

Complications of Portal Hypertension: Ascites, GI bleeding and Hepatic Encephalopathy

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Liver Anatomy

- Blood Supply
 - Portal Vein
 - ▶ Formed from the splenic vein and superior mesenteric vein
 - Brings nutrient rich blood from the gut
 - ► Comprises 60-80% of the blood flow to the liver
 - ► Hepatic Artery
 - Arterial blood supply
 - Carries oxygen rich blood to the liver
 - ▶ Comprises 25% of the blood flow to the liver
 - ► Hepatic Vein
 - Drains blood from the liver to the inferior vena cava then to the heart

Liver Anatomy



Cirrhosis

- Cirrhosis \rightarrow the end stage of any chronic liver disease

- Two major syndromes result
 - ► Portal hypertension
 - ► Hepatic insufficiency
- Many definitions but common theme is injury, repair, regeneration and scarring



Alterations in Microvasculature in Cirrhosis

- Activation of stellate cells
- Collagen deposition in space of Disse
- Constriction of sinusoids
- Defenestration of sinusoids





Etiologies of Chronic Liver Disease

- Viral
 - Hepatitis B
 - ► Hepatitis C
- ► Toxic
 - Alcohol, MTX
- Metabolic
 - Non Alcoholic Fatty Liver disease (NAFLD)
- ► Biliary
 - ► PSC
 - ► PBC

- Genetic/Hereditary
 - Hemochromatosis
 - Wilson's Disease
 - Alpha 1 Antitrypsin
 - Inborn errors of metabolism
- Others
 - ► Autoimmune Hepatitis
 - Congestive hepatopathy (aka Cardiac Cirrhosis)
 - Cystic Fibrosis

Complications of Cirrhosis Result from Portal Hypertension or Liver Insufficiency





Natural History of Chronic Liver Disease





Portal Hypertension

As pressure increases, blood flow decreases and the pressure in the portal system is transmitted to its branches

Results in dilation of venous tributaries

Increased blood flow through collaterals and subsequently increased venous return cause an increase in cardiac output and total blood volume and a decrease in systemic vascular resistance

With progression of disease, blood pressure usually falls

An Increase in Portal Venous Inflow Sustains Portal Hypertension



Portal Hypertension



Complications of Cirrhosis and Portal Hypertension

- Ascites
- ► Variceal bleeding
- Hepatic encephalopathy
- Spontaneous bacterial peritonitis
- Hepatorenal syndrome
- * 5-year survival with onset of any of the above: 20-50% compared to compensated cirrhotics





Figure 41-6 Clinical effects of cirrhosis of the liver. (From Bullock BL: Pathophysiology: Adaptations and Alterations in Function [4th Ed], Philadelphia, Lippincott-Raven, 1996.)

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Clinical Manifestation of Chronic Liver Disease

of Chronic Liver Disease





Clinical Manifestations of Portal Hypertension



Clinical Manifestations of Chronic Liver Disease



Bitemporal Wasting

Others:

- . Testicular atrophy
- . Asterixis
- Fetor hepaticus
- Encephalopathy



Parotid Enlargement

- Develops in the cirrhotic patient as the PH worsens and there is transudation of fluid from the liver to the peritoneal cavity
- Development of hyperdynamic circulation marked by splanchnic and peripheral vasodilatation and increased cardiac output
- Blood flow to other organs reduced due to vasoconstriction (kidneys, muscles, brain)
- Renal perfusion falls and there is release of renin and aldosterone leading to renal sodium retention

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Cirrhosis





Cirrhosis (85%)

- Most common cause of ascites
- Most common complication of cirrhosis
- Survival 5 years after the development of ascites is 50%
- Difficult to treat ascites survival 40-60% in two years





Other causes of ascites

- Malignancy (10%)
- ► Cardiac (3%)
- ► TB (2%)
- ► Pancreatic Ascites(1%)
- Kidney disease (nephrotic syndrome)

Diagnosis: ► Physical examination Bulging flanks Shifting dullness ► Fluid wave ▶ Ultrasound Diagnostic Paracentesis SAAG (serum albumin-ascitic fluid albumin gradient)

Ultrasound is the Most Sensitive Method to Detect Ascites





Initial Workup of Ascites Diagnostic Paracentesis



Diagnostic Paracentesis

Indications

- New-onset ascites
- Admission to hospital
- Symptoms/signs of SBP
- Renal dysfunction
- Unexplained encephalopathy

Contraindications

• None







High albumin gradient (SAAG \geq 1.1 g/dL)

Cirrhosis

Alcoholic hepatitis

Congestive heart failure

Massive hepatic metastases

Congestive heart failure/constrictive pericarditis

Budd-Chiari syndrome

Low albumin gradient (SAAG <1.1 g/dL)

Peritoneal carcinomatosis Peritoneal tuberculosis Pancreatitis Serositis Nephrotic syndrome

Management of Uncomplicated Ascites

Definition: Ascites responsive to diuretics in the absence of infection and renal dysfunction

Sodium restriction

- Effective in 10-20% of cases
- Predictors of response: mild or moderate ascites, Urine Na excretion > 50 mEq/day

Diuretics

- Should be spironolactone-based
- A progressive schedule (spironolactone → furosemide) requires fewer dose adjustments than a combined therapy (spironolactone + furosemide)

Management of Uncomplicated Ascites

Sodium Restriction

- 2 g (or 5.2 g of dietary salt) a day
- Fluid restriction is not necessary unless there is hyponatremia (<125 mmol/L)
- Goal: negative sodium balance
- Side effect: unpalatability may compromise nutritional status

Management of Uncomplicated Ascites

Diuretic Therapy

Dosage

- Spironolactone 100-400 mg/day
- Furosemide (40-160 mg/d) for inadequate weight loss or if hyperkalemia develops
- Increase diuretics if weight loss <1 kg in the first week and < 2 kg/week thereafter
- Decrease diuretics if weight loss >0.5 kg/day in patients without edema and >1 kg/day in those with edema
- Side effects

 Renal dysfunction, hyponatremia, hyperkalemia, encephalopathy, gynecomastia

Definition and Types of Refractory Ascites

Occurs in ~10% of cirrhotic patients

• Diuretic-intractable ascites 80%

Therapeutic doses of diuretics cannot be achieved because of diuretic-induced complications

• Diuretic-resistant ascites 20%

No response to maximal diuretic therapy (400 mg spironolactone + 160 mg furosemide/day)


Treatment of Ascites







Ascites Related Complications

- Spontaneous Bacterial Peritonitis
- Hepatorenal Syndrome
- Hepatic Hydrothorax
- Abdominal Hernias

Hepatic Hydrothorax

- ► May occur in up to 12 % of patients with cirrhosis
- Most at right side and unilateral
- 9% may not have clinical ascites
- Fluid originates in the peritoneal cavity and is drawn through diaphragm defects by the negative intrathoracic pressure at inspiration
- Serum to pleural fluid albumin gradient > 1.1 is suggestive of HH
- Patients with HH have poor prognosis and should be considered for OLT
- Refractory HH is best treated with TIPS or OLT
- Chest tubes are associated with high mortality and should be avoided

Hepatic Hydrothorax

- Accumulation of fluid within the pleural space in association with cirrhosis and in the absence of 1ry pulmonary or cardiac disease.
- Usually right-sided
- Typically associated with clinically apparent ascites, but can be found in patients without ascites.



Abdominal Hernias

- Umbilical hernias develop in approximately 20% of patients with cirrhosis
- Increased abdominal pressure, weakened abdominal muscles and poor nutrition can lead to rapid enlarging hernias
- Patients who are candidates for OLT in the near future should defer hernia repair until during or after transplantation.
- If elective herniography is considered, clinically apparent ascites should be controlled
- Emergent surgery for ruptured or strangulated hernia in a patient with cirrhosis should be performed by a surgeon who is experienced in the care of patient with cirrhosis in consultation with a hepatologist for post operative care and management.

Spontaneous Bacterial Peritonitis (SBP)

- Infection of previously sterile ascitic fluid without an apparent intraabdominal infection.
- Epidemiology:
 - Occurs in 10-30% of inpatient cirrhotics and <4% of outpatient cirrhotics.
- Pathophysiology:
 - . Suspected bacterial translocation via gut

Spontaneous Bacterial Peritonitis (SBP) Complicates Ascites and Can Lead to Renal Dysfunction



Early Diagnosis of SBP

- Diagnostic paracentesis:
 - If symptoms / signs of SBP occur
 - Unexplained encephalopathy and / or renal dysfunction
 - At any hospital admission
- Diagnosis based on ascitic fluid PMN count >250/mm³

Treatment of Spontaneous Bacterial Peritonitis

- Recommended antibiotics for initial empiric therapy
 - i.v. cefthriaxone or cefotaxime
 - If MDRO are prevalent consider carbapenems
 - avoid aminoglycosides
- Minimum duration: 5 days
- Re-evaluation if ascitic fluid PMN count has not decreased by at least 25% after 2 days of treatment
- Phrophylaxis for prevention of recurrence????



- Most devastating complication of cirrhosis and portal hypertension
- Common complication of cirrhosis and PH
 - ► 30-50% of patients develop varices
- ► High mortality 15-20% at six weeks
- ► High risk of recurrent bleeding 62% at two years
- Severity and prognosis associated to several factors
 - Extreme elevation of HVPG > 20 mmHg
 - Degree of liver failure
 - Prognosis worse with massive bleeding

- ► Increase in portal pressure
 - Hepatic vein pressure gradient HVPG has to be above 10 mmHg for the formation of varices
- With time varices grow and their walls become thinner, until they finally break and bleed (wall tension)
- Most common site is gastro-esophageal junction area





Varices Increase in Diameter Progressively







Variceal hemorrhage Varix w Predictors of hemorrhage:

- Variceal size
- Red signs
- Child B/C





Variceal hemorrhage Varix w Predictors of hemorrhage:

- Variceal size
- Red signs
- Child B/C









Varix with red wale sign

Management of acute variceal bleeding

- Control of bleeding
- Prevent early re-bleeding
- Correct and avoid concomitant complications
- Initial Management:
 - Airway, Breathing and Circulation
 - Intensive care unit setting
 - Placement of large bore IV lines
 - Blood products

- Therapy for control of bleeding
 - Vasoactive drug therapy
 - Selection of drug mainly depends on availability
 - Octreotide, somatostatin, telipressin
- Endoscopic band ligation is the endoscopic therapy of choice over sclerotherapy in acute variceal bleeding
- Rescue therapies
 - Balloon tamponade
 - TIPS (Transjugular intra-hepatic porto-systemic shunt)
 - Surgical shunts



Bleeding esophageal varix A jet of active bleeding is visible from an esophageal varix in a patient with cirrhosis. Bleeding from esophageal varices can be massive. Courtesy of Rome Jutabha, MD.



Esophageal varix band ligation Endoscopy shows two varices in the distal esophagus that have been banded. The bands are indicated with the green arrows. The two strings in the right of the field control the trigger device used to deploy the bands. Courtesy of Laurence Bailen, MD.



Endoscopic Variceal Band Ligation

- Bleeding controlled in 90%
- Rebleeding rate 30%
- Compared with sclerotherapy:
 - Less rebleeding
 - Lower mortality
 - Fewer complications
 - Fewer treatment sessions





Transjugular Intrahepatic Portosystemic Shunt

Splenic vein

Superior mesenteric vein



Hepatic

TIPS

Portal vein

vein

Prevention of other complications

- Antibiotic prophylaxis to avoid frequent infections
 - ▶ SBP (50%), UTI (25%), pneumonia (25%)
 - Antibiotics should be given to <u>all</u> patients from admission
 - Quinolones are frequently used
- Watch for signs of hepatic encephalopathy
- Renal failure is frequent and carries poor prognosis
- Primary prophylaxis:
 - Diagnostic endoscopy in all patients with cirrhosis
 - Band ligation vs. B-blockers therapy

Prophylaxis of Variceal Hemorrhage





Hepatic Encephalopathy



Hepatic Encephalopathy

- ► Reversible decrease in neurologic function
 - May be subtle from sleep disturbance to outright coma with focal neurologic signs
- Common complication of end stage chronic liver disease
- Minimal hepatic encephalopathy MHE affects 50-80% of those tested
 - Requires specialized psychometric and neuro-physiological tests

Pathophysiology of Hepatic Encephalopathy

- Nitrogenous substances derived from the gut adversely affect brain function
- Ammonia is the best known metabolite associated with HE
- Compounds gain access to the systemic circulation via decreased metabolism in liver and/or portosystemic shunts
- Experimental models describe derangements in glutamine, serotonin, GABA, and catecholamine metabolism.



Hepatic Encephalopathy

- ► History and physical exam
 - Exclude other etiologies for symptoms
 - Confirm chronic liver disease
 - Focal neurological deficits
- Often a precipitating factor
 - Gastrointestinal bleeding
 - ► Infection
 - Volume depletion/dehydration
 - Hyponatremia
 - ► TIPS or surgical procedures
 - Drugs: sedatives and narcotics

TABLE 3. PRECIPITATING FACTORS FOR OHE BY DECREASING FREQUENCY

EPISODIC	RECURRENT
Infections*	Electrolyte disorder
GI bleeding	Infections
Diuretic overdose	Unidentified
Electrolyte disorder	Constipation
Constipation	Diuretic overdose
Unidentified	GI bleeding

Modified from Strauss E, da Costa MF. The importance of bacterial infections as precipitating factors of chronic hepatic encephalopathy in cirrhosis. Hepatogastroenterology 1998;45:900-904. *More recent unpublished case series confirm the dominant role of infections.

TABLE 4. DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF HE

Overt HE or acute confusional state

Diabetic (hypoglycemia, ketoacidosis, hyperosmolar, lactate acidosis)

Alcohol (intoxication, withdrawal, Wernicke)

Drugs (benzodiazepines, neuroleptics, opioids)

Neuroinfections

Electrolyte disorders (hyponatremia and hypercalcemia)

Nonconvulsive epilepsy

Psychiatric disorders

Intracranial bleeding and stroke

Severe medical stress (organ failure and inflammation)

Other presentations

Dementia (primary and secondary)

Brain lesions (traumatic, neoplasms, normal pressure hydrocephalus)

Obstructive sleep apnea

Hyponatremia and sepsis can both produce encephalopathy per se and precipitate HE by interactions with the pathophysiological mechanisms. In end-stage liver disease, uremic encephalopathy and HE may overlap.

Hepatic Encephalopathy Is A Clinical Diagnosis

- Clinical findings and history important
- Ammonia levels are unreliable
- Ammonia has poor correlation with diagnosis
- Measurement of ammonia not necessary
- Number connection test
- Slow dominant rhythm on EEG

Hepatic Encephalopathy Clinical features

- Reversal of sleep pattern
- Disturbed consciousness
- Personality changes
- Intellectual deterioration
- ► Fetor hepaticus
- Astrexis
- ► Fluctuating






Stages of Hepatic Encephalopathy

Stage Mental state

1 Mild confusion: limited attention span, irritability, inverted sleep pattern

Neurologic signs

Incoordination, tremor, impaired handwriting

- 2 Drowsiness, personality changes, intermittent disorientation
- 3 Somnolent, gross disorientation, marked confusion, slurred speech
- 4 Coma

Asterixis, ataxia, dysarthria

Hyperreflexia, muscle rigidity, Babinski sign

No response to pain, decerebrate posture





Treatment of Hepatic Encephalopathy

- Identify and treat precipitating factor
 - Infection
 - GI hemorrhage
 - Pre-renal azotemia
 - Sedatives
 - Constipation
- Lactulose (adjust to 2-3 bowel movements/day)
- Protein restriction, short-term (if at all)

Hepatic Encephalopathy Precipitants





Hepatic Encephalopathy

► First line therapy is lactulose/bowel catharsis

- Theoretically lactulose acidifies bowel and prevents NH3 absorption
- Non absorbable ABX
 - ▶ Rifaximin
 - ► Non-absorbable antibiotic
 - Slowly becoming mainstream therapy
 - Metronidazole and neomycin
 - ► No significant role has been proven in clinical trials

Hepatic Encephalopathy Treatment: Summary

Shunt occlusion or reduction

Decrease ammonia production in gut:

Flumazenil

- Lactulose
- Antibiotics
- Adjustment in dietary protein