PHARMACY & ACUTE CARE UNIVERSITY



Acute Complications of Cirrhosis

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Objectives

• Discuss the etiology, classification, and pathophysiology of cirrhosis

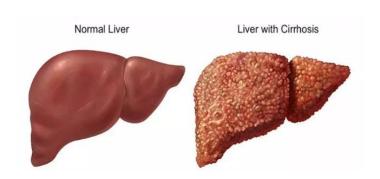
Review complications of cirrhosis

• Examine treatment modalities for complications of cirrhosis



Background

- Severe, chronic, progressive fibrosis due to chronic injury, leading to liver failure and associated complications
- 11th leading cause of death of adults in the United States in 2020
 - 4.5 million adults diagnosed with liver disease (1.8% of the population)
 - Likely an underestimation of the burden of disease



Ge PS, et al. Treatment of Patients with Cirrhosis. N Engl J Med. 2016.



Epidemiology & Health Disparities

 Non-Hispanic Black Americans Race Mexican Americans Income Below poverty level Education • 12th grade or less Diabetes Comorbidities Elderly



Causes

- Most common causes in the US:
 - Alcohol Use Disorder
 - Viral Hepatitis (Hepatitis B and C)
 - Fatty Liver Disease
 - Nonalcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH)
 - Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD)
- These causes account for approximately 80% of the patients on the liver transplant waitlist between 2003-2014
 - Second longest organ waitlist in the United States (second to kidney transplantation)



Additional Causes

Infection

Autoimmune

Hemochromatosis

Medications



Categorizing Cirrhosis

Compensated

- No clinical s/sx of cirrhosis
- May be unaware of diagnosis

Decompensated

- Portal hypertension
- Ascites
- Spontaneous bacterial peritonitis
- Etc.



Mortality

- Much higher in those with cirrhosis
 - 26.4% per two-year interval in those with cirrhosis versus 8.4% in propensity matched controls
- Significant differences when comparing compensated and decompensated cirrhosis
 - Risk of death:
 - Compensated: 4.7 times higher than the general population
 - Decompensated: 9.7 times higher than the general population
 - <u>Life expectancy</u>:
 - Compensated: 10-13 years
 - Decompensated: as little as 2 years



Financial Burden

- Continuing to rise due to cirrhosis and associated complications requiring hospitalization
 - Estimated direct and indirect costs to be in the billions
 - As hospitalizations go up, so does the cost burden on the healthcare system
- Extended length of stay, medications, and need for emergent procedures all increase cost in this patient population
- Chronic liver disease patients have also been shown to have
 - Longer admissions
 - More readmissions
 - Less access to care than other disease states



Diagnostics & Screening

- Appropriate screenings for unhealthy alcohol use, binge drinking, and alcohol use disorder
 - Alcohol Use Disorders Inventory Test (AUDIT)
 - AUDIT-C (questions 1-3 of AUDIT)
- Biomarkers of alcohol use can be found in urine, hair, or blood
 - NOT recommended to use as tools to "catch" people → open the floor for discussion
 - Patients should always consent to testing



Laboratory Values

Liver Related Enzymes

Laboratory Test	Description	Key Points
Aminotransferases (AST/ALT)	Produced in hepatocytesIndicates hepatocellular injuryRapidly changing	 Inadequate to establish alcohol use AST:ALT ratio > 1 may indicate cirrhosis 2/2 alcohol
Gamma-glutamyl transferase (GGT)	- Enzyme found in cell membranes in spleen and liver tissues	 Frequently elevated in heavy drinking Greater sensitivity than AST for cirrhosis Not specific for alcohol use
Bilirubin	Created through degradation of several heme-containing proteinsNon-specific to liver disease	- Elevations occur in 1later disease, and may indicate more severe cirrhosis



Laboratory Values

Additional Labs

Laboratory Test	Description	Key Points
Albumin	 Produced by the liver in hepatocytes, accounts for 10% of liver protein production daily Provides oncotic pressure in plasma Indicator of nutritional status 	 Lower albumin carries an overall negative prognosis (cirrhosis + other disease states) Should not be supplemented externally (ALBIOS, ATTIRE) for sake of repletion
INR	 Prothrombin time compared to a laboratory normative prothrombin time Designed with vitamin-k antagonists in mind 	 NOT an indication of bleed risk Patients may be in a hypercoagulable state despite elevated INR
Platelets	 Synthesized by the liver Improved prognostic factor for bleeding when compared to INR 	 Can be used as a biomarker for cirrhosis severity, not validated, taking trend and baseline into account



Pathophysiology Overview

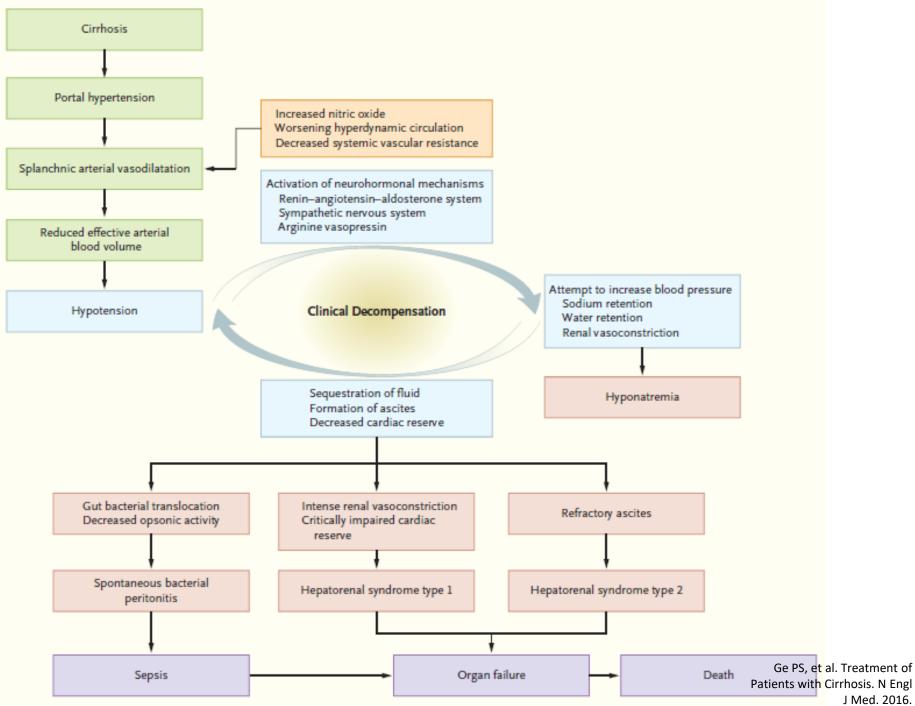
Chronic inflammation

Hepatocyte injury or loss

Fibrosis

Alteration in blood flow

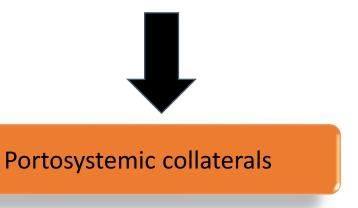


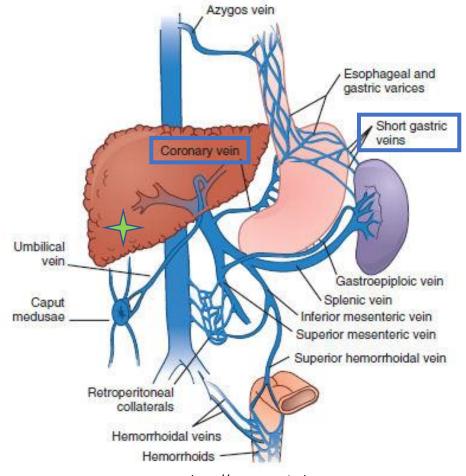




Portal Hypertension

- Increased structural resistance
 - Fibrous tissue
 - Vascular distortion
- Intrahepatic vasoconstriction
 - Decreased nitric oxide bioavailability
- Splanchnic arterial vasodilation





http://www.surgicalcore.org



Predictive Models

Child-Pugh Classification Model for End
Stage Liver
Disease (MELD)



Cirrhosis Severity

Child Pugh Classification		
Includes: encephalopathy, ascites, INR, albumin, bilirubin		
Score	Interpretation	
5-6	A – least severe liver disease	
7-9	B – moderately severe liver disease	
10-15	C – most severe liver disease	
Model for End Stage Liver Disease (MELD)		
Includes: creatinine/need for dialysis, bilirubin, sodium, and INR		
Score	Interpretation	
9-40	Predicts 3 month mortality Worsens with increasing score Consider listing for transplant ~15-17	



Clinical Presentation

- Anorexia
- Weight loss
- Weakness
- Fatigue
- Osteoporosis
- Jaundice

Pruritus

- Gastrointestinal bleeding
- Coagulopathy
- Easy bruising
- Increasing abdominal girth
- Mental status changes



Physical Exam Findings







Physical Exam

- Decreased blood pressure
- Spider angiomas
- Palmar erythema
- Sweet, pungent breath
- Gynecomastia

- Peripheral edema
- Hepatomegaly
- Splenomegaly
- Asterixis

Ascites



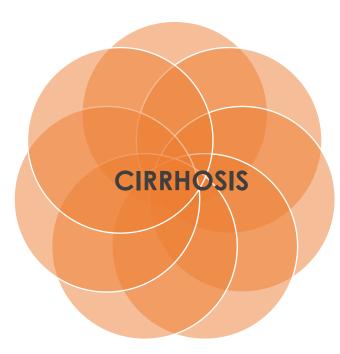
Treatment Overview

Portal Hypertension

- As mentioned, cirrhosis is progressive and nonreversable
- Treatment of cirrhosis is currently focused on mitigating complications that commonly arise

Hepatorenal Syndrome

Hepatic Encephalopathy



Ascites

Spontaneous Bacterial Peritonitis

Variceal Hemorrhage Esophageal Varices

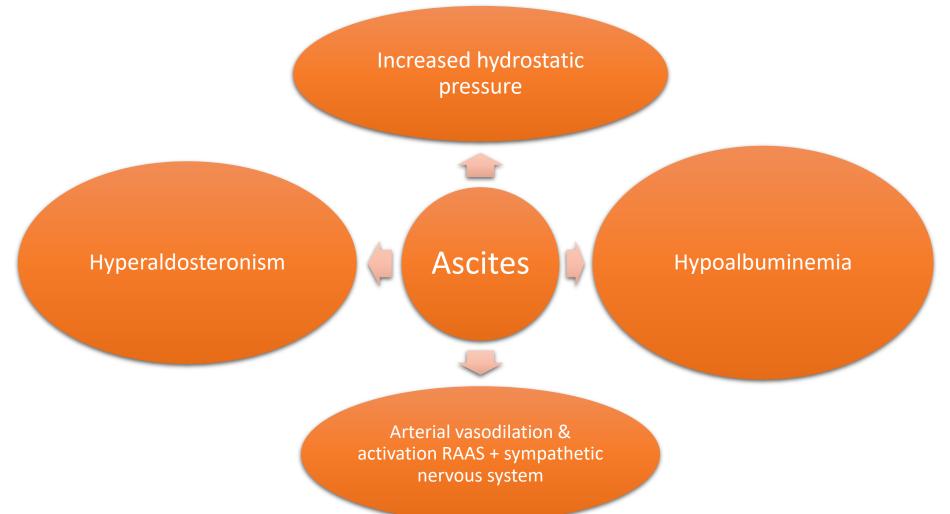


Ascites





Ascites: Pathophysiology

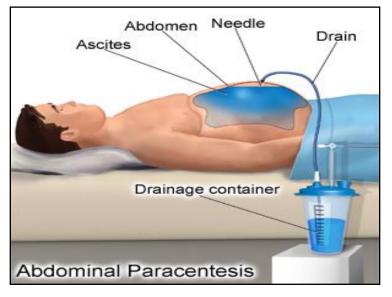




Ascites: Evaluation

Paracentesis





- Serum albumin ascites gradient (SAAG)
 - SAAG = Albumin_{serum} Albumin_{ascitic fluid}
 - SAAG ≥ 1.1g/dL implies portal hypertension is present



Ascites Treatment

1 ST LINE		
Alcohol Cessation	Treat underlying cause	
Sodium Restriction	2000 mg per day	
Diuretics	 Spironolactone & Furosemide: Ratio of 100:40 Max Dose: 400 mg spironolactone, 160 mg furosemide 	
2 ND LINE		
Paracentesis	 Albumin: ≤ 5 L - None > 5 L - 6 to 8 g per liter removed 	
BP Medication Adjustments	Discontinuation of ACE-I, ARB, BBMAP > 82 mmHg	
Midodrine	Add to diuretics in hypotensive patients: • Dosing: 7.5 mg TID	
Refractory		
Serial Therapeutic Paracentesis, TIPS, Peritoneovenous Shunts, Transplant		



Ascites: Treatment

Agent	Dose	MOA	Onset of Effect	Dose Limiting Effects
Spironolactone	Initial: 12.5-100 mg Max: 400 mg	Aldosterone antagonistDecreases aldosterone effect in distal tubules	3-5 days	GynecomastiaHyperkalemia
Furosemide	Initial: 40 mg Max: 160 mg	 Loop diuretic Blocks reabsorption of Na+ in Loop of Henle, ↑ Mg 2+ and Ca 2+ excretion 	3-5 days	HypotensionIntravascular dehydration



Spontaneous Bacterial Peritonitis (SBP)

Peritonitis (SBP)



SBP

- Bacterial infection of ascitic fluid without an obvious source
- Mortality rate can be greater than 20%
- Usually signifies advanced disease
- Organisms:
 - Enteric E.coli, K. pneumoniae
 - S. aureus
 - Hospital acquired infections have increased risk of resistance



SBP Specific Symptoms

- Abdominal pain
- Tenderness on palpation
- Ileus
- BUT
 - Up to 1/3 of patients may be asymptomatic
 - Present with AMS and/or AKI
- A diagnostic paracentesis should be obtained to evaluate ascitic fluid even in the absence of infectious symptoms



Diagnostic Paracentesis

- Evaluation of ascitic fluid:
 - Cell count:
 - Polymorphonuclear leukocyte (PMN) count ≥ 250 cells/mm³ indicative of SBP
 - Cultures:
 - Ideally isolate organism to guide antibiotic therapy
 - Difficult, even more so after antibiotics have been given
 - ALWAYS obtain paracentesis prior to initiating therapy
 - Also recommended to obtain blood cultures
 - If PMN count < 250 cells/mm3 with positive cultures but no s/sx of infection → no antibiotics



Spontaneous Bacterial Peritonitis

TREATMENT		
Antibiotics	 •3rd Generation cephalosporin for 5 days: • Cefotaxime 2g q8h • Ceftriaxone 1g q12h •Alternate: • Ofloxacin 400mg BID 	
Albumin	Reduce risk of renal failure: •Day 1: 1.5 mg/kg within 6 hours of presentation •Day 3: 1 mg/kg Also give when: •Scr > 1 mg/dl •BUN > 30 •Total bilirubin > 4	



Monitoring for Improvement

- Though not routinely done in practice, you can assess for empiric antibiotic response with repeat paracentesis
 - 2 days after antibiotic initiation
 - Expect a 25% decrease in PMN from baseline
- Lack of PMN decrease may indicate antibiotic failure, and broader antibiotic therapy may be needed



Prevention of Recurrent SBP

- Once a patient with cirrhosis has developed SBP, they are at increased risk for redevelopment (secondary prevention)
- Individuals who have had an episode of SBP should be provided prophylactic antibiotics to prevent the development of an additional episode

"SECONDARY" PREVENTION	
Antibiotics	 Norfloxacin (no longer available in US), Ciprofloxacin, or Bactrim Bactrim: 1 DS tablet daily Ciprofloxacin: 500mg daily
Monitoring	 <u>Bactrim</u>: renal function, hyperkalemia, DDI's <u>Ciprofloxacin</u>: renal dose adjustments, QTc monitoring



Varices

Aglices

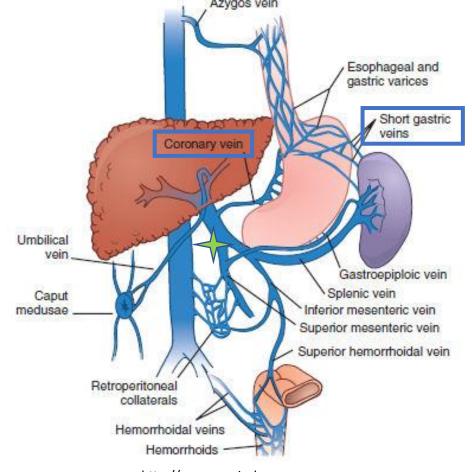


Portal Hypertension Revisited

- Increased structural resistance
 - Fibrous tissue
 - Vascular distortion
- Intrahepatic vasoconstriction
 - Decreased nitric oxide bioavailability
- Splanchnic arterial vasodilation



Portosystemic collaterals



http://www.surgicalcore.org



Varices: Pathophysiology

Portal hypertension causes resistance to drainage

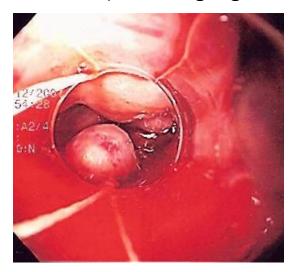
Superficial vessels (varices) develop to accommodate overload

Varices are weak and easily disrupted



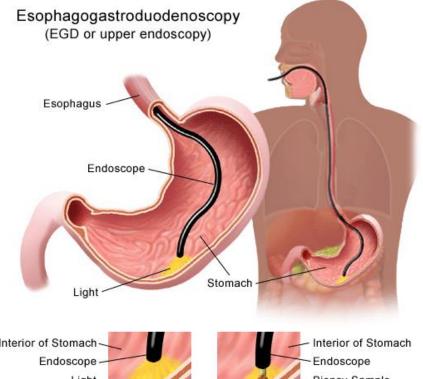
Risk of Variceal Bleed

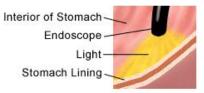
- Varices can be categorized into high verus low risk
 - High risk includes:
 - Medium and large varices
 - Small varices with red wale marks (indicating high risk of bleed)

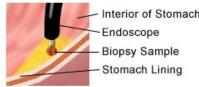




Esophagogastroduodenoscopy







- Abbreviated EGD
- Identifies presence of varices
 - Will also be used to identify sources of gastric bleeding
- Can be used to preemtively eliminate varices, as well as treat those that are bleeding



Primary Prevention of a Bleed

- Recommended for patients with medium/large varices at high risk for bleeding
 - First line \rightarrow nonselective β -blockers
 - <u>Alternative</u> → endoscopic variceal ligation (EVL)





Primary Prevention of Variceal Hemorrhage

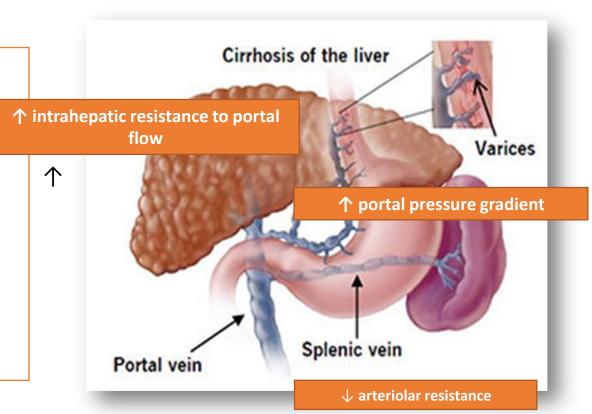
Therapy	Dosing	Goals		
Propranolol	 No ascites = Max 320 mg Ascites = Max 160 mg 	HR of 55-60 Stop if SBP < 90		
Nadolol	No ascites = Max 160 mgAscites = Max 80 mg	HR of 55-60 Stop if SBP < 90		
Carvedilol	 Regardless of Ascites: Max = 6.25 mg BID *Unless hypertensive 	Stop if SBP < 90		
OR				
EVL	 Every 2-8 weeks until elimination of varices 	Variceal eradication		



Recap of Mechanisms

Non- selective β blockers

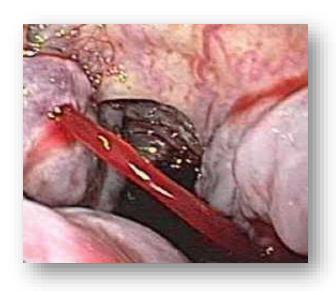
- β1 blockade:
 - ↓ cardiac output and splanchnic blood flow
- β 2 blockade:
 - prevent splanchnic vasodilation mediated by $\beta 2$ receptors, allowing unopposed α adrenergic effects
 - → portal blood flow and ↑
 vasoconstriction of splanchnic vascular
 bed





Acute Variceal Hemorrhage (VH)

- Goals:
 - Control bleeding
 - Maintain hemodynamic stability
 - Prevent rebleed
 - Prevent acute complications





Management of Acute Variceal Bleed

- Protect airway to prevent aspiration
- STAT EGD
 - Blakemore/tamponade if needed
- Modest blood transfusions & fluid resuscitation
 - Goal Hgb >7g/dL
 - Too much can increase portal pressure, ascites, and risk of hemorrhage
- Hold inappropriate home medications
 - Beta blockers
 - Anti-hypertensives
 - NPO if severe bleed

Start appropriate pharmacotherapy



Pharmacotherapy for VH





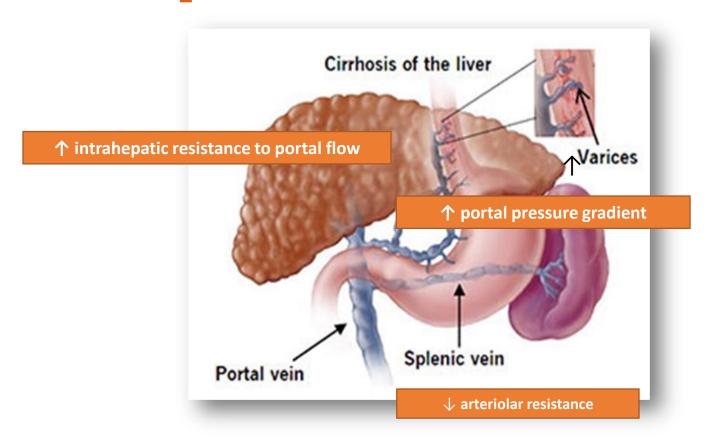
Octreotide

- Local splanchnic vasoconstrictor
 - Decreases blood to the variceal bleed by "clamping down" the vasculature
- Associated with lower 7-day mortality, but limited data

Agent	Dose	Duration	Monitoring
Octreotide	 50 mcg bolus (can be repeated x1) 50 mcg/hr continuous infusion 	24-72 hours after bleeding has stoppedMaximum 5 days	NA



Recap of Mechanisms



Octreotide

- ¬ vasoconstriction of splanchnic bed
- ↓ portal venous pressure
- **↓** splachnic blood flow



Antibiotics

- With high pressure bleed → increased risk of bacterial infection
 - Use of prophylactic antibiotics to prevent infection in the setting of VH
 - Decreased risk of infection, recurrent hemorrhage, and death
- Given bleeding, IV route is preferred
 - Antibiotics: Ceftriaxone 1g q24 hours
 - Duration: Maximum of 7 days
- Ceftriaxone dosing for infection prevention (1g q24 hours) is different than that of SBP treatment (2g q24 hours)
- Once patients have recovered from a bleed, there is a need to prevent recurrent bleed



Secondary Prevention of Variceal Hemorrhage (Preventing Rebleed)

Therapy	Dosing	Goals		
Propranolol	 No ascites = Max 320 mg Ascites = Max 160 mg 	HR of 55-60 Stop if SBP < 90		
Nadolol	 No ascites = Max 160 mg Ascites = Max 80 mg 	HR of 55-60 Stop if SBP < 90		
WITH				
EVL	 Every 1-4 weeks until elimination of varices 	Variceal eradication Prevention of VH Garcia-Tsao G, et al. Am J Gastroente		



The Beta Blocker Controversy in Patients with Cirrhosis

- Initially found to be beneficial, thought to decrease risk of bleed as well as rebleed after recovery from a variceal hemorrhage
- Conflicting evidence emerged in the 2000's
 - Are we doing harm with beta blockers in patients with cirrhosis?
- Piecing out the evidence

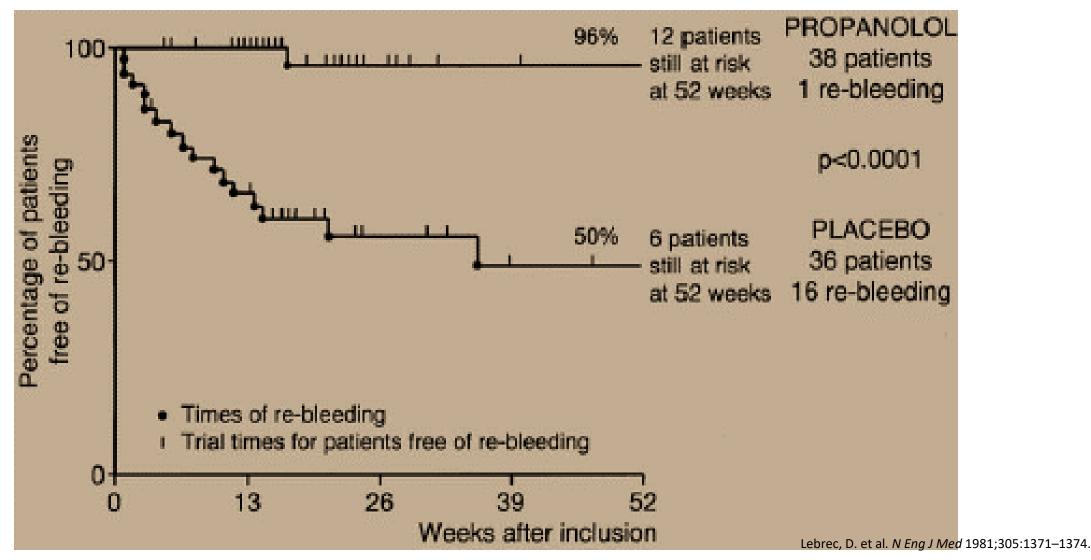


Propranolol for prevention of recurrent gastrointestinal bleeding in patients with cirrhosis - A controlled study

Design	 Randomized controlled trial Propranolol arm (n=38); placebo arm (n=36)
Population	Cirrhosis, admitted for GI bleed and stabilized
Results	 Propranolol group = 96% free of recurrent GI bleed at 1 year Placebo group = 50% free of recurrent GI bleed at 1 year P < 0.0001
Conclusion	 Propranolol is effective in preventing recurrent GI bleeding in patients with cirrhosis



Lebrec et al.





Harm With Beta Blockers

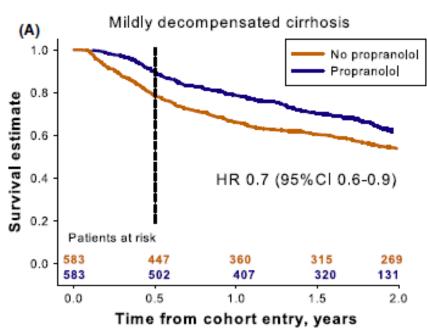
Author	Patients	Design	Outcome	Results
Serste 2010	Refractory ascites (n=151)	Case-control	1 year survival	19% propranolol vs 64% no propranolol, NNH = 2
Serste 2011	Refractory ascites (n=10)	Crossover	Paracentesis induced circulatory dysfunction (PICD)	8 patients developed PICD on propranolol, 1 patient developed PICD after propranolol discontinued
Mandorfer 2014	Patients receiving paracentesis (n=607)	Retrospective	Transplant free survival	Subanalysis - patients with SBP had increased risk of death if receiving beta blocker (HR 1.58, CI 1.098-2.274) Sersté et al. Hepatology. 2010;52(3

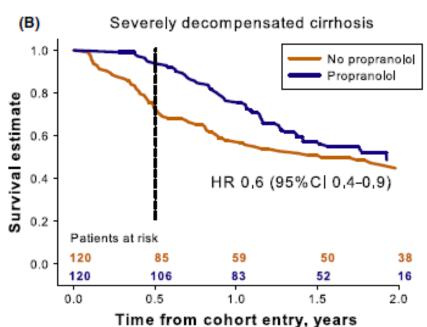


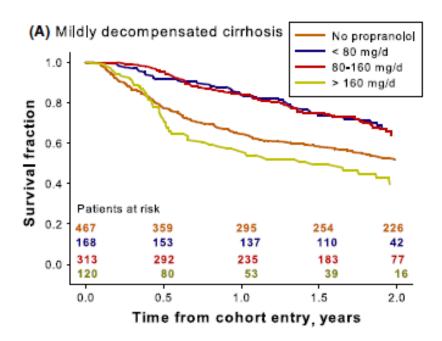
Benefit with Beta Blockers

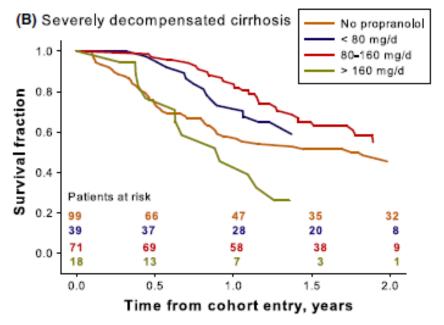
Author	Patients	Design	Outcome	Results
Leithead 2015	Cirrhosis (n=322)	Retrospective	Mortality	Beta blockers were associated with decreased mortality in overall analysis and in subgroup analysis of patients with refractory ascites (HR 0.35, CI 0.14 to 0.86)
Bossen 2016	Cirrhosis with ascites (n=1198)	Retrospective	Mortality	Beta blockers were associated with no difference in mortality in overall analysis and in subgroup analysis of patients with refractory ascites
Bang 2016	Decompensated cirrhosis (n=3719)	Retrospective	Mortality	Propranolol was associated with decreased mortality when used at doses less than 160 mg/day (HR 0.7, CI 0.6-0.9) Leithead et al. Gut. 2015





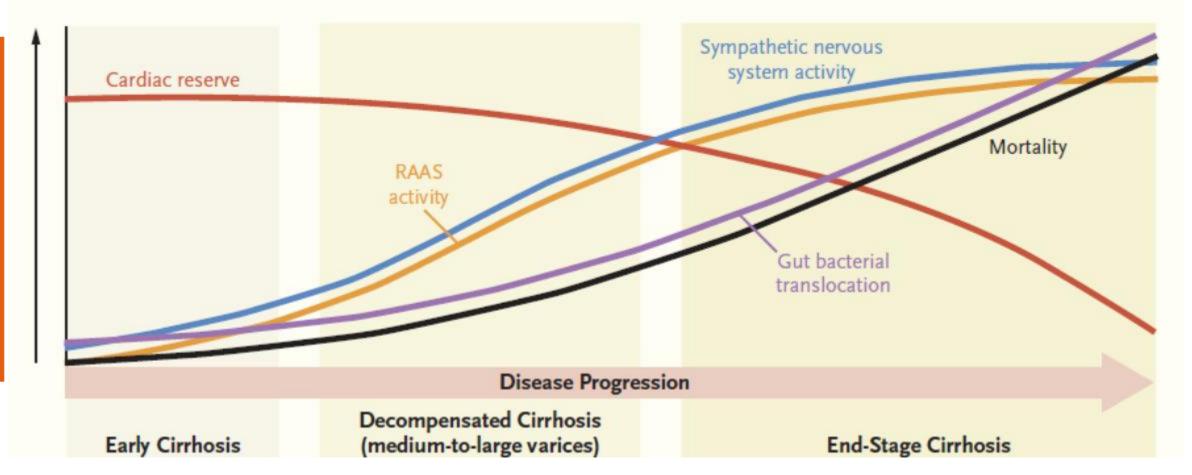








The Window Hypothesis





The Window Hypothesis

- Early Cirrhosis
 - Beta blockers not indicated
 - Cardiac reserve, SNS activity, and RAAS activity at baseline
 - Low risk of SBP
- Decompensated Cirrhosis (Medium to Large Varices)
 - BB indicated for primary and secondary prophylaxis of VH
 - Decreased cardiac reserve, increased SNS and RAAS
 - Increased risk of SBP
- End-Stage Cirrhosis
 - BB decrease survival
 - Cardiac reserve critically impaired, SNS and RAAS maximally stimulated
 - Easy gut bacteria translocation



Discontinuation of Beta Blockers

- Refractory ascites
- Systolic BP < 100 mmHg
- Mean arterial pressure ≤ 82 mmHg
- Serum sodium < 120 mEq
- Severe alcoholic hepatitis

- HRS
- SBP
- Sepsis
- Poor follow up or nonadherence

AKI



Hepatic Encephalopathy



Hepatic Encephalopathy (HE)

- Spectrum of neuropsychiatric and psychometric abnormalities
- Often diagnosed by clinical observation after excluding other possible causes

• Significant contributor to morbidity, mortality, and healthcare costs



Ammonia Hypothesis

Hyperammonemia

Glutamine accumulation in brain

Osmotic stress

Astrocytes in brain swell and malfunction



Hepatic Encephalopathy

Signs

- Changes in sleep/wake cycles
- Aggression
- Confusion
- Asterixis
- Cognitive Defects

Additional Considerations/Differentials

- Infection
- Electrolyte disturbances
- Sedatives
- Dehydration
- Medication nonadherence



HE Treatment

Therapy	Mechanism	Dosing			
	1 ST LINE THERAPY				
Lactulose	Non-absorbable disaccharide	<u>Initial</u> : 25mL q1-2h until first bowel movement <u>Maintenance</u> : Titrate to maintain 2-3 bowel movements per day			
	ADJUNCT				
Rifaximin	Antibiotic alters gut flora, reduces ammonia producing bacteria	Maintenance: 550 mg BID			
2 ND LINE THERAPY					
Transplant					



Lactulose MOA

Broken into short chain fatty acid by colonic bacteria

pH ↓ in colon

NH3→NH4+

- Releases hydrogen ions → bind to ammonia, creating ammonium
 - Positively charged and unable to cross the cell membrane to enter the bloodstream
- Produces an osmotic effect causing rapid laxation



Lactulose Adverse Effects

- Gastrointestinal:
 - Bloating
 - Abdominal cramping
 - Flatulence
 - Nausea/vomiting
 - Diarrhea

- Electrolyte imbalances:
 - ↑ Na+

• ↓ K+



(HRS) (HRS) (Hebatorenal Syndrome (HRS)



Diagnosis

- Main etiologies for acute kidney injury (AKI) in cirrhosis
 - Prerenal
 - Hypovolemia
 - HRS-AKI (previously type 1 and 2)
 - Acute tubular necrosis (ATN)
 - Typically due to sepsis
 - Less commonly due to medications
- All other causes of AKI must be excluded before a diagnosis of HRS can be made
 - Differentiating between these is difficult and requires careful work up of all the above causes



Treatment

Therapy	Dosing	
	First Line Recommendations	
Albumin	- 1g/kg day 1, followed by 40-50g daily	
Vasopressors	 Terlipressin is preferred, but not available in the US (pending FDA approval) In place of terlipressin, norepinephrine may be used 	
Alternatives		
Octreotide	- 100-200 mcg subcutaneously TID	
Midodrine	- 5-15mg orally TID	



Summary

- Cirrhosis is a complex, progressive disease state that disproportionately effects underserved patients
- Complications of cirrhosis occur as a result of the development of portal hypertension
- Treatment for the complications of cirrhosis vary by complication, and are typically aimed and decreasing mortality and preventing complication recurrence



Questions?



Acute Complications of Cirrhosis

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