

Haematological Considerations

BLOOD TRANSFUSION

■ Indications for Transfusion

1. increase the O₂ carrying capacity of blood → ↑ DO₂
2. increase circulating blood volume, when DO₂ is low

NB: Hct at which transfusion indicated is **age & disease** dependent, otherwise healthy patients rarely require transfusion at Hct > 30%, whereas transfusion is usually required at Hct < 21% (RDM)

■ Compatibility Testing

1. ABO-Rh typing

- i. **rbc's** tested with commercial anti-A, anti-B and anti-D (*direct Coomb's*)
- ii. **serum** tested against A-rbc's and B-rbc's (*indirect Coomb's*)
- iii. ABO O ~ 45%
 A ~ 41%
 B ~ 10%
 AB ~ 4%
- iv. Rh(D) positive ~ 85%
 negative ~ 15% ~ 60-70% *anti-D-positive*

2. antibody screening

- i. trial transfusion between **recipient serum** and commercially supplied rbc's
 - looking for commonly occurring rbc antigens other than ABO-Rh
 - same 3 phases and similar length to cross-match
- ii. also performed on the **donor serum** shortly after collection
 - primarily preventing reactions with subsequently transfused units

3. cross-matching

- trial transfusion between **donor rbc's** and **recipient serum**
- i. **immediate phase**
 - donor rbc's mixed with recipient serum
 - conducted at room temperature, complete in ~ 5 minutes
 - detects **ABO**, plus MN, P, and Lewis incompatibilities
- ii. **incubation phase**
 - incubation of first phase reactions at 37°C in albumin for 30-45 minutes, then in low ionic strength saline for 10-20 minutes
 - promotes aggregation of surface Ag, and reduction in surface (-)'ve charge
 - aids detection of **incomplete antibodies**, especially **rhesus**, by the 3rd phase,
- iii. **antiglobulin phase**
 - polyvalent **antihuman antiglobulin** reacts with incomplete antibodies
 - detects most of Rh, Kell, Kidd and Duffy

Haematology

■ Effectiveness of Matching

- | | | | |
|----|----------------------|---------------------|------------|
| 1. | ABO-Rh typing | ~ 99.8% compatible | 1:500-1000 |
| 2. | + antibody screening | ~ 99.94% compatible | 1:1700 |
| 3. | + cross-matching | ~ 99.95% compatible | 1:2000 |

■ Emergency Transfusion

- type O Rh-negative blood
 - universal donor, uncrossmatched blood
 - some type O donors produce high titres of anti-A,B immunoglobulins
→ **packed cells** better than whole blood
 - transfusion of > 2 units of whole type O requires continued use until the blood bank determines levels of anti-A/B have declined (theoretically !)
 - continued use of type O results in minor haemolysis & hyperbilirubinaemia
- type specific, partially cross-matched blood
 - ABO-Rh typing plus immediate phase X-match ~ 5-10 minutes
 - only **1:1000** patients has an unexpected Ab found in full X-match
 - greater risk in previously transfused patients ~ 1:100 unexpected Ab

Effects of Blood Storage

■ Citrate Phosphate Dextrose + Adenine

- Citrate - prevents clotting by binding Ca^{++}
- Phosphate - pH ~ 5.5, acts as a buffer against the large fall in $[\text{H}^+]$ at 1-6°C
? also may increase 2,3-DPG levels
- Dextrose - allows continued glycolysis & maintenance of ATP
- Adenine - improves rbc survival by adding substrate for ATP synthesis
- increases survival from **21** ® **35 days**

NB: duration of storage set by requirement for ³ **70%** rbc survival 24 hours post-T_x
storage at 1-6°C slows the rate of glycolysis by ~ 40x

- | | | | |
|-----|--------------|-------------------------------------|-----------|
| i. | whole blood | ~ 430 ml blood & 70 ml preservative | Hct ~ 40% |
| ii. | packed cells | ~ 230 ml blood & 70 ml preservative | Hct ~ 70% |

Haematological Considerations

1. metabolic effects
 - ↓ glucose / dextrose / ATP / 2,3-DPG, and ↑ lactate
 - ↑ P_{aCO_2} , ↓ pH, ↓ HCO_3^-
 - ↓ Na^+ / ↑ K^+
 - oxidant damage to membranes with *spherocyte* formation
 - ↓ 2,3-DPG → ↑ O_2 affinity
 - changes occur earlier & to greater extent in whole blood cf. packed cells
2. microaggregates
 - conventional filters remove particles > **170 μm**
 - aggregates of platelets/fibrin/leukocytes range from 20 to > 170 μm
 - clinical significance of microaggregates debated
 - most would no longer use a micropore filter
 - **no change** in the incidence of ARDS

■ Frozen Storage

- rbc's stored with *glycerol* at $-79^\circ C$ survive well
- all glycerol must be removed prior to use & this is difficult and expensive
 1. long-term storage of rare blood types
 2. safer in patients susceptible to allergic reactions
 - freezing & washing process decreases *HLA antigens*
 3. reduced risk of hepatitis infection ? since questioned
 4. low levels of leukocyte & fibrin aggregates safer for massive transfusion
 5. normal levels of 2,3-DPG retained, therefore better O_2 capacity

■ Adsol

- shelf-life extended to 42 days
- contains adenine, glucose, mannitol, and NaCl

■ Heparin

- used for priming CPB pumps etc.
- anticoagulant, not preservative as lacks glucose
- anticoagulant effect decreases with time due to liberation of thrombogenic substances from the cellular elements during storage, therefore must be used within 24-48 hours

■ Classification

1. ultrafresh < 24 hours
2. fresh < 7 days
3. stored > 7-35 days

Complications

■ Hazards of Rapid or Massive Transfusion

1. impaired O₂ transport
 - i. defective rbc function
 - ii. impaired Hb function
 - iii. fluid overload / underload
 - iv. DIC
 - v. ARDS
 - vi. MOSF
 - vii. microaggregates
2. haemostatic failure
 - i. dilution
 - ii. depletion / consumption
 - iii. decreased production
 - iv. DIC
3. electrolyte & metabolic disturbance
 - i. hyperkalaemia / delayed hypokalaemia
 - ii. sodium overload
 - iii. acid-base disturbances
 - iv. citrate toxicity
 - v. hypothermia
4. vasoactive reactions
 - i. kinin activation
 - ii. damaged platelets & granulocytes
5. serological incompatibility
 - i. immediate generalised reaction
 - ii. delayed transfusion reaction
6. impaired reticuloendothelial function

NB: the majority are related to the type and time of storage
massive transfusion \geq 1 times the patients blood volume

?? over what time-frame → 1BV per 24 hours
½BV per 2 hours

Haematological Considerations

■ Oxygen Transport

• HbO₂ dissociation \propto pH, Temp., P_{aCO₂} and 2,3-DPG

1. ***citrate*** is metabolised to HCO₃⁻ → ***L***-shift
 - WB & FFP have the greatest effect
2. hypothermia → ***L***-shift
3. stored blood deficient in ***2,3-DPG*** → ***L***-shift
4. CO₂ / H⁺ load → ***R***-shift

• good correlation between decrease in rbc 2,3-DPG and P₅₀ after 7 days storage,

- i. 2,3-DPG 4.8 μmol/l → 1.2 μmol/l
- ii. P₅₀ 26.5 mmHg → **18 mmHg**

NB: specific organ hypoxia ***has not*** been demonstrated from low P₅₀ transfusion, washed rbc's depleted of 2,3-DPG given to patients with anaemic hypoxia, showed no change in mixed venous P_{vO₂} or cardiac output

• recommendations,

1. warm all blood products
2. avoid HCO₃⁻ administration
3. attempt to use fresh blood in hypoxic, low CO patients
4. use frozen blood if available

• ***microaggregates*** progressively accumulate with storage & potentially decrease gas exchange
• reduced⁺⁺ with micropore filters, however, incidence of ARDS is ***unaffected***

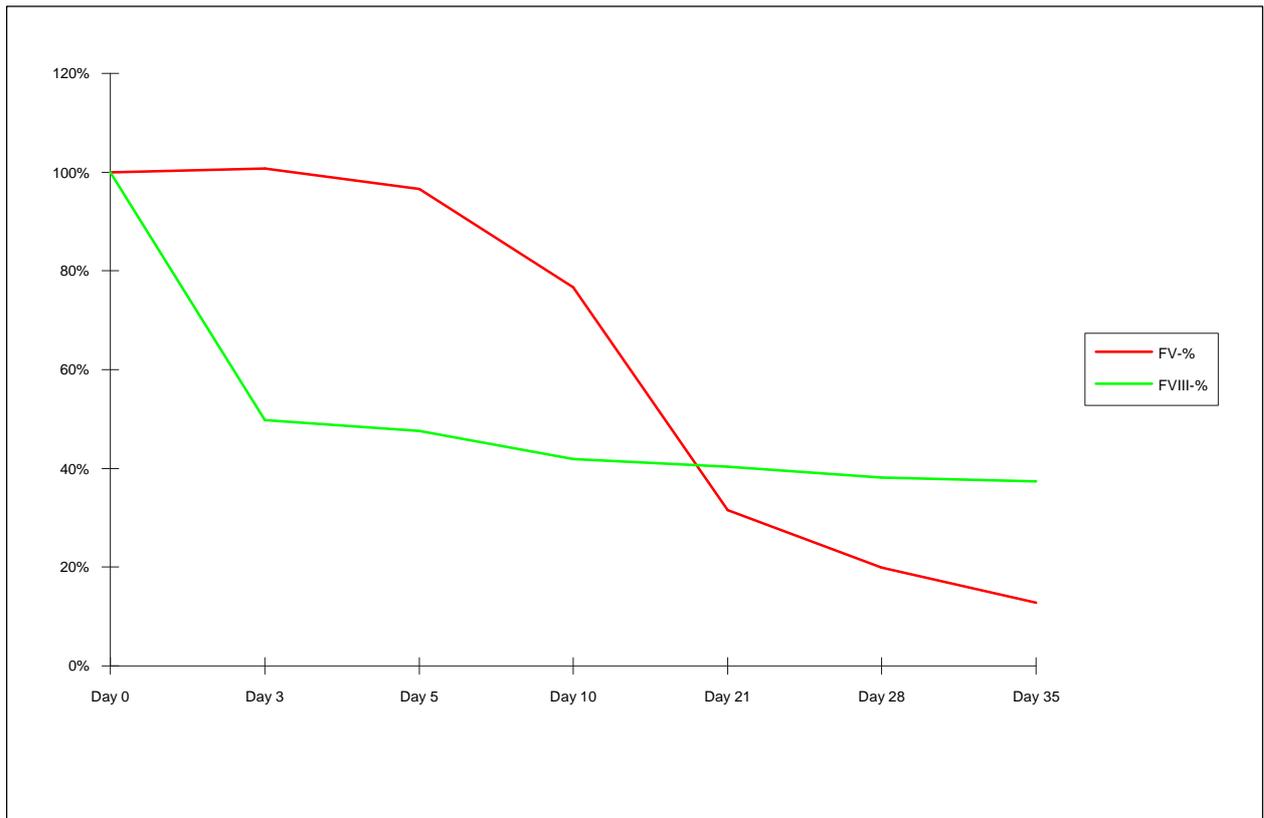
■ Transfusion Coagulopathy

NB: most important factors are ***volume of transfusion & duration of hypotension***

differential diagnosis,

1. dilutional thrombocytopenia
2. low factor V & VIII activity
3. DIC
4. haemolytic transfusion reaction
5. preexisting coagulopathy
 - i. haemophilia, von Willebrand's
 - ii. anticoagulant therapy
 - iii. aspirin, NSAID's

Haematological Considerations



NB: data from actual quality control on Red-Cross banked *whole blood*, Feb '89

■ Disseminated Intrvascular Coagulation

1. relatively uncommon entity
2. microvascular *thrombosis* occurs rarely
3. rarely results in specific organ damage or infarction
4. accompanying large vessel thrombosis is not uncommon, but is probably *not* directly a result of DIC (ie. low flow)
5. *bleeding* is common, but usually originates from sites of local pathology
6. *heparin* is seldom useful and frequently worsens bleeding
7. DIC is associated with a *high mortality*, 2^o underlying disease severity
8. ? may be regarded as an incidental preterminal event in many patients

■ Metabolic Effects

1. *citrate toxicity*

- citrate itself is nontoxic → **hypocalaemia**
- ∞ to citrate content of unit
- ∞ rate of infusion, hyperventilation
- ≤ 1.5-2.0 ml/kg/min rarely a problem (≤ 1^U/5 min in average adult)
- FFP has higher % citrate than WB → ≤ 1.0 ml/kg/min
- decreases in Ca⁺⁺ are **transient** and are restored immediately following T_x
- RDM → CaCl₂ **very rarely** required
monitor by **ECG** at higher rates
- factors ↑'g citrate toxicity
 - hypothermia (↓ ~ 50%, 37→31°C)
 - hypovolaemia
 - liver disease, transplantation

2. *hyperkalaemia*

- generally only with whole blood ∞ to the shelf-life of the unit
≤ 19-30 mmol/l after 21 days
- rate of infusion important ≤ 1.5-2.0 ml/kg/min
- again, CaCl₂ administration rarely required & should be based on biochemistry
- ABP's better for **neonates**
 - check unit [K⁺] for neonates
 - monitor by ECG at higher rates

3. *hypothermia* → L-shift of HbO₂ curve

- all banked products stored at ~ 2-6°C and T_x should be warmed 38-40°C
- reduction of core temperature < 30°C ↑'s **cardiac irritability** and impairs coagulation
- decreases of 0.5-1.0°C may induce postoperative **shivering** & ↑ MRO₂ ~ 400%
- ≥ 42°C results in RBC destruction
- warming with **radiofrequency** warmers is OK, microwaves result in rbc damage

4. *acid-base* * depends upon reason for T_x

- pH of CPD ~ 5.5
- freshly collected blood pH ~ 7.0-7.1, decreasing to pH ~ 6.9 after 21 days
- most acid in WB is CO₂ ~ **150 mmHg** → lungs
- metabolic acidosis is still present when this is removed by adequate ventilation
- however, metabolism of citrate generates HCO₃⁻ and acidosis is rarely a problem providing **hypovolaemia** is avoided and liver function is adequate
- NaHCO₃ may have be harmful → use according to AGA's only

Haematological Considerations

Transfusion Reactions

■ Classification

1. time of onset → immediate vs. delayed
 - as actual mechanisms are uncertain in many cases, the terms anaphylactic / anaphylactoid are not used → ***immediate generalised reaction***
2. aetiology → immune vs. non-immune

■ Immune Reactions

1. donor rbc serological incompatibility
 - i. acute incompatible transfusion reaction / immediate generalised reaction
→ high titre anti-A or anti-B in recipient plasma
acute haemolytic transfusion reactions
 - ii. delayed (X-match compatible) transfusion reaction
2. reactions against donor plasma protein antigens (eg. F_{VIII} Ab's)
 - i. anti-IgA antibodies in selective IgA deficiency
 - IgA deficiency ~ **1:900** / anti-IgA ~ **20-60%**
 - not all patients will have an IGR, but those who react will do so repeatedly
 - use autologous blood or IgA deficient donors
 - may also have subclass specific anti-IgA, with milder symptoms
 - ii. anti-IgG antibodies
 - iii. reactions to exogenous donor antigens - dietary, drugs
 - iv. serum sickness
3. high titre alloantibody in donor plasma
 - i. ABO incompatible donor plasma
 - ii. high titre atypical rbc alloantibody in donor plasma
 - pregnancy or previous transfusion
 - usually Rhesus or Kell & results in lysis of recipient rbc's
 - interdonor incompatibility
→ screen all plasma for high anti-A/B, or atypical Ab's
refrain from using ABO incompatible plasma unless unavoidable
 - iii. delayed reactions to donor reaginic IgE Ab's (transfer of allergy)
 - iv. leukoagglutinins → ***transfusion associated lung injury (TRALI)***
 - plasma from multiparous females, frequently use of FFP post-CPB
4. reactions due to contaminants
 - i. plasma "activation" → complement and kininogen/kinin systems
 - ii. histamine release in stored blood
 - iii. generation of cytokines
 - iv. chemical additives

■ Non-Immune Reactions

- i. incorrectly stored or out-of-date blood
- ii. inadvertently frozen blood
- iii. overheated blood
- iv. infected blood
- v. mechanical destruction (infusion under pressure)

■ Acute Haemolytic Transfusion Reactions

1. incidence ~ 1:4000-14,000
2. mortality ~ 1:100,000 (2.5-10%)
3. aetiology ~ 18% anti-A, 12% anti-D, 23% anti-Fy^a (mainly IgM)
* complement fixing with direct intravascular haemolysis
4. symptoms & signs
 - fever & chills
 - chest pain, dyspnoea, apprehension
 - nausea, flushing
 - bleeding diathesis[§]
 - hypotension[§] § may be the only signs *under GA*
 - haemoglobinuria[§]
5. complications
 - anaemia
 - haemoglobinuria (? *acid haematin* precipitate → *ARF*)
 - DIC, thrombocytopenia
 - ARDS, MOSF
6. investigations
 - i. CBP
 - Hb, platelets, helmet cells, ghosts
 - free Hb, haptoglobin, urine [Hb]
 - ii. APTT, OSPT, FDP/XDP's
 - iii. fibrinogen - not ↓'d with storage, \ ↓ = DIC
 - iv. return used unit for recrossmatch
 - v. sample to blood bank for Ab screen & direct antiglobulin test
 - vi. MBA₂₀ - K⁺, renal function
7. management
 - i. cease T_x immediately
 - ii. ABC
 - increase FiO₂ ± IPPV as required
 - maintain BP, volume loading ± inotropes
 - iii. maintain urine output ≥ 1.0 ml/kg/hr
 - IV fluids ± mannitol 12.5-50 g
 - ± frusemide
 - iv. alkalinise urine → pH > 8.0
 - HCO₃⁻ ~ 0.5-1.0 mg/kg

Haematological Considerations

■ Delayed Haemolytic Transfusion Reaction

1. incidence ~ 1:6000
- F:M ~ 3:1
2. aetiology - anti-Jk^a, anti-E, anti-c
* non-complement fixing Ab, with removal in RES
3. symptoms & signs - may be asymptomatic
- usually ~ 1 week
- may occur at 2-3 days, or after 1 month
- fever & chills
- jaundice
- haemoglobinuria
4. complications - mortality rare
- may result in anaemia, ARF
5. investigations - anaemia
- jaundice, hyperbilirubinaemia
- (+)'ve direct Coomb's test
6. management - usually no active management required
- rare severe reactions managed as above
- determine rare or low titre Ab's for future

■ Nonhaemolytic Transfusion Reactions

1. incidence ~ 2-3% of all units and up to 8% of patients
2. aetiology - Ab's against donor wbc's (HLA or "leukoagglutinins")
~ 2.5 x 10⁹ wbc's / unit of blood
- Ab's against other plasma protein components
3. symptoms & signs - fever, chills, myalgias, nausea, non-productive cough
- resembles early onset of haemolytic reaction
4. investigations - as for haemolytic reaction
- return remaining blood to check matching
- rule out occurrence of *haemolysis*
5. prophylaxis - washed rbc's (7-10 days old)
- microfiltration
- frozen / thawed cells
- dextran sedimentation
- antihistaminics (H₁ & H₂), antipyretics, steroids

■ Post-Transfusion Jaundice

1. **haemolysis** - free Hb → **unconjugated**
- stored rbc's
- immunological
2. haematoma reabsorption / associated injuries
3. **liver disease** - hypoxia, hypotension → **conjugated**
- drugs
- sepsis
- post-transfusion hepatitis
- pre-existing liver disease (Gilbert's ~ 7-10%)
4. **post-hepatic obstruction**

Infective Complications

NB: donor blood tested for → HBV, HCV
HIV, HIV-2
syphilis (only room temperature storage)
malaria excluded by **donor history**

■ Human Immunodeficiency Virus

- except for triple-washed red cells, the transmission rate from an infected component is **100%**
- 123 cases of transfusion-acquired HIV prior to testing in May 1985
- **78%** of a cohort of severe haemophilia A patients tested HIV positive in NSW
 1. declaration form & private interview - late 1984
 2. heat treatment of F_{VIII} by CSL - late 1984
 3. ELISA screening of all donors - **May 1985**

NB: **no documented** case of transfusion-acquired HIV since then in Australia

- first 5 years, 1985-90 → 46 positive donors
overall incidence ~ 1:120,000
NSW incidence ~ 1:70,000

NB: USA estimated risk from **screened products** ~ 1:40,000

- theoretical risk of donation within the "**window**" period remains
- transmission also reported from **organ donation** from seronegative donors
- theoretically, seronegative transmission may be detected by antigen (**p24**) testing
- however, large studies have not supported the cost-effectiveness of this method
- presently used in Thailand in an attempt to curb the spread in that country

Haematological Considerations

■ Hepatitis Viruses

NB: *most common* post-transfusion infection,
likely to remain so despite introduction of hepatitis C testing

1. *hepatitis A*

- is potentially transmissible by transfusion and cases have been reported
- there is no carrier state and the window of infectivity is small
- the only effective means of prevention is screening *history* from donors

2. *hepatitis B*

- HBsAg testing introduced in 1970, making Australia the first country to test all donors
- prior to HCV screening, still accounted for ~ **5-10%** of post-transfusion hepatitis, despite sensitive screening test
- reduction of non-A non-B hepatitis with HCV screening will increase percentage of HBV cases
- infective donors are missed due to,
 - i. low titre HBsAg
 - ii. donation during the "window" period, where donor has lost detectable HBsAg but remains clinically infective
- testing for HBcAb has been advocated, but low specificity and controversial
- currently in NSW ~ **3:10,000** donations are HBsAg positive
- incidence increasing with immigration from S-E Asia

3. *hepatitis C*

- non-A non-B hepatitis commonest post-transfusion infection for the past 20 years
- NSW mid-80's → ~ 1.7% of CABG's transfused got biochemical hepatitis
- incidence fell by ~ 50% with introduction of *donor declaration form*
- HCV identified in 1989, thought to be responsible for ~ 90% of non-A non-B hepatitis
- 2nd generation ELISA tests → ~ 0.3% of donations positive (NSW)
~ 0.1% confirmed by RIBA test

NB: risk is now *unknown*, but "likely to be so low that it will be difficult to carry out a large enough study for it to be established" AIC 1993

4. *delta hepatitis*

- defective RNA virus, dependent upon HBV for replication
- may occur concurrently with HBV, *coinfection*, or *superinfection* in a carrier
- management is through prevention of HBV

5. *hepatitis E*

- endemic form of non-A non-B hepatitis
- mode of spread similar to HAV, ie. fecal-oral
- theoretically transmissible through blood but no reported cases

■ Cytomegalovirus

- member of the herpes virus family
- geographical prevalence varies from ~ 40-100%
- primary infection usually unnoticed, unless the host is *immunocompromised*
- most frequent cause of *death* in bone marrow transplantation → *pneumonia*
- may contribute to disease progression and/or activation in *HIV*
- at risk patients include,
 - i. low birth weight & premature neonates
 - ii. congenital immunodeficiency syndromes
 - iii. splenectomised patients
 - iv. those on immunosuppressive chemotherapy
 - v. transplant recipients
- managed by transfusion with CMV negative blood, but limited supply due to high prevalence
- *leukocyte filters* have been shown to be effective in neonates but are expensive

■ HTLV-1

- retrovirus related to HIV → T-cell leukaemia ~ 1% of infections
tropical spastic paraparesis
- endemic within some Aboriginal groups within Australia, and in areas of the Western Pacific
- screening is carried out for donors having been to high risk areas
- pilot study in the NT screening all donors
- no proven transmission in Australia, but 4 donors (+)'ve in the NT and 1 of 212 haemophiliacs found to have evidence of infection
- problems as ELISA screens also get HTLV-II, the pathogenicity of which is unknown

■ Syphilis

- *Treponema pallidum* is more likely to be present in the serum during the *seronegative phase*
- routine screening therefore offers limited protection, however it does act as an additional surrogate test for HIV infectivity
- the organism is destroyed by storage at 4°C, thus *platelets* are the likely medium
- there has been no recorded transmission in Australia in the past 20 years

■ Malaria

- Australian donors are excluded for *12 months* following overseas travel
- this is increased to *24 months* if chemoprophylaxis was taken
- a recent case of *P. falciparum* malaria in Victoria is believed to be the first case in 20 years
- in transfusion transmitted disease, the *exoerythrocytic phase* in the liver is bypassed
 - therefore relapses *do not* occur
- frozen red cells and cell-free blood components have been associated with infection

Haematological Considerations

■ Other Transmissible Diseases

1. Chagas' disease - *Trypanosomiasis cruzi*
2. Lyme disease - *Borrelia burgdorferi* (spirochaete)
3. Jakob-Creutzfeldt
4. toxoplasmosis
5. brucellosis
6. filariasis
7. salmonellosis, typhus, measles

■ Methods to Reduce Infection Transmission

1. exclude donors from high risk groups
 - donor declaration form & interview
2. screen all donors for HIV, HBV, HCV & CMV Ab's, VDRL
3. avoid homologous transfusion & transfuse minimal unit requirement
4. avoid multiple donor components unless absolutely required
5. use autologous blood where possible

Leukocyte Transfusion Effects

■ Beneficial Effects

1. longer renal graft survival
 - inactivation of alloreactive clones by high-dose immunosuppressive therapy
 - induction of suppressor cells
 - induction of anti-idiotypic antibodies
 - improved by donors sharing one HLA-DR Ag
 - largely abandoned following the advent of *cyclosporin* therapy
2. graft versus leukaemia effect
 - increase in bone marrow transplant remission rates
 - 1 study only, not supported by subsequent study

■ Adverse Effects

1. HLA alloimmunisation
 - i. non-haemolytic febrile transfusion reactions
 - most common effect ~ 1% of all transfusions
≤ 50% in multi-transfused patients
 - ii. refractoriness to random donor platelets transfusions
 - occurs in 30-70% of multiple donor recipients
 - refractoriness may be nonimmunologic → consumption
 - HLA-Ab's present in ~ 50% of multiple donor recipients
 - **critical immunogenic leukocyte load (CILL)** for alloimmunisation
2. graft versus host disease in immunosuppressed
3. transmission or reactivation of CMV
4. transmission of HTLV-1
5. generalised immunosuppression *suggestive evidence
 - i. ↑ postoperative infection rate - including 1 prospective study
 - ii. ↑ tumour recurrence - all retrospective studies
 - 5 studies ↑ incidence, 3 equivocal
 - 3 studies no relationship

NB: studies pending assessing effects of leukodepleted blood products

■ Methods of Leukocyte Depletion

1. prestorage leukodepletion → centrifugation, washing, freezing & thawing
2. bedside filtration → clinically equally effective to date

■ Recommendations for Leukodepleted Blood Products

1. to prevent recurrent NHFTR < 5×10^8
2. prevent/delay alloimmunisation to HLA-Ag's < 5×10^6
3. those presently under investigation
 - i. prevention of refractoriness to platelets
 - ii. recurrence of febrile reactions to platelets
 - iii. CMV infection
4. those where leukodepleted products are **not recommended**,
 - i. GVHD
 - ii. acute lung injury due to donor anti-leukocyte Ab's
 - iii. reactions or alloimmunisation in patients with limited transfusion exposure
 - iv. reactions or alloimmunisation in patients receiving acellular components

Haematological Considerations

COMPONENT THERAPY

■ Platelets

1. **random donor platelets** - pooled from 6-8 donors
 - each bag contains ~ 40-50 ml → 5-6 x 10¹⁰ platelets
 - stored at room temperature and are viable for ~ **3-5 days**
 - filters with pore sizes < 170 µm remove significant numbers
 2. **single donor platelets** - collected by plateletpheresis
 - requires HLA matched donor to minimise antigenic differences
- causes for a reduction in platelet numbers,
- a. **reduced production** - marrow failure (aplastic), marrow infiltration
- deficient substrate (B₁₂, folate)
 - b. **sequestration** - splenomegaly
 - c. **dilution** - massive transfusion (≥ 1 BV)
 - d. **accelerated destruction**
 - i. consumptive - coagulopathy (DIC, PIH)
 - ii. autoimmune - SLE, lymphoma, HIV, ITP
 - iii. drug induced - aspirin, heparin (HITS I&II)
- NB:** → 2 groups, gradual vs. rapid reduction in platelet numbers
- requirement for platelets depends upon **cause** and **rate** of development
- effects of transfusion variable, depending upon cause & preceding transfusion, t_{½B} ~ 10 days,
- a. 1 unit of platelets ~ 7,000-11,000 / mm³ / m² SA increase
 - b. 0.1-0.3 units/kg ~ 20,000-70,000 / mm³ (standard dose)
- indications,
1. platelet count < 10,000 x 10⁹/l * varies between institutions
 2. platelet count < 50,000 x 10⁹/l + spontaneous bleeding or surgery
 3. platelet dysfunction, **irrespective** of count + spontaneous bleeding or surgery
- important points,
- a. antibody production is ∞ to units transfused
 - limited effectiveness of future transfusions
 - b. not all hospitals have platelets readily available
 - c. they should be administered immediately preoperatively
 - d. they should **not** be run through a micropore filter

Haematological Considerations

- indications,

1. ***haemophilia A***

- factor VIII:C deficiency → principal use
- not indicated for haemophilia B, as minimal content of factor IX

2. ***fibrinogen deficiency***

- preferable to commercial fibrinogen preparations, which are pooled from 500-5000 donations and carry a high infection risk
- massive transfusion → plasma fibrinogen < 0.8 g/l
- **10 units** increase plasma levels ~ 1 g/l in an adult (N:1.5-4.0 g/l)

- **Haemophilia B**

- patients with haemophilia B (IX deficiency) are managed with commercial concentrates which contain F-VII, IX and X
- concentrates are from pooled donor sources and have a greater risk of ***transmissible disease***
- this has now been reduced by heat treating, or ***monoclonal*** production

- **Prothrombinex**

- contains factors **II, IX and X** → ~ 250^U / 10 ml for each factor
- has low levels of VII
- prepared from human donor plasma
- presented as a freeze dried powder, requiring reconstitution with water
- screened for HBV, HBC and heat treated for HIV
- average dose ~ 1 ml/kg for acute haemorrhage, then 0.5 ml/kg each 24 hours

Von Willebrands Disease

- heterogeneous disorder of factor **VIII:vWF** function, three types

1. type I - decreased VIII:vWF ***concentration***
2. type II - decreased VIII:vWF ***function***
3. type III - rare, combined disorder with severe clinical symptoms

NB: all are ***autosomal dominant*** except for type III, ***incidence*** ~ **1:800-1,000**

- coagulation studies vary with time and may be ***normal*** when tested,

1. increased skin bleeding time
2. normal platelet count
3. may have a small increase in APTT

PLASMA & COLLOIDS

■ Haemaccel

- synthetic polypeptide plasma volume expander
- **3.5% gelatin** solution, with the mean MW ~ 35,000-45,000
- gelatin prepared from hydrolysis of **animal collagen**, cross linked by **urea bridges**
- plasma expansion by ~ **70%** of infused volume
- renal excretion by GFR complete by 48 hours
- useful as a synthetic plasma substitute & as an insulin carrier
 - gelatin ~ 35 g
 - Na⁺ ~ 145 mmol/l
 - Cl⁻ ~ 145 mmol/l
 - K⁺ ~ **5.1** mmol/l
 - Ca⁺⁺ ~ **6.25** mmol/l
 - HSO₄⁻/HPO₄²⁻ ~ small amounts
 - pH ~ 7.3
 - osmolality ~ 300-306 mosm/l
- advantages,
 - a. cheap, safe, reliable synthetic colloid
 - b. low incidence of adverse reactions
 - c. renal excretion
 - d. long shelf half-life ~ 8 yrs at 15°C
~ 3 yrs at 30°C
- disadvantages,
 - a. allergic reactions ~ 0.146% ~ **1:650**
 - skin rashes, pyrexia
 - anaphylactoid reaction ? due to **hexamethylene diisocyanate**
 - renal failure rare
 - b. short t_{1/2β} ~ 1.5-6 hrs (x' ~ 3-4 hrs)
 - c. renal excretion
 - d. Ca⁺⁺ related complications

Haematological Considerations

■ Dextrans

- polysaccharides produced by fermentation of sucrose by *Leuconostoc mesenteroides* bacteria
- these are then hydrolysed and fractionated into different molecular weights
- advantages,
 - a. stable, cheap, non-toxic
 - b. non-pyrogenic plasma substitutes & expanders

■ Dextran 40 Rheomacrodex

- 10% (100g/l) solution in normal saline or 5% dextrose
- average MW ~ 40,000, osmolality ~ 350-370 mosm/kg, ie. **hypertonic**
- plasma $t_{\frac{1}{2}\beta}$ ~ 2-3 hrs with ~ 5% being metabolised (70 mg/kg/day)
 - i. plasma volume expansion ~ **1.5-2x** infused volume
 - ii. thromboembolic prophylaxis ~ 38% ↓ DVT
 - iii. rheological microcirculatory benefit
 - iv. CPB pump priming
- contraindications,
 - i. thrombocytopenia
 - ii. coagulopathy
 - iii. hypersensitivity
- problems,
 - i. hypervolaemia, circulatory overload, CCF
 - ii. anaphylactoid / anaphylactic reactions ~ 0.07% ~ **1:1500**
 - reduced by Promit (0.001%)
 - iii. renal failure - renal tubular obstruction
- does **not** interfere with blood cross-matching or Coomb's testing, cf. high MW dextran
- maximum dose ~ 30 ml/kg/day

■ Dextran 70 Macrodex

- 6% (60g/l) solution in normal saline or 5% dextrose
- average MW ~ 70,000, osmolality ~ 335 mosm/kg, ie. mildly **hypertonic**
- plasma $t_{\frac{1}{2}\beta}$ ~ 6 hrs with ~ 5% being metabolised (70 mg/kg/day)
- problems are the same as for dextran 40, plus, interference with **haemostasis** with large volumes
 - a. fibrinogen coating
 - b. interferes with factor VIII
 - c. decreased platelet adhesion and aggregation

NB: *does not* interfere with normal X-match & indirect Coomb's, only enzyme assays

Haematology

■ SPPS NSA-5%

- heat treated plasma protein solution, was mainly albumin, now marketed as NSA-5%
- prepared from fractionated plasma from pooled human donors
- *pasteurised* to kill HBV, HCV, HIV etc.
- shelf-life → **5 yrs** at 2-8°C
→ 1 yr at 25°C
- **Na⁺-octanoate** is added to stabilise the short chain FFA and heat stabilise albumin
- acetate and citrate 1-2 mmol/l are added
- NaOH is added to bring the pH to 7.0
 - human albumin ~ 50 g/l
 - Na⁺ ~ 140 mmol/l
 - Cl⁻ ~ 125 mmol/l
 - octanoate ~ 8 mmol/l
 - pH ~ 7.0
 - osmolality ~ 300 mosm/kg
- main problem was *anaphylactoid reactions* (~ 0.02%), ? heat labile *pre-kallikrein factor*
- other plasma substitutes include,
 - a. hydroxy ethyl starch - t_{½β} ~ 24 hrs
 - reactions ~ 0.08%
 - b. fluosol DA
 - c. FFP
 - d. NSA-20% *cf. old HSA-conc. which was 25%

Common Intravenous Solutions ¹									
Solution	Na ⁺	Cl ⁻	K ⁺	Ca ⁺⁺	Glu	Osm.	pH	Lact.	kJ/l
D ₅ W	0	0	0	0	278	253	5	0	840
NaCl 0.9%	150	150	0	0	0	300	5.7	0	0
NaCl 3.0%	513	513	0	0	0	855	5.7	0	0
D ₄ W / NaCl 0.18%	30	30	0	0	222	282	3.5-5.5	0	672
Hartmans	129	109	5	0	0	274	6.7	28	37.8
Plasmalyte	140	98	5			294	5.5	(27)	84
Haemaccel	145	145	5.1	6.25	0	293	7.3	0	0
NSA-5%	140	125	0	0	0		7	0	?
NSA-20%									?
Mannitol 20%	0	0	0	0	0	1,098	6.2	0	0
Dextran 70	154	154	0	0	0	300	4-7	0	0

¹ values in mmol/l, irrespective of common presentation volume

PLASMA EXCHANGE

■ Rationale

1. removal/reduction of circulating toxic factor
 - i. antibodies
 - monoclonal
 - autoantibodies
 - alloantibodies
 - ii. immune complexes
 - iii. mediators of inflammation
 - iv. chemicals
 - v. drugs
2. replacement of deficient plasma factors
3. potentiation of drug action
4. enhanced RES function
5. altered immunoregulation
6. potentiation of other modes of therapy

■ Acute Diseases

1. ***immunoproliferative diseases*** with monoclonal Ab's
 - i. hyperviscosity syndrome - Waldenstrom's macroglobulinaemia
 - ii. cryoglobulinaemia
 - iii. renal failure in multiple myeloma
2. ***autoimmune diseases***
 - i. Goodpasture's syndrome
 - ii. myasthenia gravis
 - iii. GBS
 - iv. SLE
 - v. TTP
 - vi. rapidly progressive GN
 - vii. coagulation inhibitors
 - viii. autoimmune haemolytic anaemia
 - ix. pemphigus
3. plasma ***factor replacement*** → FFP replacement
 - i. DIC
 - ii. SIRS
 - iii. immunodeficiency states

4. Reye's syndrome - mechanism unknown
5. ***toxin removal***
 - i. paraquat poisoning
 - ii. envenomation
6. rapid plasma removal & rbc replacement in severe anaemia with CCF/IHD

■ Complications

1. ***technical***
 - i. vascular access - pneumothorax, arterial puncture
 - ii. air embolism
 - iii. acute hypo/hypervolaemia - unilateral pump failure
- incorrect setting
 - iv. heat loss - especially children
2. ***circulatory***
 - i. hypo/hypervolaemia - need fluid balance chart, daily weight
 - ii. vasovagal reactions
 - iii. vasoactive reactions
 - iv. immediate generalised response
3. ***haemostasis***
 - i. require heparinisation unless existing coagulopathy
 - ii. altered procoagulant / anticoagulant protein levels
→ variable effects, haemorrhagic & thrombotic
 - iii. decreased antithrombin III & altered response to heparin
4. ***immunology***
 - i. frequently pre-existing immunosuppression
 - ii. reduction in immunoglobulin & complement levels with repeated exchange
 - iii. bacteriacidal & opsonic properties impaired unless FFP used as replacement
→ use 2 units after large or frequent exchange
 - iv. risk of post-transfusion infection - hepatitis
5. ***metabolic effects***
 - i. disequilibrium syndrome - less than with haemodialysis
 - ii. alterations of COP & oedema formation
 - iii. altered transport & binding protein levels

HAEMOSTATIC FAILURE

Normal Coagulation

NB: the "classical" division of coagulation into *intrinsic & extrinsic systems* is not applicable to humans *in vivo*,

1. no coagulopathy, nor disease state, is associated with deficiencies of several of the proteins of the *intrinsic system*
2. *thrombin* generation is via
 - i. tissue factor, factor VII, factors IX and X, plus
 - ii. an absolute requirement for *platelet phospholipid*, *VIII:C* and *V* as cofactors

■ Critical Events

1. the binding of *von Willebrand Factor* to the exposed *subendothelium*
 - this may be deficient due to,
 - i. diminished levels of vWF (vWD - type I)
 - ii. structural abnormality of vWF, or (vWD - type IIa, IIb)
 - iii. abnormality of collagen
2. subendothelial bound vWF exposes & binds multiple glycoprotein platelet receptors (**GPIb receptors**)
 - the **vWF-GPIb** interaction is probably central to many surgical coagulopathies
 - manipulation of this event is the likely 1° role of *aprotinin*
 - this step fails when,
 - i. too few platelets < 50,000 → critical impairment of surgical haemostasis
 - ii. circulation failure
 - demargination is seen at PCV < 20%
 - functional dilution by blood flow
 - iii. lack of GPIb
 - arises during CPB due to proteolytic degradation
 - absent from platelets stored > 3 days
 - **Bernard-Soulier** syndrome
 - iv. GPIb dysfunctional
 - abnormal protein or already occupied
 - myeloma, ITP
 - dextran infusion

NB: the next 2 steps of haemostasis, generation of the *platelet plug*, and solidification of that plug by *coagulation*, are completely dependent upon adhesion of platelets to the site of injury

Murphy *et al.* (BJA 1993) state that the *bleeding time* is the only practicable test of this axis, although it has poor predictive value as a *screening test*, in the patient with clinically manifest coagulopathy it is a useful indicator (??)

■ Platelet Plug Formation

- activation of platelets occurs via **thrombin**, **ADP**, and possibly the GPIb-vWF complex
- release of procoagulants and ligands from alpha and dense granules results in further activation and platelet adhesion
- a satisfactory platelet plug will not be formed if,
 1. there are too few platelets
 2. they are functionally inert
 - storage > 3 days
 - CPB
 - aspirin, uraemia, alcohol
 - congenitally impaired
- subsequent activation of the coagulation cascade results in the formation of **thrombin**, with the generation of **fibrin** from fibrinogen
- this self-polymerising species is then converted by X-linking of strands by **factor XIII_a**
- abnormalities of this step may be due to,
 1. congenital deficiencies
 - haemophilia A & B
 2. acquired deficiencies
 - i. anticoagulant therapy/overdose
 - ii. vitamin K deficiency
 - iii. liver disease, malnutrition
 - iv. complex acquired coagulopathies
 - DIC
 - massive transfusion, dilution
 - CPB
 - liver transplantation

■ Anticoagulant Mechanisms

1. antithrombin pathways
 - i. antithrombin III
 - ii. proteins C & S
2. extrinsic pathway inhibition → VII_a-thromboplastin complex inhibitor
3. fibrinolytic system
 - i. tPA released by endothelial cells & incorporated into fibrin clot
 - ii. fibrinogen-bound plasminogen → **plasmin**
 - iii. plasmin cleaves several proteins
 - fibrinogen & fibrin
 - factor VIII:C and platelet GPIb

Haematological Considerations

Routine Tests of Coagulation

1. bleeding time
 - i. Simplate II
 - modified Ivy technique
 - tourniquet @ 40 mmHg & standard template incision
 - normal range < **9 minutes**, operator dependent
 - ii. Duke or Ivy
 - less reproducible than Simplate II
2. platelet count ~ 150-400 x 10⁹/l
3. thrombin time
 - normal range 14-16s
 - tests final conversion of **fibrinogen** ® **fibrin**
 - bypasses intrinsic & extrinsic systems, and is abnormal in,
 - i. afibrinogenaemia, hypofibrinogenaemia, dysfibrinogenaemia
 - ii. heparin therapy - corrects with protamine
 - iii. elevated FDP's - partially corrects with protamine
4. international normalised ratio / prothrombin time
 - tests the **extrinsic pathway**, normal range ~ 13-17s
 - platelet poor citrated plasma is recalcified & brain thromboplastin added
 - time taken to clot is measured as a ratio of control reagent
 - standardised control reduces inter-laboratory variation
 - recommended Australasian Reference Thromboplastin, ART
 - i. VII deficiency
 - ii. liver disease, warfarin therapy, vitamin K deficiency
5. activated partial thromboplastin time
 - normal range ~ 25-35 s
 - screens for coagulation factor deficiency, except **VII & XIII**
 - recalcified, platelet poor citrated plasma, plus an activator & platelet substitute
 - varies with reagents used and laboratory
 - interpret with clinical findings and prothrombin time
 - i. factor deficiency → corrected by the addition of normal plasma
 - ii. factor inhibitor → not corrected by normal plasma
 - iii. heparin therapy → therapeutic range ~ 1.5-2.5 x baseline
6. fibrin/fibrinogen degradation products
 - blood collected into a tube containing thrombin & a fibrinolytic inhibitor
 - latex agglutination test against **fibrinogen-related Ag** in serum
 - standard FDP's don't differentiate between 1° and 2° fibrinolysis
 - XDP's measure **D-dimer** which indicates fibrinolysis after fibrin formation
 - i. ↑ FDP, XDP
 - local lysis of fibrin, DIC
 - malignancy, systemic infection, SIRS
 - ii. ↑ FDP
 - primary fibrinolysis
 - iii. normal XDP's helps exclude **pulmonary thromboembolic disease**

Haematology

7. fibrinogen - N: 1.5-4.0 g/l
- test either based upon thrombin clotting time, heat precipitation or immunological methods
 - discrepancies between functional and immunological methods found in the presence of FDP's and dysfibrinogenaemia
- i. decreased production
- hereditary a/hypo-fibrinogenaemia
 - liver disease
 - severe malnutrition syndromes
- ii. increased consumption
- DIC
 - fibrinolysis
8. euglobulin lysis time
- normal range > 90 minutes
 - ↓ time reflects the presence of activators of the *fibrinolytic system*
9. thromboelastography
- functional assessment of the entire coagulation cascade & fibrinolytic system
 - results may take up to several hours
 - requires multiple samples run sequentially throughout procedure
 - frequently require treatment prior to availability of results

Common Coagulation Disorders		
APTT -	INR -	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • usually acquired • liver disease, oral anticoagulants, DIC • - II, V, X
APTT -	INR «	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ↓ VIII:C, IX - haemophilias • ↑ ATIII - heparin • ↓ VIII:vWF
APTT «	INR -	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • mild liver disease • early in oral anticoagulant use • ↓ VII - rare congenital deficiency

Acquired Coagulopathies in Surgical Patients

■ Predisposing Factors

1. sepsis
2. hypoxia
3. hypothermia
4. severe tissue damage
5. massive blood loss or prolonged hypotension
6. cardiopulmonary bypass CPB
7. pre-existing liver disease, liver transplantation
8. obstetric complications
 - AFE
 - abruption
9. pre-existing bleeding diathesis- vWD, thrombocytopaenia
 - anticoagulation, aspirin

■ Hypovolaemic Shock / Massive Transfusion

- diagnosis is based mainly upon *clinical grounds*, with supporting laboratory data
- 2 underlying mechanisms,

1. dilution of platelets and coagulation factors
2. consumption 2° activation of tissue factor & tPA released from traumatised tissues

NB: *dilutional thrombocytopaenia* is the most frequent cause, often becoming apparent at transfusions > 1 BV and platelets < 100,000 x 10⁶/mm³
the platelet count *does not* determine the functional integrity of platelets

- prolongation of the OSPT and APTT in the absence of DIC is usually due to *hypofibrinogenaemia*, the presence of DIC leads to loss of other factors (V & VIII:C)
- RDM states that fibrinogen not low in stored blood, \ ↓ fibrinogen = consumption / DIC
- this is supported by data from Red Cross BB, virtually no loss of fibrinogen with storage of whole blood, however if transfused large quantities of packed cells then this may become significant

NB: all agree the use of prophylactic FFP or platelets in *massive transfusion*, in the absence of clinical & laboratory evidence of coagulopathy, is *not justified*

■ Disseminated Intravascular Coagulation

- non-localised activation of the coagulation and fibrinolytic systems
- trigger varies, but the universal pathology is circulating **phospholipid** → coagulation activation
- this may be manifest primarily as a,
 - i. haemorrhagic disorder - loss of platelets & soluble clotting factors
- especially **fibrinogen**, V and VIII:C
 - ii. thrombotic disorder - distal gangrene & organ infarction
 - iii. mixture of both
- **heparin therapy** is based on the premise that inhibition of **thrombin** will,
 1. reduce the consumption of fibrinogen, other clotting factors and platelets
 2. reduce both the thrombotic tendency and the haemorrhagic disorder

NB: there have been **no trials** which support this view
in several studies the heparin treated group have had a **worse outcome**
- treatment is therefore aimed at,
 1. correcting the underlying pathology, ie. removing circulating phospholipid, and
 2. replacement component therapy
- there is no compelling evidence that administration of clotting factors & platelets increases the incidence of thrombotic complications with DIC
- other treatments which may become viable include antithrombin III and protein C

■ Liver Transplantation

- a. complex coagulopathy from procedure itself
 - b. preoperative **liver dysfunction**
 - ↓ II, V, VII, IX, X, XI and fibrinogen
 - ↓ plasminogen, α_1 -antiplasmin
 - ↓ proteins C & S, antithrombin III
 - c. **hypersplenism** - some patients
 - d. **massive transfusion** - some patients
- NB:** a low grade DIC or **consumptive coagulopathy** frequently exists,
due to decreased hepatic clearance of activated coagulation factors
- significant **fibrinolysis** may occur during the **anhepatic phase** due to,
 1. increased release of tPA from hypoperfused distal tissues (?? why)
 2. lack of hepatic α_1 -antiplasmin
 - **aprotinin** is effective in preventing the coagulopathy with orthoptic liver transplantation
 - earlier studies suggesting reduced blood-loss with antithrombin-III have not been supported

Haematological Considerations

■ Cardiopulmonary Bypass

- recent studies have shown large doses of *aprotinin* reduce blood-loss associated with CPB
- originally studied in the 60's & 70's with no significant effect, but using much smaller (~ 50%) doses than present studies
- Royston 1987 reported a significant reduction in blood-loss associated with CPB for repeat valve replacement procedures
- the aim of this study was to assess the effects upon postoperative pulmonary function, the results on blood-loss were unexpected
- other studies have extended these findings to patients with,
 - i. septic endocarditis
 - ii. recent aspirin ingestion

- detrimental effects of CPB on haemostasis include,
 1. platelets dysfunction / consumption
 - i. loss of membrane structure & granule contents
 - ii. generation of activation markers on the cell surface
 2. activation of the fibrinolytic & contact systems
 3. activation of granulocytes with degranulation

- the likely, not proven, site of action of aprotinin is platelet *membrane GPIb*
 - a. loss of GPIb is one of the early events during CPB which is prevented by aprotinin
 - b. GPIb contains the binding site for thrombin-induced platelet activation
 - c. enzymatic hydrolysis of GPIb may result in platelet activation

- GPIb is a transmembrane heterodimer, readily cleaved by plasmin, elastase and calpain
- all of these are direct *platelet agonists* and are inhibited by aprotinin,
 1. *plasmin* - activity 2° tPA or contact system activation
 2. *elastase* - generated from activated neutrophils during CPB
- inhibition requires greater concentrations cf. plasmin
 3. *calpain* - cysteine protease present on thrombin stimulated platelets
- ? also plasmin stimulated platelets

- NB:** inhibition of tPA-induced plasmin on the platelet surface could account for much or all of the observed effect

■ Ruptured Aortic Aneurysms

- **mortality** is strongly associated with coagulopathy and uncontrollable haemorrhage
- of those who reach hospital the mortality ~ 21-70%, mean ~ 50%
- postoperatively, haemorrhage and MOSF are the major causes of death
- coagulopathy *per se* is associated with other factors which increase mortality,

1. increased time for resuscitation
2. more extensive surgical procedures
3. larger transfusion requirement
4. renal failure

NB: however, coagulopathy itself increases risk, being due to either,

- i. DIC
- ii. dilution of platelets and procoagulant factors
- iii. a combination of both

- patients presenting appear to fall into 2 groups, one with a relatively good prognosis, the other with a mortality ~ 70-100%
- Bell *et al.* (Transfusion Med.1991) in a prospective study, took admission coagulation screens on 23 consecutive acute AAA's,

- a. 6 of 13 patients with abnormal screens died
- b. 0 of 10 with normal screens died

- these findings have been supported by other studies, with 4 of 4 and 11 of 15 dying
- it **has not** been demonstrated that early correction of the coagulation abnormality in these patients will improve survival
- previous attempts to avert the coagulopathy of massive transfusion with platelets & FFP have been unsuccessful

NB: early & aggressive attempts to reverse **tissue hypoxia** probably offer the best chance of preventing the coagulopathy and improving survival in this patient group

■ Fibrin Glue

- prepared as a 2-part solution of **fibrinogen** and **thrombin**
- direct application onto the bleeding site bypasses the physiological requirements for haemostasis
- may delay nerve and bone repair
- other complications, viral transmission, adhesion formation and unwanted thrombosis remain theoretical
- evidence of efficacy best demonstrated in the presence of congenital or acquired disorders
- recent large prospective trial comparing fibrin with conventional topical haemostasis showed 90% success cf. 12.4%

METHODS OF HOMOLOGOUS TRANSFUSION REDUCTION

1. reduction of blood loss
 - i. surgical techniques
 - diathermy & ligature
 - limb tourniquets
 - local vasoconstrictor
 - ii. ***anaesthetic techniques***
 - regional anaesthesia
 - controlled hypotension
 - pharmacotherapy
2. toleration of a lower haematocrit
3. autologous transfusion
 - i. preoperative donation & autologous transfusion
 - ii. acute venesection, isovolaemic haemodilution & autologous transfusion
 - iii. intraoperative cell salvage
4. dedicated "homologous" transfusion

Toleration of a Lower Haematocrit

- historically a Hct < 30% has been an indication for perioperative transfusion
- O₂ carrying capacity decreases ***linearly*** with Hct, however physiological DO₂ may be maximal at a Hct ~ 30%
- Fortune *et al.* (J.Trauma 1987) conducted a prospective study of trauma patients managed at either a Hct ~ 30 or a Hct ~ 40
 1. no improvement in cardiopulmonary function with a higher Hct
 2. increased ***shunt fraction*** in higher group due to greater number of transfusions
- animal data suggest a ***critical Hct ~ 10%***, below which cardiovascular reserve is exhausted
- Tremper (ASA 1992),
 1. healthy patients with good CVS function tolerate **Hct ~ 20** and below if adequately volume resuscitated
 2. in patients with impaired myocardial function, Hct ~ 30% may be required
 3. signs of CVS decompensation require assessment of need for transfusion

Controlled Hypotension

Def'n: deliberate induction of a MABP ~ 50-65 mmHg

1. reduction of intraoperative **blood loss**
 - first controlled study Eikenhoff & Rich 1966
 - most studies → ~ **50% reduction**
 - variable response, some patients do not respond as expected
 - effects appear to be independent of changes in cardiac output
 - more effective than haemodilution in reducing transfusion requirement
2. improved **visibility** of the surgical field
 - may be better monitor than absolute pressure reduction

NB: absolute pressure reduction may be less important than hypotension plus positioning & venous drainage

■ Indications

- a. neurosurgery
 - aneurysm
 - tumour resection
- b. orthopaedic
 - joint replacement
 - bone transplant
 - extensive back surgery
- c. oncology
 - large tumours & exenteration procedures
- d. plastic surgery
 - large tumours
 - head and neck procedures
- e. ENT
 - middle ear surgery, rhinoplasty
 - head and neck tumours
- f. patient refusal of transfusion & anticipated major blood-loss

■ Monitoring

1. routine
 - FiO_2 , S_pO_2 , ETCO_2 , NIBP, ECG, temperature, spirometry
2. IABP
 - * **radial** not dorsalis pedis
 - inaccuracies at low MABP with vasodilatation
3. CVP / PAOP
 - ∞ estimated blood loss & presence of CVS disease
4. mixed venous P_{vO_2} where higher doses of SNP used
5. investigational
 - i. EEG, processed EEG, SSEP's
 - ii. gastric mucosal pH

Haematological Considerations

■ Methods of Hypotension

1. controlled haemorrhage
2. regional anaesthesia
3. inhalational anaesthetics
4. vasodilators
 - i. nitrovasodilators - SNP, GTN, hydrallazine
 - ii. ganglionic blocking agents - trimethaphan
 - iii. adrenergic blocking agents - α , α/β
 - iv. adenosine
 - v. PGE₁
 - vi. calcium channel blockers & Mg⁺⁺
5. central α_2 -agonists - clonidine, dexmedetomidine

■ Organ System Effects

NB: end-organ effects depend upon,

- i. the **method** of hypotension (hypovolaemia → ↓ perfusion)
- ii. the **duration & magnitude** of hypotension
- iii. preexisting end-organ dysfunction

1. CNS

- assessed by ¹³³Xe clearance, EEG changes, jugular venous P_{vO2}
→ no permanent changes in cerebral function
- current rationale for lower limit for MABP ~ 50-65 mmHg based upon the lower limit of **cerebral autoregulation**
- curve shifted to the right in chronic hypertensive patients
- possibly some advantage using SNP at lower levels of MABP
→ better preservation of CBF and BBB function
- deep isoflurane anaesthesia results in better preservation of cellular P_{O2} values
- at MAP ~ 50 mmHg, CMRO₂ is favourably influenced
- **all** agents may result in increased CBV & ICP, thus should not be used prior to opening of the cranium, unless ICP is monitored

2. Respiratory

- i. ↑ dead space ∞ ↓ MAP, ↑ mean P_{AW}, ↑ head-up tilt
 - prevented by maintenance of CO with **volume loading**
- ii. ↑ shunt ∞ ↓ HPV
 - effects are greatest in **normal** subjects, cf. CAL patients → no change
 - SNP > GTN >> isoflurane
 - controlled ventilation preferred

3. CVS

- deep halothane was associated with $\downarrow\downarrow$ CO \rightarrow SNP, GTN, trimethaphan
- IV agents **are not** associated with regional ischaemia in the absence of **severe stenosis** \rightarrow $> 40\%$ reduction in resting CBF
- **trimethaphan** may offer some advantage in the presence of severe IHD
- **isoflurane** \rightarrow \downarrow SVR & minimal change in CO
- Reiz *et al.* 1983 \rightarrow isoflurane induced coronary steal
- retrospective & outcome studies show no significance of "steal" during CABG, but ? no direct data relating induced hypotension doses
- further, episodes of clinical "steal" have usually been ascribed to concurrent hypotension, (Merin, Adv.Anesth.1989)
- **adenosine** also appears effective & safe but requires further testing in the presence of IHD

4. Renal

- RBF/GFR decrease but readily return following hypotension
- no adverse effects & renal dysfunction is infrequently seen

5. Gastrointestinal

- no portal venous autoregulation & minimal hepatic autoregulation
- no changes in LFT's at MABP \sim 50-65 mmHg
- severe changes and centrilobular necrosis seen at MABP $<$ 25 mmHg

6. Eye

- uveal and retinal arterial supplies
- no precapillary sphincters in the uveal circulation, \ **pressure passive** flow
- changes in MAP directly transmitted to IOP
- transient visual impairment & rarely blindness may result

■ Contraindications

1. longstanding uncorrected hypertension
2. major end-organ dysfunction
 - i. cerebrovascular disease
 - ii. severe ischaemic heart disease
 - iii. hepatic or renal disease
3. peripheral vascular disease
4. uncorrected hypovolaemia
5. severe anaemia

NB: most of these are relative contraindications, depending upon severity, eg. hypotension via GTN is used in the R_x of severe angina !

Autologous Transfusion

1. preoperative donation & storage
2. acute preoperative phlebotomy & haemodilution
3. perioperative salvage from the surgical site

■ Preoperative Donation & Storage

1. minimisation of transfusion reactions - excluding *clerical errors*
2. minimal disease transmission - bacteraemia is an absolute C/I
3. stimulation of *erythropoiesis* - hidden benefit
4. long-term frozen storage in patients with unusual antibodies

- requires ~ 72 hours to normalise *plasma proteins*, therefore last donation should be at least 3 days prior to surgery
- all patients should receive *iron supplements*
- "high risk" patients are not necessarily unable to donate

NB: it is *not recommended* to use a unit of autologous blood unless transfusion actually indicated, due to small incidence of clerical error etc.

■ Acute Preoperative Phlebotomy & Haemodilution

- fast, easy and inexpensive
- less planning than pre-donation
- limited number of units, with decreasing Hct in each
- not suitable for patients anaemic preoperatively
- will also dilute platelets and coagulation factors, therefore avoid with coagulopathy
- volume replacement either with crystalloid (3:1) or colloid
- the estimated *withdrawal volume* is given by the estimated blood volume and Hct,

$$V_w \sim EBV \times \frac{H_i - H_e}{H_{AV}}$$

where H_i = initial Hct, H_e = endpoint and H_{AV} = the average

- blood is collected into standard anticoagulant bags, requiring thorough mixing
- may be kept safely,
 - a. at room temperature ~ 6 hrs
 - b. refrigerated ~ 24 hrs

Haematological Considerations

■ Intraoperative Blood Salvage

1. semicontinuous flow centrifuge → washed cells with a Hct ~ 60-70%
2. cannister collection & disposable liner
3. single use, self-contained revision

NB: 2 & 3 → unwashed cells, little data re Hct

- none of these techniques will have functioning *platelets* or *coagulation factors*
- all are relatively contraindicated in the presence of malignant cell or bacterial contamination

Red Blood Cell Substitutes

1. stroma-free haemoglobin SFH
 - i. free Hb → $P_{50} \sim 12-14$ mmHg
 - prepared by filtration of outdated, lysed rbc's
 - small size of free α/β chains results in ready *glomerular filtration*
 - plasma half-life ~ 3-4 hours, ∴ limited use
 - ii. ***modified rDNA Hb***
 - 1 amino-acid change on α -chains maintains tetrameric structure
 - longer plasma half-life
 - $P_{50} \sim 32$ mmHg
 - a solution of 7 gm% has an oncotic pressure ~ 25 mmHg
2. perfluorochemical emulsions PFC
 - inert, immiscible liquids with an O_2 solubility ~ 20x normal plasma
 - emulsified forming suspensions ~ 0.1 μ m, but problems with stability
 - content ***linear*** with P_{aO_2} therefore require high FiO_2
 - fluorocrits ~ 2% with a $P_{aO_2} \sim 500$ mmHg → $C_{aO_2} \sim 1.5$ ml%
 - "Fluosol DA 20%" trialed in Japan

NB: both of these solutions are cleared by the reticuloendothelial system, and have effective plasma half-lives of ~ 24 hours

THE ANAEMIAS

Classification

1. abnormal *iron metabolism*
 - i. iron deficiency anaemia
 - ii. anaemias with 2° iron loading
 - sideroblastic anaemias
 - transfusional haemochromatosis
2. *megaloblastic* anaemias
 - i. cobalamin deficiency
 - ii. folate deficiency
 - iii. other causes
3. anaemia of *chronic disease*
4. *haemolytic* anaemias
5. anaemias with *abnormal haemoglobins*
6. primary *marrow* failure & the myeloproliferative disorders

■ Iron Deficiency Anaemias

1. increased utilisation
 - postnatal & adolescent growth spurts
2. physiological iron loss
 - menstruation & pregnancy
3. pathological iron loss
 - i. GIT or GUS blood-loss
 - ii. pulmonary haemosiderosis
 - iii. intravascular haemolysis
4. decreased iron intake
 - i. cereal-rich, meat-poor diets, food faddists
 - ii. elderly & indigent persons
 - iii. malabsorption syndromes, post-gastrectomy

■ Sideroblastic Anaemias

1. hereditary or congenital sideroblastic anaemia
2. acquired sideroblastic anaemia
 - i. drugs / toxins
 - alcohol, lead, isoniazid, chloramphenacol
 - ii. neoplasia & inflammatory disease
 - iii. alkalating agent chemotherapy
 - cyclophosphamide

Haematological Considerations

■ Megaloblastic Anaemias

1. *cobalamin deficiency*

- i. inadequate intake - vegetarians, rarely
- ii. malabsorption
 - ↓ intrinsic factor
 - pernicious anaemia
 - post-gastrectomy
 - congenital absence or dysfunction (rare)
 - terminal ileal disease
 - tropical sprue, non-tropical sprue
 - regional enteritis
 - surgical resection
 - neoplasms & granulomatous disorders (rare)
 - selective B₁₂ malabsorption
 - competition for B₁₂
 - tapeworm
 - bacteria, blind loop syndrome
 - drugs
 - PAS, cholchicine, neomycin
 - other
 - N₂O, transcobalamin II deficiency

2. *folic acid deficiency*

- i. inadequate intake - alcoholics, teenagers (fads), some infants
- ii. increased requirements
 - infancy, pregnancy
 - malignancy
 - increased erythropoiesis (chronic haemolysis)
 - chronic exfoliative skin disorders
 - haemodialysis
- iii. malabsorption
 - intestinal disease - tropical sprue, non-tropical sprue
 - drugs - phenytoin, ethanol, barbiturates
- iv. impaired metabolism
 - ↓ dihydrofolate reductase
 - methotrexate
 - pyrimethamine, triamterene, pentamidine, etc.
 - alcohol
 - congenital enzyme abnormalities

3. *other causes*

- i. drugs which impair DNA metabolism
 - *nitrous oxide* - ↓ methionine synthase, *10-formyl-THF*
 - purine antagonists - 6-mercaptopurine, azathioprine
 - pyrimidine antagonists - 5-FU, cytosine arabinoside
 - miscellaneous - acyclovir, zidovudine, hydroxyurea
- ii. metabolic disorders - rare
- iii. unknown aetiology
 - refractory megaloblastic anaemia
 - Di Guglielmo's syndrome (atypical acute non-lymphocytic leukaemia)
 - congenital dyserythropoietic anaemia

■ Anaemia of Chronic Disease

1. chronic inflammatory disorders
 - i. infection
 - ii. connective tissue disorders
 - iii. malignancy
2. uraemia
3. endocrine failure
 - hypothyroidism, Addison's
 - hypogonadism, panhypopituitarism
4. hepatic failure

■ Haemolytic Anaemias

1. extrinsic abnormalities
 - i. splenomegaly
 - ii. red cell antibodies - *immunohaemolytic anaemias* (see below)
 - iii. mechanical trauma
 - impact - march haematuria, CPB pump
 - turbulence - artificial valves, calcific stenoses
 - microangiopathic - HUS, pre-eclampsia, DIC, TTP
 - iv. direct toxic effect - malaria, clostridial infection
2. membrane abnormalities
 - i. spur cell anaemia
 - ii. paroxysmal nocturnal haemoglobinuria
 - iii. hereditary spherocytosis
 - iv. rare causes - hereditary elliptocytosis, stomatocytosis
3. intrinsic red cell abnormalities
 - i. enzyme deficiency
 - Embden-Meyerhof (glycolytic) - pyruvate kinase, hexokinase
 - hexose-monophosphate shunt - **G6PD**
 - ii. haemoglobinopathies
 - iii. Thalassaemias

Haematological Considerations

■ Immunohaemolytic Anaemias

1. **warm antibody** immunohaemolytic anaemia
 - i. idiopathic
 - ii. lymphomas
 - Hodgkin's, non-Hodgkin's lymphoma
 - chronic lymphocytic leukaemia
 - iii. SLE
 - iv. tumours
 - rarely
 - v. drugs
 - α -methyl dopa type → warm Ab type
 - penicillin type → hapten mediated
 - quinidine type → "innocent bystander"
2. **cold antibody** immunohaemolytic anaemia
 - i. cold agglutinin disease
 - acute
 - mycoplasma infection
 - infectious mononucleosis
 - chronic
 - idiopathic
 - lymphoma
 - ii. paroxysmal cold haemoglobinuria

■ Abnormal Haemoglobins

1. sickle syndromes
 - i. sickle cell trait
 - AS
 - ii. sickle cell anaemia
 - SS
 - iii. double heterozygous states
 - sickle β -Thalassaemia
 - sickle C disease
 - SC
 - sickle D disease
 - SD
2. unstable Hb variants
 - congenital Heinz body haemolytic anaemia
3. variants with high O₂ affinity
 - familial erythrocytosis
4. M haemoglobins
 - familial cyanosis

Myeloproliferative Disorders

1. ***chronic myeloid leukaemia***
 - massive splenomegaly & leukocytosis ~ 50,000 - 200,000
 - chronic, relatively indolent, phase & the blastic phase which is rapidly fatal
 - characteristic chromosomal abnormality, ***Philadelphia chromosome***
2. ***polycythaemia rubra vera***
 - increased rbc mass with ↑ wbc's and platelets ~ 50%
 - pruritis, plethoric facies, retinal vein engorgement, symptoms of impaired cerebral blood flow
 - accelerated atherosclerotic and thrombotic disease, or haemorrhagic disease
 - splenomegaly ~ 75%
3. ***myelofibrosis***
 - fibrosis of bone marrow and extramedullary erythropoiesis, mainly the liver and spleen → hepato-splenomegaly
 - thrombotic tendency, haemorrhage is uncommon
4. ***essential thrombocytosis*** ***thrombocythaemia***
 - excessive megakaryocyte proliferation, with platelets ≥ 800,000
 - symptoms resemble PRV, with haemorrhagic or thrombotic complications

ANAPHYLAXIS

Def'n: anaphylaxis: symptom complex following exposure of a *sensitised* individual to an antigen, produced by immediate hypersensitivity or a type I hypersensitivity reaction, associated with IgE mediated mast cell degranulation

anaphylactoid reactions: are indistinguishable from true anaphylaxis, however the immune nature of the reaction is either unknown, or not due to a type I hypersensitivity reaction

\ **immediate generalised reaction** may be a better term

■ Aetiology

1. *anaphylaxis*

- i. prior sensitisation to an antigen, either alone or in combination with a hapten
- ii. synthesis of antigen specific **IgE**, which attaches to mast cells & basophils
- iii. subsequent exposure →
 - mast cell & basophil degranulation
 - release of **histamine** + SRS-A (LT - C₄, D₄, E₄)
ECF-A, NCF
PAF, heparin

2. *anaphylactoid reactions*

- i. exposure & combination of antigen with **IgG, IgM** ± a hapten
 - ii. activation of **complement** via the classical pathway (C_{1q}, C₄, C₂)
 - iii. formation of **anaphylatoxins** - C_{3a}, C_{5a}
 - mast cell & basophil degranulation → **histamine**, SRSA, etc.
3. direct release of histamine

■ Common Antigens

1. blood & blood products
2. XRay contrast media
3. antibiotics
4. STP, muscle relaxants
5. sulphonamides

■ Presentation

NB: variable latent period, but usually within **30 minutes** of exposure

1. respiratory
 - dyspnoea, chest tightness
 - stridor, laryngeal obstruction
 - **bronchospasm** (*LTD₄)
 - raised peak P_{AW}, ↑ slope of alveolar plateau, ↓ ETCO₂
 - pulmonary oedema
2. cardiovascular
 - **hypotension**, tachycardia ± arrhythmias
 - most common and may be sole finding
 - cardiovascular "collapse"
 - pulmonary oedema is a common finding at autopsy
 - ? existence of "myocardial depressant factors"
3. cutaneous
 - erythematous blush, generalised urticaria
 - **angioedema**
 - conjunctival injection & chemosis
 - pallor & cyanosis
4. gastrointestinal
 - nausea, vomiting, abdominal cramps & diarrhoea

■ Management

NB: multiple actions simultaneously / conclude surgery / call for experienced help

1. cease administration of the likely antigen
2. maintain oxygenation
 - i. maximal O₂ via face mask
 - ii. IPPV via bag/mask
 - iii. intubate & 100% O₂ ASAP *cease anaesthetic agents
3. support circulation
 - i. CPR if no output
 - ii. **adrenaline**
 - inhibits mast cell degranulation, ↑ SVR, venous return, ↓ bronchospasm
 - hypotension: 10-50 µg boluses prn or infusion if available
 - collapse: 0.5-1.0 mg stat, then infusion
 - iii. volume expansion*"whatever is available"
 - Haemaccel, NSA-5%, CSL, N.saline
 - CVP monitoring once situation under adequate control

Haematological Considerations

4. manage **bronchospasm**
 - i. maximise FiO_2
 - ii. slow RR, high E:I ratio ventilation
 - iii. adrenaline ~ 0.5 mg IM if no access
- IV dependent upon MAP & ECG monitoring
 - iv. aerosol bronchodilators
 - v. aminophylline - additive effects with adrenaline
~ 5-6 mg/kg loading dose over 30-60
 - vi. suction ETT
 - vii. volatile agents - if isolated bronchospasm with maintenance of MAP
5. monitoring
 - i. ECG, NIBP, IABP when possible
 - ii. S_pO_2 , ETCO_2 , AGA's
 - iii. CUD, CVP ± PAOP
 - iv. transfer to ICU
6. other therapy
 - i. antihistamines - no benefit in acute episode
- H_2 blockers contraindicated acutely
- may be useful for ongoing angioedema
- require both H_1 & H_2 for prophylaxis
 - ii. sedation - if intubated & resuscitation successful
 - iii. steroids - marginal benefit in acute episode
- may be useful for ongoing bronchospasm & angioedema
- required in addition to antihistamines for prophylaxis
7. followup
 - i. blood specimen
 - **tryptase** level - released from mast-cells/basophils, stable in plasma
 - complement - levels decreased with anaphylactoid responses
 - re-type screen & cross-match if due to blood reaction
 - ii. return unused blood products to the blood bank
 - iii. intradermal **skin testing**
 - histamine releasing agents ~ 1:10,000
 - non-histamine releasing agents ~ 1:1,000
 - graded responses of limited value, use **absolute** result
 - iv. medic-alert bracelet & accompanying letter(s)

Haematology

Mechanisms of Immunological Injury		
Mechanism	Pathophysiology	Disease types
Type I <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • immediate hypersensitivity • IgE mediated 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • basophil & mast cell degranulation • histamine, SRSA, ECFA, NCF • immediated wheal & flare 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • anaphylaxis • atopy
Type II <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • cell cytotoxicity • IgG, IgM mediated 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • direct phagocytosis or cell lysis • activation of complement, classical • tissue deposition of complement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • blood transfusions • Goodpasteur's syndrome • autoimmune cytopaenias
Type III <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • immune complex • IgG, IgM, IgA mediated 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • tissue deposition of Ag-Ab complexes • accumulation of PMN's, macrophages & complement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SLE • serum sickness • necrotising vasculitis
Type IV <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • delayed hypersensitivity • T-cell mediated 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • T-cell induced mononuclear cell accumulation • release of lymphokines & monokines • often with granuloma formation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • TB, sarcoid • Wegener's granulomatosis • granulomatous vasculitis