105)	182 (86-391)	186 (94-461)	154 (88-358)	154 (89-349)
Albumin (μmol/L)	542-722	466 (331-711)	595 (439-707)	601 (554-714)	605 (532-684)	622 (497-727)
Creatinine (μmol/L)	(60-105) (M)/(45-90) (F)	76 (19-119)	71 (51-106)	69 (49-98)	71 (47-98)	59 (45-86)

Results are given as median (range). M: Male reference values, F: Female reference values; TIPS: Transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunt.

Symptom duration in BCS is often short^[21], and the condition may rapidly deteriorate^[22]. Therefore, and because of the complexity of correct BCS diagnosis and treatment, we suggest that patients with newly developed tense ascites in a previous liver healthy subject should immediately be referred to a liver transplant centre with TIPS experience.

Non-invasive imaging techniques (US, CT or MRI), and especially US, are excellent tools in most cases for the diagnosis of BCS^[23-25]. The diagnostic finding is absence of flow in the hepatic veins and enlargement of the caudate lobe. US and/or CT were the primary diagnostic imaging method used for the majority of patients in the present study. A liver biopsy is not necessary for diagnosis in classic cases but will exhibit centrilobular fibrosis or necrosis, congestion, distended sinusoids, and in long standing cases bridging fibrosis or cirrhosis^[7,23]. Invasive procedures with hepatic venography may visualise the extent of hepatic vein obstruction^[25,26].

The most common aetiologies to BCS are haematologic or thrombophilic disorders that result in a thrombotic state. Only 7 of 21 patients (33%) did not present such identified aetiologic features and one patient had more than one aetiology. This supports current recommendations for a full and systematic haematologic and thrombophilic work-up in all patients, even if one primary risk factor is identified^[6]. Our proportion of BCS without identified aetiology may partly be due to the limited diagnostic tools available in the beginning of the study period (e.g., no detection of the JAK2 mutation). A complete testing repertoire has reduced the proportion of BCS without aetiology from 30% to 5%-15% and there is often identified more than one risk factor^[27,28]. In a large series of 160 patients, at least one thrombophilic disorder was identified in 84%, and 46% presented with 2 or more disorders. Overt myeloproliferative disease or the JAK2 mutation, a marker for latent myeloproliferative disease, was present in 39% of patients. Oral contraceptives and systemic diseases may also be involved^[6].

Because of this frequent occurrence of such thrombotic risk factors, anti-coagulative treatment is currently recommended for all patients in absence of major contraindications^[7]. However, there is still little direct evidence to support the efficacy of the treatment. One historical study showed an increase in 5-year-survival rate from 50% to 75% from 1970 to 1985 and attributed the increase to the introduction of oral anticoagulation ther-

apy^[29]. In our study, all the 17 patients with constitutional risk factors received permanent anticoagulation therapy.

In conclusion, the rare and life-threatening disease BCS can in most cases be treated with rapid establishment of a TIPS, leading to a very satisfactory survival probability and much reduced need for liver transplantation. Therefore, patients suspected of BCS, including patients with acute tense unexplained ascites, should be referred without delay to a liver centre with a TIPS programme.

COMMENTS

Background

Budd-Chiari syndrome (BCS) typically affects younger to middle aged persons (median age 40 years). BCS is present when the blood drainage from the liver is obstructed, most often caused by thrombosis. The disease is rare (approximately 1 per million per year) but historically has had a grave prognosis with an expected median survival of 1 year after the diagnosis. Over the last decades survival has improved drastically as new medical and interventional treatment options have been introduced.

Research frontiers

Transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunt (TIPS) was introduced to treat patients with cirrhosis and portal hypertension. Several studies have reported promising results with the use of TIPS in BCS patients as alternative to shunt surgery or liver transplantation when the disease is not controlled by medical treatment alone.

Innovations and breakthroughs

TIPS has been used since 1990s and reports of long-term results show promising results. In the early days bare metal stents were used but often complicated by stent thrombosis with need for intervention. The introduction of covered stents has improved long-term stent patency and reduced the need for interventions.

Applications

The study support the growing evidence that TIPS in BCS show stable long-term results as qualified by liver function test and ultrasonography. BCS patients must be evaluated by a multidisciplinary team with expertise in vascular liver disorders, including transplant surgeons. No randomized controlled trials exist so data are based on descriptive cohort studies and expert recommendations.

Peer review

It is an important report on the TIPS experience in BCS and is well-written.

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Hepatitis B reactivation related to everolimus

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Abstract

Reactivation of hepatitis B virus (HBV) during chemotherapy is a well known complication in patients with chronic hepatitis B and cancer. The clinical manifestations range from subclinical elevation of liver enzymes to severe, potentially fatal fulminant hepatitis. Reactivation can occur in a patient with previous inactive HBV infection; either an inactive carrier or a patient with resolved hepatitis. Everolimus is a mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) inhibitor approved in renal cell carcinoma, neuroendocrine tumours and breast cancer. mTOR inhibitors are a new generation of drugs for targeted treatment; therefore, little about their side effects is known. Here, we report a patient with renal cell carcinoma who experienced a flare of hepatitis B infection during treatment with everolimus. Clinicians should be aware of HBV reactivation in patients who are undergoing treatment with everolimus, and screening for hepatitis B infection and prophylactic antiviral treatment should be considered.

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Key words: Hepatitis B; Virus reactivation; Everolimus; Mammalian target of rapamycin inhibitors; Immunosuppressive treatment; Renal cell carcinoma

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INTRODUCTION

Reactivation of hepatitis B virus (HBV) during chemotherapy is a well known complication in patients with chronic hepatitis B and cancer. The clinical manifestations range from subclinical elevation of liver enzymes to severe, potentially fatal fulminant hepatitis^[1]. Mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) inhibitors are a new generation of drugs for targeted treatment; however, little of their side-effects is known. As a result of their immunosuppressive properties, the mTOR inhibitors are associated with treatment-related infections. In Europe, the product information for everolimus warns patients about the risk of HBV reactivation, because this occurred in some patients taking everolimus^[2]. Here, we report a case of renal cell carcinoma (RCC) in a patient who experienced a flare of hepatitis B during treatment with everolimus.

CASE REPORT

A 49-year-old man who had undergone partial nephrectomy in 2008 was diagnosed with RCC. He had been diagnosed as an inactive carrier of HBV more than 5 years previously. RCC progressed to lung and axillary lymph node metastasis in December, 2010. He was treated with bevacizumab 10 mg/kg every 2 wk, and interferon α 9 MU three times per week. He had partial remission in March, 2011 and continued treatment. He developed hypertension and did not want to continue bevacizumab and interferon in May, 2011. Computed tomography showed progression of lung metastasis in June 2011, and he started treatment with sunitinib 50 mg/d for 4 wk and 2 wk off. He had further progression in January, 2012 and was treated with everolimus, 10 mg/d. He had no further clinical and radiological progression. His liver enzymes

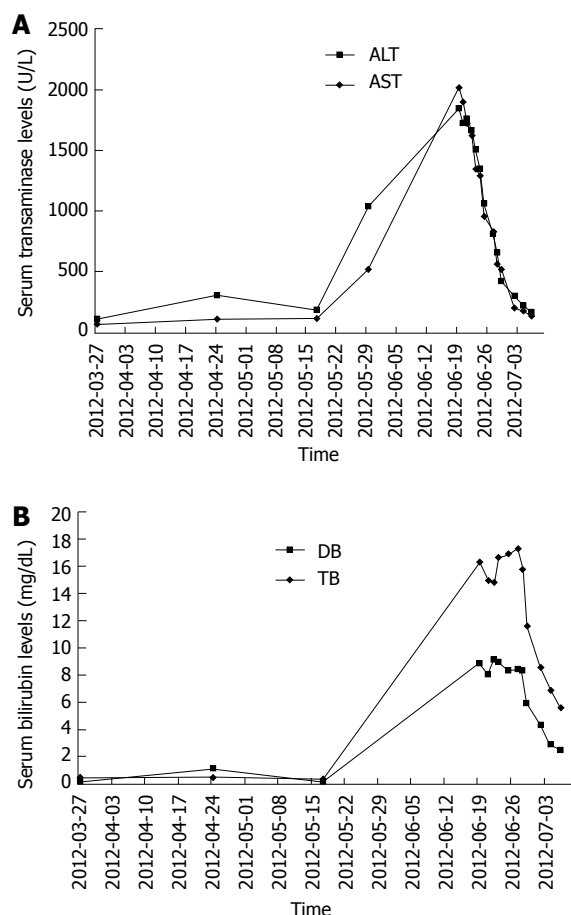


Figure 1 Serum transaminase (A) and bilirubin (B) levels of the hepatitis B virus reactivation patient. Everolimus treatment was initiated in January, 2012. ALT: Alanine aminotransferase; AST: Aspartate aminotransferase; DB: Direct bilirubin; TB: Total bilirubin.

were elevated in March, 2012 [aspartate aminotransferase (AST) 76 U/L, alanine aminotransferase (ALT) 115 U/L]. He continued everolimus treatment. One month later, liver enzyme levels continued to increase [AST 111 U/L, ALT 306 U/L, total bilirubin (TB)/direct bilirubin 0.39/0.1 mg/dL] and he was offered to continue everolimus with a dose reduction to 5 mg/d. At the end of May 2012, liver enzymes had increased to nearly 25-fold of the upper limits (AST 522 U/L, ALT 1038 U/L). Serological tests showed that the patient was positive for hepatitis B surface antigen. He was not using any other drugs that could have caused hepatitis reactivation. Treatment with everolimus was stopped immediately and he was referred to a gastroenterologist. He started treatment with an oral nucleoside analogue, tenofovir. Ten days later, he was submitted to another hospital with nausea, asthenia, and jaundice. Laboratory findings showed elevated AST (2014 U/L), ALT (1841 U/L), and TB (16.3 mg/dL). Prothrombin time was 14.8 s. HBV DNA level had markedly increased to 1.26×10^9 copies/mL. Hepatitis D virus DNA was negative. He continued treatment with tenofovir. Ultrasound imaging of the liver showed no metastatic disease. The liver enzyme levels decreased after 20 d and he was discharged from hospital.

DISCUSSION

Reactivation of hepatitis B is defined as the recurrence or an abrupt rise in HBV replication by at least an increase in serum HBV DNA levels of 1 log₁₀, often with an increase in serum transaminase levels (at least three-fold greater than the baseline, Figure 1). Reactivation can occur in a patient with a previous inactive HBV infection; either an inactive carrier or a patient with resolved hepatitis^[3]. A recent annual nationwide survey confirmed that HBV reactivation related to immunosuppressive therapy is increasing in patients with malignant lymphoma, other haematological malignancies, solid tumours or rheumatological disease^[1].

Everolimus is one of the newer targeted therapies approved for the management of RCC. Our clinical experience with this agent is limited. Data from clinical trials show that everolimus is associated with treatment-related infections. The European product information for everolimus states that some patients experience hepatitis B reactivation during treatment^[2]. To our knowledge, no such case has been reported in the literature. Elevations of liver enzymes have also been reported during everolimus treatment, but grade 3/4 elevations of transaminase and bilirubin occurred in < 1% of patients^[4]. Viral hepatitis should be considered in the differential diagnosis of patients with elevated liver enzymes, even if there is no history of viral infection.

Since everolimus and sirolimus (another mTOR inhibitor) are also used as immunosuppressive agents after liver transplantation^[5,6], possible reactivation of hepatitis B in patients with chronic hepatitis should be monitored.

Hepatitis B reactivation by chemotherapy is a well-known phenomenon. Use of corticosteroids and certain chemotherapeutic agents, including anthracyclines, cyclophosphamide and vinca alkaloids, is associated with HBV reactivation^[7]. A similar phenomenon has been reported for temazolamide^[8] and gemcitabine^[9]. Molecular-targeted agents can also cause HBV reactivation. Rituximab-related HBV reactivation in patients with non-Hodgkin's lymphoma is well-established^[10]. HBV reactivation during treatment with imatinib^[11] and alemtuzumab^[12] has also been reported.

Previous studies have shown that the risk of HBV reactivation can be greatly reduced by the use of prophylactic nucleoside analogues in susceptible patients^[13]. Lamivudine has proven efficacy and safety in preventing HBV reactivation related to chemotherapy. However, a major problem with prolonged usage of lamivudine is the possibility of viral breakthrough following the emergence of treatment-resistant HBV variants^[14]. New generation oral nucleoside analogues, such as entecavir or tenofovir, exhibit high potency and low rates of resistance. These drugs are thought to be effective for treatment of HBV reactivation^[1].

Here, we report a patient with reactivation of hepatitis B related to treatment with everolimus. Clinicians should be aware of HBV reactivation in patients who are undergoing everolimus treatment, and screening for

hepatitis B and prophylactic antiviral treatment should be considered.

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Volume with supplement

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Statistical data

Write as mean \pm SD or mean \pm SE.

Statistical expression

Express *t* test as *t* (in italics), *F* test as *F* (in italics), chi square test as χ^2 (in Greek), related coefficient as *r* (in italics), degree of freedom as *ν* (in Greek), sample number as *n* (in italics), and probability as *P* (in italics).

Units

Use SI units. For example: body mass, *m* (B) = 78 kg; blood pressure, *p* (B) = 16.2/12.3 kPa; incubation time, *t* (incubation) = 96 h; blood glucose concentration, *c* (glucose) 6.4 ± 2.1 mmol/L; blood CEA mass concentration, *p* (CEA) = 8.6 24.5 μg/L; CO₂ volume fraction, 50 mL/L CO₂, not 5% CO₂; likewise for 40 g/L formaldehyde, not 10% formalin; and mass fraction, 8 ng/g, *etc.* Arabic numerals such as 23, 243, 641 should be read 23 243 641.

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Italics

Quantities: *t* time or temperature, *c* concentration, *A* area, *l* length, *m* mass, *V* volume.

Genotypes: *gyrA*, *arg 1*, *c myc*, *c fos*, *etc.*

Restriction enzymes: *EcoRI*, *HindI*, *BamHI*, *Kho I*, *Kpn I*, *etc.*

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